The importance of intra-linguistic diversity in teaching Slovenian as the first language

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Abstract

In recent decades, Slovenian sociolinguistic situation and within the functions of different language varieties have dramatically changed. In spite of this process, the standard language remains a language variety that enables an individual to participate equally in educational and public life. As the Slovenian schools are not successful enough in developing of the discursive flexibility and mastering of the standard language, in the article, the functions of Standard language in modern Slovenian-speaking society is described; the specific groups of primary Slovenian language speakers are defined, and some solutions for improving the first language learning are suggested.

In 1990's, in opposite to the prevailing traditional structural language-stratification theory, the new classification of the primary sociolects, based on the English functional linguistics, by A. E. Skubic was represented. According to his theory, the sociolects are defined as non-hierarchically ordered cultivated or marginal language varieties that are used and identified with by different social groups. Based on Skubic's classification, two main groups of primary-Slovenian language speakers can be described. The speakers of the cultivated primary sociolects are mostly self-confident users of language, identifying themselves with the main culture. In opposite, the speakers of the marginal sociolects could be de-privileged due to their linguistic deficit in standard language and micro-cultural discursive patterns, used in educational or public contexts.

As it is suggested, to improve students' linguistic competence and diminish deficits, the discursive flexibility should be understood as a complex awareness, consisting of cognitive, emotional-evaluative and active dimensions. Therefore, the basic principle of first language teaching should become the extended holistic principle, emphasizing the inclusion of standard and different non-standard language varieties, observation of their different functions in specific communicative situations and reflection about the complex context, that can be implemented to first language teaching in all basic phases of learning.

Keywords: first language teaching, language varieties, discursive flexibility, holistic principle

Introduction

In recent decades, Slovenian society has been remarkably influenced by globalisation processes and migrations. Consequently, multiculturalism, tolerance, and acceptance of linguistic and cultural differences have become important aims in Slovenian school documents. On the other hand, the intra-cultural and intra-linguistic diversity has been more or less neglected, although the social and sociolinguistic situation has been dramatically changing for at least last two decades. It has been effected, not only by an increase of the so-called second-generation emigrants' society but also by the transitions between social classes, professions and living places or by the establishment of new cultural, financial, political elites etc. Therefore, beyond the traditional national identity, the individual's personal identities, formed through social interaction, have become more important. These processes have also been reflected in the attitude towards the standard Slovenian language, different non-standard varieties (Bayetto, ed., 2008) and social groups that speak a certain variety.

In spite of changed roles and relations between language varieties, the standard language is still a language variety that enables an individual to participate equally in educational, public, political and professional life (Larre, 1999, p. 18, Vogel, 2017, p. 41). And if an individual is not aware of the functions of the standard language or has not mastered the standard language to a certain level, he/she might be unaccepted, de-privileged or even stigmatised in both personal and social life. On the other hand, if he/she changes his/her primary variety, this change might be seen by other members of his/her primary social group as betrayal (Larre, 1999, p. 18).

The results of specific groups of primary-Slovenian language speakers in PISA research (Kolednik, 2010, pp. 142–148)[1] and findings on interference from students' non-standard varieties when writing graduation essays[2] have shown that Slovenian schools and especially the subject of Slovenian have not been successful enough in achieving this aim. In the article, to identify the reasons for this insufficiency and suggest some improvements in school practice, three questions will be discussed:

(1) How has the Slovenian sociolinguistic situation changed compared to the traditional description of language diversity?

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[1] Similar, Battisti et al. (2009, p. 2) emphasize, that the minority children have been over-represented among the lowest-achieving students in USA, Australia and Canada.

[2] Using non-standard elements has been continuously pointed out in annual reports of the Slovenian as first language testing committee for the General Matura.

(2) Which groups of primary-Slovenian language speakers[3] are the improvement of the discursive flexibility and knowledge of the standard language especially important to?

(3) How can the objectives, content, and methods of the subject of Slovenian be upgraded to develop the students' discursive flexibility[4] more successfully?

1. The Slovenian sociolinguistic situation

1.1 The theoretical models of language stratification in Slovenian linguistics

The prevailing language stratification theory in Slovenian linguistics, described in Grammar of the Slovenian Language (Toporišič, 2000), classifies language varieties[5] along the social and functional axes. On the social axis, varieties are divided into standard and non-standard varieties that could be geographically or interest-determined, wherein the standard language is defined as an idiom of the highest hierarchical level, attributed to have a national-representative function and considered the only appropriate variety in public and formal communication.[6] Nevertheless, since the 1990s, the communicative practice has been increasingly moving away from that traditional model. Therefore, in the early 1990s, an alternative model of language stratification by Skubic (1995, 2003, 2005) as an attempt to accord theory with language use was represented. According to the English functionalism, he defined the social varieties as the languages of different social groups (Skubic, 2003, p. 297) and classified them into primary (which means the first language variety someone has learnt) or secondary sociolects[7] (Skubic, 2005, Gee 1989) on the one hand and into cultivated (which are more similar to the standard language) or marginal sociolects (which differ significantly

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[3] In the article, the expression *primary-Slovenian language speakers is used* instead of the expression *native speakers* because it refers not only to speakers who have learnt Slovenian as their primary sociolect at home; it refers also to speakers who have learnt another language as their first language, but have also learnt their primary non-standard variety of the Slovenian language before entering school.

[4] The term discursive flexibility is used instead of the term code-switching, because, according to Gee (1989), the discourse is understood as a connection between language and culture. Further on, Larre (1999) suggested that discourse is not »simply the way of thinking but a way of »being« in a given social situation« (p. 18).

[5] The expression "variety" is used as a neutral term, related to any type of language,

[6] On the functional axis, typical discourses are classified into four language varieties: practical-communicative, publicist (media), scientific and artistic.

[7] In the article, the expressions "social variety" and "sociolect" are used synonymously, as the language variety typical of a greater or smaller social group.

from the standard language) on the other hand (Skubic, 2003, p. 298; Larre, 1999, p. 16).

While on the social axis Skubic has explicitly placed only non-standard varieties of language, the standard language was seen as a tool used by speakers in different registers and genres in institutional contexts, which constitute the functional axis, whereby it can be used either as the standard variety, related to the representative function, to the non-personality and objectiveness, or as a cultural variety, related to the national-identity or high-cultural and educational social identity function (Skubic, 2001, p. 210).

For our discussion, Skubic's classification of the primary sociolects seem to be the most important because it can be used as a starting point for identifying groups of primary-Slovenian language speakers and predicting problems they might be facing. On the other hand, Skubic has neglected the identity or social power of the standard language in non-institutional contexts as well as the role of non-standard varieties in public or formal communication. In this dimension, his theory should be supplemented by the results of empirical research undertaken in the last three years.

1.2 The users' experiences and statements

The empirical research on the students' knowledge, experience and values related to the standard language has been taken as a part of extended research on language policy and users' needs.[8] Although the sample was not relevant either according to the number of answers or in terms of the typical representatives[9], the results make it possible for us to suggest some conclusions (Vogel, 2018, pp. 80-88).

- The majority of students do not have a clear concept of the standard language. As many as 90 per cent of them did not answer the question of what standard language is, while the 10 per cent of students who gave an answer define the standard language according to the traditional theory.
- The students' experiences with the use of the standard language either as speakers or as recipients have proved that the traditional criteria for choosing the standard language, as literacy, publicity, formality, pan-nationality, are not sufficient for making appropriate and consistent decisions in different speaking situations.
- Expectations or even requirements for the use of the standard language have indicated that language functions are one of the most important criteria for

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[8] The findings and interpretations of the results are represented in Ahačič (2017.

[9] The sample has not been balanced according to primary varieties, regional distribution, types of schools.

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code-switching. As most students think a speaker should choose the standard language in public texts with pan-national importance, where the national-identity or symbolic function is stressed, in professional monologue, especially in written communication and news media reports where the representative function is emphasised, or in communication in formal institutional situations, where the social function is the most important.

Despite the limitations, the empirical research has confirmed that the standard Slovenian language has maintained its important role in modern Slovenian-language-speaking society (Larre, 2009, p. 27). Students use it to express his/her national, citizen or social identity and values, his/her specific attitude to others in both, formal as well as informal situations, or to share important, widely relevant and scientific information with them. On the other side, different social varieties are probably used to define speakers as members of certain micro-cultural groups, to express their feelings, to persuade other people belonging to the same or a different group etc. However, the answers have also shown that the central role of the standard language in schools can only be justified if students discover its importance in their individual, professional and public lives.

2. Sociolinguistic specifics of target groups

Slovenian linguistics has defined two main problems, related to the discursive flexibility in modern Slovenian society. Firstly, many speakers choose the non-standard language over the standard one in situations where the latter would be the expected and more successful variety (Kalin-Golob, 2008; Bitenc, 2016). And secondly, even if the primary-Slovenian speaker uses the standard language, interference from non-standard varieties often occurs in his/her speech. (cf. Smole 2009: 562, Tivadar and Tivadar 2015: 43–44) Nevertheless, although speakers of cultivated sociolects as well as speakers of marginal ones might be faced with both problems, the reaction of the addressee would probably differ due to the different valuation of each group of primary sociolects in the main-culture society (Bitenc 2016, pp. 80, 96).

2.1 Speakers of cultivated primary sociolects

The speakers of cultivated primary sociolects are mostly self-confident users of their primary non-standard variety, because it is linguistically closer to the standard language and because their communicative patterns are the patterns of Slovenian mainstream culture (Skubic, 2003, pp. 298–301, Makarova, 2004, p. 288).

For this group of speakers, the main problem seems to be related not to refusing the standard language but to non-distinguishing between the cultivated non-standard and the standard variety or to interference from the primary

sociolect to the standard language that speakers can either be aware of or not.[10] The awareness of interference is more often typical of speakers from non-central Slovenia, because some linguistic features of their primary sociolect clearly deviate from the standard language and because it could rarely be heard in national media or other types of public situations. They even usually define the interference or at least recognise the points where the mistakes might occur, but are not able to correct them without being supported by the first language learning at school.[11] Conversely, by the speakers of central-Slovenian cultivated sociolects, interferences may arise due to equalisation of their primary variety with the standard one, often derived from the experience of using their primary language variety not only in public discourse (in entertainment events or TV shows) but also at school. Consequently, in spite of learning the standard language grammar, orthography, pronunciation, and vocabulary, many students do not manage to transfer their knowledge out of Slovenian-language lessons.[12]

The use of the cultivated non-standard varieties instead of the standard language also has its emotional dimension, related to the identity and social functions, that is often neglected. The non-central cultivated varieties, when the standard language should be an appropriate variety, may be seen as a humorous element or as an intentional or unintentional expression of a speaker's regional identity, which can be similar or different from that of the addressee. Therefore, they can be received with a greater or lesser degree of sympathy, and especially among speakers from central Slovenia, even with mockery and disparagement. As opposed to this, the speakers of cultivated and marginal primary varieties from non-central Slovenia often consider the use of central-Slovenian cultivated primary sociolects instead of the standard language as ignorant and sublime and consequently, the speaker and his message may be rejected.

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[10] Larre (1999, p. 14) has suggested that even in English, it is important to notice that everybody speaks a dialect.

[11] The denial of these problems at school has sometimes led to so-called miscorrections and hyper-correction or to insufficient self-esteem in using the standard language. Hyper-correction has been noticed especially within pronunciation (for example in the case of vowels) and some grammatical features (using the general conjugation even when conjugating irregular verbs etc.).

[12] To a certain extent, equalisation of the standard and the Ljubljana region variety can also occur in linguistics. Cazinkić (2001), for example, said that "the Ljubljana speech differs from the literary language more or less only because of the so-called modern vowel-reduction" (p. 27).

2.2   The speakers of marginal primary sociolects

In Slovenian society, in spite of being faced with a similar kind of linguistic problems when learning the standard language, the general attitude towards marginal primary sociolects differs from mostly positive to negative or even underestimating. According to Skubic (2003, pp. 301–302), Bitenc (2016, p. 96), and Smole (2009, p. 561), the rural sociolects are relatively favourably valued because they are "connected to common sense simplicity and non-corruption". Attitudes towards the urban marginal sociolects are more negative because "they do not have their romantic rusticality" (Skubic, 2003, pp. 301–302) and are at the same time seen as an expression of an under-average level of economic and intellectual power. Finally, the immigrants' marginal sociolects are valued the lowest, they are "a stigma, often ridiculed, and mark their speakers as foreigners in the community" (Skubic, 2003, pp. 301–302).

Speakers of all three groups have specific problems in both, the linguistic and the cultural domain. In the linguistic sense, their vocabulary and grammar differ from the standard ones. The dialects are marked with the specific words, morphological or syntactic forms and regionally typical pronunciation. Along with some dialectic grammar features, in urban marginal varieties there are more vulgar or inappropriate expressions and a lack of politeness. In immigrant varieties, in addition to the specific of other marginal sociolects, in all areas of grammar, emerge interferences from the first language of the speakers' parents or grandparents, which could be the object of ridicule or disparagement. In the socio-cultural sense, the speakers of marginal sociolects, when entering school, are de-privileged due to the communicative and cultural deficit rooting in their micro-culture (Campbell, 2011, p. 85).[13]

Although it is essential for these groups of speakers to improve their opportunities to keep up with their schoolmates, the importance of compensating their linguistic and discursive deficit has been underestimated or even overlooked for long a time until now. The consequences of this are treble (Larre, 1999, pp. 20–21):

Firstly, the linguistic deficit in the standard language affects a student's ability to comprehend, speak and write in the standard language, which is necessary for academic success at school in all academic areas.

Secondly, for teachers, the speakers of the non-cultivated varieties may have been viewed as being less intelligent or less motivated, as well as more primitive

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[13] Their cultural background depends on the rural, urban or immigrant micro-culture, but it is at same time often remarkably characterised by social deprivation. It is more probable that these children live in poverty and that their parents have only primary or vocational education, (Bayetto et al., 2008, p. 10) which means that their ability to support children to overcome learning or behavioural problems is very limited (Larre, 1999).

or rude. They are often corrected not because of insufficient knowledge but because of using a non-standard variety or non-cultivated discursive elements. A repeated experience of failure may even lower the student's own academic expectations and deter his effort to gain fluency in the standard language, which would be necessary to prevent him/her being discriminated in adulthood.

Finally, by many speakers of so-called marginal sociolects, the standard language is understood as a primary variety, spoken by educated people and members of the upper classes, the social group they do not belong in and cannot be identified with. It means that the standard language is seen as a competitive variety to their primary sociolect rather than as a specific language variety, used in complex speaking situations (Battisti et al., 2009, p. 2). Consequently, if the school requires them to make a non-critical change from their primary variety to the standard language in every speaking situation, while speakers of cultivated sociolects are not expected to do the same, it may also be interpreted as a request to decline the values, history, culture and identity associated with the speaker's primary social group.[14]

3. Developing critical discursive flexibility in the subject of Slovenian as the first language

According to researches, within which the opinions on and beliefs about the relationship between standard and non-standard varieties have been considered (Tivadar & Tivadar, 2015; Smolej, 2016; Bitenc, 2016; Kenda Jež, 2015; Smole, 2009; Skubic, 2003, 2005; Kalin Golob, 2008), some typical attitudes to the standard language and its relationship with non-standard varieties can be recognised. By some speakers,[15] the standard language is still accepted as the most valued and hierarchically highest variety, with no regard to the specific circumstances. As a reaction to this exclusive status, some groups of speakers have developed a general non-acceptance of the standard language, even if its use would be the most appropriate variety. Apart from these extreme attitudes, there can be recognised at least two levels of conscious language-variety switching. On the first level, speakers are sensitive to language diversity, but their switching is mostly non-reflected, accorded to the communicative patterns that have been accepted in the process of language acquisition, including interferences and misuse of the

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[14] Fishman (2007, p. 21) in his paper titled "What do you lose when you lose your language?" suggests "you are losing all those things that essentially are the way of life, the way of thinking, the way of valuing, and the human reality that you are talking about".

[15] An uncritically positive attitude to standard language is, according to Skubic (2003, p. 298), typical for newcomers to the higher social class and—to a certain extent—for all members of the middle class. And, on the other hand, for teachers of the Slovenian language and some profiles of higher-educated people (Ahačič et al., 2017).

primary variety thought to be the standard one. On the second level, the use of varieties is based on knowledge about language diversity and linguistic differences between primary and standard varieties and the critical awareness of the circumstances, purposes, cultural and social contexts, stylistic effects and ethical responsibility.

3.1 The understanding of the discursive flexibility

Although there are numerous reasons for mostly non-critical attitude towards language diversity, the teaching of Slovenian as first language has significant contributed to it. The analyses of the current curriculum have shown (Vogel, 2017a, 2017b) that in the Slovenian language learning the traditional schematic and hierarchical ordered language stratification is still prevailing, though it is often inconsistent with students' out-of-school communicative experience.[16] Therefore, to make a step from the mostly uncritical to the mostly critical awareness of language diversity[17] the quality and the quantity of experiences should have to be increased. The quality would be improved if the understanding of the discursive flexibility would be upgraded from the theoretical knowledge or schematic switching between different social varieties to complex awareness (Vogel, 2015, pp. 38-39; Smolej, 2016, p. 465; Bitenc, 2016, pp. 39-41), consisting of three main dimensions:

(1) The cognitive dimension includes knowledge, understanding and experience regarding

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[16] Analysis has revealed some inconsistencies between the general aims and their analytical operationalisation. In the general aims, the importance of interrelated developing of the critical communicative competence, language awareness and linguistic cultural awareness as the essential elements of first language learning is emphasised, which also presupposes the observation, reflection and evaluation of different language varieties and their functions in authentic communicative situations. In the opposite case, the precisely defined objectives, content and the recommended method are rooted in the traditional language stratification theory, supporting the exclusive status of standard language. Because the learning units are usually based on the precisely defined analytical operationalisation, the traditional schematic and hierarchically ordered language stratification is still prevailing, though it is often inconsistent with students' out-of-school communicative experience (Vogel, 2018).

[17] This aim would be achieved when the students were able to choose an expected language variety in the particular cultural and social contexts or to decline it, whereby their positive or negative decisions should be based on critical reflection on the relationship between the chosen variety and (micro-)culture it belongs in, on the prevailing language functions in a speaking situation, on the awareness of the possible consequences and of their own responsibility for them.

- different language varieties and their functions in personal, professional and public life,
- understanding every language variety as a system different from the standard one (Larre, 1999, p. 17),
- existing rules of the standard language system (Krapš Vodopivec, 2010, pp. 245-246) and their function in achieving informational preciseness or objectiveness,
- synonymous linguistic elements, their rhetoric value and connotative meanings as well as their function in building social relations, either according to established cultural schemas or not.

(2) The emotional-evaluative dimension concern:
- the general emotional attitude towards the standard language and non-standard varieties, especially the primary sociolect;
- attitudes towards specific rules and elements, typical of the standard language (or other varieties);[18]
- beliefs and opinions, related to objective vs. subjective discourse in different situations, including conscious use of interferences from different social varieties, discourses, genres.

(3) The active dimension can be understood as a willingness to act according to someone's knowledge, reflected experiences, values, attitudes and states.

As along with quality the basic condition for developing competence and awareness is quantity of experience, the students should be continuously encouraged to reflect on discursive practice.

3.2 The holistic approach

Since the 1990s, the so-called holistic principle has been established as the basic principle of teaching Slovenian as the first language (Križaj Ortar & Bešter, 1995; Vogel, 2017c). For almost two decades, it has concerned three aspects: diversity of texts in different genres, balancing of the communicative skills, and developing all components of the functional communicative competence (motivation, cognitive, pragmatic, linguistic and metalinguistic competence). If focusing on these three domains was sufficient in the 1990s, when the functional communicative competence was declared as the main goal of language learning,

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[18] For example, the dual, the use of genitive, gender-sensitive use of language, use of the plural or singular form for addressing an individual etc.

today's situation requires the extended understanding of the holistic principle at least in the following dimensions.[19]

3.2.1 Intra-lingusitic diversity in teaching the first language

The exclusivity of the standard language does not lead to a majority critical discursive flexibility. To achieve this, students should be given an opportunity to compare their attitudes to different varieties, observe the different functions that a certain variety in the current situation contributes to, the effects and consequences of the chosen variety and linguistic features, giving listeners a cue to interpret who the speaker is as well as how he/her perceives the topic, the circumstances, him- or herself and the addressee. Non-hierarchical presentation of language varieties, whereby the language functions are emphasised, would strengthen the students' willingness to use the standard language when it is the most effective variety and to become proud speakers of their primary sociolects. Furthermore, by comparative analysis, the awareness of the standard language as specific language variety, which has to be learnt by almost all speakers, will be raised. And finally, comparing different language varieties is no less important for improving the students' use of the standard language, because, as Vera Smole stated (2009, p. 559), the poor knowledge of the standard language often is derived from the student's ignorance about the linguistic differences between his/her primary and standard language varieties, which does not result in discourse switching, but in unintended mixing of different language varieties instead (Campbell, 2011, p. 92).

3.2.2 Different language functions in the personal, public and professional domain

According to the functional theory (cf. Jakobson, 1996; Halliday, 1986; Škiljan, 1999), language has at least three main functions: informative or representative, social or interpersonal, and an identity or expressive function.[20] In the first one, the standard language acts as the most neutral, non-personal, objective precise language variety; in modern Slovenian society, that function seemed to be important especially in news media or science texts and in legal and official texts with dominant performative function (Skubic, 2001, p. 223; Vogel, 2017b, pp. 12–13). The social function of standard language is often exposed in formal interaction, expressing the non-personal relationship between interlocutors or

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[19] In the article, we have been concerned with the holistic approach in relation to language diversity and developing of discursive flexibility.

[20] Those three functions are often also exposed in researching a pedagogical discourse (Kunst Gnamuš, 1992).

unequal status in the institutional hierarchy, as well as in the informal interaction, expressing the speaker's higher education and his/her belonging in non-marginal society (Skubic, 2001, pp. 212, 218-219; Vogel, 2017b, pp. 12-13; Bitenc, 2016, p. 50; Ahačič et al., 2018) or being used as a tool for increasing the distance. In the identity function, the standard language acts as a prestigious, high-cultural language form, representing whole national community.

In situations where representative function is emphasised, even today, the use of the standard language as well as the importance of grammatical rules, correct orthography and pronunciation can be clearly explained. Conversely, if we quote Bitenc (2016), in identity- or socially-focused situations the standard language has to compete with other individuals' sociolects and the choice of it depends on the given social status and role. Therefore, when students compare primary and standard language it is not enough to be focused on the linguistic analyses; it is equally important to reflect their different functions, effects and consequences. (Battisti et al., 2009, p. 2).

3.2.3 Complexity of communicative context

A person's linguistic activity and his/her identification through language are inseparably interconnected (Vogel, 2015, Bergoč, 2010, Škiljan, 1999, Kramsch, 2003, Larre, 1999). Therefore, the learning content has to be contextualised not only in the current physical circumstances but also in the socio-cultural and intrapersonal or psychological context.[21]

Physical context, which may include time, place, a typical reason for the communication and the schematic statuses of the interlocutors, can be defined as a cue that enables a person to recognise an acquired pattern of interaction and an expected type of discourse (Lemke, 2003, p. 71). Nevertheless, the choice of a certain variety does not necessarily depend on a mutual, systemically regulated relationship between types of discourse, words and language forms. A speaker can violate cultural conventions despite having knowledge of them (Ule Nastran, 2005, p. 74), because his/her choice is strongly influenced by his/her personal acceptance or refusal of traditional main-cultural patterns, actually against the identity he/she is expected to take over. To understand how cognitive and affective dimensions of communication and social knowledge influence the choice of a variety, it has to be observed in an authentic situation in which the students are actively engaged. As Larre (1999, p. 15) pointed out, language, culture and

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[21] Our considerations are based on the three aspects of the relationship between language and culture, which were identified from the aspect of foreign language didactics by Risager (2006, in: Byram, 2012, p. 6): sociological, psychological and linguistic.

cognition are interrelated and overlapping and it is difficult to discuss any of the three concepts in isolation.

4 Conclusion or suggestions for school practice

Language, culture and communication are interrelated and influence each other and, in first-language teaching, they can't be developed separately. A more complex understanding of the holistic principle allows more activities for developing critical discursive flexibility to be included in all basic phases of learning. In the preparation phase, [22] the students have to personally experience the insufficiency of their non-standard variety within a specific speaking situation. To create such situations in the classroom, the teacher has to guide students to define a communicative problem that has to be solved, to reflect the physical as well as the socio-cultural and personal context, and to think about possible ways to solve it. Only if they understand the speaker's role and status in a specific situation, will they become truly motivated to pay attention to, observe, discuss and assess someone's or their own language behaviour and to change it.

In the representing phase, the cultural norms lying behind the established communicative schemas should be recognised or discussed. These norms are not explicitly formulated and are mostly acquired and followed spontaneously (Ule Nastran, 2005, pp. 157-160); therefore, students should ask themselves the questions of who the speaker is and which social role he/she holds, what values and views he/she advocates, what assumptions he/she bases his/her speech on, and how all these relate to his/her choice of the (non-) standard language variety. In addition, the student's attention has to be drawn to the linguistic differences between his/her primary sociolect and the standard language. The students should observe, describe and define the linguistic items and forms of both varieties, put them into the system and master the so-called problematic linguistic elements of the standard language in appropriate contexts (Campbell, 2011, p. 93, Bayetto, 2008, p. 27).

Finally, the process of developing critical discursive flexibility has to be focused on the active dimension. How students would probably act in the real world, can be only predicted if they are given a challenge to use their knowledge and skills, regarding their reflected opinions and attitudes, in a creative way. While preparing lessons, the teacher has to plan not only the practice phase but also the performance phase (for example complex role-play, the writing of public essays, leading and joining the debate, project work), which require the use of factual,

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[22] The motivation for learning the standard language, when students already speak the primary non-standard variety, which seems to be sufficient for them to successfully communicate with other members of Slovenian-speaking society, is sometimes hard to achieve.

conceptual, procedural and metacognitive knowledge on the highest cognitive levels. [23]

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[23] According to the revised Bloom's taxonomy, the creation is defined as the highest cognitive level (cf. Anderson & Krathwohl, 2016).

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CLIL: Conceptual differences in teaching "realia" to philological and non-philological students

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Abstract:
In Slovakia, modern Cultural Studies of English-speaking countries have been integrated into university curricula since the 1990s. However, there is a fundamental difference in the role CLIL plays in teaching "realia" (alternatively: cultural studies, country studies and area studies) for philological students and for business students of non-philological faculties. While philological students study realia with primary linguistic and cultural goals (i.e. to learn new words, terminology, context and comparative cultural aspects), non-philological students' goals are business oriented (i.e. allow a successful graduate to function effectively in a new business environment). That affects the methodology, teaching procedure and assessment of both disciplines in debate.
Keywords: CLIL, cultural studies, hard CLIL, intercultural competence, soft CLIL

Introduction

The period of 1990s up to present covers almost thirty-year span when many academic subjects taught at Slovak universities underwent the process of complex transformation. Legislative changes included the adoption of the European Credit Transfer System in 2001, formal alternations resulted in the switch from teacher-centred education to student-centred computer-supported courses and content-related transformations frequently resulted in upgrades of traditional teaching contents and adoption of the CLIL method.

The focus of this theoretical-explorative study is the subject of Cultural Studies (with specific references to American Studies) and the different roles language and content play in teaching Cultural Studies to philological and non-philological students (the term "philological institutions" refer to Slovak universities offering teacher-training and translation-interpreting programmes. Non-philological institutions relate to Faculties of Economics, offering programmes in management, business, tourism and other areas of economic disciplines). The study will also explore how the proportional use of language and content translates into the application of the CLIL method.

Methodologically, the study is complemented by a qualitative analysis of 11 oral interviews with in-service teachers of Cultural Studies at the Philosophical faculty and Faculty of Economics (Department of English and American Studies and Department of Professional Communication in Business) at Matej Bel University (MBU). In this study, we defend the argument that modern Cultural Studies at both philological and non-philological institutions in Slovakia use CLIL as a dominant method; however, there are fundamental conceptual differences between the methods of CLIL application to the teaching practice, mostly lying in the proportion of the cultural component.

1 Teaching "realia": transformation from informative to instrumental nature

"Realia" (alternatively also as area or country studies and rarely *Lebenskunde*) is a term widely used in East-European (mostly former socialist-bloc) countries to denominate subjects known in Anglo-Saxon cultures as "Cultural Studies". This form of rather sociologically bound Cultural Studies emerged in the western world in the 1960s and primarily focused on interpretation of new social and political phenomena including the Cold War, rise of Communism, technological advances, immigration and spread of multiculturalism, etc.

In former Czechoslovakia during the pre-internet era (i.e. prior to the 1990s), "realia" at philological faculties were usually a part of history courses of the target country (mostly Great Britain and the USA). These courses presented what was believed to be the "high culture" of the target country; an assumption based on the fact that the study of culture was originally part of the study of literature (Kačmárová, 2012; Badinská, 2011).

At the beginning of the new millennium, there emerged voices (Chenetier, 2008) across the world calling for reconsidering the traditional contents of Cultural Studies. Recently, many opinion-shapers tried to redefine the post-2000 nature of Cultural Studies. They generally agreed on the instrumental and interpretative nature of the corpus of information and skills presented in Cultural Studies. For example, Hall defined the nature of modern Cultural Studies as "a discursive formation, that is, 'a cluster' (or formation) of ideas, images and practices, which provide ways of talking about, forms of knowledge and conduct associated with, a particular topic, social activity or institutional site in society" (Hall, 1997, p. 6). Bennett defined Cultural Studies as "concerned with those practices, institutions and systems of classification through which there are inculcated in population particular values, beliefs competencies, routines of life and habitual forms of conduct" (Bennett, 1998, p. 28). Finally, Barker viewed post-2000 Cultural Studies as "a discursive formation [...] constituted by a *regulated* way of speaking about objects (which brings into view) and coheres around key concepts, ideas and concerns" (Barker, 2000, p. 5).

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The method of acquiring knowledge in Cultural Studies has also been subject to transformation. Byram (1989 p. 48) believes that the study and acquisition of culture includes information gathered **consciously** (by learning, practicing), but also **subconsciously** (by experience and imitating). Byram further writes that mastering culture reaches "from the commonest greetings through use of public services [...] non-verbal behaviour, and the expectations of conversation turn-taking, rules of politeness and the maxims of normal communication", and is as significant for successful communication as the native speakers' conscious knowledge (historical, geographical, sociological, etc.) about their society along with linguistic knowledge. The aforementioned cultural contents are wrapped up under an umbrella term, "minimal content" (1989 p. 48) which should be mastered by anybody who wishes to be knowledgeable about the culture of the target country and function in it smoothly.

1.1 Empirical qualitative research: oral interviews

To compare the theoretical discourse on the nature of modern Cultural Studies, in 2018-2019, we interviewed 11 national and international university instructors of Cultural Studies and presented their opinions on the proportion of language and content in Table 1.

Table 1 demonstrates two significant phenomena: first, both instructors at philological faculties (respondents 1-5 and 9-11) prefer the modern-style complex, holistic and integrative education to information-based that dominated East-European regions prior to the 1990s. Secondly, there is the difference between the approach of teachers of philological and non-philological disciplines: several teachers of philological disciplines (respondents 1-5 and 9-11) stressed the transformable and changeable nature of Cultural Studies. For example, respondent 4 (R4) mentioned the *amorphous, shape-shifting subject* of Cultural Studies. They further suggested teaching about attitudes, values, i.e. about more abstract reflections of material world and its economic and political situation (respondent 1 mentions successful graduate who is capable to function as a *primary inter-mediary* of culture; respondents 2 and 3 both mention teaching *topics* that help students to get organized within the new culture). Further, respondents suggest teaching methods that secure the end-users of the course ways and procedures leading to better interpretation of the world.

Instructors and non-philological institutions (respondents 3, 4 and 5) stressed more pragmatic model of focus on more material and less abstract issues, such as comparative analysis of various social, political and above all economic systems and institutions. Each of the respondents, in their own words mentioned teaching *comparative* aspect of Cultural Studies; however, the comparison relied to a wider spectrum of cultural phenomena as the target culture is not only

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represented by the English-world but by a variety of world cultures that enter business life in general.

Tab. 1: Interviews with national and international instructors of Cultural Studies

Respondent no.	Status	Lang. of instruction, proportion of English	Target students	Primary focus of Cultural Studies courses
1	American lecturer	English, 100%	*	[…to] prepare teachers, translators and interpreters of English to serve as the **primary inter-mediaries** between Anglophone cultures and their local culture.
2	Slovak instructor	English, 95%	*	...to teach **issues related to sociology**…
3	English instructor	English, 100%	*	...to develop the **themes** of strong regional culture and anti-globalisation from this, and it all tied in not only with geography but also with the British history course too.
4	American lecturer	English, 100%	*	…in general, I have thought that my approach relied too heavily on chronology, emphasizing the basis in American history for the subject matter. I would shift the emphasis to Robertson's "myth" away from "reality." I would try to focus on contemporary (always-changing) attitudes & values as we see them manifested in the daily news. For a course in Slovakia, I would try to make meaningful **comparisons** with issues there and in world events. For me, I do not recommend a one-curriculum-fits-all approach for such an amorphous, shape-shifting subject as American Studies. It depends very much on the teacher.
5	Slovak instructor	English, 95%	*	**Comparison** of two systems
6	Slovak instructor of BE	English, 95%	**	**Comparison** of two systems
7	Slovak instructor of BE	German-Russian, 95%	**	**Comparison** of two systems and "all that refers to them"
8	Slovak instructor of BE	English, 95%	**	…teaching **intercultural competence** and special language for economic disciplines integrating **linguistic and cultural component**…
9	Russian instructor of US Studies	English, 95%	*	…teaching **both language and culture**…
10	Russian instructor of US Studies	English, 95%	*	Teaching **language, culture and comparative studies** with one's own culture…
11	Polish instructor of US and British Studies	English, 95%	*	Educating a "Renaissance man", i.e. a student **knowledgeable** in all areas of daily life in the new culture…

Icons:

* Future primary and sec. teachers of English and future translators to and from English.

** Students of non-philological disciplines (e.g. management, tourism, etc.) at Economic faculty.

1.2 Teaching "realia" to philological and non-philological students

New approaches to teaching modern Cultural Studies result in innovated teaching practice for both philological and non-philological students. In order to integrated Byram's, Bennet's, Barker's and Hall's concept of instrumental Cultural Studies, providing philological students with information and instruments interpret a wide spectrum of historical, political, legal, economic and cultural phenomena of the target culture, "realia" courses (e.g. courses of American Studies), a special syllabus was developed by a team of experts at Matej Bel University (MBU). Table 2 presents topics, activities and methods used to teach Cutlrual Studies to future teachers and translators.

The teaching contents of the aforementioned course thus provide students with:

- **Linguistic corpus** (translations of relevant terminology, comparative analysis of translation equivalents and substitutions, communicative skills that enable Students to describe and discuss issues in debate).
- **Information corpus:** minimal content (understanding terminology and mechanisms of functioning most relevant institutions).
- **Corpus of research methods:** retrieving and evaluating sources, analytical methods: discourse analysis (including a variety of media such as text, music, film and fine arts); comparative methods (comparison of political documents, etc.), synthesis of various sources, developing critical thinking.
- **Corpus of intercultural competences:** how to cross cultures and function in a culturally different environment, e.g. school or interpreting-related situations, how to become a mediator of cultures.

Courses of Cultural Studies at non-philological faculties also reflect the recent theoretical findings and orientate towards practical functioning in a new business culture. As a case study, the lesson plan of an academic subject English for Tourism is being analysed for the purposes of comparative analysis:

Study program (Infolist, 2019) consists of courses faculty, academic discipline, curriculum and compulsory elective and optional subjects in the range of 120 credits. The student has a possibility to obtain the knowledge from Microeconomy and Macroeconomy in English or Slovak language. The topics of the course include:

Tab. 2: US Studies course at MBU: Topics, activities and methods

Topic(s) of lectures /12 weeks & Methods	Seminars: Activities
1.Presentation: Introduction to American Studies; American regions and territories	Geographical overview of the USA: Regional names and nicknames: State Nicknames and Stories behind them
2.Presentation: Regional varieties; American Beliefs and Values; Regionalism vs. Americanisation	American dialects: New England vs. the South (Video: Varieties of American English)
3-4.Panel discussion: The Making of a Nation;	Video analysis: "America" (Musical *West Side Story*); Video analysis: accent discrimination
American Life and Institutions: the Political System	Discourse analysis: Bush's, Obama's and Trump's inaugural addresses
5-6.Presentation: The Principles of US government; Checks and balances; Political parties; Presidential elections	Analysis of political discourses: Comparison of Democratic and Republican political platforms
7.Presentation: Law Crime and Justice	Video analysis: 2nd Amendment; "Falling Down"
8.Presentation: The U.S. Economy	Video analysis: social work agencies, social security
9.Presentation: Education	Video analysis: High – school drop-ins Controlled debate: Separation of church and state politics: Slovakia vs. the USA
10.Presentation: The Media	Workshop: the US press
11-12.Presentation: The Arts	American Fine Arts (virtual exhibition) identify some American beliefs in the works of Sergeant, Warhol, Pollock, etc.

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Table 3: English for Tourism for non-philological students at MBU: topics, activities and methods

Topic(s) of lectures and seminars /12 weeks & Methods
1 Presentation and discussion: Economy of Tourism
2 Presentation and discussion: Controlling of Tourism Organizations
3 Panel discussion: Manager's Communication in Tourism
4 Presentation and discussion: Quality Management and Customer Relations in Tourism
5 Presentation and discussion: Project Management in Tourism
6 Presentation and workshop: Information Systems in Tourism
7 Presentation and discussion: Changes in Marketing and Tourism
8 Presentation and discussion, in-class activities, role play: Intercultural Communication in Tourism
9 Presentation and discussion: Intercultural Relations in the Tourism Practice, International Tourism Marketing
10 Presentation and discussion: Business Negotiation
11 Presentation and discussion: Culture of English speaking countries
12 Presentation and discussion; in-class activities: Case Studies of Intercultural Communication in Tourism

Compared to the Cultural Studies at philological institutions, the differences in goals and contents are obvious. Students are in a more business and tourism focused way provided with:

- **Linguistic corpus** (translations of relevant terminology, comparative analysis of translation equivalents and substitutions, communicative skills that enable students to describe and discuss issues in debate, e.g. *half-board, full-board*).
- **Information corpus:** minimal content (understanding terminology and mechanisms of functioning most relevant economic mechanisms in tourism, e.g. *business negotiations; organizations for tourism, etc.*).
- **Corpus of case studies:** introducing the most illustrative cross-cultural situations, problem solving.
- **Corpus of intercultural competences:** how to cross cultures and function in a culturally different environment, e.g. school or interpreting-related situations, how to become a mediator of cultures (e.g. *how to address an English-speaking businessperson from the Far East*).

Thus, the instrumental nature of Cultural Studies presented to philological and no-philological remains similar, whereas the main difference lies in the proportion of cultural component and the main educational focus of the lesson. In the composition of the aforementioned courses, we may see the reflection of the recent research in the field of Cultural Studies. Such substantial revisions of teaching contents of Cultural Studies (in the past understood mostly as a presentation of the sum of information about the target country) inevitably require changes in the methods of teaching. That, however, raises a previously unanswered question about the role, significance and proportion of language and content (in other words, application of the CLIL method) in modern Cultural Studies at two types of academic institutions in Slovakia.

2 CLIL and its role in teaching Cultural Studies

CLIL, according to its founders, "…is a dual-focused educational approach in which an additional language is used for the learning and teaching of both content and language" (Mehisto, Marsh & Frigols, p. 9). Most authors (Šmídová, Tejkalová & Vojtková, 2012; Dalton-Puffer, 2007) agree that CLIL is executed in the form of connecting non-linguistic subject (e.g. sciences) with a linguistic one (e.g. English language) in order to share learning contents and communication. Such understanding of CLIL is applicable to a wide variety of subjects, including not only sciences but also arts and specifically also to Cultural Studies.

CLIL methodology affects the role and use of in-class language. Foreign language serves as an instrument (Menzlová, Farkašová & Pokrivčáková, 2008), not as a traditional goal of teaching. Moreover, language in a CLIL class should be acquired or activated unconsciously (Gondová, 2013); in this, the CLIL class differs from traditional formal language teaching.

Gondová (2013) further distinguishes between two forms of CLIL – **soft CLIL** (carried out in language classes and taught by a language teacher) and **hard CLIL** (carried out in specialised classes, e.g. science classes; taught by teacher of sciences in English; foreign language exposition is minimum 50%). Pokrivčáková (2012) recognizes other types of CLIL taxonomy distinguished on the basis of language exposition. The **additive type** of CLIL (with low exposition of foreign language – 5-15% of the total class-time and medium exposition – 15-50%) differs from the **immersive type** (with high exposition – 50-100% of the total class-time).

Aims of the CLIL class also vary from the traditional language teaching. Gondová (2012) redefines the traditional aims as "**dual**" – linguistic and subject-related aims, which however are given priority. Linguistic aims focus on acquiring the linguistic competence in foreign language; however, they are determined by the subject-related aims. Coyle (2007) developed a cohesive conceptual tool for CLIL – four general parameters, "4Cs" – content, communication, culture and cognition. Figure 1 presents Coyle's framework for CLIL.
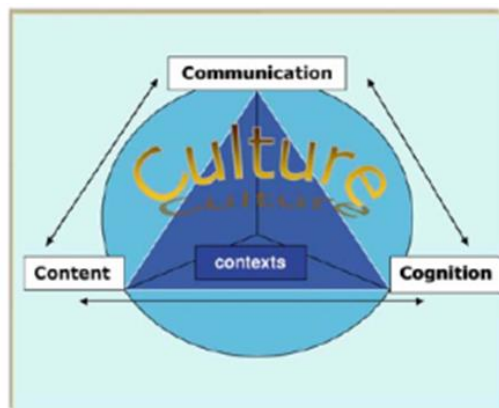
Fig. 1: Coyle's framework for CLIL (Coyle, 2019)

Gierlinger (2014) illustratively explicated Coyle's framework for CLIL as follows: [CLIL] "…starts with **content** (such as subject matter, themes, cross-curricular approaches); "subject matter is not only about acquiring knowledge and skills, it is about the learner constructing his/her own knowledge and developing skills" (Lantolf, 2000; Vygotsky,1978).

Cognition, i.e. thinking process, is "related to learning and thinking". Met (1998) believes that to enable the learner to construct an understanding of the subject matter, the linguistic demands of its content must be analysed and made accessible.

Communication relates to the roles of language. Experts (Krashen, 1985; Swain, 2000) agree, "Language needs to be learned in **context**, learning through the language, reconstructing the subject themes and their related cognitive processes e.g. language intake/output. Van Lier (1996) further states, "Interaction in the learning context is fundamental to learning. This has implications when the learning context operates through L2".

Connectivity is the navigational idea of the 4Cs paradigm: Gierlinger stresses the tight interrelationship between content (subject matter), communication (language), cognition (thinking) and culture (awareness of self and 'otherness') to build on the synergies of integrating learning (content and cognition) and language learning (communication and cultures). It unites learning theories, language learning theories and intercultural understanding" (Gierlinger, 2014). Byram, Nicols and Stevens have reached a similar standpoint in the 2001: "The

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relationship between cultures and languages is complex. Intercultural awareness and learning is fundamental to CLIL." (Byram, Nicols & Stevens, 2001).

Gierlinger (2014) concludes his observations on the interrelation of the 4Cs: "…it is through progression in knowledge, skills and understanding of the subject matter, engagement in associated cognitive processing, interaction in a communicative context, developing appropriate language knowledge and skills as well as acquiring a deepening intercultural awareness through the positioning of self and 'otherness', that effective CLIL takes place… […]. From this perspective, CLIL involves learning to use language appropriately whilst using language to learn effectively. The 4Cs Framework is a tool for mapping out CLIL activities and for maximising potential in any model, at any level and any age."

3 The significance of contents, methods, language, and their integration into soft and hard CLIL classes

In this part, we would like to compare two different CLIL classes (Cultural Studies for philological and non-philological students). However, as a referential point, we also take a "typical" CLIL class oriented on sciences. Mehisto, Marsch and Frigols in their handbook *Uncovering CLIL* (2008) introduce several cross-curricular CLIL lesson plans focused on sciences (e.g. geography).

If we take the most common CLIL classes presenting geographical contents (e.g. tectonic plates and volcano eruptions; Mehisto, Marsh & Frigols, pp. 52-71) for the starting point of our research, several summative observations occur. Generally, science-related type of lessons may generally represent both soft CLIL (the classes are performed by an English teacher and the use one's mother tongue is acceptable up to 50%) or, alternatively, hard CLIL (taught by a science teacher with high exposition to the target language). Regarding Coyle's 4Cs model, in similar science class, students are exposed to presentations of:

- **content** (principle of the shift of tectonic plates and volcano eruptions, e.g. *formation of viscous lava, cinder volcanoes, shield volcanoes and composite volcanoes*)
- **communication** (vocabulary and structures necessary to describe the processes; e.g. *formation of the planet sea floor and land mass as a result of the flow of molten rock*)
- **cognition** (general awareness of the issue and danger of volcano eruptions in the Pacific Ocean and the Ring of Fire zone)
- **culture** (impact of volcano eruptions and shifts of tectonic plates on the infrastructure, life and people of the specific region).

However, the cultural component in this type of class is only information-bound, not behavioural or bound to ones' functioning within a new culture. We will explore this phenomenon further in the Discussion.

Now let us compare the CLIL class with geographical content to the teaching modern Cultural Studies at philological faculties (focused on acquiring complex, holistic intercultural competence and awareness) and non-philological faculties (focused on gaining complex intercultural competence in business and tourism). Unlike the geography-related class, the process of teaching Cultural Studies contents proportionally balances all four components of Coyle's triangular model. Organisationally, the "hard" additive CLIL with 100% exposition to the foreign language occurs and the students are exposed to the presentation of:

- **content** (information and linguistic corpus related e.g. to the US regions and historical and cultural roots, e.g. migration patterns and ethnic composition of the region for the "mentality" of regions)
- **communication** (linguistic corpus, i.e. grammatical structures and expressions related to the topic of settlement and migration, e.g. *to settle down, to migrate, to serve indentured servitude, to seek asylum*, etc.)
- **culture** (intercultural competencies, e.g. the difference between "boat people", displaced people, refugees focused on political and religious reasons for them to leave their mother country. Students also learn differences between world religions and their own; how to deal with a different visible or invisible minorities)
- **cognition** (mastering content, communication and culture ensures a complex, holistic understanding and orientation in a multicultural situation, either at school, life-situations and future profession).

When comparing such complex concept of modern Cultural Studies for philological students to teaching geography-focused CLIL class, several formal and conceptual differences occur, mostly relying to the presentation of cultural component not as merely information-bound, but as related to day-to-day life situations, such as dealing with foreigners either in class or in interpreting. Therefore, in response to the issue of modern Cultural Studies and the role of CLIL in these, in 1997 Hallet (1998, p. 2) developed a model of integration of CLIL into modern Cultural Studies. Figure 2 presents Hallet's model entitled "Bilingual Triangle" of acquiring intercultural competence in bilingual education, thematically focused on migration.

In formation of his educational paradigm, Hallet took into consideration three factors:

- **facts and phenomena about one's own country and culture** (L1 culture – pupils have to know their own country and culture in order to understand foreign cultures, e.g. history of migration into and immigration out of their mother country),
- **facts and phenomena about the target language country** (L2 – pupils should be taught about different cultural aspects of the target language culture

with regard to other perspectives offered on historical, present as well as future matters; e.g. migration patterns related to the L2 country) and

- **culturally dependent, intercultural and global phenomena and facts (intercommunity)**. This means that students have to concern themselves with culturally independent, cross-cultural and universal aspects in a globalized world, comparing similarities as well as differences. Specifically, in teaching modern Cultural Studies, this means teaching social metaphors describing migration patterns (such as the Melting Pot, Pizza and Hybrid theory connected to understanding dominant and marginal cultures, their "Otherness", dealing with foreigners and accepting the multitude of their differences in social, cultural, political and religious ways).
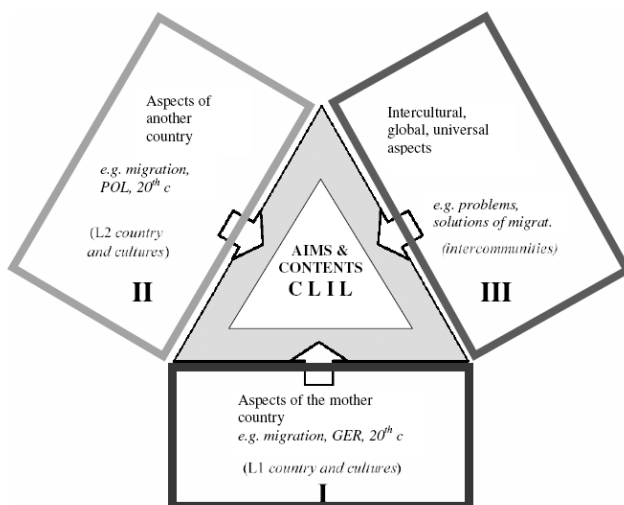

Figure 2: Hallet's model of the Bilingual Triangle

Reid (2019) points out Bilingual Triangle is closely connected with the method of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL). However, Hallet's Bilingual Triangle complements Coyle's 4Cs with the comparative aspect connecting students' own culture and the target one.

Now, let us explore the role of CLIL in modern Cultural Studies taught at non-philological (economic) faculties in Slovakia. The general subject of the need for innovative Cultural Studies at non-philological institutions has been analysed by several authors, e.g. Zelenková and Hanesová (2019); however, the role of CLIL in teaching modern culture-related subjects has never been fully explored.

As a case study, we may take the lesson plan of an academic subject English for Tourism (that has been presented in section 1.2, Table 3). The student has a possibility to obtain the knowledge from BE orientated on tourism via a wide spectrum of topics: Economy of Tourism, Controlling of Tourism Organizations, Information Systems in Tourism, Changes in Marketing and Tourism, Manager's Communication in Tourism, Quality Management and Customer Relations in Tourism, Project Management in Tourism taught in Slovak. Foreign student can enrol the module of subjects Intercultural Communication in Tourism in winter semester of master study taught in English, French or German language: Intercultural Relations in the Tourism Practice, International Tourism Marketing, Business Negotiation, Culture of English speaking countries, Case Studies of Intercultural Communication in Tourism (Infolist, 2019).

In this type of Cultural Studies for non-philological students, the hard additive CLIL occurs; given the multicultural class composition, the language exposition is 100%. The subject is usually taught by a language-teacher with extended qualification (e.g. degree in Tourism) and the aim is non-linguistic. Students are exposed to all 4Cs parameters:

- **content** (business and tourism vocabulary and terminology; e.g. *single entry book-keeping, tourism management,* etc.)
- **communication** (linguistic corpus or structures, phrases for business communication; e.g. phrases and structures such as *to close a deal, to start negotiations,* etc.)
- **culture** (intercultural competencies and strategies, e.g. how to close a deal in an international environment)
- **cognition** (general awareness of the issue, multicultural sensitivity in business environment).

Application of the CLIL method in non-philological classes is in many ways analogical to the CLIL in geography-related class and class for philological students. However, in the economic environment, the central focus lies on the specific outcome of teaching, i.e. students' successful conduct in business environment (e.g. the ability to open debate, negotiate towards an outcome, close a deal successfully with international foreigners, coming from diverse cultural, social, political and religious environments or the world).

The major difference between the aforementioned three types of classes (geography-related CLIL class, modern Cultural Studies at philological institution and business communication – English for Tourism – at non-philological institution) lies in the exposure to the culture of the target country. In geography-related CLIL class, cultural component is latent and secondary to the information related to the shift of tectonic shields and reasons and procedure of volcano

eruptions; whereas in teaching modern Cultural Studies, cultural component plays fundamental primary role.

Moreover, in geography-related CLIL class, failure to embrace the target culture may "only" lead to minor collapse of communication and misunderstanding. In modern Cultural Studies for philological students, the same failure may lead to more serious cultural insensitivity (e.g. in the process of interpreting the interpreter may fail to recognize cultural symptoms; fails to avoid conflict or to prevent insults) and eventually, these may lead to misunderstanding and failure of interpersonal relationships. In modern Cultural Studies for non-philological students, failure to embrace the target culture will lead to misunderstandings, failure to close a deal, and establishing business partnership that will negatively affect financial and cross-company environment.

Discussion

In the study, we analysed the role of modern Cultural Studies at philological and non-philological universities in Slovakia, comparing the proportion of the cultural element (most important for non-philological students and philological students; less important in general CLIL class), language and content at various types of courses. These issues have been of some interest of CLIL experts; however, concise studies of the subject matter are scanty. We agree with Reid (2019) who points out that teaching modern Cultural Studies at any stage and type of education (via Hallet's concept of "Bilingual Triangle") is closely connected with the method of Content and Language Integrated Learning, and utilises its methods and goals for the benefit of students whereas Hallet's conception integrates the comparative principle as well.

We also came to the conclusion that language plays a substantial role in teaching modern Cultural Studies at philological institutions; is different from teaching GE and ESP and except for presenting lexicon and structures, it is also a "carrier" of intercultural competence. The goal of teaching is also cultural – to understand the "otherness" of the target culture and become a culturally sensitive teacher or interpreter/translator.

In teaching non-philological students, the general cognition of interculturality (translated into both language and behavioural patterns) plays even more important role as incompetence in these may lead to failure of business communication. The goal of teaching is, however, not purely non-linguistic; students also learn "how to" express themselves culturally sensitively which may be the key competence in the process of closing a deal. In this, we agree with Hanesová and Zelenková (2019) who call for interculturality in preparation of future business professionals.

Results of this study are theoretical and practical; the role language and contents play in the process of teaching ought to be translated into the process of

assessment, i.e. into the process of testing and examining and to the process of evaluating final bachelors and masters' theses (in case these are compulsory for finalising one's studies).   Thus, language for philological students plays a significant role; thus, assessment ought to pay proportionate attention to the 4Cs; language, culture, context and cognition.

Conclusion

Analysing the existing discourse on the issue of integration CLIL into teaching modern Cultural Studies as well as opinions of in-service teachers, we found several interesting paradoxes: not only there is minimal academic discourse on whether teaching modern Cultural Studies is or is not a CLIL teaching; some scholars with increasing intensiveness point out the lack of academic discourse on the nature of Cultural Studies at philological and non-philological universities in Slovakia (and the world) in general. Thus, the present *status quo* reflects an interesting paradox: Slovak university instructors at both philological and non-philological universities/faculties are expected to teach Cultural Studies (e.g. those of English, American, German, Russian and many other cultures) without a clearly stated teaching contents, goals, methods and research scope which inevitably affects the level and depth of data presented (i.e. teaching contents), the role the foreign language plays in the process of teaching and learning.

Therefore, in this theoretical-explicative research, we compared the conceptual differences in the role of language and teaching contents in teaching realia (now modern Cultural Studies) to philological and non-philological students. We relied our observations on the analysis of 11 interviews with teachers of Cultural Studies and on analysis of existing academic courses as well as discourse on the topic. The outcome of the presented research stresses and specifies different role the cultural element plays in various types of CLIL Cultural Studies classes and draw attention to the issue.

Acknowledgements

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Contents, communicational needs and learner expectations: a study of SSL in Haitian immigrants

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Abstract:
This research aims to prove the effectiveness of Spanish as a Second Language lessons for Haitians designed by volunteers in Santiago de Chile. The methodology used through the study was based on the application of two questionnaires to Haitian students in order to compare results, and finally obtain an average that reflects the achievement of the communicative functions expected. Results indicate that neither the lessons planned, material giver nor the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages fulfilled such expectations. Findings are discussed in relation to previous studies on methodologies for Spanish as a Second Language for Haitian immigrants in Chile (Toledo, 2016)

Keywords: Haitians, communicative functions, immigrants, second language acquisition

1 Introduction

During recent years in Chile, many immigrants have come to the country looking for a better quality of life, among them Peruvians, Bolivians, Venezuelans, and among the last seasons, mainly Haitians. The latter group is at an important disadvantage in comparison with the rest of the mentioned groups, given that their mother tongue is not Spanish but Creole. For this reason, many institutions, educational ones or not, have created Spanish courses for Haitians, but the majority of them do not have specialists in the area of pedagogy or language acquisition, nor previous experiences in the area neither. Instead, courses have volunteers as tutors for the lessons.

Some specialists have referred to the different methods needed in the classroom when teaching a second language; methodologies such as collaborative tables and classwide peer tutoring have got surprising results (Lundblom & Woods, 2012). However, these are usually not present in lessons offered by volunteers without training in SLA.

The aim of the present study is to explore the pertinence of the contents presented in Akeyi Spanish lessons for Haitian immigrants, in relation to the communicative goals they claim to need in their jobs, social environment, and daily life, considering among everything that their prior knowledge of Spanish and the Chilean culture almost does not exist until they arrive to the country.

This research tested a group of Haitians who attended lessons of Spanish as a Second Language (henceforth SSL). It focused on the needs the students presented, as well as the contents and communicative functions taught by the volunteers.

The structure of this article is divided into five sections: theoretical framework, the methodology used, the results obtained, discussion of results based on the background and expectations of the studied subjects; and finally, the presentation of the conclusions.

2 Theoretical framework

In order to support the objectives and methodology used in this inquiry, the present article is based mainly on three previous studies carried out by specialists in the areas of linguistics and education: Toledo (2016), Lundblom & Woods (2012), and Condemarín, García-Huidobro & Gutiérrez (2011).

According to Toledo´s "Propuesta didáctica para la enseñanza de español como segunda lengua a inmigrantes haitianos en Chile" (2016), thousands of Haitians have arrived in Chile during the last ten years, looking for an improvement in their life quality. However, the cultural impact and the shock of living in a country which does not share their culture, nor even speak their language have built a barrier for them to reach their goal in our country. In addition to this, the Chilean government has not yet built a project that integrates immigrants who do not speak Spanish: there does not exist a program to include Haitian children into the Chilean system of education, thus forcing them to apply to schools just like the rest of the kids, without considering the language barrier.

In the same line, Toledo proposes a specialized SSL methodology for adult immigrants, which considers their communicative necessities at the moment of arriving in our country, which has as starting point the application of a questionnaire regarding the communicational functions prioritized by students. These functions are to be used for communicative purposes: for example, *Give and ask for information* is a purpose for *Demonstrating agreement or disagreement with someone's opinion*. The author concludes that, since the necessities of each group of immigrants will be different to what teaching volunteers expected, SSL programs for Haitians should be redesigned taking into account their communicative needs.

In their text "Working in the Classroom: Improving Idiom Comprehension through Classwide Peer Tutoring" Lundblom & Woods (2012) present the results of the study, conducted during the recent decade, which was made with a group of

six students in a high school in Florida, USA. The objective of the study was to discover how the interaction among students and teacher changed the learning process. The researchers claimed that whereas students and teachers had a much more relaxed relationship than in an expository class, and while tests were not conventional, outcomes in students were better; results of the study confirmed this assumption.

Students were asked to participate in this special kind of lessons: they were in a classroom which consisted of a group of tables and chairs forming a circle, all of them looking at each other's face. One of them was asked to present the contents of the class for the following lesson, each one being guided by the teacher in charge who prepared a program that considered all the aspects required in the level of the students for the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages. Their evaluations balanced soft and hard abilities, and at the end of the course, each student discovered herself with unsuspected soft skills. Additionally, by talking about the topics in their own words, students made the lesson contents theirs more effectively.

Tests were not the typical ones: they assessed their development during each class, picking special attention to the way in which they applied and explained contents, and how deep their research was on the subject required. For this reason, specially designed rubrics were given to teachers for each student.

The book *Con amor se enseña mejor: Propuestas para docentes de hoy* by Condemarín, García-Huidobro and Gutiérrez (2011) presents different didactics and methodologies that are applicable for students depending on their life stage, according to a study made by its three authors. The focus of this investigation is on the importance of the cultural background and the dignity that teachers –in this case volunteers— are giving to SSL students.

The approach of this book leads the reader to think about education as a way to dignify a person. In the special case of Haitian immigrants, to educate them in our language is to give them a life in our country, to make them independent, and to promote them.

Different didactics and methodologies are proposed through the different chapters, some of which are expository, and others that are compatible with the method presented in the Classwide Peer Tutoring research. A remarkable example is the encouragement to the teacher not to be afraid of acting, singing and dancing in front of their students, no matter their age, since it is part of accepting the challenge of teaching people who do not understand what you are communicating.

3 Methodology
Objectives

Regarding the general objective, the study aims to explore the pertinence of the contents presented in Akeyi Spanish lessons for Haitian immigrants, by paying attention to their cultural background and communicative needs.

Along the same line, the specific objectives are three: in the first place, to identify the students' needs and expectations. In the second place, to compare this data with the contents covered by Akeyi lessons. And finally, to contrast the students' answers with the goals established by the Common European Framework for Languages.

Research Questions

To establish the research questions, it is important to delimit the area of concern of this study. The main issues at stake are the contents and communicative functions taught by Akeyi volunteers to Haitian learners, and their concordance with the students' expectations.

Having said that, the research questions for this inquiry are:

(a) Which are the communicative functions most valued by Haitians?
(b) Does the Akeyi program respond to the communicative functions needed and expected by Haitian immigrants?
(c) Does the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages respond to the communicative needs of Haitian immigrants?
(d) Is it necessary to create a different Framework of Reference for Languages regarding immigrants needs?

Instruments

During the development of this study, three instruments were used:

(a) Formal consent: Students from Akeyi project were asked to participate in this study as volunteers. For this, a formal consent was given to them, with the purpose of having a written declaration of their intentions to participate.
(b) Questionnaire 1: A set of communicative functions grouped in five categories was given to the group of learners. They had to select the five most important expressions, in their perception, in each one of the categories of the communicative functions. (See Appendix 1)
(c) Questionnaire 2: A set of communicative functions grouped by five categories was given to students after the eight lessons observed. They had to select those skills taught in class, regardless of the number of options marked (see Appendix 3).

Participants description

This study was conducted with a group of sixty Haitian learners who started SSL classes during September 2017. They were all adults –most of them parents of more than one kid— and had no previous experience with Spanish language lessons. For that reason, their free time was enclosed to a few hours per week after work hours.

Background

According to the Immigration Department in Chile (2014), 1,649 out of 410,988 immigrants in Chile were Haitians by 2014, a portion that does not correspond to the largest one, which are Latin American citizens, such as Peruvians, Venezuelans and Colombians.

Notwithstanding, Haitians have presented a noticeable increase regarding definitive visa for living permanently in Chile, which is illustrated by Graph 1.
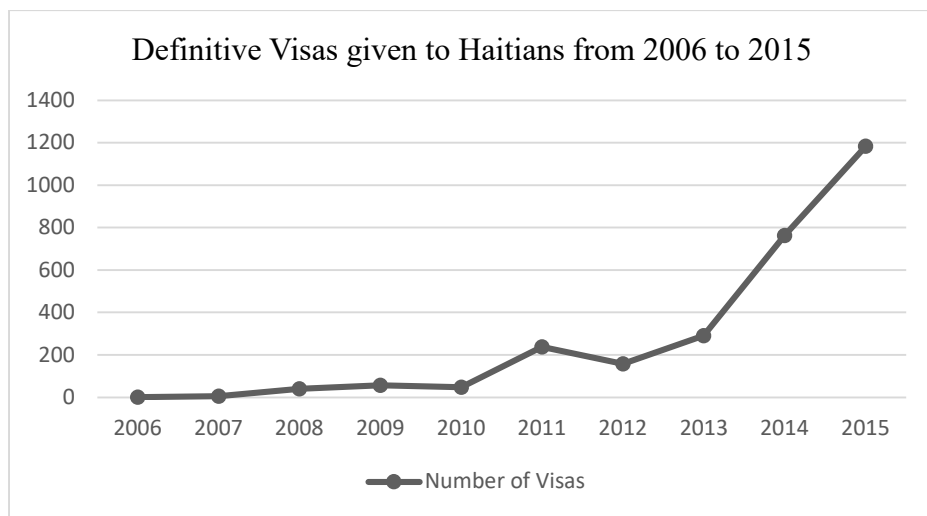
Graph 1: Definitive Visas given to Haitians along 2006 and 2015. Retrieved from Boletín Informativo nº 1 Departamento de Extrajería e Inmigración (n.d)

This reality that has been depicted through the graph allows Haitians to place themselves as one of the immigrants with higher permanency in Chile, what represents a challenge for educators in the country due to the language, and moreover, literacy gap.

Both factors mentioned in the previous paragraph have meant for the Haitians population a noticeable difficulty in finding jobs, schools and even in accessing

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primary necessity attentions, as in the case of health. A study carried out by the University of Talca in Chile, demonstrated that adult immigrants presented a considerable amount of people who did not speak Spanish very well when they decided to move to Chile (see Graph 2).

How did you speak Spanish when you arrived in Chile?
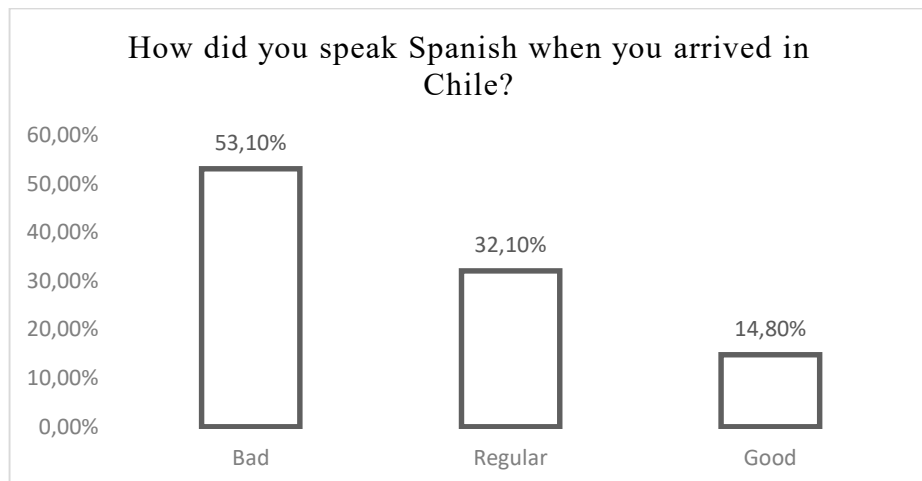
Graph 2: How did you speak Spanish when you arrived in Chile? Retrieved from
Haitianos en Chile: Integración laboral, social y cultural (n.d)

This reality reflects the necessity of Spanish courses, and due to the fact that they do not find formal jobs until they have their definitive visa, it is almost impossible for them to pay for a course in formal education system, and other times, it is merely impossible since they do not know how to read or write.

Because of this, charity institutions and the catholic church have decided to offer several courses of Spanish to Haitians. But, as they are charity institutions, most of the times they do not count on formal teachers or specialists in language acquisition. This kind of courses are for free, and in addition to it, they offer students dinner, all necessary materials to study (books, pencils, etc.) and babysitting service for their children.

Nevertheless, these non-formal institutions have had troubles concerning students' expectations and progress. Classroom manage has been a difficult task for them, progress pf contents too, and to catch the attention of their students is one of the biggest problems. For this reason, this study is focused mainly on getting to know if the program fulfils students expectations and how do the volunteers develop the class itself.

Procedures

The first step of the study was to contact the Akeyi staff in charge, with the intention to explain them the objectives of the research and obtain the permission to be present in eight classes, with the purpose of examining the way in which volunteer tutors were teaching. Research questions were raised from this observation period.

Once these were established, the challenge was to look for an instrument that could analyze the kind of knowledge that students were hoping to get with lessons. A questionnaire by specialist Gloria Toledo Vega was adapted and applied to the group of participants that agreed to answer questionnaire 1, previously completing the consent form attached in the appendix 2. This step presented a challenge too, since nearly a 17% of the attendees to the classes did not know how to read. For this problem, one of the students who arrived in Chile in 2013 helped to translate and to interpret all questions and instructions.

In the third place, all the answers were tabulated, excluding two subjects who did not follow the instructions of choosing only five expressions per item of communicative functions. The final count of participants was eighty five out of sixty questionnaires answered. Once results of the tests were tabulated, the three most selected expressions per item were included in the graph, altogether with the three least chosen options.

The fourth step was class observation, in which the main focus was the disposition of the classroom and the active participation of students in different tasks, all these features were observed regarding Classwide Peer Tutoring. For this step, a class distribution diagram was used, and some questions were in charge of guiding the class description (see Appendix 4)

Finally, the last step consisted of the application of questionnaire 2, whose results were graphed, with the purpose of being delivered to the Akeyi program as significant data for the design of lessons for the following year.

4 Results

Along this section all results obtained will be presented. In the first place the pre-test, in the second place the class observation, and finally, post-test

Pre-test results

i) Questionnaire 1 Section 1: Give and ask for information

The following table illustrates the three most chosen communicative functions and the three least preferred, which were obtained for the first section of the pre-test 'Express opinions, attitudes and knowledge' (see Table 1).

Tab. 1: Expression of opinions, attitudes and knowledge

Nº	Communicative Function	Total of Subjects	% Adherence of Subjects	% Dominance of the Section
17	Expressing lack of obligation or need	0	0%	0%
20	Expressing ignorance	1	4%	1%
11	Presenting a counterargument	2	8%	1%
2	Giving an opinion	10	42%	7%
4	Valuing something or someone	10	42%	7%
7	Agreeing with something or someone	10	42%	7%

ii)   Questionnaire 1 Section 2: Express tastes, desires and feelings

In the same line, this table illustrates the three most chosen communicative functions and the three least preferred, which were obtained for the second section of the pre-test 'Express tastes, desires and feelings'

Table 2: Expression of tastes, desires and feelings

Nº	Communicative Function	Total of Subjects	% Adherence of Subjects	% Domination of the Section
19	Expressing nervousness	0	0%	0%
23	Expressing deception	0	0%	0%
24	Expressing resignation	0	0%	0%
26	Giving an opinion	9	32%	7%
9	Asking for plans and intentions	10	36%	7%
11	Expressing happiness and satisfaction	16	57%	12%

iii)   Questionnaire 1 Section 3: Influence in the interlocutor

The Table 3 illustrates the three most chosen communicative functions and the three least preferred, which were obtained for the third section of the pre-test "*Influence in the interlocutor*".

Tab. 3: Influence in the interlocutor

Nº	Communicative Function	Total of Subjects	% Adherence of Subjects	% Domination of the Section
21	Offering or inviting	0	0%	0%
24	Threating someone	0	0%	0%
15	Prohibiting	1	4%	1%
7	Responding to an order	9	32%	8%
10	Avoid someone	11	39%	9%
12	Asking for permission	11	39%	9%

iv)   Questionnaire 1 Section 4: Relate socially

Table 4 illustrates the three most chosen communicative functions and the three least preferred, which were obtained for the fourth section of the pre-test 'Relate socially'.

Tab. 4: Social relations

Nº	Communicative Function	Total of Subjects	% Adherence of Subjects	% Domination of the Section
14	Giving condolences	0	0%	0%
15	Propose a toast	2	7%	1%
17	Making good wishes	2	7%	1%
10	Apologizing	13	46%	9%
2	Replying to a greeting	14	50%	10%
1	Greeting	19	68%	14%

v)   Questionnaire 1 Section 5: Structure the speech

To conclude with the exposure of results, Table 5 illustrates the three most chosen communicative functions and the three least preferred, which were obtained for the fifth section of the pre-test 'Structure the speech'.

Tab. 5: Structure the speech

Nº	Communicative Function	Total of Subjects	% Adherence of Subjects	% Domination of the Section
19	Closing a digression	0	0%	0%
20	Rejecting a topic, or a part of it	0	0%	0%
30	To reject the end of a conversation, introducing a new topic	0	0%	0%
8	Introducing a new topic and reacting to a new one that one did not started	13	46%	10%
10	Catching the interlocutor's attention	14	50%	10%
18	Open a digression	18	64%	13%

Post-test results
vi) Questionnaire 2 Section 1: Give and ask for information
Table 6 illustrates the three most chosen communicative functions as taught during the lessons to the subjects. The three least chosen options represent those aspects that were not covered in the first section of the questionnaire 2 'Express opinions, attitudes and knowledge'.

Tab. 6: Express opinions, attitudes and knowledge

Nº	Communicative Function	Total of Subjects	% Adherence of Subjects	% Domination of the Section
2	Give an opinion	0	0%	0%
5	Expressing approval or disapproval	0	0%	0%
7	Agreeing with something or someone	0	0%	0%
24	Expressing knowledge	8	33%	5%
4	Valuing something or someone	10	42%	7%
20	Expressing ignorance	10	42%	7%

vii)   Questionnaire 2 Section 2: Express tastes, desires and feelings

In the same line, Table 7 illustrates the three most chosen communicative functions as taught to the Haitian group, and the three least chosen, which were obtained for the second section of the questionnaire 2 'Express tastes, desires and feelings'

Tab. 7: Expression of tastes, desires and feelings

Nº	Communicative Function	Total of Subjects	% Adherence of Subjects	% Domination of the Section
17	Expressing fear	0	0%	0%
10	Asking for state of mind	0	0%	0%
18	Expressing concern	3	10%	1%
2	Expressing tastes and desires	5	17%	3%
4	Expressing preference	13	46%	8%
19	Expressing nervousness	22	78%	15%

viii)   Questionnaire 2 Section 3: Influence in the interlocutor

The table 8 illustrates the three communicative functions most chosen by the subjects, and the three least chosen, which were obtained for the third section of the pre-test 'Influence in the interlocutor'.

Table 8: *Influence in the interlocutor*

Nº	Communicative Function	Total of Subjects	% Adherence of Subjects	% Domination of the Section
12	Asking for permission	0	0%	0%
7	Responding to an order	0	0%	0%
17	Purposing something	0	0%	0%
15	Prohibiting something	3	10%	2%
27	Offering for something	8	28%	6%
4	Asking for help	16	56%	13%

ix)   Questionnaire 2 Section 4: Relate socially

Table 9 illustrates the three most chosen communicative functions as taught to the students, and the three least chosen, which were obtained for the fourth section of the questionnaire "Relate socially".

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Table 9: *Relate socially*

Nº	Communicative Function	Total of Subjects	% Adherence of Subjects	% Domination of the Section
21	Saying good-bye	0	0%	0%
12	Saying thanks	1	3%	0%
8	Welcome someone	2	7%	1%
17	Making good wishes	13	46%	9%
2	Replying to a greeting	17	60%	11%
1	Greeting	20	71%	14%

x)   Questionnaire 2 Section 5: Structure the speech

To conclude with the exposure of results, Table 10 illustrates the three most chosen communicative functions as taught to the students and the three least chosen, which were obtained for the fifth section of the questionnaire 2 'Structure the speech'.

Table 10: *Structure the speech*

Nº	Communicative Function	Total of Subjects	% Adherence of Subjects	% Domination of the Section
3	Asking something to someone	0	0%	0%
18	Open a digression	0	0%	0%
12	Organizing the information	3	10%	1%
8	Introducing a new topic and reacting to a new one that one did not started	8	28%	5%
21	Interrupting someone	17	60%	12%
10	Catching the interlocutor's attention	17	60%	12%

Class observation results

Concerning class observation, the results are demonstrated in Graph 3.

Graph 3: Amount of Interaction in the classroom
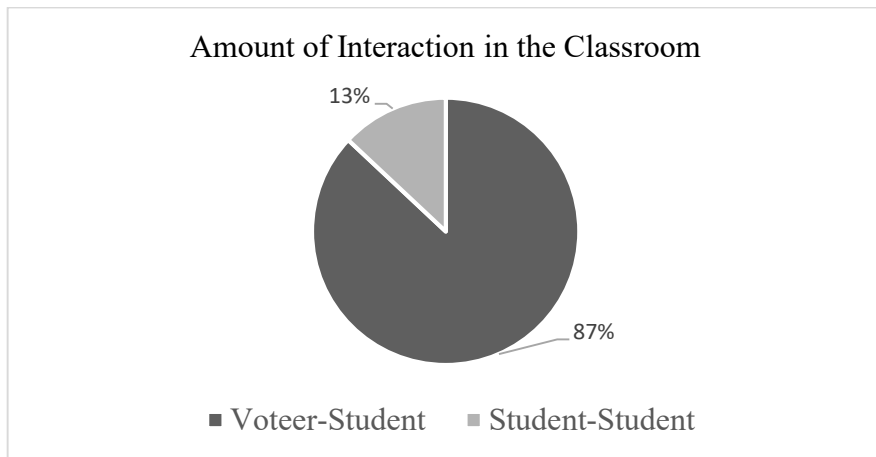
As it can be seen, most of the interactions in the classroom occurs directly with the volunteer playing the role of teacher every session. It is important to consider that the amounts depicted contain only formal interactions, those ones that students did by their own were not counted.

Regarding classroom distribution, Figure 1 illustrates how the classroom was distributed every class.

Fig. 1: Disposition of the classroom

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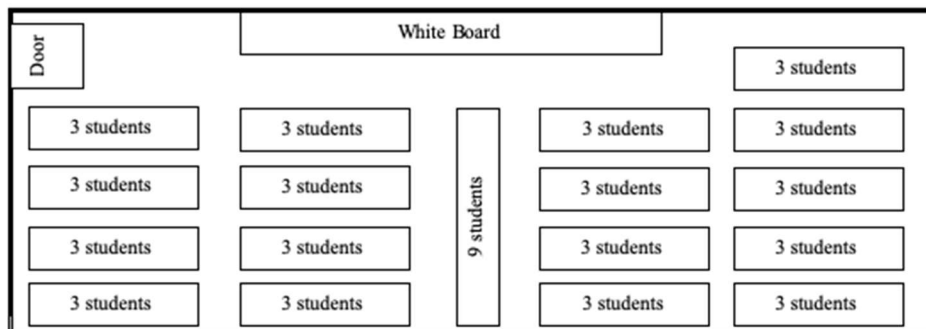
Certainly, it was a small classroom, but the building in which classes were performed had many more common spaces, for instance, gardens, a park, a big events room and the temple itself. Places in which people usually transit.

As to student's attention to the class, the observation delivered different aspects depending on the activity carried out. Even when there were not specific categories proposed in the guiding for the class observation, levels of attention in relation to activities are shown in Table 11.

Table 11: *Levels of attention in relation to types of activities*

Activity	Attention time	How did you notice it?
Individual worksheet	15-20 minutes	Students stopped working and began to talk with each other, or they took their cellphones.
Expositive session	15-20 minutes	Students stopped looking at the volunteer and they took their cellphones or started to mumble with each other
Group work or Collaborative tables	20-40 minutes	Students talked with their partners and distributed labors. They did not began doing unconnected things to the activity.
Pair work	20-60 minutes	Students talked with their partners and distributed labors. They did not began doing unconnected things to the activity.

As it can be observed, levels of attention clearly diminish in self-doing activities, while in teamwork, they increase. Nevertheless, only in three out of ten sessions observed students worked in pair, bigger groups or collaborative tables.

5   Discussion of results
Throughout this section each research question established at the beginning of the study will be developed in full based on the results obtained and tabulated in the last section. For this purpose, research questions will be organized individually.

Which are the communicative functions most valued by Haitians?

Regarding this question, each table presented in the last section showed the three most chosen options of communicative functions in the first questionnaire, which alluded to those that participants chose as the most important ones.

According to the results obtained, the following communicative functions were noticeably more relevant than the rest of those presented in each section:

1. Introducing a new topic and reacting to a new one that one did not started
2. Catching the interlocutor's attention
3. Open a digression
4. Apologizing
5. Replying to a greeting
6. Greeting
7. Responding to an order
8. Avoid someone
9. Asking for permission
10. Giving an opinion
11. Asking for plans and intentions
12. Expressing happiness and satisfaction
13. Giving an opinion
14. Valuing something or someone
15. Agreeing with something or someone

These results are consistent with Toledo's claim that these essential communicative functions are part of the daily communication that human beings need to have in their work environment. Additionally, and considering that they are mostly workers, it seems reasonable that what they first need to cover are this kind of expressions, instead of learning how to use inflections, verbs, and coherence and cohesion.

Does the Akeyi program respond to the communicative functions needed by Haitian immigrants?

This question has to do with the way in which the Akeyi institution responded to the necessities and expectations pointed out by its students. According to the results exposed in this investigation, 26% of the contents expected by learners – only four out of fifteen— reached this goal:

1. Introducing a new topic and reacting to a new one that one did not started
2. Catching the interlocutor's attention
3. Valuing something or someone
4. Greeting

The rest of the communicative functions learnt by the immigrants did not prove remarkable or of significant interest for them, at least during this stage:

1. Interrupting someone
2. Prohibiting something
3. Offering for something
4. Asking for help
5. Expressing tastes and desires
6. Expressing preference
7. Expressing nervousness
8. Expressing knowledge
9. Expressing ignorance
10. Making good wishes
11. Replying to a greeting

The set of communicational functions that they did not classify as important or needed by them seems to be more related with their social environment, while the skills that they were seeking to acquire in these lessons were close to the communicational needs required to look for a job, or performing at work.

Interestingly, those more related with relationships, arguments, likes, and even dislikes, were not really relevant. This is a factor considered by Toledo in her investigation as a cultural factor, given that these learners tend to relate socially only with other Haitian immigrants until they are established in our country and generate relationships with the rest of the Chilean population.

Does the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages respond to the communicative needs of Haitian immigrants?

While this tool is followed by the majority of language courses, it is difficult to classify these learners in a level such as A1, A2, B1, B2, C1 and C2, given that they are looking for a language useful to communicate as soon as possible, and most of them do not continue studying once that they are able to communicate in the aspects they need. Therefore, in this specific case, the CEFR (see Appendix 4) does not respond to the communicative needs of Haitian immigrants.

Nevertheless, in case of forming a group of students who want to learn Spanish systematically, it could be pertinent and useful to carry out a study mixing communicative needs and the levels described in the CEFR. At the moment, and facing the reality that Haitians are living in Chile, a useful method may be to build up a program for different levels from the starting point of what are they needing to communicate in different stages.

Is it necessary to create a different Framework of Reference for Languages regarding immigrants needs?

Due to all the exposed issues through the results this study shown, it is completely necessary to find a new way in which guiding Spanish lessons for Haitians in Chile. To create a new framework of reference in which all communicative needs of prior relevance are integrated through different levels according to the prioritization of them, may help to create a program and a syllabus to guide Spanish lessons. In this way, volunteers will have a learning route to follow and to standardize their sessions and their own training as teachers.

6 Conclusions

As stated at the beginning of the article, hundreds of immigrants arrive in our country every day –110 a day— which means that, nowadays, more than 11% of the Haitian population is living in our country. Once here, they face several and hard situations as living in overcrowded, being marginalized by their skin color, the way they dress, and the language they speak.

Spanish language is being presented to Haitians as a way to obtain what they pursue in our country: a better quality of life. For this reason, articulating an adequate methodology to teach it and creating a program that fits the communicational needs that they have is essential in contributing to end with the gap that distances Chileans and Haitians. The importance of the present study resides in the mentioned point; that is why the methods used through this inquiry are experimental, counting with participants who live the reality of this cultural gap and applying them a questionnaire while they study Spanish as a Second Language in an institution that offers lesson given by volunteers.

As shown by the results, the contents that the lessons were following did not fulfill the expectations that Haitians had about learning Spanish, nor even reached the goal of covering the communicational basic needs that immigrants face daily in Chile. Moreover, the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages did not result to be as useful as it is in other educational situations.

Nevertheless, it is important to mention that this study tested only a specific group of Haitians in a specific social and cultural background, so it can present limitations given the opportunities and living conditions that other immigrants have in different places in Santiago. Therefore, it may be interesting to carry out future research on a group of different Spanish language for immigrants' classes, contrasting the effectiveness of the same methodology.

Giving others the possibility of acquiring a new language that can bring them new opportunities in their lives is not only an issue of teaching and learning, but also of dignity. It is about making them independent, helping them to have job and educational opportunities. Teaching others is not only about sharing knowledge; it is about building bridges of knowledge and emotions.

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Appendix 1

Questionnaire applied to Haitian immigrants (Toledo, 2016)
Questionnaire de fonctions communicatives
Soulignez chaque item (MF) les cinq aspects que vous considérez les plus importantes pour apprendre en espagnol:

MF 1 Dar y pedir información / Bay e mande enfòmasyon
1. Identificar / Idantifye
2. Pedir confirmación / Mande konfimasyon
3. Confirmar la información previa / Konfime enfòmasyon avan an
4. Describir / Dekri

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5. Narrar / Rakonte

MF 2 Expresar opiniones, actitudes y conocimientos / Eksprime opinyon yo, atitid yo ak konesans yo

1. Pedir opinión / Mande opinyon
2. Dar una opinión / Bay yon opinyon
3. Expresar aprobación y desaprobación / Eksprime konsantman ak dekonsantman
4. Preguntar si se está de acuerdo / Mande yo si yo dakò
5. Presentar un contraargumento / Prezante yon kont agiman
6. Expresar obligación y necesidad / Eksprime obligasyon ak nesesite
7. Preguntar por el conocimiento de algo / Mande konesans de yon bagay
8. Expresar conocimiento / Eksprime konesans où
9. Expresar desconocimiento / Eksprime mankman de konesans où
10. Preguntar por la habilidad para hacer algo / Mande pou kapasite poul fè yon bagay
11. Expresar habilidad para hacer algo / Eksprime kapasite pou fè kek bagay
12. Preguntar si se recuerda o se ha olvidado / Mande yo si yo songe oub- yen yo te bliye

MF 3 Expresar gustos, deseos y sentimientos / eksprime gou yo, dezi yo ak santiman yo

1. Preguntar por gustos e intereses / Mande yo pou gou yo ak enterè yo
2. Expresar gustos e intereses / Eksprime gou yo ak enterè yo
3. Preguntar por planes e intenciones / Mande pou plan yo ak entans- yon yo
4. Preguntar por el estado de ánimo / Mande pou kouraj yo
5. Expresar alegría y satisfacción / Eksprime kontantman ak satisfaksyon
6. Expresar tristeza y aflicción / Eksprime tristes ak lapenn
7. Expresar nerviosismo / Eksprime eksitasyon
8. Sensaciones físicas / Sansasyon fisik

MF 4 Influir en el interlocutor / Enfliyans moun kap tande a

1. Dar una orden o instrucción
2. Pedir un favor / Mande yon favè
3. Pedir objetos / Mande objè yo
4. Ayuda / Èd
5. Negarse / Refize
6. Pedir permiso / Mande pèmisyon
7. Dar permiso / Bay pèmisyon
8. Prohibir / Entèdi
9. Ofrecer e invitar / Ofri ak envite
10. Aceptar una propuesta / Asepte yon pwoposisyon

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11. Prometer y comprometerse / Pwomet ak konpwomi
12. Ofrecerse para hacer algo / ofri pou fè yon bagay
13. Consolar / Konsole
14. Animar / Anime

MF 5 Relacionarse socialmente / Sosyalize
1. Saludar / Salye
2. Responder a un saludo / Reponn a yon salitasyon
3. Presentar a alguien / Prezante yon moun
4. Dar la bienvenida a alguien / Mande byenvini pou kek moun
5. Disculparse / Eskiz
6. Agradecer / remèsye
7. Responder a un agradecimiento / Reponn yon remèsiman
8. Dar el pésame / bay yon powèm
9. Felicitar / fasilite
10. Enviar y transmitir saludos y recuerdos / voye ak transmet salitasyon yo ak souvni yo
11. Despedirse / orevwa

MF 6 Estructurar el discurso/ Estrikti diskou
1. Preguntar por una persona y responder / Mande pou yon moun ak reponn
2. Pedir una habitación y responder / Mande yon prolongas- yon oubyen sal ak reponn
3. Preguntar sobre algo y responder / Mande enfò- masyon sou eta general tout bagay yo ak reponn
4. Controlar la atención del interlocutor / Pran entansyon moun kap tande yo
5. Introducir un hecho / Entwodwi yon aksyon
6. Organizar la información / òganize enfòmasyon an
7. Conectar elementos / Konekte eleman yo
8. Reformular lo dicho / Refè istwa a
9. Destacar un elemento / Mete aksan sou yon eleman
10. Interrumpir / Entèwonp
11. Pedir a alguien que guarde silencio / Mande a yon moun pou′l fè silans
12. Concluir el relato / Konkli istwa a
13. Introducir un nuevo tema / Entrodwi yon nouvo tèm

Appendix 2
Formal consent signed by participants (Creole version)
<u>Konsantman ekri pou patisipe nan yon ankèt eksperimantal</u>

Mwen se yon volontè pou patisipe nan yon pwojè rechèch ki dirije pa yon elèv nan Pwogram Degre nan Lengwistik ak Literati Anglè nan University of Chili.

Rezon an nan etid sa a se teste efikasite nan yon metodoloji espesifik nan elebore pwogram lan nan klas yo nan lang Panyòl kòm yon dezyèm lang nan Ayisyen imigran nan Santiago de Chili; pou ki kesyonè yo dwe reponn.

1. Mwen konprann ke pwojè a fèt pou jwenn enfòmasyon sou metodoloji edikasyonèl yo itilize ak amelyore metòd pou kou fuuros yo.
2. Mwen konprann ke mwen pral pou pwojè sa a.
3. Patisipasyon mwen an volontè. Mwen konprann ke mwen pap resevwa okenn peman pou li e mwen ka retire nenpòt ki lè.
4. Mwen konprann ke si mwen santi mwen pa alèz pandan egzamen sa a, mwen ka refize patisipe san penalite.
5. Mwen konprann non mwen an pap itilize nan okenn rapò envestigasyon epi konfidansyalite mwen an ap rete an sekirite.
6. Mwen li ak konprann eksplikasyon an yo te ban mwen. Tout dout mwen yo te rezoud e mwen volontèman dakò pou patisipe nan etid la.
7. Mwen te resevwa yon kopi dokiman sa a.

_____   _____

Patisipan fèm   Rechèch fèm

Appendix 3
Class Observation

The following document acts like a guide to help the class observation, please feel free to add any notes that you estimate as convenient.

1. Describe the interaction done in the classroom. Teacher-Student and Student-Student
2. Which interaction is dominant, teacher-student and student-student?
3. Do students pay attention to the class? How do you notice?
4. Describe the disposition of the classroom in each session you observe in the next diagram

Appendix 4
Common European Framework of Reference for Languages

Proficient User	**C2**	Can understand with ease virtually everything heard or read. Can summarize information from different spoken and written sources, reconstructing arguments and accounts in a coherent presentation. Can express him/herself spontaneously, very fluently and precisely, differentiating finer shades of meaning even in more complex situations.
	C1	Can understand a wide range of demanding, longer texts, and recognize implicit meaning. Can express him/ herself fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions. Can use language flexibly and effectively for social, academic and professional purposes. Can produce clear, well-structured, detailed text on complex subjects, showing controlled use of organizational patterns, connectors and cohesive devices.
Intermediate User	**B2**	Can understand the main ideas of complex text on both concrete and abstract topics, including technical discussions in his/her field of specialization. Can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible without strain for either party. Can produce clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects and explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and disadvantages of various options.
	B1	Can understand the main points of clear standard input on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc. Can deal with most situations likely to arise whilst travelling in an area where the language is spoken. Can produce simple connected text on topics which are familiar or of personal interest. Can describe experiences and events, dreams, hopes & ambitions and briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans.

Basic User	**A2**	Can understand sentences and frequently used expressions related to areas of most immediate relevance (e.g. very basic personal and family information, shopping, local geography, employment). Can communicate in simple and routine tasks requiring a simple and direct exchange of information on familiar and routine matters. Can describe in simple terms aspects of his/her background, immediate environment and matters in areas of immediate need.
	A1	Can understand and use familiar everyday expressions and very basic phrases aimed at the satisfaction of needs of a concrete type. Can introduce him/herself and others and can ask and answer questions about personal details such as where he/she lives, people he/she knows and thing she/she has. Can interact in a simple way provided the other person talks slowly and clearly and is prepared to help

Note: Retrieved from ESOL Examinations, University of Cambridge (2011).

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Facets of translation in foreign language education: a tentative classification of forms and uses

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Abstract
The paper provides an overview of the forms in which translation is used in foreign language education. A tentative classification is suggested which differentiates between facilitative translation as a supporting process that helps to overcome learning constraints, deliberate translation as an independent task with a predetermined objective that targets learners' foreign language competence and skills, and simulated translation as an activity from which additional pedagogical benefits regarding learners' foreign language proficiency can be derived. From the side of the learner, facilitative translation constitutes a complex learning strategy that can be applied for a variety of strategic purposes (memory-related, cognitive, compensatory, metacognitive, affective, and social), while from the side of the teacher it represents a scaffolding tool that can be consolidated into a fully-fledged teaching technique. Deliberate translation can further be differentiated according to the specifics of pedagogical focus. Language-focused translation, targeting learners' grammatical accuracy or vocabulary range and control, and skill-focused translation, targeting one of the four basic communicative language skills, can be used for both instruction-related and diagnostic purposes. The focus on the holistic use of the available linguistic repertoire results in the two complex uses of translation as an incentive for communication and as a communicative activity aimed at developing the skill of cross-language mediation. A particular type of simulated translation which appears to be particularly suited for the purposes of foreign language education is audiovisual translation.

Keywords: pedagogical translation, FLT, language diagnostics, cross-language mediation, audiovisual translation

Introduction

The legitimacy of the presence of translation in a foreign language class has been demonstrated by both language teaching scholars, such as Cook (2010) and translation scholars, such as Malmkjaer (1998). In relation to educational environment, Klaudy (2003) outlines the two broad types of translation, coined "pedagogical translation" and "real translation". The former is limited to the classroom application of translation activity with the focus on learners' level of

foreign language proficiency. The latter refers to the activity of professional translators in their respective occupational fields, and can thus be referred to more aptly as "professional translation" (Gile, 1995). An intermediate position in this general framework is occupied by translation done by trainee translators, which takes place in educational environment but is targeted at the development of a wide range of skills required from a professional translator on top of excellent L2 performance. Albert Vermes proposes the term "simulated translation" (2010, p. 84) to refer to the activity of trainee translators, which captures the essence of their preparation for the field of professional translation as they in fact rehearse all the processes that they will need to carry out when presented with a real-life order for translation.

An attempt to localise pedagogical translation within the boundaries of a FL classroom has led to the emergence of the term TILT, which was proposed by Cook (2010) as an abbreviation of Translation in Language Teaching and has taken root in modern educational research (see e.g. Fernández-Guerra, 2014; Kelly & Bruen, 2015; Ramsden, 2018). Since the referential scope of both terms, "pedagogical translation" and "TILT", embraces the specific application of translation activities for the purposes of foreign language education with primary interest in targeting learners' language proficiency, I will use them as synonyms conveying the meaning specified above.

The variety of empirical and theoretical research evidence from different national contexts leads us to realise that the term TILT embraces a number of heterogeneous ways in which translation features in an FL classroom. This, in turn, underlies the need for a more precise identification of the manifold uses of translation in relation to FLT. Thus, the aim of the present study is to synthesise the methodological premises found in contemporary research into TILT with a view to create a tentative classification of the forms in which translation enters and affects foreign language education.

The first factor of interest in the proposed framework is the intentionality of translation activity. In this regard, it is necessary to differentiate between (1) translation as a deliberate activity and (2) translation as a facilitation tool. The first category includes all instances when learners are required to transfer meanings and structures of various linguistic levels (i.e. individual words, phrases, syntactic constructions, sentences, sequences of sentences, paragraphs and texts) from one language to the other. The requirement to translate is explicitly stated in the task that has been assigned and translation as product is expected to emerge at one of the stages of the actual performance of the task. The second category embraces the cases when translation activity does not proceed from clearly-spelled external requirements, but takes place incidentally due to constraints and impediments that emerge while a learning or teaching task is being carried out. In this case translation works as a mechanism through which the given constraints and

impediment can be overcome. For the purposes of expedient reference, the two categories can be coined **deliberate translation** and **facilitative translation**, respectively.

1. Facilitative translation

The incidental application of translation to facilitate FL learning falls within a broader research topic of the use of L1 in FLT. In relation to an FL learner, facilitation through translation in an FL classroom might be initiated both internally, when learners naturally resort to translation to come to terms with learning challenges, and externally, when a teacher uses translation to aid the learning process. Thus, facilitative translation as a process that takes place on occasional basis in cases of necessity can be considered as a learning strategy, from the side of a learner, and as a scaffolding technique, from the side of a teacher.

1.1 Translation as a learning strategy

Rebecca Oxford defines learning strategies as "steps taken by students to enhance their own learning" (1990, p. 1) by making it "easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferrable to new situations" (1990, p. 8). In her taxonomy of learning strategies, translation is features as a cognitive strategy of analyzing and reasoning.

Being largely an internalised process, the application of translation as a learning strategy most typically takes the form of ***mental translation***. Mental translation can be defined as "a mental reprocessing of L2 . . . words, phrases, or sentences in L1 . . . forms while reading L2 . . . texts" (Kern, 1994, p. 442). The essential difference between translation proper and mental translation lies in the specifics of translation product, which in the case of mental translation takes the form of "a mental representation of L1 forms" rather than a coherent spoken or written text (ibid., p. 442-443). The strategic use of mental translation has been most extensively studied within research into reading comprehension ability of FL learners. It has been demonstrated that the habit of referring to one's L1 through mental translation while reading in L2 is present in all learners, but the increase in L2 proficiency leads to its gradual substitution by reliance on L2 only. The two main strategic purposes of the low- and intermediate-proficiency learners' use of mental translation in L2 reading are (a) identification and memorisation of contents, (b) retrieval of the meaning of unknown words, and (c) meta-cognitive monitoring of comprehension (see e.g. Kern, 1994; Upton & Lee-Thompson, 2001).

Apart from the use of translation as a cognitive strategy of analyzing and reasoning, applied to achieve comprehension, other forms of the strategic use of translation have been identified (Calis & Dikilitas, 2012; Karimian & Talebinejad, 2013; Aktekin & Uysal Gliniecki, 2015). Based on the taxonomy of learning

strategies proposed by Oxford (1990), these can be summed up to form the following synthetic view of translation as:

(1) memory strategy of creating mental linkages (between an L2 and L1 lexical equivalent) and of applying images and sound (retrieval of an L2 lexical form through an L1 concept and/or its formal representation);
(2) compensation strategy of overcoming limitations in speaking and writing (gathering information in L1 and translating it to perform a writing task);
(3) metacognitive strategy of evaluating your learning (checking comprehension);
(4) affective strategy of lowering your anxiety and of encouraging yourself;
(5) social strategy of cooperating with others (soliciting or providing translation to facilitate the performance of activity).

1.2 Translation as a scaffolding technique

Overall, it can be said that facilitative use of translation for scaffolding purposes has received marginal research attention. This might have to do with the explicit ban on L1 use prescribed by the communicative language teaching paradigm, or with the arbitrary character of scaffolding translation. Indeed, scaffolding translation on the side of a teacher is more of a choice rather than a naturally and universally occurring process, and this choice is, among other things, conditioned by learners' proficiency level, customary educational practices in the given national context as well as the degree of proximity between L1 and L2.

Thus, in the national context of Jordan with Arabic as L1, Samardali and Ismael (2017) report a number of frequent and highly frequent uses of translation for scaffolding purposes by university instructors of English. The uses identified by the scholars can be additionally grouped according to the following purposes:

- facilitation of L2 knowledge: teaching idiomatic and culture-specific items, clarifying new vocabulary, explaining grammatical issues;
- increasing awareness of the contrastive features of L1 and L2: comparing and contrasting, dealing with interferential errors;
- facilitating and monitoring reading and listening comprehension;
- ensuring easier orientation in a task: explaining classroom activities, giving instructions.

All of the above-mentioned uses of translation fall within the category of cognitive scaffolding. The use of L1 translation by the teacher also appears to play an important affective scaffolding function from the perspective of learners: it increases their sense of security as it mitigates their worries about correct comprehension and the overall anxiety at being exposed to the new, strange and unfamiliar (Karimian & Talebinejad, 2013).

The scaffolding use of translation is not limited to the nominal role of a teacher but can be put in practice by all individuals who find themselves in a tutoring position, as are more proficient learners in relation to their less proficient classmates. For example, Yaghobian, Samuel and Mahmoudi (2017) report that during collaborative L2 reading practice high proficiency learners used scaffolding translation to facilitate low proficiency learners' production of an English definition of a target vocabulary item by encouraging them to formulate it in Persian (L1) first and then render it into English in a chunk-for-chunk manner, or to facilitate their comprehension of an English definition by translating it into Persian in chunks.

Butzkamm and Caldwell (2009) furnish strong arguments for upgrading the occasional scaffolding use of L1 translation into a systematic instructional technique to be applied by a foreign language teacher in a pre-planned purposeful manner. To make their case, the scholars draw attention to the largely overlooked segment of language, recently exposed by corpus-based linguists, which occupies the intermediary position between the lexicon and grammar. This segment consists of "more or less idiomatic, ready-made phrases, which fill a vast middle ground between arbitrary words and neat and orderly, law-abiding, predictable constructions of the grammatical core" (Butzkamm & Caldwell, 2009, p. 28). Approaching this segment from the didactic perspective, the scholars advocate for the use of "idiomatic translation" of the target phrase into L1 for the purpose of clarifying its functional properties in the given context. The authors further extend the application of "idiomatic translation" to the learning of rule-governed grammar, where the need to provide learners with a rule in its conventional, meta-linguistic form can, in their opinion, be successfully substituted with a practical example in L2 paired with its functional equivalent in L1. In the cognitive perspective, Butzkamm and Caldwell highlight the innate connection of idiomatic translation to the goal of fostering the linguistic transparency: through the act of translation the meaning of a target item is separated from its form and "the underlying mental concept" transpires more clearly from the unfamiliar wording (ibid., 2009, p. 105-106).

2. Deliberate translation

According to the teaching objectives, deliberate translation can be tentatively divided into language-focused translation, skill-focused translation and communication-focused translation.

2.1 Language-focused translation

In language-focused translation, the performance of translation on the side of a learner and its evaluation on the side of a teacher is characterised by a distinct micro-focus on a selected aspect or aspects of linguistic competence. Campbell

(2002) lists the use of translation for vocabulary work and for focus-on-form grammatical practice as the first two areas of relevant and efficient application of translation-based teaching techniques. In relation to vocabulary work, the benefit of translation, in his view, lies in the fact that it convinces learners that one can always find a way of rendering source meanings in a target language and simultaneously warns them against the pitfalls of one-to-one correspondence. Regarding grammatical accuracy, translation approaches the grammatical form in a context-bound manner, where the actual learning object is a unity of a grammatical form and its functional use.

Here a reservation should be made that translation as a process is normally based on the systemic use of language. The specifics of language-focused TILT lie in the artificial emphasis it places on a targeted L2 linguistic phenomenon (i.e. on linguistic form), which is typically quite conspicuous in the very design of language-focused translation activities. In particular, the translation is usually directed from L1 to L2 and the two linguistic systems might be simultaneously present and juxtaposed in the task layout. Language-focused translation tasks might also include a compensatory mechanism to make up for leaners' possible deficiency in linguistic resources that are not directly connected to the targeted item. Evaluation of such tasks does not take into consideration mistakes and inconsistencies which are not related to the targeted linguistic phenomena.

For example, Scheffler (2013) attempted to foster secondary school learners' awareness of selected L2 grammatical phenomena (tense and aspect) by means of a form-focused L1 to L2 grammar-translation task consisting of sets of disconnected sentences. The compensatory mechanism consisted of L1 (Polish) equivalents of the challenging vocabulary items and the assisting role of the teacher in the choice of a more accurate lexical equivalent.

Källkvist (2004) targeted L2 (English) morphosyntactic accuracy of advanced Swedish (L1) learners by presenting them with translation tasks that consisted of full short texts, full sentences or parts of a sentence. The targeted grammatical phenomena were limited to the two uses of the zero article versus the definite article, namely in uncountable nouns and plural countable nouns with generic reference. The translation task design, however, did not include any compensatory mechanism. In this regard it is interesting that the experiment showed no difference in post-test performance between the translation group and the no-translation group that was exposed to L2 gap-filling tasks, while highly motivated learners from the no-translation group were able to outperform highly motivated learners from the translation group in translation tasks. The scholar seems to recognise the significance of a compensatory mechanism in relation to the desired outcome of language-focused translation tasks. In particular, she hypothesises that "students working with full sentences to be translated are faced with a greater cognitive load in that they need to deal with more potential difficulties

simultaneously than do students who are asked to consider gaps within sentences in L2" and essentially supports an assumption that language-focused translation tasks should be designed with the closest possible focus on the targeted phenomena to fend off distracting factors (Källkvist, 2004, p. 178).

Ebbert-Hübner and Maas (2018) specifically advocate the need for the use of translation tasks focusing on the contrastive analysis of L1 and L2 at the grammatical level. In their study, the experimental group that received treatment in the form of L1 (German) to L2 (English) translation tasks exhibited the highest statistically significant improvement in grammatical accuracy as compared to a regular grammar class and an essay-writing class. Their translation treatment appears to demonstrate particular effectiveness regarding learners' accuracy in the use of prepositions and tenses as two of the most common sources of interlinguistic interference. Other grammatical phenomena (modal constructions and false friends) that were targeted in the given research were associated with moderate improvement, with the only exception being articles. The improvement in the accurate use of article was achieved in a group that has undergone both translation-based and regular grammatical training.

Apart from grammatical accuracy, i.e. "the user/learner's ability to recall 'prefabricated' expressions correctly and the capacity to focus on grammatical forms" (Council of Europe, 2018, p. 133), language-focused translation can be used to increase learners' vocabulary range, i.e. "the breadth and variety of words and expressions used" by learners (p. 132), and vocabulary control, i.e. "the user/learner's ability to choose an appropriate expression from their repertoire" (p. 134). In particular, research by Barcroft (2015) detected significantly higher effectiveness of vocabulary learning for students who were provided with an L1 translation of each target vocabulary item only at its first appearance in the text in contrast to those students who saw the respective L1 translation equivalent next to all three appearance of a given item. The students in the experimental group had to apply their newly-acquired passive (receptive) knowledge of translation equivalents in practice as they had to fill in two gaps further on in the text according to an L1 equivalent provided. In the given activity, translation features not as a skill in its own right but as a means of stimulating target word retrieval which demonstrably enhances vocabulary learning.

To measure the effect of translation from L2 and into L1 on incidental acquisition of meaning of selected vocabulary items, Chenlu (2013) designed a translation task where two paragraphs from a coherent text had to be translated and the target words were provided with their L2 (English) equivalents in L1 (Chinese) source text or with the L1 glossing of their meaning in L2 (English) source text. The compensatory mechanism involved the use of dictionary for other unfamiliar vocabulary. The results of the study demonstrated that L1 to L2 translation was more effective than L2 to L1 translation in terms of both

immediate and delayed vocabulary acquisition, with the difference being statistically significant. Two issues of interest can be outlined regarding the given results in view of the specifics of post-testing. First, in both the immediate and delayed post-test learners had to provide an L1 translation of an L2 word, which essentially evaluates their passive vocabulary knowledge and does not answer the question about the degree of their active command of a given lexical item. Second, the group that was in fact practising the same direction of translation as was tested in post-tests (L2 to L1) was consequently outperformed. This allows making an inference that the factor of importance might have not been just the direction of translation process but also the specifics of the bilingual contextualised presentation of target items. In the given study we can hypothesise the presence of a tighter retrieval link between an L2 form and its contextualised L1 meaning than between a contextualised L2 form and its free-standing L1 meaning.

Within the micro-focus on the selected aspects of language, three specifications of teaching objectives can be outlined:
(a) to foster learners' knowledge and command of a specific aspect of L2
(b) to raise learners' awareness of the contrastive specifics, most notably instances of the lack of formal one-to-one correspondence, between L1 and L2
(c) to foster learners' knowledge and command of both L1 and L2

It should be noted that we can currently detect a growing effort to rectify the ban on the L1 use in an FL classroom by gathering theoretical and empirical evidence for the potential of L1 to be a conductive factor rather than an impediment to efficient L2 mastery. This effort, apparently, has to do with the tendency to reconsider the very objectives of FL/L2 education on more egalitarian premises of ***plurilingualism***. The updated version of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) introduces plurilingualism as a competence that "involves the ability to call flexibly upon an inter-related, uneven, plurilinguistic repertoire", i.e. to make efficient and purposeful use of resources from all languages that are at a learner's disposal (Council of Europe, 2018, p. 28). In view of an FL classroom, one of the preconditions for the flexible plurilignual use of L1 and L2 resource is the awareness of their comparative and contrastive specifics as well as the possibilities and limitations of the transfer of meaning between L1 and L2. In this respect, translation can be considered one of the most effective tools for fostering high-quality plurilingualism: it develops awareness of language transfer by highlighting interlinguistic connections (Quiñones-Guerra, 2016), draws attention to false friends on multiple linguistic levels (Kerr, 2016), and warns learners of interlinguistic interference while simultaneously showing them the ways of mitigating L1 interference into L2 (Mateo, 2015; Skopečková, 2018).

The recognition of the benefits of expanding the boundaries of an FL classroom on plurilinguistic premises can also be linked to the reconsideration of the relation between L2 and L1 teaching. On the one hand, the scope of L1 that has already been acquired by learners is viewed as a source of general and specific linguistic knowledge, whereby the awareness of similarities might save the time spent teaching them as a new item of knowledge and the contrasting of difference might help clarify the specifics of a given L2 item. On the other hand, the process of L2 learning can provide a complementary learning opportunity to consolidate L1 use and broaden L1 knowledge. For instance, learners' L1 vocabulary can be expanded as a by-product of L2 instruction when they come across L2 verbalisation of concepts that they have not yet come across through their L1 (Butzkamm & Caldwell, 2009; Quiñones-Guerra, 2016).

2.2 Skills-focused translation

In skill-focused translation, translation is employed to target a given communicative skill or sub-skill. The main research object in this area is the impact of translation on learners' reading comprehension (Lee, 2013; Fatollahi, 2016; Davaribina & Asl, 2017). It was established that the introduction of sight translation tasks into regular reading comprehension practice results in a more significant increase in reading comprehension ability of Iranian sophomore students (Fatollahi, 2016). In a study by Davaribina and Asl (2017), translation of selected passages into L1 before completing a reading comprehension task improves reading comprehension ability of Iranian learners of English, demonstrating statistically significant difference from the performance of a control group. An additional issue to consider in this case is the fact that learners received explicit instruction on the basics of the translation strategies of equation, substitution, divergence, convergence, amplification, reduction, diffusion, condensation, and reordering. In this way, they were cognitively equipped to overcome the inclination to word-for-word translation. Translation in a word-for-word manner creates the impression that by achieving formal equivalence the learner also has transferred the meaning successfully. Consequently, once a literal translation is produced a learner might not feel the need to dig deeper into the meaning of the source text due to the illusion of comprehension that can mask actual deficiencies in it.

The above-mentioned examples belong to the use of translation for the purpose of instruction. In FLT, deliberate translation can also be employed for diagnostic purposes and can be referred to as ***diagnostic translation***.

The diagnostic potential of L2 to L1 translation activity regarding reading comprehension skills unfolds in two directions: firstly, inconsistencies in the target text which are not directly related to the quality and level of L1 command can be used to detect learners' reading comprehension difficulties, and secondly,

the L1 wording in the hotspot and the adjacent context can provide insights into the receptive processes that were at work in a learner's mind and thus lead to the root of these difficulties. In this regard, Mahmoud draws attention to the fact that "the final [translation] product informs the teacher as to which lexical items, structures, and ideas are problematic", while "[u]nacceptable renditions also give clues to particular features of interlanguage that may be at work" (2006, p. 31).

Apart from reading comprehension, another sphere where the diagnostic power of translation can be put into practice is learners' productive linguistic competence as manifested through vocabulary range, vocabulary control and grammatical accuracy. In other words, diagnostic translation can be either language-focused or skill-focused.

The results of research conducted by Källkvist (1998), for instance, allow an inference about a higher potential of translation tasks to reveal gaps in learners' mastery of vocabulary in contrast to free writing tasks. Higher efficiency of translation tasks in this respect is accounted for by the bound nature of translation activity: learners have to take into consideration the formal requirements of a source text and are thus prevented from using avoidance strategies when looking for an appropriate lexical equivalent for the target meaning. In free writing tasks, such avoidance strategies as the choice of a simpler or a more general equivalent or avoiding the expression of an idea which is perceived as too difficult to verbalise consequently conceal the deficiencies in independent vocabulary and grammar use.

The diagnostic application of translation for routine monitoring purposes appears to be a viable teaching practice in certain national contexts. Thus, some Irish university lecturers of Japanese and German as FL, who participated in a study by Kelly and Bruen (2015), use translation to check the accuracy of comprehension and one of them mentioned that it can be used to raise learners' awareness of their gaps in linguistic knowledge, namely in their mastery of vocabulary.

2.3 Communication-focused translation

In communication-focused translation, learners are supposed to make efficient holistic use of the linguistic competence and communicative skills acquired up to the point in order to communicate meanings between L1 and L2. Two key uses of TILT can be attributed to this category, namely (1) the use of translation process and product as an incentive for communication, and (2) the use of translation process and product as a means of communication.

2.3.1 Translation as an incentive for communication (interactive translation)

Translation as an incentive for communication puts emphasis on the process of translating, including the external back-up factors and conditions for its implementation. This use of translation is characterised by the following distinctive features:

- learners are required to create a functional equivalent for a given textual input in the target language (typically L2);
- learners are expected to put into practice all resources available to them in order to achieve the highest possible degree of linguistic, sociolinguistic and pragmatic equivalence between the source text and the target text;
- learners' level of proficiency in L2 influences the choice of the source text, which should present a manageable challenge to them; and
- learners work in teams and communicate actively within their group, with the instructor and with all available translation aids (dictionaries, Internet search engines, encyclopaedias, etc.)

Translation as an incentive for communication is closely linked to the skills-focused use of translation targeting speaking skills. For instance, Mahmoud (2018) approaches translation tasks as an instrument for the development of learners' speaking skills through the language activity of interaction, i.e. "participat[ion] in an oral . . . exchange in which production and reception alternate and may in fact overlap in communication" (Council of Europe, 2011, p. 14). In my view, the reference to this form of translation use as communication-focused rather than skill-focused is more accurate as it has a holistic target where learners are supposed to make the most out of their speaking skills and sub-skills to fulfil their communicative intention, which is to confirm the correctness of their translation or to find ways of its improvement with the help of the teacher and peers. Since interpersonal interaction is the main pillar of the given FLT activity, this form of translation can also be referred to as ***interactive translation***.

Action research by Källkvist (2013) clearly demonstrates the beneficial impact of effectively-delivered translation tasks on fostering student-teacher interaction, which consequently leads to the increase in intensity and quality of classroom communication. In the experimental group of this action research, students translated a short text from L1 (Swedish) into L2 (English) individually, in pairs or in small groups; then two translations were presented to the whole class and were collectively assessed by students in terms of their accuracy and stylistic variation. In the second translation group, the task completion procedure resembled the simplest simulated translation routine: one student read his/her translation while their groupmates were asked to comment on correctness, ask questions or make

comments. The results indicate the higher intensity and overall quality of classroom communication in the experimental group, where it lasted almost twice longer (59 minutes vs. 34 minutes) and had lower frequency of the cases where students were prompted to contribute to discussion (0.46 vs. 0.5 prompts per minute). Both translation tasks revealed higher potential to foster communication than composition tasks delivered through a similar procedure.

In the activity described above, the fact that students raised more questions and made shorter pauses while discussing translation might be linked to the inherent possibility for comparison vested in translation activity: learners do not only compare the source text with a given translation, but also compare their own translation with the one presented to them as an object of analysis. The common referential basis seems to motivate students to interact as through interaction they confirm the viability and the accuracy of their own translation product. The given effect is largely absent from composition tasks as learners do not have any other tangible referential point than the topic assigned and thus commenting on others' production does not provide a direct opportunity to enhance one's own written output.

2.3.2 Translation as a means of communication (mediation)

Translation as a means of communication aims to mediate the content of a given textual input for a prospective external receiver using the available linguistic instruments. In this case, the requirement of accurate functional alignment of L1 and L2 resources is downplayed by the focus on the transmission of meaning: the formal properties of the translation product are primarily assessed in terms of the overall comprehensibility of the output, where a certain degree of violation of the conventions of target language culture and of source language interference is tolerated. This approach to translation, where the importance of the knowledge of contrastive features of L1 and L2 and of functional correspondence between them is purposefully diminished to give more prominence to the re-production of source meaning for the target receiver in a comprehensible form has found its way to the updated version of CEFR (Council of Europe, 2018) and is vested in the concept of *mediation*.

Mediation is defined as a language activity based on the ability of a learner to assume the role of "a social agent who creates bridges and helps to construct or convey meaning" (Council of Europe, 2018, p. 103). In this framework, translation is approached as a cross-linguistic mediation activity concerned with mediating a text, i.e. "passing on to another person the content of a text to which they do not have access, often because of linguistic, cultural, semantic or technical barriers" (p. 106). Howell (2017) emphasises the functional and formal difference between professional translation and translation as "cross-language" mediation by stating that the former "aim[s] at achieving as close as possible equivalence between

source texts and target texts" while the latter "aims to offer information to the audience that is contextually optimal and relevant, usually in common 'everyday' situations where the stakes are lower than they would be in high-stakes exchanges such as diplomatic negotiations, trade contracts, or courtroom proceedings" (Howell, 2017, p. 148). We can expand the meaning of "high-stakes exchanges" to include all situations where the completeness, accuracy and high quality of translation is unequivocally required by the sender of the source text and/or the receiver of the target text.

In the methodological outline provided by CEFR, there is one more mediation activity that is closely-related to translation, namely the activity of "processing a text". "Processing a text" is defined as "understanding the information and/or arguments included in the source text and then transferring these to another text, usually in a more condensed form, in a way that is appropriate to the context of situation" (Council of Europe, 2018, p. 110). In the perspective of translation studies, what is meant in CEFR under "processing a text" constitutes a sub-form of translation called "summary translation". In relation to an FL classroom, the given mediation activity can be considered as simulated translation practice since the focus on key ideas results from the nature of the task rather than from the proficiency level of a learner.

Howell provides a comprehensive overview of the ways of developing and assessing learners' skills of cross-language mediation, put in practice in the national contexts of Germany and Greece which are characterised by growing multilingual and multicultural diversity. On the basis of his overview of recent studies (Kolb, 2009; Bohle, 2012; Caspari, 2013; Reimann, 2013; Stathopoulou, 2015), the following state-of-the-art specifics of cross-language mediation in an FL classroom can be formulated:

- a mediation task is designed to take place in a simulated social context which is relatable to learners' social needs and experience outside the classroom;
- a learner is one of the participants of a communicative situation, which might also include an active presence of another communicant as the receiver of a mediated text, or two and more receivers as is the case in the mediation of interpersonal interaction;
- mediation might take place in the direction of L1 or L2, or between L1 and L2;
- the form of the input and output might be homogeneous (either written or oral) or transposed (i.e. written input to oral output, oral input to written output);
- the preparatory stage for a mediation task might focus on pre-teaching vocabulary while the post-mediation stage might focus on both the evaluation of mediation challenges (focus on mediation skills) and the evaluation of learners' lexical, grammatical and pragmatic choices to deal with these issues (focus on communicative language competence) (see Kolb, 2009);

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- mediation output is assessed according to the key criteria of (a) completeness of the range of meanings and intentions that were supposed to be mediated, (b) interactional ability in terms of reaction, non-verbal communication, explanations, circumlocutions, and corrections; (c) situational and receiver-oriented appropriateness, while an additional criterion of (d) intercultural performance in the explanation of culture-specific issues might also be taken in consideration (see Gregorzewski in Bohle, 2012; Reimann, 2013).

Even though CEFR contains an explicit disclaimer that its "scale is not intended to relate to the activities of professional translators or to their training" (Council of Europe, 2018, p. 113), the C2-level descriptors for the mediating activity of "translating a written text in speech" and "translating a written text in writing" are formulated in such a way as to allow inferring their close proximity to simulated translation.

3. Simulated translation in ELT

The idea of introducing simulated translation activities, i.e. activities that target learners' translation skills and translation competence, has been gaining support among scholars and teaching practitioners, but mostly those at the level of tertiary education. It should be noted though that the exact pedagogical benefits of a simulated translation task are not pre-planned but are rather derived from it after the task has been completed. In other words, it is arguably hard to plan in advance the precise aspects of communicative language competence which are to be fostered purposefully by a given simulated translation task since its positive impact could be detected retrospectively.

Various proposals have been made to introduce either systemic or partial elements of translation process into foreign language teaching. For example, Skopečková (2018) proposes a didactic framework based on the functionalist approach to the act of translation, which includes the simulation of partial components of translation process, namely the identification of the purpose and function of the target text, the analysis of a source text, the detection of the contrastive features of L1 and L2 and the cyclic selection of translation equivalents based on the gradual confirmation or correction of original choices as the translation process progresses. An important role in this framework is assigned to textual transformation, which is approached broadly as the necessary adjustment of the linguistic form of the text with the change in its function and/or target audience. Thus, the framework evidently transcends the boundaries of L1 to L2 translation and reaches into the sphere of adaptation.

Ramsden (2018) justifies the need to introduce low-intermediate learners of English as an FL to the concept of dynamic equivalence, which in translation

proper refers to the awareness of the existence of multiple ways of rendering the source meaning in the target language, and the ability to choose the most contextually appropriate way. The role of a teacher in her proposed activities is that of a facilitator who provides ideas to help learners overcome the word-for-word approach. This implies the need for a teacher to have at least a basic training in the specifics of translation proper to make sure he/she is able to react to "unprepared questions" students might come up with in their search for dynamic equivalence and to "to accept the different translation examples which the learners [come] up with" (Ramsden, 2018, p. 267).

If the potential of a simulated translation task is to be used to the fullest, it seems reasonable to introduce students to specific translation procedures and transformation that will help them overcome the innate difficulties of cross-linguistic rendering of texts, as can be seen on the example of translation activities implemented by Pavan (2013), Mateo (2015), Davaribina and Asl (2017) or Mahmoud (2018).

It is also necessary to realise that not all texts that professional translators deal with are suited to the conditions of foreign language teaching. In general, a foreign language classroom appears to be more readily open to simulated translation tasks that are compatible with the learners' level of FL proficiency, are closely related to their needs outside the classroom and are not too time-consuming. A particular form of professional translation that is related to consistently positive empirical classroom results is ***audiovisual translation***, and more specifically subtitling as its subtype. A detailed overview of current research in the use of subtitling in foreign language education is provided in a publication by Lertola (2019). Based on it, a number of practical observations can be made. Firstly, standard interlingual subtitling (L2 to L1) appears to be the most frequently used subtype of audiovisual translation, followed by reverse subtitling (L1 to L2). The use of dubbing as a simulated translation task is rare but still present, and it is associated with increase in learners' speaking and listening skills (Danan, 2010). Standard subtitling has been demonstrated to result in improvements in incidental vocabulary acquisition and syntactical competence (Incalterra McLoughlin, 2009) and increased pragmatic awareness due to the simultaneous exposure to textual and visual input (Lopriore & Ceruti, 2015), and to enhance intercultural language education (Borghetti & Lertola, 2014). The positive impact of reverse subtitling concerns improvements in learners' writing skills (Talaván et al., 2016), particularly in terms of grammatical and orthographic accuracy and vocabulary range and control (Talaván & Rodríguez-Arancón, 2014).

Secondly, subtitling appears to be more motivating for learners than regular written translation mainly due to its challenging but entertaining character as perceived by students (Incalcaterra McLoughlin, 2009; Incalcaterra McLoughlin & Lertola, 2014). It can be assumed that the precondition of being enjoyable for

learners is of particular importance as far as simulated translation tasks in FLT are concerned as it notably influences their effectiveness with regard to fostering learners' communicative competence.

Conclusion

The tentative classificatory framework proposed in the present paper can be instrumental in designing FL teaching and learning tasks that involve translation process and are based on a judicious use of its specifics, benefits and pedagogical potential. As demonstrated here, the uses of translation in FLT are manifold. Hence, any attempt to introduce it as a task should start with a clear identification of the exact pedagogical objective regarding learners' FL proficiency, which will inform the subsequent decisions about the choice of a source text and its possible adjustments, such as the need to introduce a compensatory mechanism to shield learners from distracting influences of a variety of linguistic and extra-linguistic phenomena found in a text as a unit of communication. The skill of translating for common, everyday purposes, which constitutes the essence of cross-language mediation, is increasingly gaining weight as an independent communicative language skill that is indispensable in intercultural environment. This motivates the need to teach mediation in an FL class, which, in turn, requires both teachers and learners to realise that the scope of cross-language mediation reaches beyond the linguistic repertoire of an FL into the sphere of plurilingualism and that it equally involves a set of non-linguistic skills that also need to be developed. An attempt to introduce learners to the practice of simulated translation in an FL class calls for particularly careful planning in terms of the compatibility of the source text with learners' level of FL proficiency. Taking into consideration the challenging nature of translation activity as such, an important prerequisite to be met here is the need for translation activity to be entertaining and challenging to a manageable degree.

Acknowledgment & Permissions

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An investigation into the effects of prompt selection on writing complexity, accuracy, and fluency: The case of Iranian learners at different proficiency levels

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Abstracts
Self-selecting of the material has been the arena of discussion by the researchers of L2 pedagogy. While some believe that it can be effective, others believe that it is detrimental to L2 learning. Hence, the purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of self-selected and teacher assigned writing prompts on the writing complexity, accuracy, and fluency of Iranian EFL learners at beginning, intermediate, and advanced proficiency levels. The theoretical aspects of the current research were founded based on Theory of Reasoned Action (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980) and Choice Theory (Glasser, 1998). Given that, 52 Iranian EFL learners (beginning N = 19, intermediate N = 16, advanced N = 17) participated in this study. Each student was asked to write about two writing prompts: one selected by the students and the other by the teacher. Using relevant indexes, we measured writing complexity, accuracy and fluency with regard to the two writing prompts. The results indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between the writing complexity, accuracy, and fluency of L2 learners when they wrote about their own self-selected prompts and when they wrote about the teacher assigned ones. The results also revealed that L2 learners' writings were more complex, accurate, and fluent when they wrote about their self-selected prompts. The findings of this study can have some implications for L2 writing instructors and test designers.
Keywords*:* complexity, self-selected prompt, theory of reasoned action, writing quality

Introduction

Second/foreign language writing has become a well-established field of inquiry within the realm of second language acquisition (SLA) with different defined manifestations such as journals, conferences, and professional organizations (Hyland, 2016). This might be due to the importance of writing skill, as a prerequisite for L2 profession; requiring L2 learners to develop their L2 writing (Baynham, 2000). Given the importance of writing skill in the process of acquiring

L2, the factors helping L2 learners to further their writing ability should be explored. That said, the factors can have debilitative or facilitative effects on the writing development of L2 learners among them is topic selection. To investigate the effect of topic selection, two theories can be called upon: The Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) proposed by Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) and the Choice Theory proposed by Glasser (1998).

Approaching chronologically, TRA focuses on the doer of an action and states that actions can be influenced by attitudes of doers (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). When selection of materials for SLA is at focus, TRA can be applied. Popham (2005) has declared that the perceptions and attitudes of L2 learners about subjects, methods, and approaches in SLA can have effects on the final triumph of L2 learners in learning the instructional materials. To put it in another way, L2 learners' positive attitudes with regard to context and methods may have effect on their being successful in acquiring an L2.

Choice Theory, proposed by Glasser (1998), points out that in the traditional context of learning, learners are forced to do whatever their teacher asks them. In this context of learning learners have no free will to do what they like to do. Consequently, much of their ability is devoted to quench their teacher expectations (Wang, 2010). However, as Buss (2000) acknowledges if Learners have their own choice of approaching the learning context their learning ability and their performing quality will improve qualitatively. If a context of learning with the characteristic of providing choice will be provided for the learners, their self-regulation will increase and they will enjoy doing the tasks since they have been motivated internally (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Self-selection of the materials by L2 learners can be discussed by referring to the above mentioned theories. In SLA, self-selection of the materials can be attached to different L2 skills such as reading and writing. Sewell (2003) and Kragler (2000) stated that allowing L2 learners to select their reading materials may lead to the enhancement of their motivation in learning the materials and involvement in the process of learning the materials. However, self-selecting materials for the purpose of learning L2 by the learners may open to proficiency level critiques. It can be stated that there may exist a threshold level determining when the L2 learners will be able to self-select their L2 learning materials. It will be a question for SLA educators whether L2 learners at each and every proficiency level can self-select the L2 materials. The case is even harder for writing skill. As a multifaceted skill, it is believed that writing skill needs different factors to conjoin to see development in L2 writing quality of the learners.

Writing quality should be differentiated from writing performance. The former proposed by Larsen-Freeman (1976), includes three indexes: Complexity, accuracy, and fluency. Lu (2011) believes that the indexes show language development in writing skill. The latter, however, refers to the writing components

such as grammar and mechanics. The idea of self-selecting or teacher-assigning writing prompts has to do with test fairness in general, and test performance, in particular. If L2 educators' purpose is to prepare L2 learners for the real life— "out there"— L2 learners can, more often than not, be considered as the ones who know which topics they need. Hence, assigning them topics that have nothing to do with their needs may cause problems. Moreover, L2 learners may not like teacher-assigned topics and this may demotivate them.

Consequently, in this study we investigated the effect of self-selected and teacher-assigned writing prompts on the writing quality of Iranian EFL learners. Our purpose was to investigate the issue within different language proficiency levels including beginning, intermediate and advanced levels. Consequently, this study was supposed to answer the following research questions:

1. Is there any statistically significant difference in the writing complexity of Iranian EFL learners when they self-select their writing prompt or when the teacher assigns topic?
2. Is there any statistically significant difference in the writing accuracy of Iranian EFL learners when they self-select their writing prompt or when the teacher assigns topic?
3. Is there any statistically significant difference in the writing fluency of Iranian EFL learners when they self-select their writing prompt or when the teacher assigns topic?

Literature review

In this section, we review the literature to discuss the theories underpinning self-selection of L2 materials and the writing quality indexes.

Theory of Reasoned Action

When for the first time TRA had been proposed, it focused on the behaviors which individuals could control on their own (Ajzen, 2012). TRA is a model, relatively conceptual, whose proposers' aim was to examine human behavior (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). There are two main principles based on which TRA examines one's attitude in doing his/her behavior— including "principle of compatibility" and "behavioral intention"— making TRA a predictive model appropriate to be used in various fields of study such as education, technology, science (Mishra, Akman & Mishra, 2014) and recently SLA (Sewell, 2003).

The principle of compatibility states that there is a strong correlation between attitudes of individuals and the behaviors they do. This can be explained through the definition of behavioral criterion which includes four elements, among them are the action, the context, the target and the time (Ajzen, 2012). Given that, there are relationships among the four elements. As so, the target directs the action in a specific context which has especial time of occurrence. More often than not, the four elements can be used to define and evaluate attitudes. Human beings' attitude

to do something, as Ajzen (2012) believes, is targeted at a particular action in a context with specific time interval. The principle of compatibility is a predictive one which can evaluate whether an attitude leads to action or not (Ajzen, 1991). Consequently, three factors are involved: attitude toward the behavior (either positive or negative), social acceptance or rejection, and the ability to do the behavior (Ajzen, 2012).

The other principle of TRA, behavioral intention, is to some extent different from the principle of compatibility which pays less attention to the attitude. It recognizes attitude as a part of behavioral intention. According to Oni, Oni, Mbarika and Ayo (2017, p. xxx) "TRA proposes that individual behavior is influenced by the tendency towards that behavior (Behavioral Intention) whereby BI is formed through a combination of two variables: attitude towards behavior and Subjective Norm." Consequently, the combination of an attitude with the acceptance norms can change the behavioral intention of an individual. All in all, it should be stated that TRA, as a predictive theory, may not be able to predict the influence of identity on the behavioral intention of doing an action (Paquin & Keating, 2016).

Choice Theory
Choice theory, which has similar tenets to TRA, states that human beings' belief, attitude, and identity drive them to do an action (Boyd, Crowson & Geel, 1994). According to Glasser, (1998) individuals can fully control their own actions. It means that the choices we make during our life are directed from our inside and manifest our personal and psychological traits. According to the tenets of Choice Theory we cannot control others the same as we can control ourselves. All we can do with others is to provide information for them. One other principle of Choice theory is that the position we are in now is due to the choices we made previously in our life. Moreover, similar to TRA, Choice Theory mentions four components for a behavior including acting, thinking, feeling, and psychology which one can establish different relationships among them (Glasser, 1998).

Applying TRA and Choice Theory in SLA
The manifestation of TRA and Choice Theory in SLA can be traced out in self-selection of materials. Carroll (1997) believed that allowing students to self-select the materials in the classrooms increased their internal motivation for furthering their studying. Self-selecting materials had been investigated in relation to the language skills including reading, speaking, and writing.

With regard to reading skill, Edmunds and Bauserman (2006) sought to understand which factors can contribute to the increase in the motivation of the students to read L2 materials. They found out that students' desire to read had a positive relationship with their freedom in choosing their reading materials. The

results of the study by Edmunds and Bauserman (2006) have been verified by a qualitative study done by Threadkell (2010). In his study, Threadkell concluded that students had positive attitude with regard to the reading materials they themselves selected in comparison to what the teacher had assigned them. The findings of Threadkell's (2010) study also showed that self-selected reading materials would help students to better understand the materials.

Some studies have been done on the effect of self-selected materials on speaking performance of L2 learners. Ellis (1990) had investigated the effect of self-selected topics on the speaking ability of the L2 learners. He came to the conclusion that the acquisition of speaking ability of the L2 learners developed and improved when the students self-selected their topics. Later on, in 2013, Wolf investigated the perception of the students of the topics they discussed in the classroom assigned by the textbooks and those selected by the students themselves. The results of a 5-likert scale showed that the students perceived their own selected topics better while they discussed them.

A few studies have been done about self-selection of materials in writing instruction (Bonyadi, 2014). In a study conducted by Gradwohl and Scumacher (1989), the writing performance of learners regarding three topics including "want topic" desired by the learners, "do not want topics" not desired by the learners, and teacher assigned topics were investigated. The results of their study indicated that learners performed better on topics they themselves selected in comparison to those selected by the teachers or those they did not like to write about. Leblanc and Fujieda (2012) investigated the lexical variation of the writing of university students when they selected the topics by themselves. The results showed that the range of vocabulary knowledge could be understood through topic autonomy. Later on, Bonyadi (2014) conducted a study to investigate the effect of self-selected and teacher assigned topics on the writing performance of L2 learners. The findings of his study demonstrated that there was a significant difference between the writing performances of L2 learners on the two topics with better performance on the self-selected topics.

As shown through the above mentioned investigations, the tenets of TRA and Choice Theory have been used in various studies to see the effects of self-selected materials, as the manifestation of the two theories, in different skills. What has been ignored in these studies is the quality of different skills after allowing L2 learners to select their own topics and materials. The quality of a skill can be measured through the three indexes called complexity, accuracy, and fluency (CAF) which is discussed in the next section.

Complexity, accuracy, and fluency: A way to measure writing quality

SLA researchers (e.g., Ahmadi & Meihami, 2017; Breiner-Sanders, Swender, & Terry, 2001; Lu, 2011; Meihami & Rashidi, 2018) believe that one should make a

distinction between writing proficiency of L2 learners and their writing quality. The former involves rating scale to measure the performance of L2 learners in different writing components, the latter involves in CAF. Lu (2011) states that CAF can deliver "a full of language development in L2 writing" (p. 38). CAF can be used to measure the developmental growth of writing quality.

Complexity in general and syntactic complexity in particular are mostly measured by using T-unit (Hunt, 1970), communication unit (Bardovi-Harlig, 1992), and speech unit (Foster, Tonkyn, & Wigglesworth, 2000). Ortega (2003) proposed five indexes to measure the writing complexity including sentence complexity, coordination, subordination, length of production, and particular structures. Sometimes, based on the proficiency levels of the L2 students different indexes can be used for measuring the writing complexity. According to the SLA researchers (e.g., Ortega, 2003; Norris & Ortega, 2009) to measure the writing complexity at the beginning level one can use coordination, then subordination for upper-intermediate students, and sub-causal for the advanced students.

With regard to the writing accuracy Lambert and Kormos (2014) pinpoint the importance of error free units. However, one may argue for the validity problems of such a measurement due to the ignored complexity of different discourses (Palloti, 2009). Nevertheless, based on the reasons such as the ease at which one can measure writing accuracy and the correlation existing between local and global errors, error free proportion production is an appropriate one (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005; Wigglesworth & Storch, 2009). Consequently, according to Wigglesworth and Storch (2009) the accuracy of writing can be measured based on the proportion of error free clauses to all clauses.

The third index of CAF through which writing quality can be measured is fluency. The first factor based on which the fluency of writing is measured is how the written text is native like (Polio, 2001). Tarone et al. (1993) state that "nativeness, standardness, length, ease of reading, idomaticity" (p. 170) are the components of fluency. Given the nature of writing fluency, Wigglesworth and Storch (2009) proposed three measures for fluency including the number of words, the number of T-units, and the number of clauses in text.

Rationale for this study

The main purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of self-selected writing prompts and the teacher assigned ones on the writing quality of Iranian EFL learners at different proficiency levels. First of all, this study benefited from the tenets of TRA and Choice Theory. Secondly, and most importantly, the previous studies investigated the effects of self-selected writing topics on the writing performance while in this study we investigated writing quality. Moreover, there is paucity of studies conducted in the EFL context. Consequently, in this study we

investigated the effect of self-selected writing prompts on the L2 learners' writing quality in an EFL context based on TRA and Choice Theory framework.

Method
Participants
A total number of 52 Iranian EFL learners, ranging in age from 19 to 23, in the three proficiency levels (19 beginning learners, 16 intermediate learners, and 17 advanced learners) participated in this study. According to Thomas (1994) there are different ways to assess language proficiency: institutional status, impressionistic judgment, specific research design test, and standardized tests. To selects our participants, we went through two of the mentioned approaches. First of all, the institutional status of the students was the first criterion for us. Needless to say, this method is not that reliable since in each class there may be some students above and below the specific proficiency level called high achievers and low achievers. We used two standardized tests, one for obtaining true beginning and intermediate proficiency levels called Preliminary English Test (2014) (PET) and the other for obtaining true advanced learners called Module TOEFL (2014). Table 1 show characteristics of the participants of this study.

Tab. 1: *Participants' Characteristics*

Proficiency Level	Boy	Girl	Total	*M* in PET	*M* in Module TOEFL
Beginning	8	11	19	45.5	-
Intermediate	6	10	16	85	-
Advanced	9	8	17	-	68.5

(Note: Module TOEFL score was converted to 100.)

Procedures
Since the theoretical foundations of our study were established based on the theories of TRA and Choice Theory, each session we allowed our participants to choose one topic by themselves and write about it. Moreover, to cover the teacher assigned prompts each session the teacher asked them to write about a topic which was provided by the teacher. It should be stated that the teacher provided corrective feedback on the two writings. During 9 sessions students wrote 18 essays; 9 based on their self-selected prompts and the other 9 according to what the teacher assigned to them. It should be stated that the writings were done by the students at home.

In the tenth session, the teacher asked the students to write about two prompts in the class. One of the prompts was introduced by the teacher and the other one

was self-selected by the students themselves, individually. Students had no more than 30 minutes to write about each topic. It should be stated that since our participants were at different language proficiency levels, the minimum writing length for beginning students was 120 words, for intermediate students was 200 words, and for advanced ones was 280 words.

Data analysis

It should be stated that we analyzed the writings, both the teacher assigned and self-selected ones, written by a student together. Consequently, we run several paired sample t-test to obtain the results. Before that, to measure students' writing quality with regard to self-selected and teacher assigned topics we used different indexes for measuring complexity, accuracy, and fluency. Reviewing the related literature (e.g., Skehan & Foster, 1997; Tavakoli & Rezazadeh, 2014), we came to the conclusion that the appropriate indexes for measuring complexity would be the number of clauses in each T-unit and the percentage of dependent clauses to all clauses; for accuracy we calculated the number of error-free T-units (then we converted the results to percentage), and the number of error-free clauses (then we converted the results to percentage). Finally, with regard to the index for measuring fluency, we used the average number of words per text and the number of T-units per text.

According to Dunsmuir et al. (2014) care should be taken when assessing writing due to the subjective nature of assessing writing. Having this in mind, in this study 20% of the essays written by the students at different levels of proficiency were rated by another rater who was well-informed of the indexes we used in this study to measure students' writing complexity, accuracy, and fluency. The inter-rater reliability was calculated for each levels of proficiency and as a whole. Using SPSS 21, we calculated weighted Kappa index. Due to the briefing sessions the two raters had on the data analysis procedure we obtained rather high indexes for rating the writings belong each proficiency level (beginning r = .82; intermediate r = .86; advanced r = .88) and as a whole (r = .84).

Results

The first research question of this study was to obtain information whether a statistically significant difference existed between the writing complexity of L2 learners at different levels of proficiency when they self-selected the writing prompt and when the teacher assigned the topic. As earlier stated we used two indexes to obtain the complexity of the students' writing: Clause per T-unit and dependent clause proportion to all clauses. We conducted a series of paired sample t-tests in order to compare the mentioned indexes of both writings. Table 2 shows the results.

Tab. 2: Complexity Measure of the Three Proficiency Levels: Self-selected and Teacher Assigned Prompts

Proficiency Levels	Indexes	Selection types	N	Mean	Std.	t	Sig.	Eta
Beginning	Clause per T-unit	Self-selected prompt	19	1.94	.84	2.13	.04	.11
		Teacher assigned prompt	19	1.42	.60			
	Dependent clause proportion	Self-selected prompt	19	3.89	3.76	3.79	.001	.28
		Teacher assigned prompt	19	1.92	2.18			
Intermediate	Clause per T-unit	Self-selected prompt	16	2.50	.81	3.50	.003	.29
		Teacher assigned prompt	16	1.75	.68			
	Dependent clause proportion	Self-selected prompt	16	28.31	4.74	2.60	.02	.18
		Teacher assigned prompt	16	23.43	6.98			
Advanced	Clause per T-unit	Self-selected prompt	17	3.29	.84	3.78	.002	.30
		Teacher assigned prompt	17	2.17	.80			
	Dependent clause proportion	Self-selected prompt	17	31.76	8.42	4.34	.000	.37
		Teacher assigned prompt	17	27.35	6.72			

As can be seen in Table 2, the mean scores for the self-selected prompts are higher for the three proficiency levels both regarding the clause per T-unit and dependent clause proportion. Moreover, the inferential statistics well demonstrates that there is statistically significant difference between the complexity of writings for which the students themselves selected topics and the ones for which the teacher selected topic.

As can be seen in Table 2, except for clause per T-unit in the beginning students' writings (Eta = .11 moderate effect) all other indexes of Eta of all levels showed that there existed a large effect of self-selection of the prompts on students' writing complexity.

The second research question aimed at investigating the accuracy measure of the students' writing quality when they self-selected their writing prompts and when the teacher assigned writing prompt for them. Table 3 indicates the results we obtained investigating error-free T-units and error-free clauses.

Table 3 indicates that students are more accurate at all proficiency levels when they themselves selected topics to write about. Moreover, the range of Eta squared (from .46 to .61) obtained indicated that the magnitude of difference was high. All in all, Table 3 shows that students at different proficiency levels tended to be more accurate when they self-selected their own writing prompts.

One other writing quality measure is fluency. The third research question was seeking to answer whether or not students at different proficiency levels could write more fluent while they selected their writing prompts. To answer this question, we calculated the number of words per text and T-units per text and then ran paired samples t-test to compare the two groups' writing fluency. Table 4 shows the results.

Table 4 shows that there was a significant difference between the writing fluency of L2 learners at different proficiency levels when they self-selected the writing prompts and when the teacher assigned the prompts. Moreover, the magnitudes of difference, except for words per text in advanced learners, are high according to Cohen (1988).

Discussion
The current study was an attempt to investigate the role of self-selection and teacher assigned writing prompts on the writing complexity, accuracy, and fluency of Iranian EFL learners at the beginning, intermediate, and advanced levels. The results showed that with regard to the three indexes of writing quality and within the three proficiency levels when students self-selected their writing prompts their writings were more complex, more accurate, and more fluent (Tables 2, 3, and 4). Moreover, the results of this study indicated that having topical knowledge about the topic and being related to the already covered L2 materials were the factors leading L2 learners to select their writing prompts (Figure 1).

Tab. 3: The accuracy measure among the three proficiency levels: self-selected and teacher assigned prompts

Proficiency Levels	Indexes	Selection types	N	Mean	Std.	t	Sig.	Eta
Beginning	Error-free T-unit	Self-selected prompt	19	12.10	3.12	6.42	.001	.53
		Teacher assigned prompt	19	10.05	2.96			
	Error-free clauses	Self-selected prompt	19	13.63	3	6.35	.001	.51
		Teacher assigned prompt	19	10.57	1.95			
Intermediate	Error-free T-unit	Self-selected prompt	16	22.12	8.25	7.32	.001	.61
		Teacher assigned prompt	16	19.93	6.78			
	Error-free clauses	Self-selected prompt	16	21.68	9.67	7.32	.001	.61
		Teacher assigned prompt	16	18.50	7.45			
Advanced	Error-free T-unit	Self-selected prompt	17	37.64	5.25			.46
		Teacher assigned prompt	17	30.52	5.37			
	Error-free clauses	Self-selected prompt	17	43.52	6.58	6.96	.001	.46
		Teacher assigned prompt	17	36.82	5.41	9.36		

The results of the study with regard to the writing complexity showed that L2 learners at different proficiency levels tended to write more complex when they self-selected their prompts. This can be related to the notion of task complexity. According to Robinson (2007), task complexity refers to cognitive processing demands of a task. L2 learners are able to produce complex productions (either oral or written) out of the simple tasks (Jackson & Suethanaporkul, 2013). We can, hence, argue that the topics which are self-selected by L2 learners are less complex for them. Consequently, they would be able to produce more complex writing based on those prompts.

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Tab. 4: The fluency measure among the three proficiency levels: self-selected and teacher assigned prompts

Proficiency Levels	Indexes	Selection types	N	Mean	Std.	t	Sig.	Eta
Beginning	Words per text	Self-selected prompt	19	135.73	27.33	4.57	.001	.36
		Teacher assigned prompt	19	101.21	25.71			
	T-units per text	Self-selected prompt	19	27.47	5.63	9.64	.001	.87
		Teacher assigned prompt	19	20.47	3.93			
Intermediate	Words per text	Self-selected prompt	16	181.81	43.69	4.23	.001	.37
		Teacher assigned prompt	16	170.50	44.87			
	T-units per text	Self-selected prompt	16	34.06	10.22	2.37	.03	.15
		Teacher assigned prompt	16	29.31	7.98			
Advanced	Words per text	Self-selected prompt	17	281.58	56.27	2.21	.04	.12
		Teacher assigned prompt	17	268.70	49.79			
	T-units per text	Self-selected prompt	17	54.29	7.67	2.98	.01	.20
		Teacher assigned prompt	17	49.58	6.94			

Topical knowledge can provide insights for other explanations for the the results of this study. Topical knowledge is "the interaction between one's prior knowledge and the content of a specific passage" (Alexander, Schallert, & Hare, 1991, p. 334). The interaction with previous materials can lead L2 learners to be content-wise, meaning that they can approach a topic with higher competence. The interaction with complex content helps L2 learners to be able to write more complex, even at the lower levels such as the beginning level. We can also relate the ability to write more complex to Schmidt's (1994) noticing hypothesis. L2

learners self-selected topics which they had topical knowledge about. Based on the noticing hypothesis, these topics had been already noticed for the learners and they could pay their attention to them. It is easier for them to produce complex writing out of these topics in comparison to those topics assigned by the teachers and the students might not have background information about them.

With regard to accuracy, the results of this study showed that when L2 learners at different proficiency levels self-selected their writing prompts they were more accurate in comparison to when the teacher assigned them a topic. There is an interaction between the writing prompts selected by the learners and their situations or the context. Nassaji and Tiam (2010) and Swain (1998) believe that different sorts of interactions can lead to improvement in language accuracy. One can argue that since the interactions which the students had in their daily life are more than that of the L2 learning contexts, especially in an EFL context, they can benefit from them in their writing accuracy. In another word, the daily interactions become a part of the students and the interaction topics, so. This can be a reason for better performance regarding writing performance when the learners selected their own topics to write.

From a cognitive point of view, when learners' attention is fully focused on one subject matter whose different aspects are clear for them they can have better performances in doing that task. This is what Ellis (2004) states as focused and unfocused tasks. Unfocused tasks might lead to higher accuracy while focused one might have a detrimental effect on L2 production accuracy. One difference between the two tasks is that unfocused tasks are wider in options, making them more difficult to deal with in comparison to focused tasks. Having this difference in mind, teachers who assigned the writing prompts might have different aspects and options leading to the prompts difficult for the L2 learners to write about them. Consequently, since L2 learners were allowed to select their own topics they selected the ones which they could have their full attention on.

Moreover, Xing and Lue (2015) state that when the task complexity of a text decreases the producers of that text commit less errors. In the current study we have noticed that task complexity of the writings of the L2 learners decreased at different levels of proficiency while they themselves selected their writing prompts. This can be seen in Table 4 that the lower proficiency level a student is, the less complex his or her writing is. This might be another reason for the fact that their wiring accuracy also was higher when they self-selected their writing prompts.

Finally, the results of the current study showed that L2 learners at different proficiency levels wrote more fluent texts when they self-selected the writing prompts in comparison to when the teacher assigned the writing prompts. One reason for these results can be the fact that by self-selecting their own writing prompts, L2 learners selected the ones based on task pre-planning. According to

Yuan and Ellis (2003), task pre-planning can increase writing fluency. According to that, while leaners preplan a task, they will become cognitively ready to produce output about the task either in written form or in oral one. Consequently, when the learners selected their own topics they were cognitively ready to write about it and could produce a more fluent writing output.

Conclusion and implications

The current study investigated the effects of self-selected and teacher assigned writing prompt on the writing complexity, accuracy, and fluency of beginning, intermediate, and advanced learners. The results indicated that L2 learners at different proficiency levels wrote more complex, accurate, and fluent when they wrote about their self-selected writing prompts in comparison to the teacher assigned ones. The results are in line with that of Bonyadi (2014) and Wang (2010) in which they found a positive effect of self-selected materials on the writing performance of the students. The results, thus, supported the idea that proposed by TRA and Choice Theory in which the doer of an action does his/her best when he/she wants to do something selected by himself/herself. Moreover, in choosing writing prompts for their writing, the participants tended to have in mind the areas of their competency; when topical knowledge was involved.

The results of this study make us to be careful regarding the writing topics. First of all, if L2 programs aim to prepare L2 learners for the real life, and we know that the L2 learners study L2 languages for their education success, most often than not, why we should assess our students' writing based on non-relevant topics. This is the area He and Shi (2012) studied with regard to the effect of topical knowledge on the writing performance of ESL learners. The non-relevant topics might have effects on our participants' writing performance; consequently, we would not be able to obtain their true writing ability. Second of all, based on the principles of TRA and Choice Theory and the results of the current study, L2 learners would be more successful when they self-select the materials. This is related to the notion of learner-centeredness in L2 pedagogy (Hannafin et al., 2014). Self-selecting of the materials can help L2 learners to situate their learning and learn from their learning process.

The findings of this study have some pedagogical implications. By putting learning responsibility on the shoulders of L2 learners, it will be possible to involve them in the process of learning. Moreover, if L2 learners believe that their "voice" has a place in the process of learning they will be motivated to respond to the their learning. More particularly, in the writing instruction courses, one of the problems is selection of topic for writing. L2 teacher can have the opinions of L2 learners and select writing prompts out of different areas L2 learners selected.

Some further studies can be conducted as the follow up for the current one. First of all, this study can be replicated with more participants at different

proficiency levels. Furthermore, some studies may investigate the probable threshold level after which L2 learners' self-selection of materials can contribute more to their learning. Finally, it will be a valuable study if the effect of self-selection of materials on other L2 skills will be investigated.

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Lowland Slovak youth literature and its interpretational and educational aspects (within and outside the school)

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Abstract
An integral part of the Slovak cultural context is also Lowland Slovak literature, which includes certain areas of Hungary, Romania and Serbia. The paper outlines the partial development of Slovak youth literature in these regions. It gradually characterizes the most important aspects of diachrony of this segment of writing (in a certain chronotope that is bound to selected prototexts). Based on objective-subjective interpretations of three emblematic works of this context, it highlights - as a certain typology - not only the general / universal, but also the specific / particular (that is particularly relevant to the context) in intra- and intercultural relations. It accentuates the literary tradition, which is still a useful source of realistic short stories and novels for child percipients in these diasporas. It also traditionally and innovatively points out the typical features of teaching in individual national-minority schools in the mentioned countries. Methodologically (but also practically) it is, of course, based, on thematic, motif related, etc. aspects of the analyzed (selected) works and their possible reflection in school education and learning environment. Finally, the use of language / features / motifs / aspects / procedures is concretized in specific conditions outside the physical boundaries of the homeland as a kind of perspective on the correlation of the difficult process of cultural education itself.
Keywords: nationality, Lowland, education, particularity, youth-literature, intepretation

Introduction

Naturally, cultural and literary development has primordially been a continual event that touches on contemporary reality and directs, understandably, into an unknown future. However, it is not a bad thing, because every individual (whether a person, a juvenile, a pupil, etc.), creating a society, can assume a multidimensional point of view. From a certain educational point of view, he or she is helped by books (or even schools), that provide him or her with testimony of the life and activity of ancestors and offer the opportunity to capture some sort of interpretative moments and thoughts of presence for the offspring. This dynamic,

straightforward dimension of the phenomenon is natural, self-evident, necessary. On the other hand, it is also desirable to have a synchronous view of the continuum - in our case primarily from the aspect of interpretation. The reception of the temporal and geographical determinants of the aforementioned development involves the problem of sorting out the differences between the literary-historical and actual value of the work (and its educational credo). The present time of literature is not only the result of the literary past, but also the outcome of our active reading attitude towards this past. At the same time, it is one of the means to defend oneself by means of the effect of cultural time against the consequences of physical time (the text is a shelter against noise, the school is a shelter against illiteracy). In fact, tradition in a certain sense will stimulate the actual literary communication of the present. The development of culture (including literature) is therefore also reflected in the returns to works already previously communicated, which (based on the terminology of the Nitra semiotic school) represents an update of literary communication. Therefore, the (already mentioned) retrospective view is needed, albeit accompanied by an outlook to the future. Thereby they enter the cultural and literary context of intellectual spaces and appertures for written patterns of the past, creative activities of the present, and plans for the future. This view is extremely important and useful in the educational process itself. However, its possibilities, forms or methods differ in the individual enclaves of the Lowland (also in their literary processing). It is traditionally contaminated by the specific, by a "ďurišinesque particularity" (as conceptualized by Dionýz Ďurišin), and thus a multidimensional testimony is given that we are not only similar but also different - hence as diverse as our Central Europe has been. This is also reflected and concretized in the various Lowland cultural-educational contexts: in Hungary, Romania and Serbia (also based on the independent existence of the Slovak minority).

1 Contours of Slovak language education in Hungary (also from the aspect of national identity)

Few deny the importance of education in the mother tongue. However, national minority schools are more vulnerable than schools that provide instruction in the state language. It was already, the Ratio Educationis (1777), the organizational order for the school system in Hungary, that enabled the establishment of schools with mother tongue instruction. Despite the formulation of the need for teaching in the native language, the functioning of national minority schools has not been without issues, which in the 20th century have often become a tool of assimilation processes. The radical decline in the number of Slovaks in Hungary is also largely due to the imbalance in education. The most serious problem in contemporary schools of this type is that "... *most children communicate only in Hungarian when they enter the kindergarten, when joining schools they speak Slovak only at the level*

of their kindergarten, in their family circle they do not learn the mother tongue of their ancestors. If the child is bilingual, the dominant language is mostly Hungarian" (Farkašová, 2008, p. 583). During the centrally managed school system in 1946-1979, only the curricula changed seven times (while changes in the number of lessons were even more frequent). However, since 1958 the teaching of Slovak language and literature showed a constantly decreasing tendency. Even today, we consider "... *the main cause of the current unflattering state of language proficiency the given change to bilingualism*" (Pečeňová, 2003, p. 42). In addition, it is important to note that the changes in teaching Slovak were followed by innovations in teaching with a certain delay. This process is well identifiable today; the mother tongue has become a target language. However, a relatively new phase of language teaching begins both quantitatively and qualitatively at the second stage of primary school. The number of subjects taught in Slovak is slightly increasing. This gives some hope for making the language competence of pupils of Slovak nationality more effective. The roots of this - overall, ambivalent - process can be traced back to the 1970s, when in more and more places "... *the teaching of national minority language returned to the framework of normal lessons, and the prescribed number of hours increased slightly. In several schools, that until then only taught the national minority language as a separate subject, they attempted to extend the teaching, to introduce a bilingual system, but these attempts did not bring substantial results*" (Paulik, 2002, p. 131). The fluctuation in the number of lessons for national minority languages, the introduction of zero - so-called extra – teaching hours, of course, also influenced the social prestige of these languages and the education of teachers for these given subjects.

In this constellation, the issue of identity building is also extremely important, which "... *is the most important self-educated consciousness through which one can with a well-founded motivational base create out of a hidden identity even a dual identity. The emergence of a balanced dual identity is conditioned by a certain intellectual level and a strong mental resonance of the individual*" (Maruzsová Šebová, 2002, pp. 132-133). However, gradually emerging schools of the bilingual type "... *do not meet even the most basic requirements for preserving the mother thongue and national identity*..." (Polónyová, 2016, p. 117). However, with emerging pedagogical methods that are consciously targeted but not directive, some positive shift can be achieved. Effective are disciplines developing self-knowledge, such as cultural history of Slovaks, knowledge of Slovak nationality in Hungary, ethnography, etc. It is worthwhile to devise a way of working for pupils, which could, after all, result in a positive image of Lowland Slovaks also thanks to Slovak literature in Hungary.

When it comes to the language situation of Slovaks in Hungary, it must be stated that the national minority is actually struggling to preserve the mother tongue itself. The base place where the Slovak language is so-so cultivated and preserved

is school. In general, the situation of the Slovak language in the school system of Hungary is very critical. A whole complex of factors contributed to this situation: deficiencies in the system of teaching the Slovak language during the past regime, the dominance of the Hungarian language in the current school system, the consequences of the relative weakness of identity within the Slovak community, etc. That is why Slovak intelligentsia in contemporary Hungary considers it an extremely important task to "*build Slovak language education on holistic and humanistic foundations. It must be ensured that, in the context of language education, the youngest generation implicitly creates and strengthens national identity, preserves the traditions of ancestors, while ensuring that the national minority school meets new societal demands*" (Barthová-Fazekašová, 2002, p. 180). Most Slovak families in Hungary are unable - or only partially - to pass on to their children the linguistic and cultural heritage of their ancestors. This responsibility has shifted to school institutions that have several specific roles (Hornoková-Uhrinová, 2003, p. 35): pupils must learn the language of their ancestors at school; one of the main tasks of the Slovak school is to maintain, further develop, actively cultivate and pass on Slovak culture to its pupils; teachers should strive for their pupils to become aware of their Slovak origin, national identity, or at least consciously accept their double bond and bilingualism. Thus, education is becoming a decisive factor in the future life of Slovaks in Hungary. In this way, pupils learn the principles of national behavior at school, and their overall relationship with Slovak culture and language is developed. However, other Slovak minority institutions and organizations need to consolidate the influence of schools. Students, parents, educators need to feel "Slovak lives" outside the school. Most pupils must be able to acquire communicative competence from the Slovak language at oral and written level. However, it is difficult to ensure real bilingualism. At the same time, it is regrettable from the point of view of language that the dominant Slovakian enclave is today the dominant diaspora language community in Hungary, which has almost been replaced by Hungarian; however, in recent times there has been a slight increase in the interest in revitalizing Slovak, especially in the field of the intelligentsia with the possibility of growing Slovak in kindergarten, in bilingual primary schools, in Slovak grammar schools, at university level; there is also mass media support for the preservation of Slovak language (Dudok, 2008, p. 19).

In schools where Slovak is taught as a subject, the achievable level of language acquisition is relatively low due to the modest number of Slovak language lessons. Therefore, in relation to issues of nationality, it is also necessary to speak explicitly about the language of the national minority. The child will maybe not adopt his or her national language first, but may nevertheless identify with it, whereas belonging to a certain nationality means, first of all, national consciousness and, secondly, commanding the language itself. Although parents do not speak with

children in Slovak - thanks to the atmosphere, habits and traditions - in the family the child can realize that it belongs to the Slovak national minority. The school could achieve a status when commanding the Slovak language could get close to commanding the mother tongue or the first language. The newly introduced subject of Slovak education offers great possibilities in the development of national identity.

2 Specifics of minority being from the perspective of education in the prose of Michal Hrivnák

Michal Hrivnák (1936) applied such a cultural and literary approach in a multi-directional way in his collection entitled Tulips (Slovak: Tulipány, 1986), in which he published intentional prose for the youth called Boys from Dead end street (Slovak: Chlapci zo Slepej ulice). It is a novel with boys' heroes, temporally distinctive, supported by a certain educational intention. It's a book about children, about the feelings of boys growing up, about their efforts to live properly. In the background, Hrivnák's talent appears "... *to appeal in a non-violent way to the conscience of adults who, for their own problems, do not see the problems of others, not only in a closer family enviroment but also in the social dimension"* (Čipková, 1989, p. 87). The textual space is based on the Lowland environment of the village bounds surrounded by corn and wheat fields, houses and *sálašes* (places of solitude, dwellings with farm buildings in the land area). It is a world of children's mischief, but also of specific adaptations to objective conditions. The pure natural world is contaminated with human anger. Common moments are also determined by school hardships. From a national point of view, it is important that the boys are taught Slovak at school. Probingly they pursue the world of adults, they are receptive and confront the peculiar state of the times. There is also an important question in the text about the kind of double identity of Slovaks in Hungary, which is concretized in the figure of a Slovak teacher. Didactically, however, slightly exaggerated is the fact that the boys cling to him and his Slovak language, which is a "pleasure to listen to". National consciousness, the need to cultivate the mother tongue and traditions, deepens, both directly and indirectly, because: "*For everyone the most beautiful and sweetest thing is the language one has learned from his or her mother. And that is how it should be!*" (Hrivnák, 1986, p. 149). Thus, an individual associates with a community and common work (for example, the establishment of a Slovak club). A significant feature of this is the road sign with the Slovak village name - Konopište. This suggests that they understand their own villagers' identity as being "also" Slovak: "*How is it actually? – he started contemplating ... His parents talk in Slovak every now and then. And especially ol' gran; she doesn't talk to him and his parents otherwise, only in Slovak! - It may hence be true that we are Slovaks!*" (Hrivnák, 1986, p. 143). Even the children try to achieve symmetrical bilingualism, especially for practical reasons. Age is a

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differentiating sign of the language level of the inhabitants of Konopište: the elderly, who did not have the opportunity to learn Slovak at school, often variate their Slovak testimonies with Hungarian expressions. However, there is also an obvious effort to establish Slovak clubs, to meet not only for fun, but also to spread knowledge mutually. Slovakness emerges first out of shyness at school, but it gradually grows into pride. Interest is thus expressed in the Slovak micro-environment both in and outside the school.

However, it was not always like this... The sharp stratification of the village in the past was gradually replaced by a new, post-war generation with an effort to raise its own nationality. The lords were no longer the mayor, the notary, the sworn and the *gazdas* (landlords) who grinned against the poor. The cruel mockery for Slovakness is replaced by mutual tolerance at the beginning of the new era. School education of the past, backed by compulsory hungarization, is described in the text only by Herbartian methods (i.a. those who cannot pray in Hungarian, must kneel at the wall and are to be mocked not only by classmates but also teachers). The teacher is a relentless authority that applies official state policy to the school environment: he tries to make the Slovak language disgusting not only to pupils but also to parents. However, at that time, the general impulse of the Slovaks was their request to have their own school in the village, so that the scribes in the local community house would be able to speak Slovak appropriately and also to deal with their official affairs in their mother tongue. The Slovaks took in these cruel times mainly refuge in the surrounding housings (*sálaše)*, which, by means of their enclosurers, perhaps even maintain the complex Slovak traditions. Is it a however starting point or a goal?

The specific presence of Slovak surnames with their etymology determines this tradition (Červenák, Keleš, Kešiar, Komár, Moťovský, Pavlík, Vozár and others) and is actually based on the hemp paradigm of the Lowland. The Konopište village with the land bounds where people sowed, chopped, soaked, shook and combed hemp, symbolizes persistence; in fact, the pulsating life of the settlers from somewhere up there in the "Upland" in Lowland *sálašes*.

The psyche of the Lowland pupil is similar to but also different from his peers in the parent country. He enjoys holidays, football and carefree moments of doing nothing but he cannot use his native language where and when he wants to. He must keep some distance, think deeper, and be more tolerant. However, he has a solid Slovak identity inside. This fact in the text of the children's protagonists is confirmed by a slightly idealistic description of the behavior of a boy who likes to read Slovak and goes to Czechoslovakia with his parents to improve his native language. The Dead end street is thus a witness to the psychological development and gradual maturation of the new Slovak generation in Hungary. The symbolic (even archetypal) cane-covered home gradually turns into shingles and a tiled roof. An interesting visit from Czechoslovakia is coming to the Lowland by this

holiday time. Its attribute is a Škoda with a Czechoslovak registration mark, which stops under a mulberry in The Dead end street. In the child's soul, this - at that time atypical - moment creates an ambivalent feeling (typical of the chronotope). But it is a lively and exciting expectation of an unknown boy from Czechoslovakia with new adventures. However, this emotion is also contaminated by distress, confrontation with the new, the unknown, the strange: "*He, I guess, was afraid they would not understand each other that he would stay in shame, for he did not know Slovak that nicely as those from Slovakia*…" (Hrivnák, 1986, p. 176). However, the symbolic Rákóczi march is international, general, unifying. It creates a common children's world of understanding, hideouts, games, experiences - the psychic development of a young child in a group. It is an invisible bond of belonging that unites the representative of a nationality with the land of ancestors. However, the holidays are naturally spiced up with common trips around the area. As a pendant, the invitation of Janko Kmeťko from the Lowland to visit the High Tatras is used. It is a journey of physical and mental nature, expanding the natural diapason of his world (and young readers), spiced up by the encounter of the Lowland with the hills, greenery with blue sky; accompanied by a mystery and an indescribable feeling of a young person's desire for knowledge. These are the outer and inner mysteries of our world, the moments of expeditions to unknown regions. Buda Mountains represent a kind of curtain between the home and the new world. Elisabeth Bridge, Boráros Square, Gellért Hill, Kossuth Street or Margaret Island are the trails on the road to the new, unknown. However, new knowledge of the life of Slovaks in the region is also important. In the text, the coordinates of the contemporary cultural being of this nationality and its most important creative acts are mentioned. Significant is the mutual understanding, partially concretized in the repair of the car and the meeting of the Slovak with the Hungarian. The world of the High Tatras is generally similar to that of the atmosphere of the Lowland; only smells are different. People are the same - friendly - towards the boy from the Lowland, who in the High Tatras gradually creates a perfect children's world thanks to his imagination (chasing, playing bandits, hide-and-seek). Of course, Slovak and Hungarian are also important in this environment as a kind of connection by means of communication between children. Their world here is also interwoven with humor, but it is written with a great deal of didacticism. In the High Tatras, children become Jánošík, captains or thieves, and their commitment to mental and linguistic understanding is important. The fact that the young hero is delighted by the fact that even in this far region he has happened upon a compatriot is a reader-friendly event. The journey home (to the Lowland, to Konopište) is presented with impressions that are not lost even when helping adults at home in the field or at the market at the Evangelical Church. Thus, work and beliefs are combined with the child's psychological development, which in these Lowland parts is gradually understood without words.

Thus, in the book Tulips, stories with children's motifs dominate, in which the author has demonstrated excellent characterization abilities. Overall, Hrivnák's favorite world is the world of teenage boys in the background of knowledge of their psychology and the propensity to moralize, and the humorous elements in his prose are also evoked. Fictionalization does not cause him any difficulty, he creates playful stories, controls situational humor, without any fuss he knits episodic situations into larger epic units, which could be sufficiently impressive even from the educational aspect. However, the delivery of the didactic message can be regarded as a lack of authorial self-confidence. Seen from this point of view there is also some analogy between Molnár's The Paul street boys (Hungarian: Pál utcai fiúk, Slovak: Chlapci z Pavlovskej ulice) and Hrivnák's Boys from Dead end street. Apart from the somewhat artificial character, "... *we can find an artistic representation of the search for one's national roots. In this prose, Hrivnák undertook to show that the process of getting rid of roots and looking for a way back to one's own society has its own rules*" (Andruška, 2013, p. 52). When examining Hrivnák's texts, there is a clear work with the language - in the case of a minoritarian author, the matter is not negligible: he uses a dialect and does not avoid archaisms. Boys from the Dead end street are like all other children - direct and playful. In one thing, however, they differ from others: they awaken in their awareness of Slovakness, the feeling of pride that they know something that others don't (in Slovak). In fact, the novel is a reaction to a problem: children do not adequately command literary Slovak nor Slovak dialect. Thus, the author puts the focus on promoting good knowledge of the Slovak language in the circle of adolescent boys of the given epic space-time. His concept of cultural revitalization of Slovaks in Hungary is specified in the text by a pupil of a Slovak primary school who is open to accept new information on the basis of which he gradually builds Slovak awareness. The writer applies a realistic method when writing the text. The heroes are from the 70s of the 20th century leading a communicative "battle" about national issues. The author "... *attempts to transform national-political ideas towards the school youth ... This intention is also followed in the selection of captains of two groups of boys who represent a diametrically opposed attitude to their nationality. It will come to light after the discovery of a new sign with the Slovak village name "Konopište", which is also the plot of the story*" (Maruzsová Šebová, 2013, p. 33). Under the influence of new knowledge and personal experience, Janko tries to define his identity and also considers the importance of his mother tongue. In his fate as a lonely pioneer of Slovak feeling, the eternal lot of the harbingers of idealistic views is reflected in their isolation. Janko compensates for his condition by the company of an unknown older gentleman, a former resident of Dead end street, who visits the village from Czechoslovakia to visit his family (mister Červenák).

At the same time, parents are completely absent from the process of the children's self-recognition. At this point, Hrivnák points "... *to their indifferent*

attitude towards their roots, as a result of which the transfer of cultural traditions moves from the family to its outside, and becomes either institutional in nature or based on random, spontaneous situations" (Maruzsová Šebová, 2013, p. 36). All the following episodes are focused on creating negative content of Fero's remark and on proving Janko's truth, who, through his output, will be admired by his new Slovak friends, which is a satisfaction for him due to the infidelity of his domestic friends. Finally, in an international youth camp in the High Tatras, two alienated friends meet: Janko and Fero. Janko takes over responsibility for Fero as his rescuer, who then acknowledges that commanding Slovak is important and can even save a life.

After all, everything comes from the Dead end street, which is not a dead end afterall. It is the center of existence, a fiery and symbolic cross path of the development of a young Slovak generation in Hungary. The boy's friendly match is not only about football but also about meetings here and there: in Konopište and in the High Tatras - about coherence, memories and plans, which may be attributes of brighter tomorrows of newer and newer generations of this nationality in Hungary.

3   The presence of the national aspect in the (out of) school environment of Slovaks in Romania

Maintaining Slovak national awareness by the Slovak minority is also a permanent process in Romania. Several actors and institutions are and have been involved. The most important of these is the Slovak school. It can also be concluded from the complex work that the success in the pedagogical process "... *can never be permanently achieved through stereotypical repetition of the same procedures*" (Porubský, 2005, p. 46). The professional equipment of the teacher also includes such skills as activity, creativity, permanent search for more effective methods and means of education (also in national schools) - but also appropriate language competence. In Romania, we have a well-developed type of enclave with a very diversified language, after Vojvodina in Serbia it is the most prominent Slovak enclave with a developed school, folklore, church, publishing and mass media network (Dudok, 2008, p. 21). Slovak - as a mother tongue - has an important place in "their" schools with Slovak language instruction. Its key position is determined by three factors, including the various areas in which Slovak is manifested and applied: linguistic, didactic and socio-political. Slovak is a language, and its role also follows from it. Language as a system and specific communication realization - speech, discourse, language pragmatics - performs certain basic (primary) and secondary functions. Basic functions include cognitive and communicative functions. Slovaks do not succeed in life without the Slovak language, which, of course, also applies in the school, where these functions are fully applied, even deliberately developed. The learning process cannot do without Slovak as a

carrier. Its importance is given by the fact that it is used for learning and supervising the participants of school education as a means of realizing goals also in the lessons of other subjects. This position is also influenced by the subject Slovak language and literature, which is of particular importance in the system of subjects and in the teaching process, since its functions can be hardly substituted by the extracurricular environment in the case of minority existence. In a minority position, "… *the representative national / minoritarian, cultural / ethnic symbolic function leads to self-identification, to understanding of mutual belonging to others at home, in the mother country and in the world* …" (Anoca, 2012, p. 8). If a variety of Slovak is acceptable in common communication, it is necessary to strive (at least) for a good standard of standardized Slovak in terms of building competence and promoting performance. Slovak as a learning discipline is taught starting from the kindergarten in present-day Romania and its status is equivalent to the majority language. Out-of-school or extra-curricular activities make it possible to extend the scope of Slovak as a language, a means of communication and a learning discipline. A common factor includes the state's macro-structural elements as a ministry, defining the education plan and approving the curriculum. Non-structural components, consisting of civic associations and fellowships, also affect the position of Slovak. These can also be associated with cultural incentives from the societal environment (such as radio and television).

Bilingualism is a natural phenomenon in a multicultural environment. It leads to creolisation, alternation of codes in communication, which is normal in linguistic terms; in terms of identity, existence and school - unbearable. In the 5th to 12th year of school attendance, to the mother tongue "… *the same number of lessons per week is devoted as to teaching Romanian in schools with Romanian instruction*" (Heckel, 1996, p. 177). Overall, Slovak schools in Romania have played a decisive role in preserving national (minority) identity. Nevertheless, it is not to be denied that there has been a strong assimilation of Slovaks in Romania in terms of recognizing one's identity. The roots, however, are binding, because the idea of establishing a secondary school in Nadlak (Romanian: Nădlac) was also supported by Slovenský týždenník (Slovak weekly), published in 1929-1932. However, the necessary material conditions, qualified teachers were not there - even the general interest in such a school among the Slovaks was not great. The children of the Slovak peasants and the poorer craftsmen hardly went to four-five years of folk school and they were already working. The question of establishing a Slovak secondary school in Romania was settled only after World War II, when the "Czechoslovak" State Gymnasium was founded in Nadlak in autumn 1945. Thus, the desire to acquire higher education in the mother tongue in the home environment has become a reality. So the organization of minority education was activated. An important role in the development of Slovak education in Romania has up to this day been played by the Theoretical Lyceum of Jozef Gregor Tajovský

in Nadlak and the Jozef Kozáček Lyceum in Bodonoš (Romanian: Budoi) (and, of course, about 15 elementary schools). Of course, such a creative environment of the school, has brought up personalities in the field of literature, who have given a specific picture of the complex and partial existence of their nationality.

4 The young person as a paradigm of determined education in the text of Pavol Bujtár

From the point of view of the youth topic in Romania, Pavol Bujtár (1936), who published a novel entitled Shepherd (Slovak: Pastierik, 1996), written in 1960, can be mentioned as an example. So the author subscribed to literature before he made his successful debut in 1965; a proof of this is also this book. In general, Bujtár "... *is the most authentic when he grasps the spaces, realities and figures of the Lowland from an earlier and closer past*" (Štefanko, 1997, p. 96). He has enough power to bring the author's voice closer to the soul of his teenage heroes. Thanks to the linear story, he follows his young hero's actuation in his "vocation" as a shepherd; the facts are presented through his perspective. These descriptions are engaging; the storyline turns into a number of side stories that give the prose a more engaging touch. The author's presentation converges with the soul of teenage heroes. The traditional story, characters, the theme, motives, environment, types and the mentality of people are depicted with a certain typology. The author used the child aspect method; the dominating topic is adolescence itself with a psychological depiction of characters. This process (in the highly distorted world of adults) is featured with a social undertone and an ubiquitous moral attitude of the narrator, who follows the action of a young hero - farm-hand (*bírešík*) (a young cotter) in a *sálaš*. Bujtár's Shepherd comes from modest circumstances; the author describes the poor conditions of people's life with an alliance to the texts of Fraňo Kráľ. In terms of motifs it is based on a meeting between the mother and a teacher, who has to allow the young person to drop out of school when they need him at home and in the field. The strenuousness, honesty, sensitivity and decency of the young boy are accentuated by his home and school nurture despite his modest proportions. The world of the book is contrasted to the shepherd's environment, which, however, does not want to give up letters even on the *sálaš*. It is a sign of his certain mental maturity and education. Of course, his company cannot be made by just a book; three similar swains (*chasníci*) (grown up lads) such as him are relieving their grief for their relatives. The common destiny (of a cruelly experienced childhood) makes them allies who sometimes, naturally, invent mischiefs. However, they want to free themselves from an uneasy status. The author emphasizes that this is only possible if they learn to read and write at school. Janko's empathy with a weak-minded boy is a sign of his kindness, which he also learned at school. With a dramatic sequence of events, the author describes in a reader engaging way that the young shepherd has forgotten about the cows

when reading a calendar on the fields. He uses the words of an old (and therefore experienced) man of wisdom who talks about the possibilities to break out of poverty by reading: "*Read for the reason that you are poor and read there where you can because being a swineherd is your school. Read, for you have no father, you have no possessions, and the people around you are just as poor as your mother. Maybe there will be a time when you will become someone...*" (Bujtár, 1996, pp. 54-55). Jankov's peaceful life of serving is interrupted by his brother Mišo's visit, who is reserved. He has no sympathy for his hobbies and is a supporter of physical work despite his uneasy fate: "*Remember, you are poor, you have to live with a bowed head ... the school is for reading, here you are working with your hands and hard so*" (Bujtár, 1996, p. 61). It is actually a clash – even a confrontation - of two worlds and ideas. Therefore, the young boy uses his leisure time (also) meaningfully in the service of others: he teaches his friends - shepherds to read and write. His way of searching for books, copybooks and pencils for others is engaging for the reader. He thinks collectively, but performs actions individually. He is left to his fate from which he can only be liberated by his own tenacious work, diligence and cleverness - that is, also by the knowledge gained in school. Gradually, in the story, the motif of the book is raised to the level of a symbol as a spring of wisdom, which the teacher gave to Janko. After acquiring skills, young boys-shepherds become beings who are already thinking deeper. The space of a young boy's imagination is opened by the hope to conquer a new world of the future. There is also an opportunity to pull oneself out of this world with one's own cunning: Janko Sýkora overcame his reeve and read something out of the newspaper aloud. Therefore the reeve had to fulfill his promise and let him go home for at least two days, at least temporarily freeing himself from the daily drudgery. His visit to the teacher is described emotionally. The teacher's directions addressed to the boy arise from his fatherly effort to hone his character. At the same time, the physical and psychological (character) development of a young shepherd gets to a higher level, which symbolizes the departure from the *sálaš* back to his home. This return is spiced up by the empirics of the (un) easy laws of life. In the context of the wider epic space, a contrasting chronotope with a tendency to migrate is thus used in the text. In Bujtár there is a constant "domestic" space (the young shepherd's *sálaš*) which is also disturbed by the "exotic" (the arrival of his brother, and later his mother). In fact, the cycle begins and ends in the *sálaš* type of life and duties of a young shepherd. However, his gradually acquired education is also evident.

Overall, the goal of both the parent and the teacher is that "*... our children's literature will be read with pleasure, that children will read it, and so that our children continue to grow their and our mother tongue. So that we remain children and do not die*" (Štefanko, 1998, p. 220). Bujtár's prose The Shepherd is marked by a certain cliché, perhaps even an inevitable one, when we consider the period of its origin. With this prose, however, the author has proven that he can masterfully

navigate in traditionally written texts, where he views people and the environment through children's - especially boys' - heroes. His narrative talents can grasp the young reader. And that is the beauty of (also national) youth literature.

5 Traditional but always up-to-date didactic motifs in the youth prose of Ján Kopčok (among Slovaks in Serbia)

Schools are both an environment and a means by which the nation(al minority) is maintained or revived. These lessons are much more demanding, requiring an increased pedagogical measure from the teacher. However, the results of his work "... *cannot be measured in the usual way. The methodology and methodological procedures have their own peculiarity*" (Bujtár, 2005, p. 51). Things are not different in the Slovak national schools in Serbia (in the Autonomous Province of Vojvodina). There, too, the Slovak school should guarantee that Slovaks can live on in the Lowland. At the same time, the existence of Slovak instruction is their distinctive feature. As for the language competence en bloc, we can say that in the given territory, the Slovak enclave and the diaspora Slovak language are the most viable, developing as a diversified language with pluricentric characteristics within public communication spheres and interpersonal communication with a strong sense of diglossia; a fully developed school network from pre-school establishments to university education, a diverse publishing network, a public private network of radio and television broadcasts of regional and local character, vibrant theater professional and amateur activity (the only Slovak professional theater outside Slovakia), a scientific research infrastructure focused on linguistic-ethnic parameters (Dudok, 2008, p. 21). On the whole, it can be stated that the use of Slovak (and the overall cultural creativity) of Slovaks in Serbia has deep roots, contemporary instantiations and perspectives. This is also reflected in a pars pro toto manner in the intentional youth prose of Ján Kopčok (1929 - 1993), entitled Boys from the sálaš (Slovak: Chlapci zo sálaša, 1986), in which the themes of anti-fascist resistance and rebuilding of society resonate. Youth literature has gradually begun to lean towards different typological orientations in the given chronotope. On the one hand, the traditions of didactic focus continued and, on the other, "... *the efforts of expressive and thematic modernization were also clear*" (Harpáň, 2000, p. 111). This feature is also concretized in the above-mentioned text of Kopčok, in which the author points to typical Lowland attributes. It is a world of fertile plains where the adventures of three boys - friends are standing at the center of the sujet, who together herd a *falka* (flock) of cows near the Varadin road. This determined chronotope is the co-ordinate of the story taking place at the end of World War II. Thus, the author applies his didactic intention in the typical atmosphere of Yugoslavia being progressively liberated by the partisans. The educational moment, which is, however, unobtrusive, is introduced as a part of the story of carefree childhood. However, it is, of course, contaminated by war experiences at

an appropriate age. In the center of the short story are *geregy* (melons) and the *geregár* himself (melon grower). Everything is directed towards the *pľac* (weekly market), where *jahodače* (strawberry schnapps) are sold symbolically and particularly. The melon field as an atypical (and specifically Lowland) environment is the center of the psychological development of the young boys. Their adequate debates are followed by "just" the surrounding nature with mulberry leaves as significant attributes of the Lowland, where: "*High cornfields towered against the purple sky as dense skirmish lines of javelineers with hairy headbands on helmets lined up to attack. Maize was shucked, cornrolls were tied behind the last leaf, and the intoxicating scent shook the crumbly pollen to the delicate blue-greenish hairs that had sprung from behind the leaf, where a long and thick cob would grow later*" (Kopčok, 1986, p. 20-21). In their shadows, the houses-*sálašes* are blazing like solid walls of physical and mental resistance. The *šujgar* (the end of the frayed whip), *bačkory* (traditional slippers), rocker wells and threshers are actually symbols of this flatland. It is a world of youth work in the field, which - regardless of age - thanks to home and school education helps where it can. Rotten melons as a remuneration for helping the *geregar* constitute fiery flames of an increased sense of justice among the youth. As children of war, they should be extremely receptive and literally watch their surroundings. However, they must also be neutral in relation to the *periaš* (the Hungarian fascist gendarmerie) and the partisans. Their behavior is thus the result of the (mentioned) correct home and school education, which breezes through the text in secondary order. In the background of the child's mind, the image of the partisans appears - perhaps naturally - whereas they are talked about as being certain roles models for the youth with grenades, machine guns and bunkers. Jánošík's and Tito's parallel is characteristic for the time, but from author and reader perspective unintrusive. The starting point and goal of the young are the surrounding land bounds, which serve not only as a backdrop, but also as a hideout of the mysterious partisans in the eyes of children. The young boy witnesses a friendly secret visit of the resistance fighters in their dwelling, unconsciously learning coherence and discipline. The gradual psychological development of the children is specified by the fact that they slowly put together war events in their minds, which are essentially related to their micro-society. It is a sign that children are exposed to more intense emotional experiences in the war. An interesting, but slightly didactically unnatural motif is their unwavering way of keeping the secrets of the partisans even towards their friends. Nevertheless, they (as children of war) are playful and courageous, because they bring out a comic revenge as a retribution to the niggardly reeve (they mark his beautiful melons prepared for collaborators with five-pointed stars). In such escalated periods, the human (and thus child's) character will crystallize, which can be the basis for the future adult's

straightforwardness through proper education and guidance at home and at school.

This environment for raising children, naturally, is also affected by the national environment (Croats, Slovaks, Serbs, Swabians...). Therefore, it is necessary to learn (at home and at school) adequately to understand and create human and social conditions of different coexistence. This is also facilitated by the opening of the gymnasium, for it gives hope to a more peaceful tomorrow. However, they are gradually reduced because of the war period. In the lives of children, it is concretized by the presence of the *Hitlerjugend* (a German fascist youth organization) in the village. It confronts their character and overall education. But *apko's* (father's) word is law, a friend's idea a model. It is a period in which even a children's uniform is important for further psychological development. Service to oneself, one's friend, family, village and homeland is the basis for a solid character, concretized in the moderate primacy of the author's ideas. Thus, the individual develops especially in family and school, the social in camp life. Apart from the horrors of the war, it would be the ideal state of psychodidactic development of the young generation. However, it is the time of the *šťukas* (pikes) (the German army's headlong strikes during World War II) and the death that is contingent. However, it is important to point out these attributes, which have a lot to say to today's young reader and that can serve his/her complex education.

Conclusion

Slovak culture in the Lowland, i.e. in Hungary, Romania and Serbia, has something to say to today's man (also in the field of literature). It gives testimonies not only to different times, but also to human characters. Some of them, of course, may also be models for child percipients. They are general and specific texts, both classical and modern, and bearing in themselves, of course, distinctive symptoms of their own chronotope. What, for example, is a matter of course in the cultural context of Slovaks in Serbia, is only a desire in the Slovak community in Romania or Hungary (or the other way around). However, the effort is uniform: to demonstrate to oneself, to one's ethnicity, to the majority nation and the mother country, what is significant about being Slovak in the context of nationality. It is therefore important to accentuate the peculiarity - even uniqueness - of one's existence as a minority by means of literature. This is especially true for youth literature, because this age category is particularly perceptive of the outside impulses in the school and extracurricular environment. And there is an unrepeatable opportunity for the teacher as a human to "grasp" a young pupil or student who gradually perceives the world in its peculiarities. The didactic process itself, thanks to the interpretation in and outside the school (with some hyperbolization in fact throughout life), also helps to develop it.

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On the basis of selected literary texts, we have tried to point out the specificity of individual Lowland Slovak communities from the cultural-literary and educational aspects. However, the choice of texts was not accidental: all three were intentional prototexts of the middle epic with a Lowland color, its minority being and spacetime, and boys' heroes who had an integral experience of that which is specifically national. On the other hand, these texts were in terms of themes and motifs classical, real, general. By combining these two amplitudes, a fundamental symbiosis of the cultural-literary development of the Slovak enclaves outside the physical boundaries of Slovakia was created. The second pillar was presented in terms of coordinates of the educational features of these minorities. However, "only" those basic, typical attributes of school minority education were sketched out that are related to these individual literary texts in terms of age and topic. After all, school and family, adult and child, teacher and pupil, minority and majority... thus human and human, were put together in order to present a partial picture of the existence and specificity of Slovaks (Slovak children) in the Lowland.

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Teacher-student interaction and management practices in Pakistani English language classrooms

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Abstract
This study aimed to investigate the amount and type of teacher-talk, frequently asked questions and feedback provided by the teacher on learners' performance in a language classroom. For this purpose, a lecture was recorded from a secondary level English language classroom of a public sector school and interpreted in the light of teacher-student interaction and classroom management model by David Nunan. Results revealed that the maximum amount of time (i.e. 80.1%) was consumed by the teacher which was appropriate. However, certain deviations from classroom management principles were also observed regarding frequently asked questions (i.e. 50% of the total questions were elicitation questions) and the feedback (it was 'romantic' in nature). Moreover, wait-time was sufficient but it was of no use to the learners. The study concluded that classroom practices did not conform to the principles therefore, it proposed to ask questions and provide feedback appropriately.
Keywords: classroom management; feedback on learners' performance; language classroom; teacher-student interaction; teacher-student interaction practices

1 Introduction

"Classroom management and teacher-student interaction are integral to sound methodological practice" (Nunan, 1991, p. 189). In its narrowest sense, classroom management means the avoidance of disrupting behaviour of learners (Berliner, 1988). But in its broader sense, classroom management means: (a) the process of conducting and organising classrooms to ensure maximum learning and prevent disturbances (Callahan & Clark, 1998); (b) refers to the teachers' decision to support and offer maximum learning opportunities (Krause, Bochner & Duchesne, 2003) and (c) in the view of Tan, Parsons, Hinson and Sardo-Brown, classroom management involves activities to facilitate orderly and encouraging environment. Common classroom activities include: material preparation, planning and organisation, classroom decoration and enforcement of classroom rules (2003) which, according to Berliner (1988), entail activities to maintain an atmosphere to

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provide positive conditions for learning and in the view of Farris (1996), classroom management activities involve the management of time, communication and engagement of learners. From the learners' perspective, classroom management involves clear communication of academic and behavioural expectations and the creation of cooperative learning atmosphere (Allen, 1986).

Classroom management is a difficult task. Many teachers leave teaching due to the problems related with classroom management. In 1981, the US National Educational Association reported 36% of the teachers saying that they would not join teaching profession if they had to decide again. The main reason for teachers' disliking was reported to be related with discipline and attitude problems (Wolfgang & Glickman, 1980). Martin and Yin add that managing a classroom varies depending on the number of factors including subject matter, place of teaching and level of education. As such, managing language learning classrooms is expected to be dissimilar from managing math, history and geography classes (1997). EFL classroom management demands certain skills and capabilities and the most important of which is using English to manage a classroom (Ababneh, 2012). Richards, Platt and Platt portray the management of language classrooms as: "classroom management includes procedures for grouping students for different types of classroom activities, use of lesson plans, handling of equipment, aids, etc., and the direction and management of student behaviour and activity" (1992, p. 52). In another classification, Brown and Lee (1994) propose that EFL classroom management encompasses the handling of physical setting including light, seating, and facilities in the classroom. In addition to all these aspects, Richards and Rodgers (2014) assert that EFL classroom management requires teachers' control over students' behavior and teachers-students interactions. This study considers teacher-student interaction as an important aspect of classroom management.

Interaction is a significant factor of a good student-teacher relationship (Duffy, Warren & Walsh, 2001) and classroom is a place where the closest interaction between the students and the teachers takes place (Muhammad & Ismail, 2001). The way a teacher interacts with the learners serves as a determining factor in terms of impact. In this regard, personality plays an important role i.e. teachers' personality determines interaction style in the classroom. Moreover, the knowledge of different aspects of interaction helps a teacher become influential on learners. In fact, student learning outcomes are determined by the way the students and teachers interact with each other. In their meta review, Wang, Haertel and Walberg reported student-teacher interaction as being among top three most important factors (1990). The fact is that the way the teachers interact with learners, helps translate into such products as are vital to education process (Englehart, 2009).

Literature on classroom research shows that the interaction between teachers and learners differs on account of certain characteristics (Englehart, 2009). Among these characteristics include; race (Cornbleth & Korth, 1980), learners' academic ability (Ilatov, Shamai, Hertz-Lazarovitz & Mayer-Young, 1998), socioeconomic status (Goddard, Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001), and gender (Drudy & Chatháin, 2002). In the view of Englehart (2009) awareness is the solution to this problem (Englehart, 2009). Englehart bases his claim on Brophy and Good (1974) who write, "once teachers are made aware of inappropriate teaching on their part, the vast majority are willing and eager to change" (p. 270). This study, therefore, aims to highlight classroom management and student-teacher interaction practices in a Pakistani secondary level (Grade-10) language classroom and thereby make the teachers aware of the ways they are interacting in the language classrooms and suggesting them to interact the way as prescribed by the experts.

1.1 Problem statement

This study aimed to highlight the factors of classroom management in a Pakistani secondary level (Grade-10) language classroom as defined by experts (e.g. Berliner, 1988; Brown & Lee, 1994; Callahan & Clark, 1995; Krause, Bochner & Duchesne, 2003; Richards, Platt & Platt, 1992; Richards & Rodgers, 2014; Tan et al., 2003) in general and by Nunan (1991) in particular. As defined by Nunan (1991), it is student-teacher interaction practices that correspond to classroom management as discussed in the introduction and literature review sections. Therefore, this study investigates teachers' talk, teachers' questions, and teachers' feedback as the contributors to student-teacher interaction which further contribute to effective language classroom management (Nunan, 1991).

1.2 Objective of the study

This study was initiated to investigate teacher-student interaction practices (as postulated by Nunan, 1991, as the identifier of classroom management) in a Pakistani secondary level language classroom. In further details, the study looked for answers to four sub-research questions followed by one main question:

1. Do the classroom management and teacher-student interaction practices in a Pakistani secondary level language classroom match with the principles proposed by the experts for effective language classroom management and positive teacher-student interaction?
I. What is the amount and type of teacher talk practiced in Pakistani secondary level language classroom?
II. What type of teachers' questions is frequently asked in a Pakistani secondary level language classroom?
III. How do the teachers provide feedback on learners' performance in a Pakistani secondary level language classroom?

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IV. What are the main Pakistani language classroom management problems and how they can be overcome?

2 Literature review
2.1 Teacher talk

Teacher talk is a special language which the teachers use when addressing L2 learners in a classroom (Ellis, 1989; Richards & Schmitt, 2010). In Nunan's view, teacher talk means the language which the teachers use to organise a class for language teaching (1991). Xiao-Yan (2006) defines it as the language that the teachers use in classroom for instruction purposes. All above definitions, agree on one point i.e. teacher talk means the language used by the teachers in the classroom. However, this study focuses on Nunan's as an operational definition. The reason for selecting Nunan's definition is that the aim of this study surrounds the theme of a language class organisation which is the kernel of Nunan's definition. Teacher talk plays an important part in language learning process (Xiao-Yan, 2006). For, in the view of Nunan:

"*Teacher talk is of crucial importance, not only for the organization of the classroom but also for the processes of acquisition. It is important for the organization and management of the classroom because it is through language that teachers either succeed or fail in implementing their teaching plans. In terms of acquisition, teacher talk is important because it is probably the major source of comprehensible target language input the learner is likely to receive*" (1991, p. 189).

Teacher talk works as tool which helps the teachers implement teaching plans. It also serves as an input source for the learners (Blanchette, 2009; Jing & Jing, 2018). The teachers utilise teacher talk to cultivate intellectual ability, for instruction purpose, and to manage activities in the classroom (Feng, 2007). In addition, teacher talk helps organise, explain, reformulate, summarise and redirect what the teachers and students say in the classroom (Blanchette, 2009). Therefore, the usefulness of language teaching depends on the type of interaction and language used in the classroom (Long & Porter, 1985). Thus, the teacher talk should be of high quality to create effective as well as harmonious environment for student-teacher interaction. Otherwise, teaching will be nothing more than a monodrama in the classroom (Jing & Jing, 2018).

Different studies (e.g. Hu Xuewen cited in Xia-Yen, 2006; Nunan, 1991) have enlisted a number of features of teacher talk. Among these features, the first one, according to Jing and Jing (2018), is concerned with the form of teacher talk which involves speech modifications, pauses, repetitions and speed. However, Nunan (1991) has called these forms as the 'types of teacher talk'. The second feature is concerned with the control and organisation of the class which involves; teacher questions, feedback on learners' performance, the quality as well as quantity of the

teacher talk (Hu Xuewen cited in Xia-Yen, 2006; Nunan, 1991). Hu Xuewen calls the first feature as the 'formal feature' and the second as 'the functional feature' of the teacher talk. Since, one of the aims of this study is to investigate the appropriateness of teacher talk in a Pakistani language classroom; the formal feature does not seem relevant here. Therefore, this study will focus only on the functional factor of teacher talk.

2.1.1 Amount of teacher talk

Teachers do by far the most talking in the classroom (Nunan, 1991). In an inservice teacher training program, teachers were asked to record and analyse their lessons. After, the analysis was complete, the teachers were asked about what surprised them. In response, most of them replied that they were surprised by the amount of talk they did in the classroom (Nunan, 1990, 1991).

A number of studies (see Chaudron, 1988; Cook, 2016; Nunan, 1991), conducted in language classrooms, have established that the teachers talk forms 70-80 percent of the whole class talk. According to Nunan, the materials overburden the users with an 'embarrassment of riches' to which Breen and Candlin (1987) have called 'abundance of data'. In Nunan's view, the embarrassment of riches (i.e. abundance of data) forces the teachers to consume more time. Whatever the reason may be, Nunan considers it good for a teacher to talk 70-80 percent of the whole class talk time with the logic that teacher talk provides substantial live target language input. However, Nunan recommends the teachers to avoid excessive talk in the classroom. Excessive teacher talk might have serious implications i.e. excessive explanations or instructions by the teacher in the classroom may restrict student talk severely. In addition, excessive teacher talk may lead to the dominance of the teacher in the classroom which may limit the student talk and as a result, it may affect the development of language proficiency among learners. Therefore, the teachers should try to maximise the student talk in the classroom (Zhao Xiaohong cited in Xiao-Yan, 2006). Same view has been shared by Harmer (2000) who says that the best lessons are those in which student talk is maximised.

2.1.2 Teacher's questions

Teachers' questions are given greater significance in education and are thought to be the only way to assess what the learners know (Wu, 1993). Questioning is the most commonly used technique by teachers (Richards & Lockhart, 1994) to maintain interaction in the classroom (Xiao-Yan, 2006). The tendency to ask many questions is very common among the teachers (Chaudron, 1988). Teachers take more than half of the total class time in questioning-answering sessions (Richards & Lockhart, 1994). That is why teachers' questions have been attracting the attention of many researchers in the past (see Barnes, 1969; Brock, 1985, 1986;

Chaudron, 1988; Ellis, 1994; Gerot, 1990; Good & Brophy, 1987; Ho, 2005; Long & Sato, 1983; Richards & Lockhart, 1994; Rowe, 1974, 1986).

Most used way of analysing teachers' questions in classroom research has been the way of classifying questions. Therefore, this study also adopts classification technique to analyse teacher's questions. Barnes (1969) and Long and Sato (1983), in their studies classified teachers' questions into two categories i.e.: (1) closed or display questions; and (2) open or referential questions. Closed or display questions are those questions of which the answer is already known to the teachers e.g. 'what is the opposite of up in English?' These questions extract mechanical, short and simple answers (mostly require one-word answers like 'yes' or 'no'). These questions demand the learners to display the knowledge obtained in the class. On the contrary, open or referential questions are such questions as for which the answer is not already known to the teachers. Such questions are exploratory in nature and mostly require complex and lengthy responses e.g. 'why don't you do your homework?' Ho (2005) adds that an implication of display questions is that these questions prompt restricted and short responses but do not ensure "genuine communication" (p. 298). Major purpose of display questions is to extract such knowledge from the learners as is already known to the teachers and which the learners have recently learned in the class. Referential questions, in contrast with the display questions, prompt the learners to answer in the light of their personal viewpoints or life experiences. These responses are not factual or text embedded rather they are longer and communicative responses which are quite similar to the real communication. Nunan (1991) adds a new category to the teachers' questions i.e. elicitation questions. Elicitation is, in fact, a technique which is utilised to extract information or knowledge directly from the people (Cooke, 1994). In a language learning classroom, the teacher utilises this technique during the lesson which helps the learners discover and understand the language (ESL Focus, 2017). Chaudron (1988) called it "socratic method" (p. 129) while Nunan (1991) named it "elicitation method" (p. 195).

Most of the studies in the past have been found to report closed or display questions in maximum use of teachers in the language classrooms. One of such studies has been conducted by Barnes (1969) which reports that factual (display) questions are the most frequently asked questions by teachers in the language classrooms at the secondary level. In Barnes view, display questions do not prompt such long and thoughtful responses from the learners as do the referential questions. Same findings (i.e. teachers ask display questions more than the referential questions) have been reported by Ho (2005), Long and Sato (1983) and Nunan (1987). These questions, in their view, require short responses which are restricted to the learners only.

2.1.3 Teachers' feedback on learners' performance

Feedback refers to the evaluation of the learners' response by the teacher (Cook, 2016). Giving feedback on learners' performance is a significant aspect of teaching (Xiao-Yan, 2006). Feedback is provided by the teachers on learners' performance in the form of silence, praise or comments (Richards & Lockhart, 1994). Nunan (1991) categorises feedback into negative and positive. Negative feedback, in Nunan's view, consists exclusively of the teacher repeating students' response with a rising intonation. Positive feedback, on the other hand, consists of short interjections (i.e. good, ok, alright etc). However, Nunan calls the use of words like; good, ok, correct, alright as a 'romantic' feedback. In fact, Nunan supports such a positive feedback as having two functions: (1) it should let the learners know that they have performed correctly; and (2) it should motivate the learners. According to Ur (2008), feedback comprises of two distinct components i.e. (1) assessment and (2) correction. The second component is not the part of this study. Therefore, it will not be discussed here.

Assessment refers to the procedures, techniques or tools to collection and interpret information about what the students can do and what they cannot do. Assessment informs the learners about how well or poor they have performed (Ur, 2008). Teachers' assessment of learners' performance helps promote EFL learning. Therefore, teacher talk should be full of encouragement, confirmation and approval (Xiao-Yan, 2006). Commonly used assessment words or phrases include: (1) confirmation (e.g. good, excellent, that is perfectly correct, no, that is wrong); (2) encouragement (don't worry, that wasn't very good, you can better do that, you fool, idiot, stupid etc.).

2.2 Classroom management problems in Pakistan

Pakistani schoolteachers are facing classroom management problems (Ahmad, Rauf, Zeb, Rehman, Khan, Rashid & Ali, 2012). Major cause of teachers' problems are the children studying in Pakistani schools. According to Ali, many schools in Pakistan, both rural and urban, contain such learners as are disenchanted, disruptive and disturbed. Most of these children, living particularly in rural areas, belong to uneducated families having disturbed relationships (2000). Most of the learners have low self-esteem and they show deviant attitudes. They use abusive language and are fond of delinquency as well as truancy (Ahmad et al., 2012). Similarly, some of the learners, studying in Pakistani schools, live under such community conditions as badly affect learners' readiness for the school. Subjugated environment is the worst community condition which badly affects the learners' behaviour (Ali, 2000). In the view of Omar (2000), children living in subjected environment have more chances to depict inappropriate behaviour as compared to the children living in unsubjugated communities. The inappropriate (negative) behaviour proves to be lethal for both i.e. the learners as well the

teachers which, in turn, badly affects the process of teaching and learning. Such type of negative behaviour should immediately be checked by controlling classroom management problems. For, in the view of Saad (1999), the continuation of classroom management problems causes the development of anti-social behaviour among the learners. This study intends to present a solution for these problems by introducing 'student-teacher interaction' as a useful technique for 'classroom management' in Pakistani language classrooms at secondary level.

3 Research methodology

This study is descriptive in nature based on classroom data which has been obtained in the form of an audio lecture recorded in an ELT classroom of a public sector secondary school located in the central Punjab, Pakistan. The lecture was delivered by a teacher who had been teaching English for over a decade to the secondary school level students (grades-9 and 10). The lecture for this study was recorded in May, 2019 which was delivered to the students of grade-10 on the topic of 'direct and indirect narration' and the duration of this lecture was 45 minutes.

The data was interpreted in different categories i.e.: (1) amount and type of teacher talk; (2) teacher questions; and (3) feedback on learners' performance. All of these three categories were further divided into subcategories. These categories were retrieved from chapter 10 titled 'Focus on the Teacher: Classroom Management and Teacher-Student Interaction' of a book titled 'Language Teaching Methodology' written by David Nunan.

Nunan (1991), citing some studies (will be mentioned in the upcoming paragraphs), discusses first category i.e. 'amount and type of teacher talk' in a number of sub headings i.e.: (i) principles to determine the appropriateness of teacher talk; (ii) issue of code switching; (iii) speech modifications; (iv) input (simplified and elaborated); and (v) comprehension. Similarly, Nunan discusses the second category i.e. 'teacher questions' under subheadings i.e.: (a) distribution of questions; (b) types of questions (i.e. display, referential, and elicitation questions). Lastly, he divides the discussion of third category i.e. 'feedback on learners' performance' in two subheadings i.e.: (i) positive feedback and (ii) negative feedback (for details about these categories, refer to literature review and discussion sections).

The audio was carefully listened and all of the points, related with the mentioned categories, were marked by the researcher himself focusing the on frequencies and time spared for each category or subcategories. After completing the process, assistance of a mathematician was sought to calculate the percentage of frequencies of different categories.

4 Results

4.1 Amount and type of teacher talk

The lecture was delivered in 45 minutes and 36 seconds out of which the teacher talked for 36 minutes and 31 seconds whereas the students talked for 9 minutes and 5 seconds. The percentage of the amount of time consumed by the teacher and students is 80.1 and 19.91 respectively. These percentages indicate that the maximum amount of time in Pakistani secondary school level language classroom is consumed by the teachers.

So far as the type of teacher talk and its appropriateness is concerned, results reveal that most of the teacher talk in Pakistani secondary level language classroom is appropriate. For, the whole of the teacher talk meets two, out of three, criteria of appropriateness (see Nunan, 1991). The teacher remained relevant to the topic. The points, he discussed, were directly related with the topic of the lecture. All of the content of the lecture was well planned. However, there were a number of spontaneous references, but they did not cause any digression from the topic. These findings indicate that the amount and type of teachers' talk in Pakistani secondary level language classrooms is appropriate. It is important to mention here that the teacher does not use target language i.e. English. Rather, he has been found to use Urdu, which is the second language of the learners (Punjabi being their L1) which means that learners are not provided with 'potential input for learning'. The less use of target language in the classroom might also be caused by another common practice by the Pakistani teachers i.e. 'doing a lesson' or 'doing grammar' which comprises of a set of activities e.g. reading of the texts aloud, telling the meanings and interpreting the texts in Urdu or other local languages. Due to these practices, Urdu is used as a dominant language in the language classrooms in Pakistan (Shamim, 2008). In addition, most of the students in Pakistan study in non-elite English or Urdu medium schools where the teachers' proficiency in English is limited which restricts the use of English language in the classrooms for communication purpose (Shamim, 1993; Shamim & Allen, 2000).

4.2 Teachers questions

4.2.1 Type of questions

The teacher asked 70 questions, during the lecture, from the students out of which frequency of display, elicitation and referential questions was 27(39%), 35(50%) and 8(11%). Thus, the elicitation questions were asked in maximum whereas referential questions were asked in minimum frequency. The findings indicate that the teacher in a Pakistani secondary school language classroom focuses more on asking such questions (i.e. elicitation) as extract the information from the learners or such questions (i.e. display) as for which the answer is already known to the teacher instead of asking such questions (i.e. referential) as may prompt learners to provide longer and syntactically complex responses. It signifies

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that the questions asked by Pakistani language teachers, in the light of Nunan's (1991) recommendations (i.e. the teachers should ask more referential questions), are not appropriate.

4.2.2 Distribution of questions

So far as the distribution of questions is concerned, the teacher named 6 students from different groups of the class and directed them to answer. Some of the questions were asked without nominating any students. These questions were answered by different students from the class. This technique distributed the questions among maximum number of students. These findings show that the distribution of questions by the teacher is appropriate i.e. the teacher engages the maximum number of learners.

4.2.3 Wait time

The teacher asked questions in two rounds. In first round, the teacher asked questions before or during the lecture to check the previous knowledge whereas, in the second round the teacher asked questions after completing the instruction process. The wait time, for both rounds, was found to be different. In first round, the teacher increased the wait time upto many seconds (different every time i.e. 16 sec, 2 sec, 3 sec, 6 sec etc.). But mostly, the learners could not provide the answer. Then, the teacher extended wait time upto 2 to 5 seconds but the learners could not answer.

However, during the second round the teacher did not need to increase wait time. The learners provided the answer instantly after the question was asked by the teacher. Therefore, there was no need to extend the wait time. These findings indicate that wait time is not helpful to know the previous knowledge of the learners. On the other hand, students do not need to extend wait time after the lecture.

4.3 Feedback on learners' performance

The teacher provided feedback to the learners. He used a number of words in a try to provide positive feedback to the students such as; good, right, ok and correct (these words are the translated version of the Urdu words used by the teacher). But this type of feedback, as called by Nunan (1991), is 'romantic'.

5 Discussion
5.1 Amount and type of teacher talk

First sub question of the study was raised to know about the amount and type of teacher talk practiced in the Pakistani secondary level language classroom. In this regard, the results reveal that the teacher consumes maximum amount of time i.e. 81.1 percent. These results validate the results of studies by Chaudron (1988), Cook (2016) and Nunan (1991) which claim that the teachers consume 70-80

percent of the whole talk time in the classrooms. This amount, (i.e. 70-80%) in the light of Nunan's statement, "whether or not it is considered a good thing for teachers to spend 70 to 80 per cent of class time talking" (p. 190), is ideal. In the light this statement, it is ideal to find that the teacher has used 80 percent of the 'class talk time'. Nunan (1991) stresses the significance of 70-80 percent teacher-talk time on the plea that:

"*Teacher talk is of crucial importance, not only for the organization of the classroom but also for the processes of acquisition. It is important for the organization and management of the classroom because it is through language that teachers either succeed or fail in implementing their teaching plans. In terms of acquisition, teacher talk is important because it is probably the major source of comprehensible target language input the learner is likely to receive*" (p. 189).

In the light of above quote, the talk of teacher of this study can be seen as important from the perspective of 'class organisation'. After listening the audio lecture, it comes to know that the teacher is consuming maximum talk time on one hand. But on the other hand, we also find that the class is well managed. All of the students are listening attentively to the teacher. They are also answering teacher's questions. This means that the teacher talk, even being more than the students' talk, is meaningful for the learners.

Nunan (1991) permits teachers to use maximum amount of talk time if it is appropriate. To determine the appropriateness of the talk, Nunan introduces three factors i.e. (i) it should be relevant to the point in lesson in which the talk occurs, (ii) it should be planned and should not cause digression and (iii) it should provide 'potential input for target language'.

When we listen the audiolecture we find that, no doubt, the teacher has used maximum amount of talk time. But when we see that all of the points, discussed by the teacher, are relevant to the topic and the lecture is well planned and there is no digression in the lecture, we cannot help saying that the teacher's talk is appropriate. However, the audio of the lecture also shows that the teacher is using Urdu language which is an L2 of the learners (Punjabi is their L1). Therefore, he is not fulfilling the third criteria of appropriateness i.e. providing the 'potential input of target language'. The reasons for not using target language need to be explored. Some of the reasons, given in previous studies, might include common practices by the Pakistani teachers i.e. 'doing a lesson' or 'doing grammar' which comprise of a set of activities e.g. reading of the texts aloud, telling the meanings and interpreting the texts in Urdu or other local languages. Due to these practices, Urdu is used as a dominant language in the language classrooms in Pakistan (Shamim, 2008). In addition, most of the students in Pakistan study in non-elite English or Urdu medium schools where the teachers' proficiency in English is limited which

restricts the use of English language in the classrooms for communication purpose (Shamim, 1993; Shamim & Allen, 2000).

However, setting the last factor (i.e. not providing target language input) aside, it can be said that the teacher talk is appropriate which has been helpful in organising and managing the class and the acquisitioning/learning process. For, it was well planned, relevant to the topic and free from digression.

5.2 Teachers' questions

The second question was raised to know, 'what type of teachers' questions is frequently asked in a Pakistani secondary level language classroom'? In this regard, results of the study revealed that Pakistani secondary level teachers asked elicitation question most frequently as compared to display or referential questions.

To Chaudron (1988) and Nunan (1991) elicitation is unacceptable. To Chaudron this technique is unacceptable because he appreciates the role of a teacher as a guide for the students toward the specific bits of information or knowledge. Whereas, Nunan criticises this technique for being the wastage of time in extracting such information, from the learners, as can well be provided by the teachers.

Nunan (1991) suopprts the use of referential questions in the language classroom. Referential questions are such questions as for which the teacher does not know the answer. These questions activate learners' thinking ability and prompt the learners to provide longer and syntactically complex responses (Brock, 1985, 1986; Nunan, 1991). Therefore, Pakistani teachers, in a language classroom, should increase the number of referential questions for better results. For, these questions prompt complex and lengthy responses (Barnes, 1969; Long & Sato, 1983), ensure genuine communication based on learners' personal viewpoints as well as life experiences (Ho, 2005) which, in turn may enhance the speaking ability of the learners (Brock, 1985, 1986). According to Gerot (1990), teachers' questions have been the focus of attention for the researchers (e.g. Good & Brophy, 1987; Nunan, 1991; Richards & Lockhart, 1994; Rowe, 1974, 1986; Suter, 2001; Xiao-Yan, 2006) for many years. According to Richards and Lockhart (1994), teachers take more than half of the total class time in questioning-answering sessions. Good and Brophy (1987) have criticised the teacher questions on grounds that the said questions seem more like an oral test and are parrot like sessions. Moreover, teachers' questions are boring which, most of the time, accomplish very little. They assess factual knowledge and mere discussions based on questions become fragmented rituals rather than a meaningful learning process. Suter (2001) critisises the use of questions in the classroom saying, "asking questions is neither the only nor the best stimulus to set classroom interaction in motion" (p. 8). However, despite this criticism, no one can deny the fact that teachers' questions

are the only way by which the teachers can assess what the learners know (Wu, 1993). That is why the tendency to ask many questions is common among teachers (Chaudron, 1988; Richards & Lockhart, 1994) particularly, to maintain interaction in the classrooms (Xiao-Yan, 2006). Therefore, teacher questions can be used as a meaningful tool for a better teaching-learning process if the teacher is able to skillfully manage 'distribution of questions' and 'wait time'. So far as the distribution of questions is concerned, in the view of Nunan, the teacher should distribute questions among the maximum number of students in the classroom (1991). It will be helpful to engage passive learners (Good & Brophy, 1987). Similarly, wait time is also very helpful to increase learners' participation, increase in average length of responses, increase in speculative responses, increase in student-teacher comparison data, increase in student-initiated questions and decrease in failure to respond (Rowe, 1974, 1986). Therefore, the teachers, in a language classroom should increase wait time to maximise facilitations (Nunan, 1991). For, in the view of Nunan greater processing time is required to interpret and comprehend questions in a foreign or second language classroom. The question remains that how much wait-time should a language teacher increase. In this regard, Rowe (1974, 1986) recommends 3-5 seconds.

5.3 Teachers' feedback on learners' performance

The third question of this study aimed to know 'how do the teachers provide feedback on learners' performance in a Pakistani secondary level language classroom'. The results reveal that the Pakistani secondary level language teacher provides feedback on learners' performance using words like; good, right, ok, and correct. This type of feedback, in the view of Nunan (1991), is romantic. In fact, feedback means the evaluation of the learners' response by their teachers (Cook, 2016) and giving feedback on learners' performance is a significant aspect of teaching (Xiao-Yan, 2006). Therefore, the teachers should avoid using traditional words to which Nunan (1991) calls 'romantic'.

Actually, Nunan idealises positive feedback. Positive feedback, in Nunan's view, has two functions i.e.: (a) it lets the learners know that they have performed correctly; and (b) it motivates the learners. According to Nunan (1991) 'effective praise' by Brophy (1981) has both of these functions. Brophy's effective praise: is given contingently; specifies learners' achievements; shows the signs of credibility, spontaneity and variety; gives information about the learners' achievement as well as competence; refers to the context for praising achievements; appreciates significant efforts during difficult hours; attributes learners' achievements to their abilities as well as efforts and expects more from them in future; and cultivates endogenous attributes among the learners i.e. they think that they make efforts on learning tasks because they enjoy in doing so.

Brophy (1981) differentiates effective praise from ineffective one. Ineffective praise: is provided in unsystematic as well as random ways; appreciates without mentioning learners' performance; does not provide any information about learners' status; tends to compare or compete the learners with others; uses others' achievements as a context; is given without any reference to the learners' efforts; attributes learners' achievements to their abilities supplemented with external factors like easiness of the task or luck and cultivates exogenous attributes among the learners i.e. they start thinking that they put efforts to the tasks for external factors e.g. competition, teacher's pleasure or rewards.

Feedback, as mentioned earlier, is a type of evaluation (Cook, 2016) which informs the learners about how well or poor they have performed (Ur, 2008) utilising different procedures, techniques and tools to collect as well as interpret information about what the learners can and cannot achieve. The evaluation of learners' performance by the teachers helps enhance EFL learning. Therefore, teacher talk should be full of encouragement, confirmation and approval. Commonly used assessment words or phrases include: (a) confirmation (e.g. good, excellent, that is perfectly correct, no, that is wrong; (2) encouragement (don't worry, that wasn't very good, you can better do that, you fool, idiot, stupid etc.) (Xiao-Yan, 2006).

5.4 Pakistani classroom problems

The last sub question of the study intended to investigate about 'what are the main Pakistani language classroom management problems and how they can be overcome'? In the view of Ahmad et al., teachers in Pakistani classrooms face classroom management problems (2012).Classes are overcrowded. Practice of planning in advance is rare. Training is ideal. The learners are neither told about expectations and nor they are praised for appropriate behaviour. These things make the classroom such a place where information is conveyed to the learners without any consideration for rules, regulations or ethics (Rashid, Abbas, Hussain, Khalid & Salfi, 2014). Classrooms are dominated by 'teacher-led activities' and topic selection is controlled by teachers (Shamim & Allen, 2000). Common classroom practices, in Pakistan, involve teachers' concentration on 'doing grammar' or 'doing a lesson'. 'Doing a lesson' mainly involves a predictable set of activities i.e. reading a text aloud by teachers and/or students; explaining the text in Urdu or local languages, giving the meanings of difficult words in English and/or Urdu/the local language; and getting the students to do follow-up textbook exercises in their notebooks (Shamim, 2008). In addition, the teachers dictate essays for examination purpose and encourage the students for rote-learning (Shamim, 1993; Shamim & Allen, 2000).

Teaching and learning of English in Pakistani school classrooms indicate that the practice of teaching English in all school types in Pakistan leaves much to be

desired with regard to current principles and practice of English language teaching. (Shamim, 2008). There can be many solutions to be considered for these problems. But in the light of the discussion of this study, teacher-student interaction as well as classroom management, (particularly focusing on the management of the amount and type of teacher talk, using questioning technique and providing feedback on learners' performance), the classroom problems might well be overcome. For, interaction is a vital factor for the development of a good relation between the students and their teachers (Duffy, Warren & Walsh, 2001). The way the students and teachers interact with each other is an important factor in determining the learners' outcomes (Englehart, 2009). In a meta review of 30 variables marked as being most influential to the learning in the literature, Wang, Haertel and Walberg (1990) found student-teacher social interaction to be among the top three most important factors. According to Alerby, the learners rank the relation with the teachers among the most significant parts of their learning experience (2003). In fact, the way the teachers interact with the learners, translates into such products as are important to education (Englehart, 2009). The interaction can well be maintained with the help of teachers' questions, teacher talk and positive feedback on learners' performance (cf. Nunan, 1991) which will further help in the classroom management. Teacher-student interaction and classroom management will further lead to successful language teaching-learning process. For, "classroom management and teacher-student inteaction are integral to sound methodological practice" (Nunan, 1991: 189).

6 Conclusion

Teacher-student interaction and classroom management are important factors for a successful language teaching-learning process. Asking questions from the learners and distributing questions among the maximum number of learners with main focus on asking referential questions, managing the amount of teacher talk appropriately i.e. being relevant to the topic and avoiding digressions in case of spontaneous talk and providing target language input with the help of teacher-talk might help the teachers maintain a positive teacher-student interaction which further might help language classroom management process and that, in turn, might ensure successful language teaching and learning. Moreover, teacher-student interaction might help overcome language classroom problems. Therefore, the study recommends the proper utilsation of teacher-student interaction and classroom management techniques particularly amount and type of teacher talk, teachers' questions, and teachers' feedback on learners' performance.

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Preparing teachers for the application of AI-powered technologies in foreign language education

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Abstract

As any other area of human lives, current state of foreign language education has been greatly influenced by the latest developments in the modern information communication technologies. The paper focuses specifically on the incorporation of artificial intelligence (AI), which includes a wide range of technologies and methods, such as machine learning, adaptive learning, natural language processing, data mining, crowdsourcing, neural networks or an algorithm, into foreign language learning and teaching.

First, the paper is concerned with changes brought to foreign language education specifically through the application of AI-powered tools and discusses ICALL (intelligent computer assisted language learning) as a subset of CALL. Second, it summarizes eight types of AI-powered tools for foreign language education and related results of the existing research, however scarce it is. Third, it discusses the frame for effective preparation of foreign language teachers in order to integrate AI-powered tools into their teaching to make it easier, less time-consuming and more effective. The author argues for reconsideration of the existing frames of requirements for CALL teachers.

Keywords: foreign language education, artificial intelligence, machine learning, adaptive learning, personalised language learning

1 Artificial intelligence in linguistics and education

Through smart technologies, financial technologies, eCommerce, marketing, manufacturing, and automotive industries, artificial intelligence (AI) has become part of our daily lives.

The term itself was used for the first time in 1956 by John McCarthy who organised the workshop at Dartmouth College and in the proposal defined the workshop´s aims as follows: "The study (of artificial intelligence) is to proceed on the basis of the conjecture that every aspect of learning or any other feature of intelligence can in principle be so precisely described that a machine can be made to simulate it. An attempt will be made to find how to make machines use language, form abstractions and concepts, solve kinds of problems now reserved for humans,

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and improve themselves" (Russel & Norvig, 2010, p. 17). McCarthy´s first expectations related to AI (later known as strong AI) that computers will be able to replicate human cognitive functions and AI tools will be able to think like humans (along with the treat to take over control from humans eventually) have not been proved correct. The question remains whether machines will be able to actually think or develop independent consciousness in the future. Many authors agree that it is unlikely that such strong AI will be developed in the near future.

As research has progressed, scientists modified their expectations and concentrate their activities on building "models based on human reasoning, without the end goal of replicating complex human thinking" (Marr, 2018).

Contemporary definitions of AI differ in various aspects and the problems to formulate a united definition of AI are caused by both constant shifts in what AI includes (Luckin et al., 2016) as well as by the interdisciplinarity of its research (AI has been studied not only by computer science, but also by philosophy, anthropology, biology, pedagogy, psychology, linguistics, cognitive science, neuroscience, statistics, and many others).

One group of definitions see *AI as machines, computers or computer systems* that imitate cognitive functions that are normally associated with the human mind, such as learning and problem solving (*Russell & Norvig, 2010).*

Another group of definitions consider *AI as a specific set of skills* of computers, e. g. Baker and Smith (2019, p. 10) define AI as "computers which perform cognitive tasks, usually associated with human minds, particularly learning and problem-solving". The *Encyclopaedia Britannica* states that AI is „the ability of a digital computer or computer-controlled robot to perform tasks commonly associated with intelligent beings," where intelligent beings are those that can adapt to changing circumstances.

Other group of definitions see AI in a much broader context, *as a science,* e. g. Stone at al. (2016) says that "artificial intelligence (AI) is a science and a set of computational technologies that are inspired by—but typically operate quite differently from—the ways people use their nervous systems and bodies to sense, learn, reason, and take action." (Stone et al., 2016). The *English Oxford Living Dictionary* gives this definition: "The theory and development of computer systems able to perform tasks normally requiring human intelligence, such as visual perception, speech recognition, decision-making, and translation between languages."

Merriam-Webster Dictionary connects both above-mentioned aspects of artificial intelligence and defines it as a) a branch of computer science dealing with the simulation of intelligent behaviour in computers, and b) the capability of a machine to imitate intelligent human behaviour.

In this paper, we adopt the definition of AI given by Luckin et al. (2016, p. 14) who define AI „as computer systems that have been designed to interact with the world through capabilities (for example, visual perception and speech

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recognition) and intelligent behaviours (for example, assessing the available information and then taking the most sensible action to achieve a stated goal) that we would think of as essentially human". These computer systems include a wide range of technologies and methods, such as machine learning, adaptive learning, natural language processing, data mining, crowdsourcing, neural networks or an algorithm.

2 AI-powered tools in education (AIEd)

For linguists and language teachers, AI is interesting from more than one aspect. Using AI and NLP (*natural language processing*) help create more detailed descriptions of natural languages, leads to better-processed corpora, as well as to a better understanding of mental processes occurring in human brains while verbally communicating, etc. AI-powered tools are applied also in computer linguistics, in the creation of computer languages, machine translations and improvement of human-machine communication via *speech recognition, speech synthesis,* etc*.*

Similarly, **AI-powered tools** belong to the currently emerging fields in educational technology and many authors see enormous benefits they could possibly bring both to students and teachers. AI-powered education (AIEd) "offers the possibility of learning that is more personalised, flexible, inclusive, and engaging. It can provide teachers and learners with the tools that allow us to respond not only to what is being learnt, but also to how it is being learnt, and how the student feels. It can help learners develop the knowledge and skills that employers are seeking, and it can help teachers create more sophisticated learning environments than would otherwise be possible. For example, AIEd that can enable collaborative learning, a difficult task for one teacher to do alone, by making sure that the right group is formed for the task-at-hand, or by providing targeted support at just the right time" (Luckin et al., 2016, p. 11).

Baker and Smith (2019) divide AI tools used in education into three groups: a) learner-facing, b) teacher-facing, and c) system-facing ones.

a. **Learner-facing AI tools** are software that students use to learn a subject matter.
b. **Teacher-facing systems** are used by teachers with the purpose to reduce their workload and make their output more effective in specific automating tasks, such as administration, assessment, feedback and plagiarism detection.
c. **System-facing AI tools** provide information for administrators and managers on the institutional level, for example, they help monitor attrition patterns across faculties or colleges.
  The current study focuses only on the first two categories.

Both foreign language learners and teachers can choose from a wide scale of AI-powered tools that should make their efforts easier. Applying AI in foreign

language education provides learners with immediate and highly individualized support, which is a fundamental building stone for personalized learning as one of the ideal standards of contemporary pedagogy. In this aspect, AI-powered tools are ahead of human teachers who simply do not have capacity to continually analyse each and every learner´s outputs, diagnose their individual learning needs, adapt the learning content accordingly and give learners well-grounded feedback in the span of several seconds – and that all in the class of twelve or more students. AI-powered tools are, on the other hand, able to collect massive amounts of data on learner´s learning progress, on their basis to model their personal learning curves and to adapt learning content accordingly. Moreover, they enhance learners´ progress through the functionality of small consequential steps and immediate feedback. Therefore, these programmes and applications can be used by teachers as very effective supporting tools because they are able to free teachers from tiring, energy- and time-consuming activities such as grammar or pronunciation drills.

As Brusilovsky and Miller (2001) have it, AI tools stand in opposition to the traditional "just-put-it-on-the-web" approach in the development of online and web-based educational courses. They are results of decades-long efforts of system designers, data scientists, product designers, statisticians, linguists, cognitive scientists, psychologists, education experts and many others to develop education systems that help teachers and support learners to develop their knowledge and flexible skills for a constantly changing world. Current AI educational systems incorporate either adaptive or intelligent operations or both.

Adaptive educational systems (AES) are designed to adapt some of the key functional characteristics (e.g. content, sequence of activities or navigation support) to the learner needs. This may happen thanks to "building a model of the goals, preferences and knowledge of each individual student and using this model throughout the interaction with the student in order to adapt to the needs of that student" (Brusilovsky & Peylo, 2003, p. 156). An adaptive system thus "operates differently for different learners, taking into account information accumulated in the individual or group learner models" (Magnisalis, Demetriadis, & Karakostas, 2011).

Intelligent educational systems (IES) incorporate and perform "some activities traditionally executed by a human teacher - such as coaching students or diagnosing their misconceptions" (Brusilovsky & Peylo, 2003, p. 156). They aim to provide learner-tailored support through implementing "extensive modelling of the problem-solving process in the specific domain of application" (Magnisalis, Demetriadis, & Karakostas, 2011). Brusilovsky & Peylo, 2003, p. 158) list as major Intelligent Tutoring technologies the following: *curriculum sequencing* (providing the student with the most suitable individually planned sequence of topics and

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learning tasks to help find an "optimal path" through the learning material), *intelligent solution analysis*, and *problem solving support*.

3 AI in foreign language education

The meaning of AI-powered education has been rapidly growing in all areas of educational content; however, this paper focuses solely on the application of AI into foreign language education. Along with MALL, CMC, e-learning, web learning, application of AI-powered tools into foreign language learning is a subset of *computer-assisted language learning* (CALL). With latest developments in natural language processing, progress in deep and networked learning, and the growth in technological ability to handle massive data, today's AI has significant applications for language studies in general, and for foreign language education in particular. The shift from CALL to ICALL (Intelligent CALL) has been inevitable and brought a substantial change in the quality of student-computer interaction (Kannan & Munday, 2018).

Expected benefits of ICALL stem from the fact that AI has a potential to make digital language learning truly personalised to each learner. It may lead to the reduction of time, cost and learners´ frustration occurring when completing tasks without immediate feedback. All this is possible due to big data processing and machine learning algorithms which adapt in real-time to learner behaviour, calculating each learner's strengths and weaknesses and generating an entirely personalised set of study materials in each session (which brings in new ethical implications). Moreover, and equally importantly, the algorithm learns from both individual and collective learner behaviour, making its predictive power even stronger (Campbell-Howes, 2019).

Other expected benefits of ICALL include: learner´s own pace of progress; instant feedback as a strong motivational factor; individualized repetition of topics and emphasizing activities where a learner has had weaker output; quick and objective assessment of learner´s progress; better understanding of learner´s learning preferences and strategies; predicting learner´s future performance with a high probability; quick and objective assessment of teaching tools (texts, lectures, assignments, tests, etc.).

As Schulze (2008) has it, the most relevant areas of AI research for CALL include natural language processing (NLP), user modelling, expert systems, and intelligent tutoring systems (ITS).

Natural language processing (NLP) deals with both natural language understanding (when computers are designed to be able to receive and decode ["understand"] natural language input, spoken or written) and natural language generation (when scientists aim at designing computers able to produce natural language output, again both spoken or written). Both functions (represented, for example, by automatic speech recognition systems and chatting robots) involve

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the processing of graphological, phonological, morphological, syntactical, semantic, and pragmatic features of natural languages.

The main goal of user modelling is to adapt computational systems to their users. This incorporates "observing user´s behaviour" (via collecting, storing, and analysing data from their answers and responses to previous tasks) and predicting their future behaviour (e.g. via counting their personal memory curves).

Together with user modelling, the expert modelling is an essential component of intelligent tutor systems (see below). Both user and expert modelling are related to *the big data* field of computational statistics and predictive analysis.

Forms of applying IA into foreign language education
a) Generating personalized learning materials

Based upon responses the student makes while learning, adaptive educational systems shape their learning path through appointed learning materials. Some AI-powered tools can customize learning materials for a specific learner, course or school and create, for example, personalized textbooks. Personalised learning materials are an alternative to traditional textbooks and materials which represent the so-called "one-size-fits-all" approach to schooling in which teachers provide all students in each class or course with only one type of learning materials.

b) Using machine translation tools

Machine translation (MT) is the process when computer software is employed to translate a text (written or spoken) from one natural language to another. For a long time, using MT tools for language learning purposes has been limited due to a questionable quality of their outputs. Artificial intelligence technologies like neural machine translation have improved the quality of machine translation considerably and free-access web-based MT services resulted in millions of users using services such as Google Translator, Translator Online, Foreign Word, Web Trance for their work or study every day. MT can be a useful aid to language learning (Cook, 2010; Garcia, & Pena, 2011; Lee, 2019; Myers, 2000; Niño, 2009; Rogers, 1996; Steding, 2009; White & Heidrich, 2013); however, foreign language teachers tend to regard the use of MT as a learner´s failure, disruption or even breakage of academic honesty (Case, 2015; Niño, 2008; Steding, 2009). Several studies have concentrated on preventing the use of MT services in the classroom (Steding, 2009). However, prohibiting the use of MT services in the classroom has been found to be largely useless and ineffective (Cook, 2010; Steding, 2009; White & Henrich, 2013). White and Heinrich (2013) argue that language teachers should focus on ways how to help learners to use MT tools effectively, instead. Therefore, to benefit student learning, foreign language teachers should be aware of MT possibilities and limitations and provide adequate guidance to their students (Williams, 2006).

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Despite the growing popularity of machine translation tools among language students, research into their application in foreign language classes has been scarce. Briggs (2018) studied students' attitudes and beliefs regarding the use of web-based MT tools for English language learning. His results showed that most students use MT tools to support their language studies despite a limited trust they had in the accuracy of their outputs. Lee (2019) explored the role of machine translation in English as a foreign language EFL writing. Her outcomes revealed that machine translation improved students´ revision skills and facilitated a decrease in occurrence of lexical and grammatical errors. Garcia and Pena (2011) observed the effects using the MT can have on beginner language learners. Niño (2009) who observed behaviour of learners of Spanish, found that weaker students were more likely to use MT tools than stronger students.

c) Utilising AI writing assistants

AI writing assistants (based on NLP and machine learning) help users through various steps of the writing process (augmented writing). Using AI systems, they correct grammatical errors within a written text (via conducting a continual error-analysis), provide recommendations for later improvements and provide additional resources for further study. In foreign language classrooms, these systems help learners to go through the writing process individually, correct themselves and think about the process itself. Using AI in this way facilitates learner´s self-regulation and autonomy. The examples of AI writing assistants are *Grammarly, ProWriting Aid, Textio, AI Writer, Textly AI* and *Essaybot*.

d) Conversing with chatbots

Chatting robots (chatbots) are groups of computer programs that are meant to simulate intelligent human language interaction. A human user and a computer (robot) are engaged in informal chat (in a written or spoken form) using a natural language. Chatbots are most frequently utilized in marketing communication; however, they may be used effectively in foreign language classrooms as well (Dargan, 2019; Jia, 2004a, 2004b; Jia, 2008; Kerly, Hall, & and Bull, 2007). Learners can learn through the process of direct communication with a robot. In addition, chatbots can provide customized answers in response to learners´ messages, grade their performance, and provide tips on what learners need to improve. The research conducted by Fryer and Carpenter (2006) showed that most students enjoyed using the chatbots and they generally felt more comfortable conversing with the bots than a student partner or teacher, which might seem a surprising finding. Jia & Chen (2009) in their study investigated how a chatbot could be used to motivate learners to practice English. Results revealed that students felt comfortable and believed that the approach could help them with language learning. The results also showed that regular conversations with chatbots positively affected student´s language confidence, improved their listening ability,

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and boosted their interest in language learning. However, it is important to note that using chatbots might be not effective for beginner speakers. The problem is that most chatbots respond merely to simple keywords and cannot assess whether the language input is grammatically or pragmatically correct. Chatbots still work in clearly defined scenarios with predictable dialogues and corresponding error sources. So far, chatbots cannot interpret even less serious pronunciation mistakes, as well as grammar and spelling mistakes. They are ideal as learning aids to foster conversational skills of very proficient or native speakers (Fryer & Carpenter, 2006). However, as Lotze (2018) argues, AI dialogic systems still need to meet some key criteria (especially spontaneity, creativity and shared knowledge) before they can serve as substitutes for a real-life language teacher. To name some examples of AI chatbots: *Rosetta Stone* (25 languages), *Andy, Mondly, Memrize*, etc.

e) Applying AI-powered language learning software (platforms and apps)

When it comes to language learning, online platforms are increasingly becoming the norm. Cloud-based online platforms incorporating NLP, crowdsourcing, gamification elements, automatic speech recognition, automatic speech generation and AI writing assistant applications belong to the most popular learning aids used by young users. Examples: *Duolingo, Busuu, Speexx, Babbel, Memrise, Magiclingua* and many others.

Lotze (2018) distinguishes two basic technical concepts for language learning software: **the conventional graphical user interface with speech recognition and language interface with dialogue function.**

In the *conventional graphical user interface***,** just like in traditional textbooks, language learners go through series of digital exercises (filling gaps, substitution exercise, matching exercises, etc.). The problem here lies in the fact that learners work with strictly pre-defined language (close tasks) and many apps are based on outdated concepts (the grammar-translation method, audio-lingual and pattern drills) because they are easy to model. There is a lack of any space for learner´s creativity or spontaneity. The apps supplemented by language recognition software should be able to recognize spoken contributions, however, they are not able to cooperate if mispronunciations or pronunciation with accent occurs.

Language interface with dialogue function **were designed to s**imulate natural verbal interaction with a virtual tutor. These dialogue systems follow the principle of a simple chatbot. Learners are free to make either written or oral contributions that the technology analyses for the presence of predefined keywords. If the right keyword is used, an appropriate predefined response from the artificial tutor is selected and output. The problems occur when a learner produces an utterance the programme designers did not foresee. In such a case the programme cannot respond appropriately.

f)   Relying on intelligent tutoring systems (ITS)

ITS are computer-based learning systems designed to simulate one-to-one personal tutoring. They consist of four basic components: the domain model, the student model, the tutoring model, and the interface model. "Based on learner models, algorithms and neural networks, they can make decisions about the learning path of an individual student and the content to select, provide cognitive scaffolding and help, to engage the student in dialogue. ITS have enormous potential, especially in large-scale distance teaching institutions, which run modules with thousands of students, where human one-to-one tutoring is impossible" (Zawacki-Richter et al., 2018, p. 5). By integrating NLP-based tutoring systems (both downloadable software or online systems) which can give corrective feedback and tailor instructional materials, reactive one-sided ITS systems have been changed into interactive machine learning tutors. Examples: *Word Bricks, CASTLE, I-ETER, Web Passive Voice Tutor, WUFUN* (for Chinese university students learning English), *Your Verbal Zone* (for Turkish students learning English vocabulary), *E-Tutor* (for learning German as a second language), *TAGARELA* (for learning Portuguese at the university level), *Robo-Sensei* (for Japanese), *Spanish for Business Professionals* (SBP), etc.

  Adaptive and intelligent systems for collaborative learning support (AICLS systems) is another type of IA-powered educational tool. Collaborative learning which combines social and construction elements of the learning process occurs when learners develop a shared understanding of a problem through a mutual interaction (e.g. a dialogue in a classroom or a chat in an online group). Introducing AI-powered tools into the process aims at supporting both social skills and knowledge building processes. The meta-analysis of 105 research studies and articles on AICLS conducted by Magnisalis, Demetriadis, and Karakostas (2011, p. 16) showed that learning benefits of students „do not emerge unconditionally when using AICLS systems to support collaborative learning. Learning impact is subject to learning design and capability of AICLS to adapt and intervene in an unobtrusive way".

g)   Intelligent virtual reality (IVR) is a complex system integrating conversational AI tools, spatial context awareness technologies, and gesture and facial landmark recognition systems, NLP, speech recognition and natural language understanding technologies. Learners can practice speaking with AI-based avatars that simulate realistic conversations with native speakers, which enable learners to gain fluency and build confidence through highly personalized practice. IVR is used to create an authentic virtual reality and game-based learning environments. Virtual agents (avatars) can act as teachers, facilitators or students' peers. If used in foreign language education, IVR systems face the same problems as chatbots and online platforms/apps. As Lotze (2018) argues, "the interaction with the agent will only work smoothly if learners input the questions and answers that the system developers were able to foresee. (…) Outside the scripted

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application areas, dialogues with chatbots and agent systems are erratic, incoherent and prone to error. They cannot serve as a role model for foreign language learners".

4 ICALL and a changing role of foreign language teachers

Even though human teachers and social interactions beyond the digital environment are still essential for mastering a second language, the application of CALL into foreign language learning, including the elements of AI, leads to redefined roles for teachers and learner (Lam & Lawrence, 2002).

AI based systems provide language learners with the environment where they can choose their own path and pace of learning, and where learners can take more control over their own learning. AI powered systems facilitate development of learner´s decision-making skills and lead to their learning autonomy. Students can digitally connect with native speakers around the world or to use IA-powered conversational tools (e. g. chatbots) to intensify their learning without a teacher´s personal involvement. Language learners have more opportunities to be more active participants in the learning process rather than passive recipients of knowledge.

Teaching becomes more learner-centred, since learners are expected to be able to make their own decisions and become responsible for their work more independently. The teacher, on the other hand, abandons his/her previous position of the only authority and decision-maker, to become rather a facilitator and supporter of learners (Bancheri, 2006; Rilling et al., 2005).

5 Preparing foreign language teachers for applying AI and ICALL

The area of using AI-powered tools in foreign language learning is rather new, therefore, to date, a general lack of research studies on using AI in foreign language education can be witnessed. To the author´s knowledge, there has been neither the empirical research on pedagogical effects of using AI-powered tools in foreign language classes, on learners´ responses regarding the use of AI tools, or on teachers´/teacher trainees´ attitudes toward using AI-powered tools, nor research on their preparation for the application of AI-powered tools in their classes.

However, the topic does not need to be explored in complete isolation, or from scratch. Preparing teachers for ICALL is a subset of CALL teacher training which has been addressed by multiple publications and research articles. If the general aim of CALL teacher training is "to equip current and future language teachers with the knowledge and skills, both technical and pedagogical, to incorporate technology effectively into their classes" (Hubbard, 2008, p. 180), *The aim of ICALL teacher training is, parallelly, to inform current and future language teachers about latest AI-powered educational tools, and provide them with the knowledge and skills needed for effective integration of these AI tools into their classes.*

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Many researchers have argued that teachers (their attitudes, beliefs, and preferences) play a crucial role in the success of CALL methodology (e.g., Albirini, 2006; Atkins & Vasu, 2000; Beatty, 2003; Egbert, Paulus, & Nakamichi, 2002; Goertler & Winke, 2008; Cummings Hlas, Conroy, & Hildebrandt, 2017; Hong, 2010; Hoven, 2007; Hubbard, 2004, 2008; Hubbard & Levy, 2006a, 2006b; Kessler, 2006, 2007, 2010; Lam, 2000; Levy, 1997; Liu, Theodore, & Lavelle, 2004; Lord & Lomicka, 2011; Luke & Britten, 2007; Peters, 2006; Pokrivcakova et al., 2015; Straková & Cimermanová, 2018; Williams, Abraham, & Bostelmann, 2014 and others).

If teachers have an appropriate training for using AI technologies and positive AI-related experience, they will be more likely to implement ICALL in their own classrooms. A fundamental condition of success is to help them feel well prepared and confident to act in AI technology-enhanced environments.

A number of previous researches (Abdelhalim, 2016; Kim, 2002; Lam, 2000; Liaw, Huang, & Chen, 2007; Russel & Bradley, 1997; Sabzian, & Gilakjani, 2013) have revealed that foreign language teachers generally support CALL and welcome modern technologies in their classrooms, however, some (and probably most of them) are reluctant to use ICT extensively. Along with external factors (lack of material equipment, insufficient technical support, inflexible curriculum, time stress), this reluctance to apply CALL is determined by many internal factors, such as:

- lack of information and ICT skills,
- lack of experience with ICT as a learner,
- lack of motivation,
- struggle to integrate ICT with teacher´s existing learning style and practices,
- feeling like being out of their comfortable zone,
- fear of losing a dominant position in the classroom,
- fear of a weakening control over students,
- as well as losing students´ respect.

In their research, Park & Son (2009) observed that "the expectation that teachers should be experts in the use of computers is not fully supported by the teachers, although they seem to be convinced that CALL makes language learning interesting". Abdelhalim (2016) noticed that "even when respondents integrate ICT in their teaching, integration is limited to low-range applications such as email services or getting information from the Internet". These findings have been supported by results of other related studies (Arnold, 2007; Galanouli, Murphy & Gardner, 2004; Kessler, 2006; Pelgrum, 2001; Rakes & Casey, 2002; Torres, 2006, and others).

These are the factors the ICALL teacher trainers need to take into consideration. It is probably too soon to define sets of specific skills of ICALL

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teachers or to propose models of ICALL teacher training but, undoubtedly, they will be created soon. It will be important not to lose the path in the process and approach the task realistically and pragmatically. Foreign language teachers do not need to be programmers or artificial intelligence experts if they want to apply chatbots or add Duolingo practice to their classes.

Many authors on CALL teacher training have elaborated long lists or complicated charts of "key skills" for CALL which, sometimes, put unrealistic requirements on foreign language teachers forgetting that they should be primarily language professionals and teachers.

Adequate and continuous professional training may be the best answer to overcome all the above-mentioned barriers in effective CALL. Because to use modern technologies willingly and effectively teachers need to believe that technology can help them achieve educational objectives more effectively (in shorter time and with less effort). Moreover, they must be sure that no other learning objectives or aspects of classroom management will be disturbed by the technology usage. In addition, they need sufficient ICT skills and unhindered access to technology.

Conclusion

Integrating AI into education brings new quality to both learning and teaching. The AI-powered tools help create sophisticated educational environment where learning may be more personalised, teaching more flexible, and management more inclusive. They can help learners develop the knowledge and skills that modern technology-enhanced society looks for and requires. The dystopian view expects AI to take over absolute control and become the student's tyrant tutor dictating what, when and how they should learn, based on the data that it continually collects about students without their consent. The utopian vision sees learners who are in charge of their personal AI tools which help them (and their teachers) better understand their progress and organize learning activities.

AI in language learning led to the establishment of ICALL (intelligent computer-assisted language learning). IT-powered tools can be applied in many ways and this paper identified eight of them: *personalized learning materials, machine translation tools, AI writing assistants, chatbots, AI-powered language learning software -platforms and apps, intelligent tutoring systems, adaptive and intelligent systems for collaborative learning support, intelligent virtual reality.*

To integrate these ICALL tools into regular teaching processes, teachers need to form new skills (Hampel & Stickler, 2005; Kassen, et al., 2007) to support learners but also to avoid needless workload and useless repetitive tasks, e.g. via writing assistants and correction systems (Dodigovic, 2009; Chodorow, Gamon, & Tetreault, 2010).

However, very soon research will need to answer many questions, including the following ones: What is the current state of ICALL and how well are language

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teachers informed about its advancements? What are the AI tools most frequently chosen by language teachers to incorporated into their teaching? How do language teachers perceive ICALL and what is their motivation to integrate ICALL tools into their everyday teaching practice? What are the key skills language teachers need for new, AI-enhanced teaching environment? How exactly should ICALL advancements be reflected in teacher training programmes?

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