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Czech mothers read books to their young children: association with mothers´ education

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Abstract
The study concentrated on mothers´ reading to their preschool children. Three broad questions were posed about how the mother's educational level is associated with: (1) the mother´s reasons to read to the child, (2) frequency and duration of this reading, (3) mother-child literacy interaction with the child. The sample of low education mothers (n=55) and high education mothers (n=213) was recruited to fill in a questionnaire of 46 items. Higher education mothers outperformed low education mothers in these variables: reading to the child in order to enhance cognitive development, appreciate the time they are with the child in reading sessions, reading to child frequency, and the number of books the child possesses. On the other hand, low education mothers more frequently than high education mothers ask children about book characters and explain reasons for reading.

Keywords: early literacy, reading to the child, home literacy environment, parent-child interaction

Introduction

The child´s first encounters with literacy are in the home. Early literacy learning is efficient if the home environment is literacy-rich, i.e., if the child has access to children´s books, magazines, letter games and other literacy materials and if parents frequently read books to their child and interact with the child over the books´ content. The child´s early literacy development is concurrent with, and supported by, oral language growth during the preschool years. Research indicates that oral language, phonological awareness, and print knowledge are the core components of a strong early literacy foundation (Whitehurst & Lonigan, 1998).

The home literacy environment

The quality of the *home literacy environment* plays an important role in the development of early literacy of preschool children (Leseman & De Jong, 1998;

Roberts et al*.,* 2005; van Steensen, 2006). The concept of the home literacy environment is rather broad, and authors vary as regards its elements. We emphasize three major components of this phenomenon: (a) the literacy resources in the home, (b) frequency and duration of parents´ reading to the child, and (c) parent-child interaction in reading sessions.

To develop the language and literacy in preschool years, the child needs exposure to literacy resources (Sénéchal, 1997; Sénéchal et al., 1998; Hood et al. 2008). *Literacy resources in the home* are reading and writing materials available in the family. Primarily, they are children´s story books, poems, picture books, encyclopaedias etc. The child also comes across adults´ literature: books, "household literature" such as cookbooks or do-it yourself manuals, journals, advertising materials and brochures etc.

In addition to contacts with literacy resources, the child also needs to be immersed into literacy content. Children need to learn about the story inside the books, the setting and characters that shape the plot. This immersion is performed by the parent´s readings to the child. Parents read to children on a number of opportunities, the most frequent one is the bed-side reading. The *frequency and duration of parents´ reading aloud to the child* are factors that strongly influence the development of the child´s language and literacy. It has been proved that if parents value and encourage literacy activities, such as engaging in shared reading with children and providing them reading materials, their children are likely to achieve higher level of school readiness, increase oral language development, and expand vocabulary (Durand, 2011; Farver al., 2013).

Parents-child interaction in reading sessions includes discussing over the book content. The parent reads a book to the child, points to pictures, explains unknown words, or clarifies the plot, context and characters. He/she discusses what happened in the story, evaluates the story characters or events, and described pictures. During this interaction, the child is exposed to complex sentence structures, world knowledge, and words that are not typically learned through dialogue and interactions with parents beyond the shared reading situations (Sénéchal et al., 1998; Martini & Sénéchal, 2012).

Parents´ reading is scarcely a one-way process, the child is not a quiet listener in a book reading session. The child actively responds to parents´ stimuli, asks questions or comments on the story (Melissa-Halikiopoulou & Natsiopolou, 2008; Korat et al., 2008). The child can also take initiative in home reading situations, pursue his/her own agenda and even control the parent´s reading (Gavora, 2016).

Mother´s education and home literacy

A body of studies identified that it is especially the mother´s education that relates to frequency of reading to the child and the dialogue with the child over the

book. In Australia, Torr (2004) found out that mothers with low level of education read books to children with very few questions aimed at the text content and they focussed on naming objects they saw in the book illustrations. The mothers´ strategy was to read while letting the child listen quietly. Mothers with tertiary education provided children with opportunity to engage with the text by making inferences, generalizing, explaining, and asking questions about the text. In the Netherlands, Van Steensel (2006) categorized three levels of home literacy environments, i.e., rich, middling, and poor, and found that the mother´s education strongly associated with these levels. As the level increased, the share of the rich home environment grew. The author emphasizes that though the level of mother´s education is an important factor for the child's literacy development, many families with lower level of education value literacy for their children, read to children and discuss the books that were read. In a Greek study, Melissa-Halikiopoulou and Natsiopolou (2008) observed parent-child dyads in reading sessions and reported 13 activities of mothers that were employed in their interactions while reading a book. The activities are, for instance, drawing the child´s attention, explaining names, giving feedback, repeating the child´s words and questioning to recall information. The authors identified the relationship between the mother´s level of education and literacy strategies used by them. Mothers with tertiary education provided more challenging interactions with children over the book than did those with secondary education. The representative US survey (Yarosz & Bartlett, 2001) documented that the frequency of shared reading reported by parents was predicted by maternal education (in addition to ethnicity, the language spoken in the home and the number of siblings).

Why do mothers with higher level of education read to their children more frequently and provide more demanding practicing in reading dyads to their preschool-age children than mothers with lower education? The research provided limited answers to this question. It may be hypothesized that higher educated mothers have stronger interests to improve intellectual abilities and skills of their children in general and literacy skills in specific. They may have stronger reasons to promote their children´s attitudes to books and reading than mothers with lower education. Finally, they may have stronger interest to expand the knowledge of the world of their children than lower education mothers. These assumptions challenged the research in the study reported here, which is focused on a more detailed examination of association of mother´s education with variables of reading to the child.

The study
The home literacy environment and parents´ literacy practices with preschool-age children have been frequently investigated in at-risk families, for instance in

ethnic minorities (Van Steensel, 2006; Hammer et al., 2007; Farver al., 2013) or low-income families (Jarret et al., 2015). Contrary to it, little is known about home literacy environment in rather homogenous localities (an exception: Hindman & Morrison, 2012). Such research might reveal details that make the understanding of home literacy more refined. This was a motive to investigate mothers´ reading to children in the mainstream population in the Czech Republic.

The specific focus of this study is to associate the mother´s level of education with three broad home reading variables:
- The mother´s reasons to read to the child.
- Frequency and duration of the mother´s reading to the child.
- Mother-child literacy practices with the child.

Four hypotheses were formulated to test the relationships between the level of the mother's education and literacy variables. All of them assume that mothers with high education outperform their counterparts with lower education:

Hypothesis 1: High education mothers express more favourable reasons to read to their children than low education mothers.

Hypothesis 2: High education mothers read to their children more frequently than low education mothers.

Hypothesis 3: High education mothers have longer reading sessions with their children than low education mothers.

Hypothesis 4: High education mothers have more frequent literacy practices with their children than low education mothers.

The sample
The sample consists of 274 parents of preschool-age children who live in the Moravian part of the Czech Republic. These parents are from localities of three sizes, i.e., a village (n = 34), a small town (n = 78) and a city (n = 162). Participants were approached through preschools that were attended by their children. The majority of participants were female (89.2 %). Most of them live in two-parents families (83.3 %). They had one child (66.2 %), two children (32 %) or three children (1.9 %). These children were girls (44.1 %) or boys (56 %). The average age of children, which the respondents described in the questionnaire, was 53.3 months (SD 12.1). The children´s age span was from 24 to 84 months.

For the purposes of the analysis of the association of mothers´ education with reading variables, we divided mothers into two groups: *low education mothers* and *high education mothers*. The former group consists of ISCED-2011 categories Nos. 1, 2 and 3 (but not 344). The latter group is composed of ISCED categories Nos. 344, 6, 7, and 8. The sizes of two groups differ considerably. The number of low education mothers is 55, the number of high education mothers is 213.

The instrument

A questionnaire about the home literacy environment was developed, which was inspired by Boudreau (2015) and Hindman & Morrison, (2012) to serve this study. It consisted of 46 items divided in four components. The *demographic component* concerned respondents´ and family members´ gender, education, profession, family income, and number of children and age of children. The component dealing with *mother´s reasons to read to the child* focused on cognitive, emotional, attitudinal and appeasing motives (13 items, reliability computed with Cronbach´s Alpha = 0.870). An example of an item: "I read to my child to expand the child´s vocabulary". Respondents answered on five point scales ranging from never (1) to very frequently (5).

The component concerning *the child´s exposure to rea*ding in the family had six items, concentrating on the number of children´s books, opportunity to see parents reading for themselves, frequency and duration of mother´s reading to the child, child´s age at the beginning of reading by the mother, and years span of mother´s reading to the child. An example of an item: "How frequently do you read to your child? (a) never/occasionally, (b) once a month, (c) once a week, (d) several times a week, (e) every day". Because of varied format of items, reliability computation of this component was not possible.

The component concerning *mother´s literacy practi*ces with the child consisted of nine items (Cronbach´s Alpha = 0.684) and asked about mother-child discussions on book vocabulary, story context, story characters, connection of the content with real-life situations, and the mother´s explanation of reasons to read to the child. Other items concerned mother´s playing word, letter or number games with the child, and singing songs with the child. An example of an item: "How frequently do you ask questions about story characters (e.g., how he/she liked them)?" Respondents answered on five point scales ranging from never (1) to very frequently (5).

The questionnaires were filled in the respondents' homes. Anonymous answers were required in order to protect their privacy as well as to increase truthfulness of the answers.

Statistical procedures

Interval variable results were expressed as arithmetic averages and standard deviations. Ordinal variable results were expressed as percentages of occurrence. Statistical differences between variables were computed with Mann-Whitney U test. In accord with APA recommendations, significance level was expressed by the exact value of p, not as $p<0,01$ or $p<0,05$. Reliabilities of questionnaire components were computed with Cronbach´s Alpha.

Results

First, the mother´s reasons to read are discussed, followed by child´s exposure to reading in the family and by mother´s literacy practices with the child.

Mothers´ reasons of reading to their children is the essence of their attitudes to and values of home literacy. If mothers have no reason they probably consider reading to their child a waste of time and do not read. Table 1 shows averages of 13 items that concern the mothers´ reasons to read to the child, as categorised by the mothers´ level of education.

The first two items relate to emotional reasons. Mothers of both groups place much emphasis on emotional reasons of reading - the averages are much above the midpoint of the five-point scale used. However, high education mothers appreciate more strongly their reading sessions with the child. Contrary to this, there were no statistical differences between the two education groups in mothers´ enjoyment of reading with the child. A surprising finding is that neither group outperformed the other in forming the child´s favourable attitudes to books (item 3). However, the averages in attitudinal reasons to read in both groups are high, which indicate positive appreciation of books.

The questionnaire has six items that concern cognitive reasons of reading to the child (items 4 – 9). They cover a range of aspects of promotion of the child´s intellectual abilities and skills: expansion of vocabulary, promotion of imagination and memory, reasoning, learning life lessons, and expanding the knowledge about the world. In this component of the questionnaire, distinct dominance of high education mothers over those with low education was detected. Five items, out of six, showed significant differences in favour of high education mothers. The only item that avoided this trend was teaching about life in the book content (item 8). Overall, mothers with high education hold strong cognitive reasons of reading to the child. They consider it important for the children´s intellectual development and learning. As expected, there was no difference between the two groups in reading to the child as a way of preparation for primary school (item 10). The averages are smaller than in other items. Mothers apparently regard primary education as a faraway target and do not place much emphasis on it in the preschool age.

Items 11 and 12 required the respondents to rate their reasons to read for appeasing the child and wanting the child to fall asleep. Again, as expected, there was no statistical difference between the two groups in these items. The averages are rather low, and in the case of making the child sleep they are even lower. However, high education mothers have stronger reasons to read to the child even if they are tired (item 13). The usual time for a reading session with the child is in the evening. Mothers must concentrate their will and power to overcome the

burden of the day´s work and make the reading possible and pleasant. Low education mothers ten to have physically more demanding jobs so they are more tired in the evening and thus are less inclined to read to children than are higher education mothers.

The aggregated results of the 13 items concerning reasons to read to the child show large differences between the two groups (Table 1, bottom row). The difference is statistically significant. Thus Hyp. 1 was supported. Generally, mothers with higher education have stronger motives than their counterparts in the low education group in decisions to read to their children. They place much emphasis on literacy values and demonstrate that their engagement to reading to children is a wealth that will bring its fruits in the child´s literacy development. This does not claim that mothers with lower education abandon reading to their children. Rather, it witnesses that their reasons are not so strong as are those with mothers in the high education group.

Tab. 1: Reasons to read to the child in the low and high mother's education groups

Mother´s reasons to read		Low education mothers		High education mothers		Sign.
		n	M (SD)	n	M (SD)	
1	appreciate to be with child	54	3.91 (1.12)	211	4.23 (1.02)	**0.034**
2	brings joy to parent	53	4.36 (0.81)	211	4.27 (0.91)	0.642
3	attitude to books	53	4.19 (0.96)	213	4.36 (0.90)	0.191
4	vocabulary expansion	53	4.34 (0.96)	212	4.67 (0.68)	**0.008**
5	imagination promotion	53	4.19 (0.96)	213	4.46 (0.82)	**0.003**
6	memory promotion	54	4.39 (0.86)	212	4.68 (0.69)	**0.004**
7	reasoning promotion	53	4.11 (1.05)	212	4.53 (0.79)	**0.006**
8	teaching abut life	54	4.02 (1.14)	212	4.29 (0.89)	0.158
9	expand world knowledge	53	4.14 (0.96)	213	4.46 (0.82)	**0.036**
10	preparation for primary school	54	3.76 (1.26)	212	3.75 (1.24)	0.913
11	calm down child	55	2.95 (1.21)	213	3.05 (1.30)	0.653
12	make child sleep	54	2.78 (1.38)	213	2.77 (1.37)	0.954
13	even if parent tired	51	3.33 (1.35)	212	3.76 (1.22)	**0.037**
Overall reasons to read		47	3.87 (0.64)	209	4.12 (0.57)	**0.009**

Notes: The quantity of the respondents in items varies due to missing data. M = average; SD = standard deviation; Sign. = statistical significance as computed with Mann-Whitney U test of differences. Numbers in bold indicate significant differences between the groups.

Child´s exposure to reading in the family

Frequency and duration of reading to the child are generally considered the key characteristics of home literacy practices. Table 2 shows the basic findings. About 41 % of high education mothers read to their child every day, while only a quarter of low education mothers does it. About equal percentage (44 %) of mothers read to the child several times a week. Overall, the difference in frequency of reading to the child between the two groups is statistically significant in favour of the high education mothers. Thus Hyp. 2 was supported. In addition to the frequency of reading to the child accomplished by the first parent (typically the mother), we also examined how frequently another person in the household reads to the child (typically, a father or a grandparent). No statistically significant difference was detected.

Table 2 shows also no statistically significant differences between the two groups in the duration of the mother´s reading session with the child. Thus Hyp. 3 was rejected. Most respondents read to the child for 10-15 minutes. Longer reading times are somewhat less frequent. If the reading session is organized effectively, especially if it includes the mother´s interaction with the child about the book content, then the benefits are valuable even if the reading session is only 15 minutes long. However, longer reading sessions bring more benefits.

Because the child's age may affect the frequency and duration of reading to the child, it was inspected whether or not it was the age and not the mother´s education that made the difference. However, no statistical difference was revealed in children´s age between the groups ($U = 500.5$, $p = 0.482$). We also examined whether of not it is the mother´s marital status that made the difference in reading frequency and reading duration. It can be assumed that in single parent families the mother has less time for reading because she must do all the household duties alone. In single parent families there were no statistical differences between the two education groups in reading frequency ($U = 143$, $p = 0.53$) or reading duration ($U = 178$, $p = 0.221$). However, the number of single families in the sample was small (17 in the mother´s low education group and 26 in the mother´s high education group), which may distort the findings.

Finally, we examined the association of mother´s education and the number of books their children have. Possessing book is an important factor of the home literacy environment. It helps shaping the child´s attitude to books and literacy in general. The results show that mother´s education is strongly associated with the number of books the child has. In the average, children of mothers with higher education have more books than mothers with low education group. The difference is statistically significant. Mothers with higher education usually have higher level jobs and higher income than other mothers. This affords them to buy more children´s books. The correlation between mother´s education and mother´s

level of profession is rather high (r_{rho} = 0.630**), the correlation with income is lower (r_{rho} = 0.353**).

Tab. 2: Child´s exposure to reading in the family in low and high mothers´ education groups

			Never/ occasion ally	Once a month	Once a week	Several times a week	Every day	Sign.
14	Reading to child frequency	LEM	3.8 %	7.7 %	19.2 %	44.2 %	25 %	**0.007**
		HEM	1 %	3.9 %	10.6 %	44 %	40.6 %	
15	Reading to child by other adult	LEM	21.2 %	23.1 %	21.2 %	26.9 %	7.7 %	0.398
		HEM	15.3 %	23 %	23 %	30.6 %	8.1 %	
16	Duration of a reading session		**5 min.**	**10-15 min.**	**20 min.**	**30 min.**	**40 min.**	
		LEM	5.8 %	55.8 %	34.6 %	1.9 %	1.9 %	0.189
		HEM	1.9 %	50.2 %	45 %	2.9 %	0 %	
17	Number of children´s books		**5**	**10**	**20**	**30**	**30+**	
		LEM	3.7 %	11.1 %	38.9 %	22.2 %	24.1 %	**0.000**
		HEM	0.9 %	6.2 %	15.2 %	22.7 %	55 %	

Note: LEM = low education of mother, HEM = high education of mother. Sign. = statistical significance as computed with Mann-Whitney U test of differences. Numbers in bold indicate significant differences between the groups.

The age at the onset of the mother's reading to the child is a factor that is strongly associated with many reading achievement variables. If the parent reads to their children in early stage, they probably become good readers themselves. In our sample, low education mothers started to read to their children at 18 months, while higher education mothers began it when the child was 12 months old. The difference is statistically significant (U = 4123, p = 0.002) in favour of high education mothers. Parents who read from early age bring to their children an advantage of a long period of literacy and language input. This was also documented in the study of Niklas et al. (2016), who summed up their findings metaphorically: "Early birds catches the worm". However, in this study, no statistical difference was found in exposition of reading to the child, which was computed as the child´s age of the beginning to read to the child subtracted from the child´s current physical age (U = 4459.5, p = 0.140). This indicates that it is not the length of the reading input but the developmental time when the reading to the child begins, which distinguishes low and high education mothers.

Mother´s literacy practices with the child

Literacy practices are activities the mother organizes and performs with the child. They concern both the use of the book features and activities beyond the book itself (e.g., playing letter games with the child). Table 3 brings findings about nine of such activities. They all are relevant components of mother-child interaction with the child because they bring more effective cognitive stimulation to the child than sheer reading aloud.

In both mothers´ education groups the averages are somewhat smaller than those of the mothers´ reasons to read to the child. This is obvious. Doing these activities is more demanding for the mother than answering questionnaire items about the motives to read to the child. Asking questions, explaining the story plot, persuading the child of importance of reading, etc. are difficult tasks for the mother. Mother-child interaction is challenging and requires mother's sensitive responding to the child´s reactions. In addition, doing effective interaction over the book requires certain knowledge and skills on the side of mothers. This explains somewhat lower self-rating on the literacy practices items.

Aggregated items of the mothers´ literacy practices (Table 3, bottom row) show no statistical difference between the two mothers´ education groups. Thus Hyp. 4 was rejected. The finding that mothers in both education groups do not differ in literacy practices with their children was a surprising one because we had assumed that high education mothers would be more frequently engaged in these demanding activities. However, this assumption did not prove right. The scores on individual literacy practices reveal more details.

Only two types of practices show statistical differences between the two mothers´ educational groups, and they are in favour of low education mothers. This violated another assumption. These mothers scored better than their counterparts in the high education group in discussing the book characters (item 20). This activity is an essential feature for understanding the story plot. Asking children about the book heroes is a basic strategy that the mother follows in a reading session. High education mothers probably do not need to check frequently whether the child knows who are the heroes or what actions they take as low education mothers do. This clarifies the difference between the two mothers´ education groups. Explaining the reasons for reading (item 23) is probably necessary in families where the literacy culture is not very rich but not in families where the child sees parents reading for enjoyment or pleasure frequently. The later occurs more probably in families with high education mothers.

Notes - Tab 3: The number of respondents vary in items due to missing data. EM = education of mother. M = average; SD = standard deviation; Sign. = statistical

significance as computed with Mann-Whitney U test of differences. Numbers in bold indicate significant differences between the groups

Tab. 3: Mother´s literacy practices with the child

	Mother	low EM		high EM		**Sign.**
		N	M (SD)	N	M (SD)	
18	explains words	55	3.35 (1.08)	212	3.48 (1.06)	0.437
19	clarifies story context	55	3.42 (1.17)	213	3.39 (1.14)	0.874
20	asks about characters	55	3.42 (1.23)	212	3.04 (1.14)	**0.041**
21	demands talk about book	54	3.78 (1.00)	212	3.95 (1.07)	0.062
22	connects content with child´s experience	55	2.75 (1.06)	211	2.87 (1.20)	0.515
23	explains reasons for reading	55	2.60 (1.29)	210	2.00 (1.02)	**0.001**
24	playing letter or number games with child	54	3.07 (1.18)	212	3.08 (1.05)	0.906
25	training writing letters or words with child	54	2.74 (1.31)	213	2.54 (1.23)	0.322
Overall literacy practices		54	2.99 (0.65)	203	2.80 (0.67)	0.068

Discussion

   The purpose of the study was to examine the relationship between mothers´ education and reading books to their preschool children. The data reveal that the higher education mothers justify this reading especially for cognitive reasons (expansion of the child´s knowledge, vocabulary, reasoning, imagination) and emotional reasons. This confirms the findings of other studies (DeBaryshe, 1995; Wiegel, Martin, & Bennett, 2006) that - in addition to mothers´ level of education - it is the mothers´ beliefs in the value of book reading and in the child´s experiences with books that is important in the development of the child´s literacy. The data show that the higher education mothers justify reading to the child especially for cognitive reasons (expansion of the child´s knowledge, vocabulary, reasoning, imagination) and emotional reasons.

   The findings indicate that higher education mothers establish higher quality home literacy environment than do lower deduction mothers. In this study these mothers began to read to the child earlier and read to them more frequently than low education mothers do. This does not say that low education mothers neglect

the literacy development of their children in the preschool age. In the average, most of them read to the child several times a week and each reading session takes up to ten minutes. However, their children have considerably fewer books than those of higher education mothers.

Surprisingly, there was no difference in book-based interactions between the two mothers' education groups (except in discussing the book characters and explaining the reasons to read to the child). This is in contrast to other studies that showed that mothers´ education has a close association with theses interactions (Raikes et al., 2006; Suizzo & Stapleton, 2007). The disparity can be explained by differences between Czech and American samples and/or by research instruments used.

A favourable result is that regardless of education level, mothers engage in dialogic communication with children over the book content. The data indicate that shared reading in most of the respondents´ families is not a one-way process. The child is a partner in the book-related communication.

As any research, also this one has limitations. All findings are based on the data gathered by a self-rate instrument. The respondents´ responses are declarations rather than pictures of their actual behaviour in reading sessions with the child. In addition, the sample was too small and non-random to consider the results to be representative of mothers with preschool children in the Czech Republic. Nevertheless, the data are rich and contribute to better understanding of the literacy development of preschool children in the family.

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Plurilingualism and monolingualism in foreign language classrooms: The perspective of EFL teachers in Saudi Arabia

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Abstract

The idea of teaching a target language via a monolingual medium of instruction in the classroom has long predominated in the pedagogical context. In Saudi Arabia, excluding the students' mother tongue (Arabic) in the foreign language classroom has been seen as a tool that accelerates the acquisition of the target language (English). This is widely viewed as the most practical and effective method of language learning, especially in the Gulf region, where English is a foreign language employed in the fields of economics and business. The recent academic argument that exploiting the students' linguistic repertoire, including the mother tongue, in the target language classroom boosts and fosters the students' learning cycle is still encountering huge resistance, especially among second/foreign language teachers. To explore this dispute from the perspective of English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers in intermediate and secondary schools, a case study was conducted with 34 teachers in the Qassim region, Saudi Arabia, through questionnaires and a focus group interview. The study found that most teachers believe that the policy of using the target language (English) only is the most effective method of language learning. They employed the students' mother tongue (Arabic) on an ad hoc basis to ensure complete comprehension, organize classroom tasks or convey personal remarks. In addition, the study revealed that teachers' understanding of plurilingualism was unclear and limited to the verbal use of two languages, and that EFL teachers need more clarification on its application in the classroom.

Keywords: Plurilingualism, monolingualism, classroom education, foreign language learning, mother tongue

Introduction

Teaching English as a foreign language (EFL) is commonly considered a challenging practice by teachers. Some challenges arise from the capability of the students to interact and communicate with their teachers in the target language. Others derive from stakeholders who continue to insist on an English-only policy as they still believe it is the best approach to acquire a foreign language. This issue has increasingly become a great obstacle to students in the classroom. Whenever the idea of plurilingualism is brought up for discussion a long dispute can be

expected. This dispute is understandable, but a space for constructive discussion is needed, especially nowadays, when new theories are evolving with regard to allowing students' first language to be used together with the target language in EFL classrooms. Plurilingualism is not the exception; indeed, it is quite popular around the world, especially where multicultural and national backgrounds coexist (Blommaert, 2010; Lamb, 2015). The phenomenon of plurilingualism, according to Marshall and Moore (2018, p. 19), concerns: "...the study of individuals' repertoires and agency in several languages, in different contexts, in which the individual is the locus and actor of contact; accordingly, a person's languages and cultures interrelate and change over time, depending on individual biographies, social trajectories, and life paths."

In other words, it is seen as an individual characteristic, in contrast to multilingualism, which is considered a societal phenomenon (García & Otheguy, 2020). This individualist feature affords individuals within societies their preference of linguistic choices for the purpose of communication and improving their communicative competence. Hence, plurilingual speakers are aware of their plurilingual practice and also pay attention to others' plurilingual practice. This awareness raises the attention of speakers and supports their goal of achieving linguistic competence. In addition, plurilingualism concentrates on the language itself and attempts to help monolinguals become bi/multilinguals with a view to building a "repertoire of languages" (García & Otheguy, 2020, p. 21). This case study, therefore, aims to explore the idea of plurilingualism in terms of the views held by EFL teachers in intermediate and secondary schools in the Qassim region, Saudi Arabia. A questionnaire was distributed among EFL teachers concerning their awareness of the term "plurilingualism" and their perspectives regarding the inclusion of the two languages, mother tongue and target language, in the classroom. A focus group interview was then conducted to attain a deep understanding of their thoughts and concerns about plurilingualism and its application in the classroom.

1. Literature review

A monolingual approach has dominated EFL classrooms for a long period of time. Researchers have traditionally viewed the monolingual approach as enhancing and supporting the students' learning cycle through extensive and strict exposure to and interaction with the target language. They have claimed that it is a practice imitating how children acquire their first language via exposure (Cook, 2001). In addition, they have considered the classroom to be the favorable venue in terms of providing a controlled instructional environment. Moreover, according to García and Otheguy (2020, p. 18), "When elite monolinguals develop as bilinguals, they most often do so in school, where they are taught what is labeled as a second language, to be used completely separately from what is called their

first language or mother tongue". Thus, there is an insistence on sticking to the target language-only policy. This belief raised the need to highlight the impact of monolingualism on the community in general and the context of education in particular (Vallejo & Dooly, 2020). The issue with the monolingual approach was chiefly that: "...second- and foreign-language pedagogy became focused on correcting errors and eradicating interference. Students acquiring what is regarded as a foreign or a second language were expected to be two monolinguals in one" (García & Otheguy, 2020, p. 18).

Therefore, developing and maintaining an inclusive linguistic repertoire does not tend to be supported in such contexts. In contrast, a more flexible view that would allow the students' whole linguistic repertoire to be used in EFL classrooms is gradually gaining prominence. This approach, termed plurilingualism, "tries to capture the dynamic and developing linguistic repertoire of an individual user/learner" (Piccardo, 2019, p. 184). The prospective shift from monolingualism to plurilingualism has brought the two approaches into the light and begged the question of whether or not plurilingualism is worth considering. Allowing students' mother tongue to be used in the classroom will potentially enhance the students' comprehension ability and foster their metalinguistic awareness. Indeed, Cook (2001, p. 405) argues that "dismissing the L1 out of hand restricts the possibilities for language teaching" and it has been argued that exploiting students' full linguistic repertoire can accelerate the learning process generally, including learning new languages (Haenni Hoti & Heinzmann, 2012; Moore, 2016; Ò Laoire & Singleton, 2009). The world's population is now in constant contact and therefore several languages interact, either face to face or online. This interaction has led to the emergence of "...a wide spectrum of nomenclatures: plurilingual modes, heteroglossia, languaging, translingual practices, translanguaging, transglossia, crossing, code-meshing, polylanguaging, metrolingualism and transidiomatic practices" (Vallejo & Dooly, 2020, p. 2).

Indeed, bi/multilinguals do not keep each language in a separate compartment, but build up a unitary communicative competence. However, it is worth noting that employing plurilingualism in EFL classrooms is not a straightforward practice as there are some challenges regarding how it can be implemented (Boeckmann, 2012). These challenges differ among societies and between educational contexts, depending on their specific characteristics, but they all share the same main issues discussed in this article.

1.1 Previous research

The long-standing argument supporting the monolingual approach claims that prohibiting students' mother tongue in EFL classrooms will support students' language development (Ekman, 2015; Iannacci, 2008). This claim, according to Cook (2008) can only hold for the sake of avoiding students' becoming confused in

their learning cycle. Moreover, other researchers have found that abandoning students' mother tongue can hamper their ability to retain their previous knowledge (Cimbganda & Mokgwathi, 2012; Cook, 2001). Thus, students will not be able to benefit from their full inherited learning skills. English learning in EFL classrooms should incorporate students' local context, language and culture, which are part of their identity (Jiménez, López-Gopar, & Morales, 2014). In this regard, the mother tongue can serve as a useful linguistic resource in learning the target language. Thus, the view that "English is perceived as having a distinct linguistic reality and, as such, can be taught without any reference to the existing language repertoire of the child/student" must be reassessed and reconsidered (García & Otheguy, 2020, p. 19).

A very recent study conducted by Dooly and Vallejo (2020) concerned how to integrate plurilingual practices in language education. The study took place in Spain and used data collected through a workshop with 15 primary and secondary teachers. In the workshop, the teachers were given some activities and topics to discuss and debate concerning plurilingualism and pedagogy. The study found that "languages are not treated as separate resources and yet these teachers have been hired to ensure the learning of one specific language" (p. 93). Although the teachers were open to the application of plurilingualism in the classroom, they found it challenging to relinquish the idea of the primacy of students' exposure to the target language. In addition, they were concerned about employing an approach that might go against the will of policymakers and students' parents, who still believe in the separation of languages.

1.2 The role of policy

English is not only a communicative tool, but also a cultural and social marker. Stakeholders are very keen to enhance and support students' learning; however, they are reluctant to accept major changes, such as allowing EFL classrooms to be flexible regarding the inclusion of the students' mother tongue. This is probably due to their concern that providing EFL classrooms with more linguistic diversity might hinder students' linguistic development and detract from their focus on the target language. In other words, they are more concerned with the expected challenges than thinking of the potential benefits of creating a diverse linguistic environment that EFL classrooms currently lack. Barnawi and Al-Hawsawi (2017) urge policymakers in Saudi Arabia to deepen their understanding of the linguistic situation in the country, respond to what scientific research has revealed and design a strategic plan that includes the interests of Saudi nationals. Indeed, the "internationalization of education" and the "globalization of English" are crucial nowadays and plurilingualism as a practice should be implemented. By having a strict language allocation policy, school policy that the students' mother tongue is prohibited in EFL classrooms is officially reinforced (García & Otheguy, 2020).

Following the establishment of official education in Saudi Arabia in 1925, English was first incorporated in the educational system in 1937. This early introduction indicates the eagerness of the government to include English in its national sphere. However, the inclusion of the use of English in the Saudi community was minimal. The Saudi community was considered very conservative compared to neighboring countries in the surrounding region. This was partially due to a misunderstanding, namely that English posed a cultural and social threat to Arabic, which Muslims—including Saudis—consider a divine language. After the events of 9/11 and later the birth of the Islamic State of Iraq and Syria, known as ISIS, and the allegations of links to Arab and Islamic countries, pressure on Saudi Arabia to liberalize its education system was at its peak (Habbash, 2011). As a result, a major transformation of the whole education system began, including the use of English. Over time, English has become the "gatekeeper to positions of prestige in society" (Pennycook, 1995, p. 39). Indeed, English is now considered a social and professional asset, especially among Saudi youth.

Empirical and theoretical analysis of English language use in EFL contexts provides policymakers with a holistic view of its application, the implications of its use, and how they can be addressed. For instance, Zaid (1993) conducted a study regarding the actual practice of English language in Saudi public schools. He employed questionnaires and classroom observations, focusing on the practice of teachers and the opinions of school supervisors in Saudi Arabia. He found that the teaching method applied was mainly grammar translation and students' participation was minimal. Therefore, students' communication skills were not being developed. Another study conducted by Zafer (2002) regarding teachers' preferred teaching strategies in the classroom in Saudi public schools again found that grammar translation was the strategy most employed. However, it is widely assumed that the current situation in English language classrooms is quite different. Saudi families send their children to private English institutions and some send them abroad during the summer holidays to improve their English skills. This is a dramatic shift, as it indicates the openness of the community and acceptance of English as a global language.

1.3 Theoretical lens

Knowledge is socially constructed and attained via interaction and communication. The plurilingual perspective holds that an individual's whole linguistic repertoire should be allowed everywhere and without restriction for the sake of achieving communicative competence. This emerged from "…Anglophone contexts with highly multilingual and multicultural populations where bilingual education and the empowerment of linguistic minorities have been long pursued objectives (e.g. the UK, Canada, bigger cities in the USA). In terms of language use, it has been explained as "the deployment of a speaker's full linguistic repertoire

without regard for watchful adherence to the socially and politically defined boundaries of named (and usually national and state) languages" (Otheguy, García, & Reid, 2015, p. 283).

Plurilingualism appears to incorporate socio-political and epistemological aspects that may signal language users' own orientations, contextualizations, and co-construction of roles in interaction (see Lüdi, 2020). It is seen as emergent, situated, and undergoing constant evolution and change (Coste, Moore, & Zarate, 1997), and is employed in a creative way in which speakers can expand their linguistic repertoire and improve their communicative competence (Vallejo & Dooly, 2020). Another facet is that plurilingualism focuses from an emic perspective on what plurilingual speakers do with their communicative resources. In the context of this study, the target language is considered a foreign language. As pointed out by García and Otheguy (2020, p. 19): "…the linguistic conception centered on named languages that represent different cultures and political states has had its most influence in foreign language education. In these classrooms, students considered monolingual representatives of the nation-state, are taught an additional language, which is always seen as second to their first. Foreign language education programs reinforce the construction of named languages as spoken in specified, and foreign, nation-state(s), the idea being that the learning of this language will contribute to increased communication between people of different countries".

Thus, the traditional idea of the separation of languages is strongly reinforced by foreign language education programs and policymakers, ultimately constituting a considerable obstacle to the notion of plurilingualism.

2. Methodology

This study adopted a mixed methods approach to examine the various perspectives of EFL teachers in Saudi Arabian public schools concerning plurilingualism in the classroom. The sample comprised 34 teachers (17 females and 17 males) at intermediate and secondary schools in the Qassim region, teaching students aged 12–17 years. Data were collected through a questionnaire and a focus group interview. All the participating teachers had at least 5 years of teaching experience. They were all Saudi and proficient in English as well as their mother tongue (Arabic). All participants were asked to sign consent forms that contained details about the nature of the study and guaranteed their anonymity.

2.1 Research questions

The study aimed to answer the following research questions:
1. Do teachers of English in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA) believe that they should teach only using the target language (English)?
  (a) If so, why? / (b) If not, why not?

2. What do teachers of English in the KSA think about the use of Arabic in English language classes?
   (a) Is the use of Arabic valid for teaching purposes (by teachers)?
   (b) Is the use of Arabic valid for learning purposes (by students)?
   (c) Is the use of Arabic relevant only for non-academic purposes (e.g., greeting, leave taking)?

The design of the study, articulated through the research questions, aimed to ensure rigor and thoroughness. The first research question intended to address teachers' perspectives concerning a monolingual versus a plurilingual approach. Elaboration on their perspectives was needed and elicited through the focus group interview. The second research question aimed to tackle the reasons for and functions of allowing use of the students' mother tongue in the EFL classroom. By addressing and discussing responses to these research questions, the study aimed to enhance understanding of the phenomena of monolingualism and plurilingualism in language classrooms.

2.2 Instruments

Various research instruments are available to researchers, designed to provide answers to different types of questions and elicit information from research participants. In this study, to achieve validity and reliability, Selamat's (2014) questionnaire was adapted, with participants asked to indicate their responses to statements based on a standard Likert scale. There were 19 statements in total and the questionnaire was divided into two parts: The first part concerned the functions of allowing plurilingualism in the classroom (see Table 1), and the second part focused on teachers' attitudes towards plurilingualism (see Table 2). Following the questionnaire, a focus group interview was conducted with some of the participating teachers (n = 5, all male). These teachers were chosen randomly and based on their willingness and availability to participate. The focus group interview, which lasted 52 minutes, began with an introduction to the study and its purpose. I then followed up on the questionnaire responses in greater detail.

3. Results

Based on the results of the analysis, presented below, it can be argued that the majority of teachers were reluctant when it came to implementing plurilingualism in EFL classrooms; however, they acknowledged the merits of allowing the use of students' full linguistic repertoire. This could indicate low awareness among teachers of their practices in the classroom. It perhaps also indicates their limited power over their practices, which mostly followed the instructions handed down by policymakers. During the focus group interview, the interviewees were more transparent regarding their choices in the classroom. They believed that targeting

proficiency over communicative competence was more desirable for parents and stakeholders. In the following sections, a thorough analysis is provided, employing the questionnaire and focus group interview data respectively.

Tab. 1: Functions of using students' mother tongue in the classroom
(scale 1–5, %)

No.	In class, I switch from English to Arabic…	Never	Hardly ever	Often	Most of the time	Every time
1	To explain the meaning of words and difficult concepts.	0	8.8	26.5	52.9	11.8
2	To explain grammar explicitly.	0	0	44.1	38.2	17.6
3	To check for comprehension.	2.4	3.2	61.8	23.5	9.1
4	To organize classroom tasks.	4.4	7.2	55.8	25.5	7.1
5	To introduce unfamiliar materials/topics.	11.8	17.6	38.2	20.6	11.8
6	To draw students' attention to the correct pronunciation of sounds in English.	17.6	8.8	35.3	20.6	17.6
7	To provide praise/feedback/personal remarks about students' performance.	7.4	9.2	50.8	24.5	8.1
8	To build/strengthen interpersonal relations between the teacher and students.	5.9	20.6	26.5	26.5	20.6
9	To reduce students' anxiety in learning English.	14.7	14.7	38.2	14.7	17.6
10	To increase students' motivation and confidence.	17.6	14.7	20.6	35.3	11.8

3.1 Questionnaire

Table 1 shows teachers' responses regarding the functions of allowing plurilingualism to be used in the classroom. Functions related to achieving comprehension and understanding are more salient than those related to lack of vocabulary and low proficiency. Although the majority of teachers endorsed employing the students' mother tongue to explain meaning and difficult concepts (see No. 1), their primary concern in making recourse to their mother tongue was to ensure students' comprehension, organize classroom tasks, and convey personal remarks (see Nos. 3, 4, 7). Due to the word limits of this paper, the focus here is on the three functions most stressed by respondents, especially during the focus group interview (Nos. 3, 4, 7).

Figure 1 shows that 94.4% of participating teachers accepted students' use of their first language, but not for the usual purpose, i.e., explaining grammar or introducing new words; rather, it was mostly employed to ensure students' comprehension and understanding of the content delivered. This is an interesting outcome, indicating teachers' endeavor to achieve students' full understanding of task-related content. Although the students' mother tongue may be used for many reasons, achieving comprehension was not thought to be a priority in a context in which fluency is targeted more than anything else.
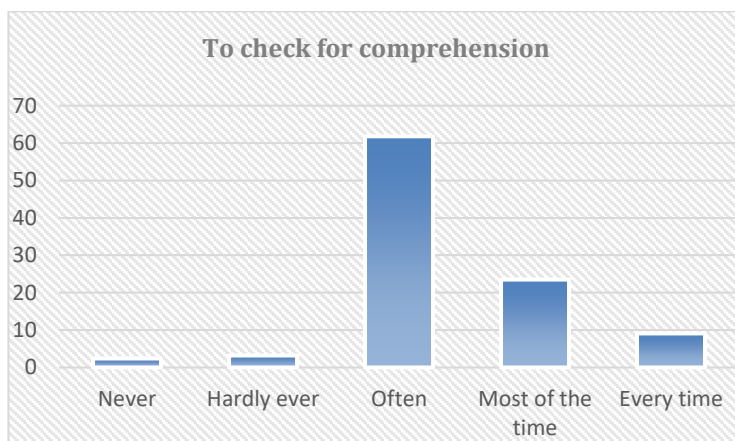

Fig. 1: Teachers acceptánce of students' use of their first language

In addition, Figure 2 illustrates that besides striving for comprehension, 88.4% of participating teachers employed the students' mother tongue to organize classrooms tasks, which is also an indication of their attempt to achieve comprehension, but regarding instructions. It seems that these two functions both reflect teachers' eagerness to achieve comprehension through organizing classroom tasks in understandable language. This is a point of interest in the context of this study as in Saudi Arabia, English is still considered a job requirement, rather than an important communicative tool. Insisting that students must understand what they are asked to do in the classroom rather than leaving them to guess the meaning by themselves and thus wasting valuable time is a merit.
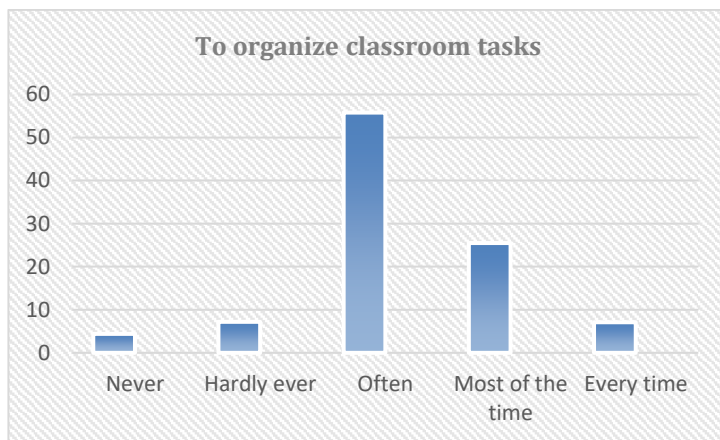
Fig. 2: Teachers úse of students' mother tongue to organize classrooms tasks

Figure 3 shows the extent to which teachers employ the students' mother tongue for the purpose of delivering personal remarks. In all, 83.4% of participating teachers employed the students' mother tongue to convey personal comments, feedback, and observations. It is a highly effective way of making an impact on the students and building strong relations. This is related to teachers' intention to enhance the cultural impact of language use. It seems that this function is again related to the two mentioned above as they all reinforce the idea of putting students at the center of teaching and learning.
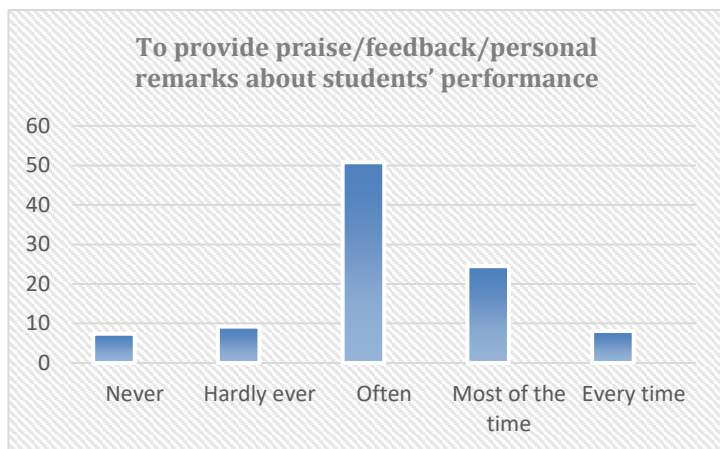

Fig. 3: Teachers´use of students' mother tongue to deliver personal remarks

Furthermore, Table 2 shows teachers' opinions regarding the use of the students' mother tongue alongside the target language. It can be seen that teachers are broadly in line with practicing plurilingualism in the classroom (Nos. 11–16); however, they simultaneously still support the monolingual approach (Nos. 14–19). This discrepancy may indicate that teachers are not confident about the usefulness of plurilingualism and are afraid they would be violating school policy in applying it. This is a real hindrance in terms of fostering an environment facilitating the development of communicative competence. In certain respects, the teachers were not consistent in their opinions regarding delivering a plurilingual classroom experience (No. 17). This could be linked to their lack of understanding of the purpose of a plurilingual approach and its advantages over a monolingual one. They were not fully aware of the benefits for students of being supported by their whole linguistic repertoire; rather, they considered the potential drawbacks in terms of hindering students' language proficiency.

3.2 Focus group interview

In the focus group interview, the participants were more transparent regarding their main concerns in EFL classrooms. They stressed the need to ensure comprehension and full understanding. Indeed, their highest priority was to make students understand what was said in the classroom. For instance, interviewee (3) stated that "teachers cannot limit the students' linguistic capacity by neglecting their mother tongue." Moreover, interviewee (4) argued that "in contexts such as Saudi Arabia, where English use is limited, 45 minutes a day is not enough to raise students' proficiency." Therefore, they thought that they should strive for comprehension rather than proficiency. This is in line with García and Otheguy's (2020, p. 20) argument that "language as taught and used in schools tends to have little to do with the language practices of people outside school." In addition, they were not aware that this view would actually support the notion of plurilingualism, according to which achieving comprehension is a high priority. Indeed, it can be argued that there is no point concentrating on the target language and neglecting the students' comprehension of the course-related content. Furthermore, although the interviewees stressed the importance of achieving comprehension, they were reluctant to make it the only priority, especially in EFL classrooms. Although they reported that the mother tongue was used in some ways in the classroom, they did not see plurilingualism increasing. For example, interviewee (1) raised his concern that by "allowing the students' mother tongue to be used in EFL classrooms, parents would not be happy about it. They should be informed of the benefit of allowing their children's mother tongue in the classroom."

Tab. 2: Teachers' perceptions of plurilingualism (scale 1–5, %)

No.	I believe that…	Totally agree	Agree a little	Neither agree or disagree	Disagree a little	Totally disagree
11	Plurilingualism will facilitate the language learning process.	38.2	32.4	23.5	5.9	0
12	The practice of plurilingualism will increase the students' reliance and dependence on the teacher.	26.5	44.1	20.6	5.9	2.9
13	Plurilingualism should be included as an integral part of the EFL lesson.	23.5	41.2	29.4	5.9	0
14	There should be a strict separation of the mother tongue and English in the EFL classroom.	20.6	29.4	23.5	17.6	8.8
15	Plurilingualism should only be used as a last resort when all other options have been exhausted.	32.4	41.2	11.8	8.8	5.9
16	Plurilingualism is an efficient, time-saving technique.	35.3	38.2	23.5	2.9	0
17	English is best taught in English-only classrooms.	26.5	11.8	23.5	20.6	17.6
18	The use of other languages in the EFL classroom will result in a decline in the standard of English.	20.6	35.5	26.5	8.8	8.8
19	The more English used, the better the results for the learners.	50	35.3	8.8	2.9	2.9

4. Discussion

From the results presented above, it can be argued that teachers are broadly convinced of usefulness of plurilingualism, but they are not sure of its implications in EFL contexts. They are worried that adopting this approach may lead to low proficiency in English. This view is endorsed by policymakers and parents, who still insist on the effectiveness of the monolingual approach. They believe that maintaining monolingual classrooms will lead to greater proficiency in English. Thus, it is vital for societies and communities, especially in countries with limited multicultural and multinational facets, such as Saudi Arabia, to raise public awareness and tolerance of linguistic pluralism. In doing so, first language speakers will become more flexible and engaged regarding linguistic diversity and

variation in their classrooms and societies. Indeed, plurilingualism, in contrast to the traditional view, endorses "the importance of what is seen as the L1 to develop proficiency in what are regarded as [the] L2 or L3" (García & Otheguy, 2020, p. 23). It is necessary to accept that individuals are not and cannot be two/three monolinguals in one; rather, languages are complementary and integrated in bilinguals/multilinguals. The students' first language and their fluency in their mother tongue should be used to support the learning of additional languages.

5. Conclusion

This study was an attempt to explore the phenomenon of plurilingualism in terms of perceptions and practice among teachers in EFL classrooms in Saudi Arabia. It was evident that plurilingualism is employed; however, teachers are not aware of this practice as plurilingualism. Teachers assumed that they were responding to the students' needs, but never thought of what they were doing as a scientific argument in academia. This advocates the need for researchers to keep EFL teachers up to date on issues and debates in language learning and teaching. Thus, teachers will be more confident that what they are doing has rational and scientifically established underpinnings, rather than thinking they are violating established language learning and teaching strategies. In addition, it is recommended that further research be conducted on the perspectives of students with regard to plurilingualism and its role in the classroom. In addition, this phenomenon could benefit from an emic analysis on the inclusion of bilinguals' communicative resources. I hope that this study will shed some light upon this phenomenon and encourage teachers to consider applying plurilingualism in their classrooms, bearing in mind the expected benefits for them and their learners.

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Meta-analysis of studies on the acquisition of receptive skills and vocabulary in CLIL

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Abstract

Content and language integrated learning (CLIL) is a major area of interest within the field of formal education. There are numerous studies presenting data and results of CLIL implementation. The positive impacts have been reported in building positive attitudes to language learning, to content subject learning, increasing efficacy of language learning. Questions have been raised about the factors that (may) affect research results and their interpretation. Many small studies bring statistically non-significant data as they use small convenience samples. Meta-analyses enable the researchers to synthesise data from research with the same characteristics. The present article analyses the studies that focus on CLIL implementation at primary and secondary schools with special focus on receptive skills and vocabulary gains. Out of 385 selected studies were 9 included and applying randomised-effect model evaluated. The analysis found no statistically significant differences between the CLIL and EFL groups in listening and reading performance. Concerning vocabulary the statistically significant difference in favour of CLIL (p<0,0001) with overall estimate effect 0,84 and confidence interval ranging from 0,56 to 1,11 was observed.

Keywords: CLIL, receptive skills, meta-analysis, statistics, forest plot, confidence interval

1 Introduction

Foreign language teaching is compulsory in almost all European countries. It might seem to be surprising that almost in half of the European countries a mandatory foreign language is specified (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2017). To increase the exposure to foreign (or minority) languages, to enhance students' proficiency, make foreign language learning more meaningful and to prepare students to be able to communicate the content the Content and language integrated learning (CLIL) has been applied in selected schools.

CLIL is "a dual-focused educational approach in which an additional language is used for the learning and teaching of both content and language. That is, in the teaching and learning process, there is a focus not only on content, and not only on language. Each is interwoven, even if the emphasis is greater on one or the other at a given time" (Coyle, Hood & Marsh, 2010). In some European countries (e.g. Italy, Cyprus, Liechtenstein, Austria) at least one year (at least) one non-language subject has to be taught in a foreign language (see European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2017).

CLIL has been the subject of much systematic investigation. Various aspects of the linguistic potential of CLIL have been extensively discussed similarly as different factors influencing the effectiveness of CLIL programmes.

During its development and implementation it has been compared and/or considered as a synonym to integrated thematic instruction (school model designed by Kovalik, see Kovalik & Olsen, 1993), immersion (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2009), content-based instruction (Cenoz, 2015), task-based language teaching (Ortega, 2015), English for specific purpose (Yang, 2016; Taillefer, 2013; Tzoannopoulou, 2015) or bilingual education (see e.g. Nikula, 2018). The studies have been focussed on key actors: pupils, teachers, parents and school management. The impact on foreign language performance, content knowledge and also the impact on mother tongue, classroom interaction (Pastrana, Llinares & Pascual, 2018), the **influence of affective factors** (Lasagabaster & Doiz, 2015; Otwinowska & Foryś, 2017), **household structure** (Mensel, Hilligsmann, Mettewie & Galand, 2020), **time and intensity** (Surmont, et al., 2016; Merino & Lasagabaster, 2017), **age** (Roquet, 2015), **motivation** (Fontecha & Canga Alonso, 2014), **gender** (Canga Alonso, 2016; Fontecha & Canga Alonso, 2014), strategies (Zarobe, 2017; Straková, 2020) and other aspects has been the subject of numerous studies.

It has been already mentioned that in CLIL we deal with dual-focused teaching, unfortunately, it seems that it is mostly the domain of language teaching and language teachers who are actively involved in CLIL implementation. It similarly seems that the majority of studies focus on language aspects. The studies focus not only on general foreign **language performance** (Isidro & Lasagabaster, 2018a; Salamanca & Montoya, 2018; Merino & Lasagabaster, 2017; Pérez-Cañado, 2018; Dallinger, et al., 2016) but also on possible growth of **vocabulary** (Castellano-Risco, et al., 2020; Moghadam & Fatemipour, 2014), specifically of **receptive vocabulary** (Castro-García, 2017; Augustín-Llach & Canga Alonso, 2016; Canga Alonso, 2016,), development of **listening skills** (Diemaz, 2018; Pladevall-Ballester & Vallbona, 2016; Dallinger, et al., 2016; Mattheoudakis, 2014), **reading skills** (Hamidavi, Amiz & Gorjan, 2016; Pladevall-Ballester & Vallbona, 2016; Chostelidou & Griva, 2014; Mattheoudakis, et al., 2014), **receptive skills** (Prieto-

Arranz, et al., 2014), **writing** (Lo & Jeong, 2018; Gené-Gil, et al., 2015), **grammar** (Pérez-Cañado & Basse, 2015), **quality of argumentations** (Myskow & Ono, 2018; Morton & Llinares, 2016), **density and type of errors** (Pérez-Cañado & Basse, 2015; Pérez-Vidal & Roquet, 2015), **pronunciation and fluency** (Zarobe, 2008**), code-switching** (Isidro & Lasagabaster, 2018b) and other aspects of language teaching and learning.

2 The effect of CLIL on foreign language proficiency

There are a plethora of CLIL studies that focus on linguistic gains. They focus on different aspects of language learning, they are realised in different contexts, they work with different sample sizes and their significance differ. CLIL is studied across all age levels, still, it seems that most studies concentrate at primary level. CLIL is widely spread in Spain and this is also reflected in the volume of published studies. Bruton (2011) interpreting CLIL results in Spain stated that "the results do not show that the CLIL group's performance was better on most counts and even if they did with such a small sample, the results would be of dubious validity" (p. 525).

Pérez-Cañado (2018a) notes there is the controversy affecting CLIL characterization, she stresses the problem with "no uniform teaching methodology" and "lack of a coherent methodology". She further highlights the necessity of the revision of the role of teacher and the need to realise that "communicative teaching should underpin CLIL, and fluency and oracy should be awarded primacy over accuracy and written skills" (p. 372).

The present study tries to synthesise the selected studies that focus on the development of receptive skills and vocabulary. The focus is on the groups of students aged 11-17. Isidro and Lasagabaster (2018b) studied the influence of CLIL in groups of 14-15 years olds and the gains in global competence and all 4 language skills (2nd years study). Both groups improved but the CLIL group reached statistically significant better results. The researchers realised 2 measurements (after the 1st year and after the second one) and the results were not the same. No progress was recorded in the non-CLIL group between the 1st and 2nd measurements in listening, writing and speaking and the progress in global competence and reading was observed only after the 2nd year. Concerning the CLIL group, the positive gain in listening and speaking was observed only after one year. They stress (similarly as Pérez-Cañado indicated above) that further research should "pay special attention to the pedagogical features and the methodology (that is, the set of methodological practices related to the key pedagogic approaches that make CLIL identifiable as classroom practice) employed in the CLIL contexts under scrutiny, because this will help researchers to reach more robust conclusions on the impact of this particular approach" (p.16).

Nietro Moreno de Diezmas (2018a) divided the group of CLIL students according to the grade they studied in and studied the influence of CLIL on listening skills and vocabulary development. Concerning global comprehension, CLIL students scored significantly higher, however, non-CLIL students outperformed non-CLIL group in vocabulary (p=0,000) and understanding of space-time relations.

Merino and Lasagabaster (2017) also studied individual language skills and total results in a year study with a sample of 11-13 years olds. They divided CLIL groups according to the intensity what enabled them not only to compare EFL and CLIL groups but also to consider the importance of CLIL intensity. They indicate that "CLIL will only produce a significant EFL improvement when it is part of a high intensity programme" (p. 27).

Even though there is a high number of studies realised at the primary and a secondary level, university level is also in the focus of researchers. Chostelidou and Griva (2013) studied the development of reading skills at tertiary level and they found statistically significant differences in the post-intervention measurements and similarly Gorjian and Hamidavi (2017) focussed their attention on university students and their results showed statistically significant differences in the post-tests focussed on vocabulary development.

Sylvén described contextual differences of 4 European countries and analysed possible factors that may influence the success of CLIL. She mentions policy, teacher (education), age (and cognitive development) and extramural English (and the amount of exposure) as the key factors that may influence the result. She states that regarding the amount of exposure to English outside of school there are huge differences and Sweden, being at the top of the countries compares also reached the highest scores in English language skills. This might be also one of the reasons why in some countries is CLIL not so successful.

The controversy in CLIL application needs further study with the focus on the factors that influence the results and the impact on both, foreign language and content learning, and whatmore, mother tongue (see e.g. Pérez-Cañado, 2017; Nieto Moreno de Diezmas, 2018).

The systematic review and meta-analysis that allow the research to synthesise data and interpret them are also one of the possibilities of how to include studies with non-significant results, small samples, etc.

3 Methods

There are numerous studies that from various reasons work with small samples and thus their results are not considered as reliable. Systematic reviews and meta-analysis can be used to aggregate the effect size by integrating the results of different studies (selected based on defined criteria according to the research

question). The heterogeneity of the studies can influence the results and their interpretation.

Review question

This review explores the effectiveness of a CLIL on receptive skills and vocabulary gains in a foreign language in the group of students aged 10-17.

Selection of the studies

To identify the relevant information the Web of Science Core Collection was used as a source of high-quality peer-reviewed studies, namely 4 databases. Databases searched included (1) Science Citation Index Expanded (SCI-EXPANDED), (2) Social Sciences Citation Index (SSCI), (3) Arts & Humanities Citation Index (A&HCI) (4) Emerging Sources Citation Index (ESCI). The conference Proceedings were intentionally omitted. The timespan was limited to the studies published not sooner than 2010.

The basic search (looking for "CLIL research" studies) resulted in 385 studies (see figure 1) out of which 332 texts written in English, 6 in Russian and 3 in German were selected.

Fig. 1: WOS categories statistics

Inclusion criteria

The abstracts of 341 studies were carefully read and to be included those studies the studies had to (1) apply quantitative research methods, (2) the sample

age corresponds to the research question (10-16years) and (3) possibly provide statistical data (n, mean, SD) (4) comparing intervention and conventional group (5) with the focus on foreign language development. The list of studies was reduced to 41 out of which after full text reading the following studies were selected as the subject of the present analysis (see the following table).

Tab. 1: Details of included studies

Study ID	Study authors(s)	year	source	participants	used in the subgroup		
					listening	reading	vocabulary
Agudo 2019	Agudo, J. D.	2019	Which instructional programme (EFL or CLIL) results in better oral communicative competence? Updated empirical evidence from a monolingual context. *Linguistics and Education, 51,* 69-78.	318	●		
Agustín-Llach 2014	Agustín-Llach, M. P., & Alonso, A. C.	2014	Vocabulary growth in young CLIL and traditional EFL learners: Evidence from research and implications for education. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics, 26* (2), 211-227.	107			●
Cañado 2018	Cañado, M. L.	2018	CLIL and Educational Level: A Longitudinal Study on the Impact of CLIL on Language Outcomes. *Porta Linguarum, 29* (January), 51–70.	2024	●	●	●
Castellano-Risco 2020	Castellano-Risco, I., Alejo-González, R., & Piquer-Píriz, A. M.	2020	The development of receptive vocabulary in CLIL vs EFL: Is the learning context the main variable? *System, 91,* 102263.	138			●
Castro-García 2017	Castro-García, D.	2017	Receptive vocabulary measures for EFL Costa Rican high school students. *International Journal of English Studies, 17* (2), 81-99.	85			●
Dallinger 2016	Dallinger, S., Jonkmann, K., Hollm, J., & Fiege, C.	2016	The effect of content and language integrated learning on students' English and history competences – Killing two birds with one stone? *Learning and Instruction, 41,* 23-31.	837	●		
Hamidavi 2016	Hamidavi, N., Amiz, M., & Gorjian, B.	2016	The Effect of CLIL Method on Teaching Reading Comprehension to Junior High School Students. *Modern Journal of Language Teaching Methods, 6* (9), 64-73.	60		●	
Mattheoudakis 2014	Mattheoudakis, M., Alexiou, T., & Laskaridou, C.	2014	To CLIL or Not to CLIL? The Case of the 3rd Experimental Primary School in Evosmos. *Major Trends in Theoretical and Applied Linguistics. vol.* 3. Berlin, Boston: De Gruyter.	31	●	●	
Pladevall-Ballester 2016	Pladevall-Ballester, E., & Vallbona, A.	2016	CLIL in minimal input contexts: A longitudinal study of primary school learners' receptive skills. *System, 58,* 37-48.	287	●	●	

After obtaining and reading the full texts of the selected studies a total of 32 studies were excluded as the data did not follow the design or there were no comparisons of experimental and control groups, the age of the respondents did not fall to the set limit or they did not focus on L2. For example, the research conducted by Canga Alonso published in 2013 focused on the receptive vocabulary of Spanish 6th grade primary school CLIL students (n=79, aged 11-12 years old), however, he worked only with one CLIL group and studied the sex-based differences related to receptive vocabulary size and comprehension abilities. Similarly, e.g. the research reported by Zarobe (2017) was excluded as the tool used to map the reading abilities (application of the reading strategies) was an interview, results of which were statistically elaborated.

In some cases (Agudo, 2019; Pérez-Cañado, 2018; Hamidavi, 2016) data provided were split by the researchers into two groups, e.g. according to sex or school attended. In those cases, we combined the reported subgroups into a single group. The combined mean was computed as the weighted mean across groups:

$$\bar{x}_1 = \frac{n_{11}\bar{x}_{11} + n_{12}\bar{x}_{12}}{n_{11} + n_{12}}$$

and the combined standard deviation was computed as

$$S1 = \sqrt{\frac{(n_{11} - 1)S_{11}^2 + (n_{12} - 1)S_{12}^2 + \frac{n_{11}n_{12}}{n_{11} + n_{12}}(\bar{x}_{11} - \bar{x}_{12})}{n_{11} + n_{12} - 1}}$$

where $\bar{x}_{11}$, $\bar{x}_{12}$ are the means in subgroups 1 and 2 of treatment group; S_{11}, S_{12} the standard deviations, and n_{11}, n_{12} the sample sizes; of subgroups (Borenstein, et al 2009, p. 222).

Comprehensive meta analysis (CMA version 3.3.070, trial/evaluation version) and RevMan (Review Manager 5) software were used to conduct a meta-analysis. The measures of the effect of the intervention were generally continuous data based on results obtained in a test and we used mean and standard deviation to compare the effect. Even though we tried to select the studies that met set criteria the effect size could vary according to the not controlled variables, or the broader set limit (e.g. age, different populations) and thus we applied random-effects model. The level of statistical significance was set at p<0,05. As the studies in the analysis did not use the same scale it would be not appropriate to use raw differences in means and thus to assess the outcome the standardised mean difference (δ) and the unbiased estimate of δ (Hedges' g) were used. Glenn (2016) introduces three levels or categories of effects (a) small effect (cannot be discerned by the naked eye) = 0,2, (b) medium effect = 0,5 and (c) large effect = 0,8.

The studies were evaluated separately according to the data they provide – listening, reading and vocabulary. Even though the studies met the set criteria for inclusion there were still variables that may influence the interpretation of data. It has to mentioned that the national policies influence the significance and application of CLIL. In some countries (e.g. Spain) it is substantially supported by the government, in other countries it is realised systematically but offered as an option (e.g in Germany students apply to secondary schools with CLIL programme) and there are countries where it is implemented not systematically but rather randomly depending on the capacities and willingness of teachers and approvement of the school management and parents. (In 2015, e.g. Pokrivčáková

stated about the status of CLIL in Slovakia: "The initiative to start CLIL mostly comes from "below", i.e. school managements or individual teachers. Many schools have started it through various school projects..." (p. 17).) Thus, the studies realised in different settings can differ in a number of instruction hours, number of content subjects, foreign language exposure time.

4 Results
4.1 Listening

The following table brings the basic information on the studies focussing on listening. The research design of all studies was an experiment based on pre-test/post-test. Two studies (Agudo, 2019, Cañado 2018) present also data on delayed testing as they study also the sustainability of the experiment results or impact.

Tab. 2: Details of included studies – part Listening

Study ID	country	sample grade (age)	no of CLIL/ non CLIL	research design / instrument	length	favor; effect size; p
LISTENING						
Agudo 2019	Spain	6th grade PE (11-12) 4th grade SE (15-16)	156/162	The listening test was designed to assess partic-ipants' oral comprehension in the target language in which they must deduce meanings and draw inferences from brief dialogues. The test consisted of different dialogues containing true/false, matching and mult. choice questions.	3 years	$CLIL_1$-0,122; p=0,443 CLIL; -0,786; p<0,001*
Cañado 2018	Spain	6th grade PE (11-12) 4th grade SE (15-16)	1033/991	Specifically designed English language tests (validated for the study); comprised the use of English, vocabulary, reading, writing and speaking parts with a total score of 100 points	4 ac. years	CLIL; -0,223; p<0,001* CLIL; -0,873; p<0,001*
Dallinger 2016	Germany	8th grade (13,5 avg age)	483/354 (reduced)	C test consisting of 159 items (3 texts out of 7 used); the listening comprehension test consisted of 9 tasks with 4 open or colose items.	data collected autumn 2012-summer 2013, CLIL applied since 5th grade	CLIL
Mattheoudakis 2014	Greece	6th grade (11-12)	26/25	A language test was designed by the English language teachers of the school aiming to test CLIL and non CLIL learners' reading and listening skills in English (the same test before and after intervention)	9 months, 1 ac. year	
Pladevall-Ballester 2016	Spain	5th-6th grades	138/149	Cambridge young learners test	20 months, 2 ac. years	non-CLI; p=0,0078*

Agudo (2019) in his longitudinal research focused his attention on the possible development of oral communicative competence in a CLIL context. The study also brings data on language gains in time and Agudo states that the results indicate that the positive effects of CLIL on oral competence are visible with time. Concerning listening skills, he observed similar results (comparing EFL and CLIL groups) at the end of PE (with low Cohen's d = -0,122). When finishing their

Compulsory Secondary Education studies, a statistically significant difference was observed (p<0,001) in favour of CLIL students with Cohen's d= 0,659. As the data for both measurements were available (PE and SE separately) we also tried to evaluate the data separately but the summary result was not significant (p=0,92) with small effect size (0,12) and CI from -0,19 to 0,43). The present study used combined data from Agudo's study.

The delayed post-test was also applied by Pérez-Cañado (2018). She presents the data of the broad study and she describes the system of CLIL application in details. CLIL teaching in Spain takes place 5 hours a week and is compounded with foreign language instruction (3-4 hours a week). This may suggest (and this is not just the case of the Spanish system) that the number of language classes increases and thus language gains are the logical result and frequently it is not just the language but also the content subject(s) that is (are) observed and evaluated. In her study the researchers devoted a year to make sure they work with homogeneous groups. The research considered verbal intelligence, motivation, socioeconomic status, type of school, setting, exposure to English outside school as moderating variables. Concerning language testing the researcher used specifically designed language test that was validated for the study. It comprised the use of English, vocabulary, reading, writing and speaking parts with a total score of 100 points. Cohen's d was small at PE (-0,223) and large at SE (-0,873) in favour of CLIL group with p<0,001 in both cases and Pérez-Cañado (2018) similarly to Agudo (2019) states: "the longer the students have been benefitting from bilingual education, the greater the differences with their non-bilingual counterparts".

The special attention on content was paid in the study conducted by Mattheoudakis, et al (2014). Both, experimental and control groups were instructed 8 lessons per week and the 2 Geography lessons were taught in English in a CLIL group. The researchers used content (Geography) tests and language test to answer their research questions about the content and language gains and the possible correlation between the content and language achievements. The language of content test differed in the groups. The experimental (CLIL) group was tested in English while the control (non-CLIL) group was tested in the Greek language. Even though both groups' language performance was improved, there were no statistically significant differences observed.

Out of 5 included studies focussed on listening there is just 1 study with the results that favour non-CLIL group. Pladevall-Ballester and Vallbona (2016) realised the research with the sample of 287 5th and 6the graders (138 in CLIL group and 149 in non-CLIL group). Similarly as Mattheoudakis, et al (2014), their groups did not differ statistically significantly but the control (non-CLIL) group outperformed the experimental one. The researchers studied not only the impact

of CLIL on language gains but also the influence of time (the tests were realised after the first and after the second year of the experiment).

The following figure (with forest plot) and table summarise the data from the included studies.

Fig. 2: Forest plot illustrating the results in Listening using random effect model
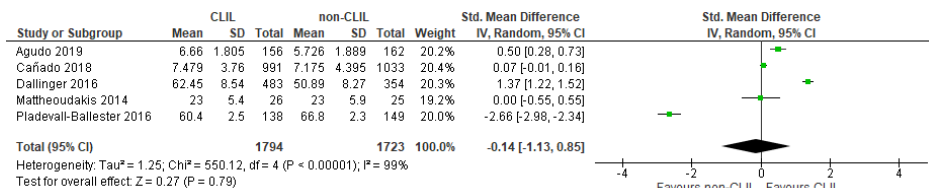
Tab. 3: Statistics for the studies and summary

Study ID						Hedges's g and 95% CI		
	Hedges's g	Stnd. error	Variance	Lower limit	Upper limit	Z-Value	p-Value
Agudo, 2019	0,504	0,114	0,013	0,281	0,727	4,435	0,000*
Cañado, 2018	0,074	0,044	0,002	-0,013	0,161	1,668	0,095
Dallinger, 2016	1,371	0,078	0,006	1,219	1,522	17,681	0,000*
Mattheoudakis, 2014	0,000	0,276	0,076	-0,541	0,541	0,000	1,000
Pladevall Ballester, 2016	-2,662	0,162	0,026	-2,979	-2,344	-16,435	0,000*
Random model	-0,137	0,506	0,256	-1,129	0,855	-0,270	0,787

The confidence interval of 2 studies, similarly as the summary result include zero what means that the differences are not statistically significant (applying the fixed model the total result would be statistically significant). The study conducted by Pladevall-Ballester & Vallbona (2013) shows a statistically significant negative effect, the confidence interval is entirely on the negative side of zero [-2,98;-2,34]; studies conducted by Agudo (2019) and Dallinger, et al (2016) show a statistically significant positive effect. The highest effect size (g=-2,66) was recorded in the study by Pladevall-Ballester & Vallbona (2013).

The results show that the effect sizes are not consistent from study to study, they fall in the range of -2,66 to 1,37; the proportion of observed variance (I^2) is

very high (99%) what means we deal with substantial heterogeneity. The combined effect size is -0,14 (what can be evaluated as small effect) with a 95% confidence interval of -1,13 to 0,85. Confidence intervals are broader as we deal with the random model. The p-value for the summary effect is 0,79. The variance of dispersion (τ^2) that reflects the variance of the true effect is 1,25 what is also high with the standard deviation 1,12.

4.2 Reading

Four included studies presented the information on the impact of CLIL on development of reading skills. The research design of all studies was an experiment based on pre-test/post-test.

Tab. 4: Details of included studies – part Reading

Study ID	country	sample grade (age)	no of CLIL/ non CLIL	research design / instrument	length	favor; effect size; p
READING						
Cañado 2018	Spain	6th grade PE (11-12) 4th grade SE (15-16)	1033/991	Specifically designed English language tests (validated for the study); comprised the use of English, vocabulary, reading, writing and speaking parts with a total score of 100 points	4 ac. years	CLIL; -0,525; p<0,001* CLIL; -0,755; p<0,001*
Hamidavi 2016	Iran	(12,14 avg age)	15/15 high achievers 15/15 low ach.	Oxford quick placement test, pre-test/post-test; 50 multiple choice items	pre-test + 10 sessions + post-test	CLIL; p<0,05* CLIL; p<0,05*
Mattheoudakis 2014	Greece	6th grade (11-12)	26/25	A language test was designed by the English language teachers of the school aiming to test CLIL and non CLIL learners' reading and listening skills in English (the same test before and after intervention)	9 months, 1 ac. year	non-CLIL not statistically significant
Pladevall-Ballester 2016	Spain	5th-6th grades	138/149	Cambridge young learners test	20 months, 2 ac. years	non-CLI; p=0,3521

The figure and table below summarise the data from the included studies that presented data about the influence of CLIL on development of reading skills.

Hamidavi, et al (2016) in their research realised experiment with the group of students (n=60) divided into high achievers and low-achiever. The sample was equally divided into 4 subgroups (15 CLIL high achievers, 15 non-CLIL high achievers and 15 CLIL low achievers, 15 non-CLIL low achievers). The pre-tests were not statistically different. For the need of the study the groups (low achievers and high achievers) were combined. Compared to other studies the length of the research was relatively short (10 sessions of treatment). The authors mention
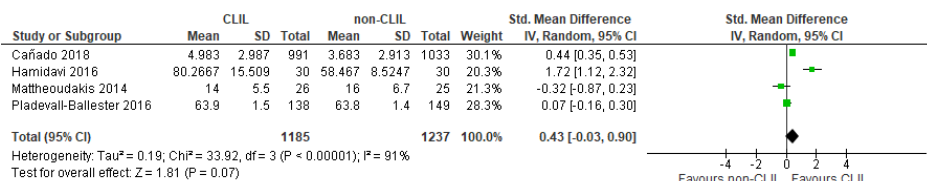
images and pictures that enrich CLIL texts as a possible important factor that may positively influence the effect of CLIL.

The study conducted by Mattheoudakis, et al (2014), similarly as in the listening evaluation, presented the data where non-CLIL students outperformed CLIL students. The recorded difference was not statistically significant (see the forest plot and CI). Similarly, data presented from the Pladevall-Ballester and Valbona (2016) were not statistically significant and the results of the control and experimental groups were remarkably close.

Statistically significant differences were observed in two studies, Hamidavi 2016 and Cañado 2018.

Fig. 3: Forest plot illustrating the results in Reading using random effect model

Study or Subgroup	CLIL Mean	SD	Total	non-CLIL Mean	SD	Total	Weight	Std. Mean Difference IV, Random, 95% CI	Std. Mean Difference IV, Random, 95% CI
Cañado 2018	4.983	2.987	991	3.683	2.913	1033	30.1%	0.44 [0.35, 0.53]	
Hamidavi 2016	80.2667	15.509	30	58.467	8.5247	30	20.3%	1.72 [1.12, 2.32]	
Mattheoudakis 2014	14	5.5	26	16	6.7	25	21.3%	-0.32 [-0.87, 0.23]	
Pladevall-Ballester 2016	63.9	1.5	138	63.8	1.4	149	28.3%	0.07 [-0.16, 0.30]	
Total (95% CI)			1185			1237	100.0%	0.43 [-0.03, 0.90]	

Heterogeneity: Tau² = 0.19; Chi² = 33.92, df = 3 (P < 0.00001); I² = 91%
Test for overall effect: Z = 1.81 (P = 0.07)

Favours non-CLIL   Favours CLIL

Tab. 5: Statistics for the studies and summary

Study ID							Hedges's g and 95% CI	
	Hedges' g	Stnd. error	Variance	Lower limit	Upper limit	Z-Value	p-Value	
Cañado, 2018	0,441	0,045	0,002	0,352	0,529	9,794	0,000*	
Hamidavi, 2016	1,719	0,299	0,090	1,133	2,306	5,745	0,000*	
Mattheoudakis, 2014	-0,322	0,278	0,077	-0,866	0,222	-1,159	0,246	
Pladevall, Ballester, 2016	0,069	0,118	0,014	-0,162	0,300	0,584	0,559	
Random model	0,435	0,240	0,058	-0,035	0,905	1,812	0,070	

The table above shows that research results have been contradictory. Two studies have shown statistically significant positive effects. Two other studies have shown statistically non-significant effects, in one case negative effect was observed.

The summary result suggests the students in the experimental group demonstrated larger gains in reading comprehension than the non-CLIL group in the regular classroom (see also the effect size Hegde's $g = 0,43$ what is a medium effect). Still, the progress in reading comprehension made by the intervention group was not statistically

significant ($p = 0{,}07$; 95% CI[-0,03; 0,9]). The heterogeneity (I^2) is, similarly as in the part Listening, very high (91%) what means we deal with considerable heterogeneity.

4.3 Vocabulary

Four studies out of those included dealt with learning vocabulary. Three of them applied the same 2k Vocabulary level test (Schmitt, Schmitt & Clapham, 2001).

Tab. 6: Details of included studies – part Vocabulary

| Study ID	country	sample grade (age)	no of CLIL/non CLIL	research design / instrument	length	favor; effect size; p
VOCABULARY						
Agustín-Llach 2014	Spain	4th grade PE (9-10) 5th grade PE (10-11) 6th grade PE (11-12)	58/49	2k Vocabulary Levels Test (VLT)	3 years	p=0,024*
Cañado 2018	Spain	6th grade PE (11-12) 4th grade SE (15-16)	1033/991	Specifically designed English language tests (validated for the study); comprised the use of English, vocabulary, reading, writing and speaking parts with a total score of 100 points	4 ac. years	CLIL; -0,619; p<0,001* CLIL; -0,940; p<0,001*
Castellano-Risco 2020	Spain	3rd grade SE (14-15)	82/56	2k VLT	CLIL applied differently	CLIL; d=2,07; p<0,0004*
Castro-García 2017	Costa Rica	11th grade (16,6 avg age)	55/30	2k VLT	CLIL applied since the 7th grade	CLIL; p<0,001*

Castro Garcia (2017) in his research used 2K vocabulary level test. Students in his sample were slightly older than those in other studies. The results show that CLIL students (n=55) mastered more words than those in EFL groups (n=130). The context for CLIL application in content-based schools in the sample is „CB school students have received approximately 1,368 hours, and the mainstream EFL school students have received approximately 1,140 hours of class. … The hours of instruction mentioned above for the CB school include 3 hours a week in a one-subject course that varies from one level to the next: Ecology, Social Studies, and Biology in 7th, 8th, and 9th school years, respectively". Terrazas Gallego and Agustín Llach's (2009) state that there is an increase of passive vocabulary gain in time, i.e. "students move up a grade and become more proficient in the foreign language, they show receptive knowledge of significantly more words than years before".

In the included study Llach and Alonso (2016) used also 2k VLT. The research lasted for 3 years and they studied the learners from the 4th till 6th grade who in their last year have received 944 hours of exposure to English in CLIL groups compared to 629 hours in non-CLIL groups. Both groups received approximately

105-110 hours of English years since the 1st grade and CLIL groups received extra hours in CLIL science. The study presents the results for 3 years successively. The research results from third year of the research were used in the present study. The results indicate the increase of vocabulary from the year to the next one, all vocabulary gains are in favour of CLIL groups. The inferential statistics researchers present shows there was not a statistically significant difference between the groups in the 4th grade, however, it became significant in the 5th grade and even more in the 6th grade. The authors also focussed their attention on the progression differences and they state the CLIL learners show slightly higher growth rates compared to the non-CLIL, however, there are "no significant differences in the number of words incorporated to the lexicons of CLIL and non-CLIL learners" (Agustin-Llach, Canga-Alonso, 2016). The authors stress the possible significance of time factor that can influence students' receptive vocabulary acquisition.

Vocabulary Levels Test was also used in the study of Castellano-Risco et al (2020) who divided their sample (n=138) into four strands, CLIL1 (n=23, EFL hours 1300, CLIL lesson 1700, CLIL from the first grade, 2-3 content subjects), CLIL2 (n=25, EFL hours 2400, CLIL lesson 1300), CLIL3 (n=34, EFL hours 1300, CLIL lesson 700, started with the CLIL at the SE) and EFL (n=56, EFL hours 1200). The CLIL learners in the study almost doubled EFL learner's knowledge of non-academic vocabulary.

Fig. 4: Forest plot illustrating the results in Vocabulary using random effect model
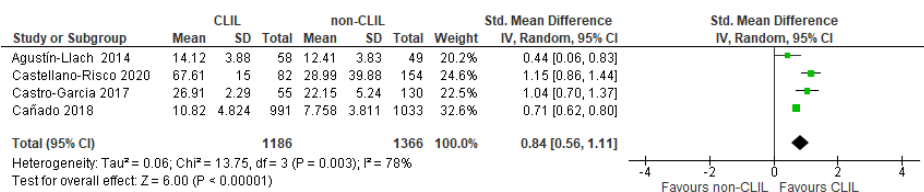
Tab. 7: Statistics for the studies and summary - part vocabulary

Study ID							Hedges's g and 95% CI	
	Hedges's g	Stnd. error	Variance	Lower limit	Upper limit	Z-Value	p-Value	
Agustín-Llach, 2014	0,440	0,195	0,038	0,058	0,822	2,257	0,024*	
Castellano-Risco, 2020	1,819	0,204	0,042	1,418	2,219	8,906	0,000*	
Castro-Garcia, 2017	1,037	0,169	0,029	0,706	1,368	6,135	0,000*	

Cañado, 2018	0,706	0,046	0,002	0,616	0,796	15,407	0,000*
Random model	0,985	0,238	0,057	0,519	1,452	4,140	0,000*

When comparing CLIL substituted for a traditional monolingual education (figure 4, table 6), there were significant enhancements in vocabulary gains observed (none of the 95% confidence intervals of the studies overlap 0). In case of vocabulary gains, all included studies presented statistically significant differences in favour of CLIL at level p<0,0001. Overall estimate effect is 0,84 with the CI [0,56; 1,11]. Concerning heterogeneity, I^2 is relatively high (78%) what means we deal with substantial heterogeneity.

5 Discussion

Three aspects of language performance were the subject of the present analysis of the selected CLIL studies, listening, reading and vocabulary. Results of nine studies were synthesised and analysed within three individual subgroups. There were 3517 participants in 5 studies with the focus on listening (1794 participants in CLIL and 1723 students in non-CLIL groups). The random-effect model was applied and the weight of studies ranged from 19,2% to 20,4%. The effect size of the Pladevall-Ballester 2016 was relatively high (-2,66) compared to the other 4 studies. It was the only study where the observed results favoured the non CLIL group (statistically significant difference). In the applied model the results of three studies were not statistically significant, similarly as the summary result. The confidence interval was [-1,13; 0,85] what confirms the null hypothesis that there is no statistically significant difference between the CLIL and non-CLIL groups. These results are on agreement with e.g Pérez-Vidal and H. Roquet (2015), Nieto-Moreno-de-Diezmas (2016).

Data from 4 studies focused on reading (n=2422) were synthesised. Similarly, as in the previous subgroup, there was one study where the result favoured non-CLIL group (Mattheoudakis 2014). The highest weight had Cañado 2016 study with the results favouring CLIL (with the effect size 0,44). Two of the studies brought non statistically significant results similarly as the summary result with the CI [-0,03; 0,9] and p=0,07. This finding is consistent with that of e.g. Nieto-Moreno-de-Diezmas (2016).

The vocabulary subgroup (n=2552) is the only one where the statistically significant difference was observed (p=0,003). All studies included into the analysis presented statistically significant differences in favour of CLIL. The effect size of the summary result is 0,84 and the CI ranges from 0,56 to1,11.

Generally, a low number of studies where synthesised and the heterogeneity was very high (99%, 91% and 78% successively). Due to a small number of studies,

the publication bias was not discussed. Identifying and accesing e.g. the unpublished studies, theses might be one of the ways for further objectivisation of the data synthesised.

Limitations

Meta-analysis is an observational study of selected studies. The method is considered to be very useful as it allows to synthesise data from different (even small samples where the results can even be from various reasons not statistically significant). On the other hand, there are aspects that can be understood or perceived as threat, risks or drawbacks. Not all the studies are realised in the same conditions and do not control all the effects. The selection of the studies can also be understood as a limitation as "some studies have not been published, or have been published in a form to which the researcher has no access, or have been published in a language that the researcher cannot read, etcetera" (Hak, Rhee, & Suurmond, 2016). The authors (ibid) also mention the problem with probability sampling, missing cases, the problem with pre-test and post-design and test differences.

The important discussion is about the possibility to combine and estimate the different outcomes that measure the same concept. Latest trends are to use not more than two different instruments.

Due to high heterogeneity the random-effects model was applied. It is important to realise that if compared to fixed-effect model, "the random effects model may apply too much weight to small studies, which are often poorly done and biased" (Schroll, et al, 2011). Applying the fixed-effect model the results would be a statistically significant difference in favour of CLIL groups in all three parts – listening, reading and vocabulary.

Model	Effect size and 95% confidence interval						Test of null (2-Tail)		Heterogeneity			
Model	Number Studies	Point estimate	Standard error	Variance	Lower limit	Upper limit	Z-value	P-value	Q-value	df (Q)	P-value	I-squared
Listening												
Fixed	5	0,254	0,035	0,001	0,185	0,323	7,184	0,000	553,584	4,000	0,000	99,277
Random effects	5	**-0,138**	**0,507**	**0,257**	**-1,132**	**0,856**	**-0,271**	**0,786**				
Reading												
Fixed	4	0,403	0,041	0,002	0,322	0,484	9,784	0,000	34,890	3,000	0,000	91,402
Random effects	4	**0,438**	**0,241**	**0,058**	**-0,035**	**0,911**	**1,815**	**0,070**				
Vocabulary												
Fixed	4	0,762	0,042	0,002	0,679	0,844	18,049	0,000	33,646	3,000	0,000	91,084
Random effects	4	**0,985**	**0,238**	**0,057**	**0,519**	**1,452**	**4,140**	**0,000**				

We also have to mention publication bias that was not estimated in the present study as the number of studies was low. We realise that the unpublished studies were omitted similarly as we searched only WOS databases to ensure the quality

of studies. However, this can also mean that we missed important data that can significantly influence the summary result.

Conclusion

Goris et al (2019) realised a systematic review of longitudinal studies and it is evident how much research is done in the field. However, as we deal with the process of education, we deal with many factors that are difficult to control and thus the results differ, similarly as the interpretation.

One of the crucial moments is the problem with the strict definition of CLIL methodology what successively influence the research and what is labelled as CLIL. It would be useful to conduct the studies that would carefully reflect the methodology and the effects of language but also the content gains. Similarly, it seems it might be useful to focus the attention on the extramural exposure to foreign language and the efficiency of CLIL.

The results of the present meta-analysis show that with respect to language learning skills the application of CLIL significantly increases the gains in foreign language vocabulary. The important factors that affect the results can be the more intensive exposure to a foreign language, meaningful context, association with visual or multimodal context. Still, it is necessary to compare those results with the impact on content learning.

As the key actors of CLIL have been identified, teachers, school management and parents. Here we should also mention how important teacher preparation is and it should be present as soon as in pre-service preparation (Sepešiová, 2019) and it should be subject not only of language but also content preparation. The significance of setting the aims and planning lessons for the CLIL success is indisputable, similarly as teacher training. Whatmore, as Graddol (2006) explains CLIL teachers must be in a position to "convey not only the subject content and disciplinary language but also the practical problem-solving, negotiations, discussions and classroom management in ways that characterise disciplinary pedagogic practices"(p. 86). This should be supported by school management and done systematically as the research indicates the success is influenced by time and intensity of exposure. Still, it must be mentioned, it is one side of a coin. The results must be carefully evaluated along with the data about the content subject knowledge and gains.

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CLIL and intercultural competence
in teaching Japanese language and literature

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Abstract

In the U.S. colleges and universities, language courses and cultural studies courses are usually under separate departments and programs. This separation represents the heart of liberal arts education, where students can explore a variety of disciplines. However, a comparative nature of cross-cultural analyses may cause generalized and stereotypical views toward the target country. This present study will introduce the practice of CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) and examine the value of studying the literature in the original language, so that the students will improve linguistic skills, gain knowledge on Japanese literary characteristics, and build on their intercultural competence skills.

Keywords: CLIL, Japanese literature, Japanese language, intercultural communication, DMIS, ACTFL, NCSSFL

Introduction

CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) is a teaching method of learning a foreign language efficiently alongside a non-language discipline such as literature, geography, math, history, or art. It is similar yet different from typical content based advanced language courses in the US colleges and universities, as CLIL weighs equally in both the content study and the language study. Although CLIL resembles language immersions or bilingual education programs in K -12 education, it has not been largely accepted in US colleges and universities, since language and non-language studies are usually separated into different departments and faculties. Consequently, there are sometimes confusions caused by forcefully merging knowledge from different disciplines as well. For example, in one advanced Japanese language class, the students read contemporary short stories, essays, and poems in Japanese, and some of them, despite their high level of language skills, relied on irrelevant social terms such as Japanese collectivism, as opposed to American individualism, or cultural terms such as *wabi/sabi* in their

interpretations of the literary works. Applying a general social or cultural term into the discussion of an individual literary work is interesting to see the demand in improving intercultural competence skills, and one of the solutions is by putting an equal weigh in literature study and language study, namely CLIL, that the students will be able to improve their intercultural competence skills. This present study will address an ideological gap between language and cultural studies courses, present steps of intercultural communication skills, and show the case of combining the studies of Japanese literature and Japanese language.

1 Cultural studies and language studies

In US colleges and universities, the topics of content courses about Japan vary from traditional Japanese art to Japanese business culture. If a student ever goes to Japan for a study abroad program, Japanese schools that accept international students also offer various courses about Japan in English. These courses can be all categorized under cultural studies and are often included as electives in the course requirements for students majoring in Japanese or Japanese Studies. It is widely understood that in addition to pragmatic language skills, these electives provide key social, historical, cultural and artistic insights about Japan. Although language and cultural studies appear to operate hand in hand within the student's liberal arts education, an interesting comment to describe their separate academic roles was made by Miki Dezaki, the director of *Shusenjō* (2018), a documentary film about Japanese war crimes against Korean women during WWII. Dezaki explained that instructors of Japanese Studies, meaning those who teach courses about Japan in English, are generally liberal and politically left-wing, whereas Japanese language instructors are nationalistic and right, as they did not try to meet with him in person during his film tour of US colleges (personal communication, October 7, 2019). It is true that teaching the language spoken just in one nation might cause instructors to look nationalistic, if not, xenophobic. Yet, the lack of Japanese language instructors' enthusiasm for *Shusenjō* described by Dezaki might reveal a situation familiar to collegiate language programs in general. As Kramsch (1993, pp. 7-9) points out, throughout the US, college programs tend to be territorial, so that, despite the interdisciplinary potential of language studies, many language instructors are expected to teach within the language program. To clarify, all language classes in all levels of instruction include cultural and social components. It goes without saying that language textbooks include cultural and social contexts to allow vocabulary, phrases, and expressions to be used properly and practically. Nevertheless, these are considered to be different from the cultural or social issues taught in cultural studies courses. Phipps and Gonzalez (2004, p. 38) explain:

Cultural studies, in seeing itself as post-disciplinary, offers a mode of engagement in a wide   variety of fields that is primarily political. Its commentary on literature, film, art and architecture, music and daily life focuses on questions of power and inequality, of social justice and questions of identity and difference.

This trend that invokes is deeply rooted in many courses in the humanities, arts, and social sciences. Regardless of the region, the time period or the subject matter, these courses can address a variety of topics that are relevant to the current time, and the students are able to draw connections through political or ethical reasoning, discuss what they have learned, and further investigate in essays, research papers, or oral presentations.

In the meantime, for this student-centered learning experiences, the topics of cultural studies courses are often chosen based on a conservative stance especially in a cross-cultural context. For example, in many cultural studies courses, Japan is usually considered to hold a homogenous culture whose unique characteristics, such as virtues of harmony or a vertical-structured society, have not been changed for decades. Regardless of the discussion about the accuracy, due to the assumption that the society and the culture remain to be consistent, many scholars can sometimes make unhelpfully broad comparisons between Japan and the US or, an even broader comparison, Japan and the West. Such generalized comparison must have been and will probably be necessary; however, it is becoming less and less credible based on the increasingly complex interactions among people with diverse backgrounds today, as scholars such as Matsumoto (2002) and Takano (2008) have argued against the stereotypical views of Japanese society and culture. Similarly, there is also a danger that Japanese language classrooms can oversimplify cultural and social characteristics of Japanese language. Jorden (1992) points out conscious and deliberate differentiation between language and culture in Japanese language classes and objects unnatural methods of learning a "foreign" culture. Kubota (2003, p. 75), who provides critical insight into the use of National Standards for Foreign Language Teaching, warns that overgeneralized cultural and social aspects of Japan can lead also to those of the US. In other words, simplified and superficial views toward the Japanese language and culture may prompt a monotonic view toward the students' own backgrounds. The challenge is to open up more individualized understandings without any preconceptions or presumptions as to the standards of not only Japanese culture, but also the student's own culture. One of the solutions is to acknowledge the process and different stages of intercultural competence, so that students will come to realize that their interpretations are meant to be fluid and progressive. That is to say, just as students improve their language skills from a beginning level to an advanced level, they can progress from a stereotyped and generalized understanding to more personal and comprehensive interpretations of different cultures.

2 Intercultural communication

In regards to the improvement of intercultural competence, a leading scholar, Bennet (2004, p. 62) completed his final draft of DMIS (Development of Mode of Intercultural Sensitivity) to measure how we respond to different cultures. He divides the stages of development into six categories; Denial, Defense/Reversal, Minimization, Acceptance, Adaptation, and Integration. The first three stages fall under Ethnocentrism, and the latter are grouped under Ethnorelativism. In 2017, another scale was created by the National Council of State Supervisors for Languages (NCSSFL) and the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL), who collaborated to make can-do-statements in intercultural communication skills with five stages; Novice, Intermediate, Advanced, Superior, and Distinguished. Although both scales differ in their descriptions of each stage, their goals are noticeably similar. First, here is Bennet's description of Integration, the last stage of DMIS: "one's experience of self is expanded to include the movement in and out of different cultural worldviews" (2004, p. 72). Next, the highest stage, Distinguished, in NCSSFL-ACTFL's scale, describes someone who "can engage with complexity and pluricultural identities and serve as a mediator between and among cultures" (2017, p. 2). In both scales, the highest stage is reached when one is no longer limited to a certain cultural standard and has the freedom to embrace multiple cultural backgrounds. Or, it can be said that although one is communicating with a person from a different culture, one can interact on a level at which the cultural differences are no longer important. What if students could simply read a story or a poem without any cultural assumptions? When the students used to enjoy watching *Dragon Ball* or playing *Pokemon*, when they were children, many of them probably did not know that those entertainments were from Japan at first. By the same token, they likely did not have clear ideas on their own cultural backgrounds, either. This ignorant, yet spontaneous and innocent experience gives a hint to the highest stages of intercultural competence.

The earlier example of the students using social or cultural terms to analyze literature exemplify the first stage of NCSSFL-ACTFL's standard, Novice, in which "one can identify some products that reveal a stereotype or exaggerated view of a culture" or Intermediate, in which one can "identify common stereotypes" (2017, p. 7). In the case of Bennet's scale, this Intermediate stage corresponds with the second stage of DMIS, Defense or Reversal, where people "have become more adept at discriminating differences" (2004, p. 65). Defense occurs when one is favorable to one's own culture and critical toward a different culture, whereas Reversal is the opposite. For example, when the students praise the simplicity and imperfectness of *wabi/sabi* and criticize the materialistic and competitive "American" culture, they represent Reversal, but they are not usually aware of their rather rudimentary stage of cultural understanding (Bennet, 2004, p. 66). As

much as those who romanticize Japanese culture, the students can also criticize the traditional Japanese social system, for example, the gender inequity, the dependency on parents, *amae*, or the vertical principles that operate in schools and workplaces. If so, they are exhibiting signs of Defense or the next stage, Minimization, "the stage in which elements of one's own cultural worldview are experienced as universal," so that they "expect similarities and they may become insistent about correcting others" (Bennet, 2004, p. 67). As for understanding Japanese literature, shifting students' awareness from stereotypical terms to the actual literary work is crucial. Otherwise, their Minimization attitudes may dominate their interpretations of literary works. Of course, the label of 'Japanese literature' suggests there is some consistency among different authors in different time periods in Japan, but it is far more beneficial for students to develop individual understandings of each literary work, and the path is to move students beyond the early stages of intercultural competence.

The way to improve intercultural competence is to emphasize the content study of CLIL, which lets students learn with raw and authentic material that has not been chosen or prepared to represent a particular culture. In other words, "the language is used in non-pedagogic, natural communication" (Kramsch, 1993, p. 177). Sudhoff (2010, p. 32) explains, "By using materials that convey, portray or reflect insights into foreign viewpoints, it becomes possible to (re)construct the underlying perspectives." Through understanding "foreign viewpoints" in the authentic material, the students can understand the context and the meaning by and for the people in the target country. However, this does not automatically lead to the improvement of intercultural competence. According to Sudhoff, "it is necessary to accompany these foreign cultural insights with an awareness of one's own cultural perspective" (2010, p. 34). In order to understand the context of the target culture, the students first need to acknowledge their own cultural backgrounds, since this "awareness of one's own cultural perspective" prevents mere objectifying views of the target culture. Bennet (2004, p. 68) echoes those thoughts: "Only when you see that all your beliefs, behaviors, and values are at least influenced by the particular context in which you were socialized can you fully imagine alternatives to them."

This is the turning point from Ethnocentrism to Ethnorelativism, which includes Acceptance, Adaptation and Integration. This "self-reflective perspective" is the beginning of understanding cultural context and being able to acknowledge, for example, the social, cultural, and artistic roles of literature that can be found universally in different countries. The next stage, Adaptation, shows much stronger engagement with the products or the practices of the different culture. The key characteristic, Bennet (2004, p. 70) explains, is "empathy – the ability to take perspective or shift frame of reference vis-à-vis other cultures." Here, an

important question is whether intercultural competence can be applied to the interpretation of a fictional world created by an author of a different culture. If students can empathize with a character in a story from a different culture, not just in realistic fictions but also in science fiction, romance, and even horror, it is possible that they are exemplifying Adaptation, even though the culture that they have adapted may not be recognized as a mature culture. This is precisely why literature is full of possibilities to enhance intercultural competence, as the students are challenged to experience and embrace what Carroli (2008, p. 9) calls, "a world in a text." In contrast to Bennet's DMIS, NCSSFL-ACTFL's standard emphasizes the importance of knowledge that determines the ability to investigate cultural products and practices and to interact with people from the target culture. In NCSSFL-ACTFL's standard, the next stage after Intermediate, Advanced, shows a significant improvement in those abilities and includes the capacity to explain messages expressed in music and art and the values reflected in a literary text (2017, p. 15). The following stage, Superior, has the proficiency benchmark that one is able to "suspend judgements while critically examining products, practices and perspectives" (2017, p. 12). When teaching a course that combines Japanese literature and Japanese language, if Bennet's levels of Acceptance and Adaptation are appropriate for the student who is reading literary works in Japanese, NCSSFL-ACTFL's standards of Advanced and Superior are similarly appropriate for students who are analyzing Japanese literary works. This step from Bennet's levels to NCSSFL-ACTFL's standards corresponds with the steps of the CLIL method as for encouraging the students to critically analyze the text.

3 CLIL: Japanese literature and language

For CLIL that combines literature and language instruction, the teaching materials must be chosen to teach the prominent characteristics of Japanese literature and to improve linguistic skills by the use of authentic texts. Here are the notable characteristics of three types of Japanese literature: 1) poetry, 2) the diary/essay and the I-novel, and 3) science fiction, fantasy and horror. These three characteristics are only a small part of all Japanese literature as a whole, but they are prominent in contemporary Japanese literature, and more importantly, these are what the students will be able to understand through reading, listening, and discussing only in Japanese.

3.1 Poetry and diversity

As a renowned scholar of Japanese literature, Konishi (2017, p. 10) has explained, Japanese literature is known for its brevity, and poetry has long been a staple of Japanese literature, starting with *Man'yōshū* (Collection of Ten Thousand Leaves), from the 7th to the 8th centuries. Another important characteristic of

Japanese poetry, ad exemplified by *Man'yōshū*, is that the poems are written by people with diverse backgrounds, including emperors, beggars, farmers, governors and everyday people, all with equally diverse topics and emotions. What Kino Tsurayuki explained in the preface of *Kokin Wakashū* (Poetry Past and Present) in the 10th century still echoes today: "The songs of Japan take the human heart as their seed and flourish as myriad leaves of words" (Shirane, 2012, p. 92). There is no question that Japanese poetry's brevity and the accessibility have led many people to write, share, and appreciate the poetry throughout the history of Japanese literature. To help students understand these characteristics, the course will include works from both a modern poet and everyday people, *senryū*.

3.2 Diary/essay and i-novel

The Diary/Essay and I-novel involve a tight connection between the development of hiragana syllabary and the Japanese literature written in the middle ages by aristocratic women. Many diaries such as *Kagerō Diary*, *Sarashina Diary*, and *Pillow Book* were written by female authors. In many of these diaries, the line between fiction and non-fiction has been blurred, and later, many male writes, such as Kamono Chōmei and Yoshida Kenkō, imitated female authors and established a genre called *zuihitsu*, essays, to articulate the author's thoughts, beliefs, and real life experiences. Many years later, a similar tradition was carried on by modern Japanese writers who established a genre called the I-novel, a form of autobiographical novel. In order to discuss this continuous tradition of diary literature and I-novels, the course will include a diary story and realistic short stories that use a first-person narrative.

3.3 Science fiction, fantasy and horror

Today, many students are familiar with contemporary Japanese science fiction and horror stories. Furthermore, cultural studies courses on popular Japanese culture tend to discuss a wide variety of topics associated with gender and sexuality as depicted in science fiction, fantasy, and horror manga, as well as objectification and empowerment of female bodies in anime and videogames. It must be intriguing for students to explore the historical backgrounds of Japanese literature. *Taketori Monogatari* (The Tales of the Bamboo Cutter), the oldest literary work written in *kana* from the 10th century, is a work of science fiction. In addition, during the warrior period in the middle ages, many folk tales and dramas such as Noh were written, reflecting the thin line between reality and fantasy often associated with the Buddhist tradition of spirits being stuck in this world. The course will include a familiar and accessible science fiction story and a horror story that is relevant to that tradition.

3.4 Language objective

As for the language requirement, because the readings for this course are short stories and poems, the prerequisite for this course is the completion of intermediate-level Japanese language courses, equivalent to two full years of studying the language at the collegiate level. The language objective for this course is for students to reach Advanced Low in all four skills of reading, speaking, writing and listening, as described in ACTFL proficiency guidelines. For reading, upon completion of this course, students will be able to "understand the main ideas and some supporting details" of the course texts, as explained in ACTFL's proficiency guidelines for Advanced Low. However, some of the course's readings are not "conventional narrative and descriptive texts;" therefore, students will be provided with word banks to assist them with unfamiliar vocabulary and kanji readings. For the speaking element of the course, the students will talk about their backgrounds in literature, familiarizing themselves with key literary terms in Japanese. After reading the stories, they will be asked to describe the plots, demonstrating "the ability to narrate and describe in the major time frames of past, present, and future in paragraph-length discourse with some control of aspect." They will also participate in the discussion about character developments and the author's intention of each literary work. As with the speaking aspect, the writing aspect of this course will teach students to "demonstrate the ability to narrate and describe in major time frames with some control of aspect." The students will write plot summaries of the short stories and practice composition exercises of "simple summaries on familiar topics," depending on the topic and the theme of each literary work. For listening, the students will be able to understand "the main facts and some supporting details" of short stories they listen on audio recordings. They will also listen to and respond to their classmates' original poems.

3.5 Scaffolding, chunking, and creative/critical thinking

Mehisto, Marsh and Frigols (2008, p. 139) explain the three major steps of CLIL as Scaffolding, Chunking, and Critical/Creative thinking and first explain that scaffolding is "a temporary supporting structure that students learn to use and to rely on, in order to achieve learning outcomes." In the course of combining Japanese literature and language, the scaffolding will take the form of students discussing their past experience of reading or writing short stories and poems in order to enhance "self-reflective perspective." Once they share their experience, or lack of experience, they can also discuss their personal interests or disinterests in certain genres. The next step, chunking (Mehisto, Marsh & Frigols, 2008, p. 146), is about categorizing or organizing the material for the students to understand without being intimidated by the amount of new information. In addition to vocabulary lists of key words and expressions, the students will receive a one-

page-reading response sheet for each reading with three or four short-answer questions. Each question that includes a page number is a simple question about what is happening in a story or a poem, guiding the students as to where and what to focus on. Students can also create story maps on the board or the screen and identify key events and emotions leading up the climax of each story (Mehisto, Marsh & Frigols, 2008, p. 148). For the last step of critical and creative thinking, students can "suspend judgements" and critically examine characters' decisions and the author's intentions, as explained in NCSSFL-ACTFL's standards of Advanced and Superior. They can analyze the meaning of literary techniques such as metaphors or symbolism associated with the characters' relationships or the settings or the moods, as well as theoretical and critical issues raised throughout the course. Moreover, once the students familiarize themselves with the structures and the techniques of the poems, they can write their own poems or short stories in Japanese. This last step of CLIL is the key factor to reassure the improvement of intercultural competence.

Conclusion

Through its dual focus on content and language, CLIL leads students to immerse themselves with the "foreign viewpoint" through the use of authentic texts that promote an organic cultural understanding. It is true that how CLIL actually impacts improvements of one's intercultural competence needs further research, as it holds a vast amount of possible combination between a foreign language and a non-language discipline. The examination of Javorčíková and Zelenková (2019) on different roles of cultural elements found in different CLIL combinations is an important research to be continued. As for now, in typical US colleges and universities, the fastest and possibly the most effective combination is the language and the literature. Based on the shift from Ethnocentrism to Ethnorelativism in Bennet's DMIS and from Novice/Intermediate to Advanced/Superior in NCSSFL-ACTFL's standard, the key of understanding literary works is the "self-reflective perspective," which allows the students to interpret and discuss each work in a wider context rather than in a narrower cross-cultural context. For literature of a non-European language, translations of literary works have been the mainstream, since reading in original language, much less its classical format, poses great challenges. However, focusing on the general and ongoing literary characteristics that are still present today, teaching materials can be chosen from contemporary literature, hence accessible to and familiar with the students. Moreover, contemporary literary works are beneficial for the students to learn language expressions that are relevant to the current time. Some may say that identifying three major characteristics to discuss Japanese literature as a whole is still a generalization that may cause superficial understandings, but again,

just like intercultural competence, this can mark as the first step of a greater understanding in the future.

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Teachers' persona reflects in students' personality: A case study of primary school level in the Sahiwal District, Pakistan

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Abstract
This study highlights the imperative fact that students are the personification of a teacher's persona. The professional persona of the teachers is the reflection of personal and emotional traits that helps their students in the development of a nation. This is a quantitative study of 40 teachers and 153 students from Sahiwal district, Pakistan based on Erikson's theory of psychosocial development. For questionnaires, the study gyrates around the conceptual framework of teachers' personal traits independent variables: empathy, resourcefulness, wittiness, acknowledgment, determination, and creativeness are aimed to analyze their reflection in students' performance as a dependent variable. For data collection, the purposive sampling technique is used and SPSS software for calculations. This study traces that it is a need the hour to improve the society through training of a teacher to develop a paradigm of 'Teacher's persona' that ultimately, influences the students en masse.
Keywords: personification, teacher's persona, students' performance, Pakistan

1 Introduction

A fine teacher can stir hope, enlighten the imagination, and instill a love of learning. Excellence based education accompanies students' learning with the multiple interconnected features, the fundamental of which is the teachers' persona. They are the personalities who lend a hand for others to acquire knowledge, aptitude, virtues, and values. All other professions are the artifacts of the teaching profession. Education starts from home in adolescent age. Educators must not have only their particular credentials, rather more on their persona through which they teach more. Gablinske (2014) explained, "Teachers as the prime individuals bring their attitudes, temperament, thoughts, speech style, costume, and friendly atmosphere...these ethics glow, and picked up by students"

(p. 1), to build the nation. They outline the lives of small personals by natural acts, interesting questions, and delicate cues to produce a responsible individual for a valuable role in society. S/he influenced in just the first 20 or 30 seconds before or after the formal lecture through personal conversation and during the class period with actions and words.

The aim is to understand the phenomenon that students personify their teacher's persona, instantly or later in life. Therefore, from the beginning, optimistic and skilled educators must utilize their potential as helping hands during the transitional period of kids to adolescents, to believe in themselves. Teaching is an art, to guide human psychosocial development, especially at the primary level teachers are characterized by traits such as honesty, compassion, truthfulness, courage, and moderation their students try to imitate (Fenstermacher & Richardson, 2000).

This paper is following a line of investigation that gyrates around the issues of teacher's persona that ultimately reflects in the students' personality as an empathetic teacher teaches the students not to be judgmental but supportive for their peers and brings harmony. Creative teachers enable them to think critically, and determined teachers can reflect in their students as achievers.

Flores & Day expressed that identity is an actively changing process due to external and internal life experiences (2006), which influences the teacher's persona. Plato is of the view in *Meno to Ryle's The Concept of Mind* that virtues cannot be taught... they are acquired or picked up by association with people who are themselves virtuous. Thus, teachers must possess such characteristics to foster those in their students.

Erickson's stages from third until the middle of the fifth are the primary educational stages. Teachers are now a fundamental part of children's life. Here students are the marvelous spark (Lounsbury, 2017), a raw substance so they deserve a respectful treatment to develop their personas. A teacher needs attitude with information, guts with research, and principles with aptitude (Lounsbury, 2017). Students shape their lives by following their teachers' pavements through their personal, empathetic, and impulsive responses with probing questions, clever praise, and personal dialogue with a student, just for 20-30 seconds. Their problems recognition and solutions by teachers, boast up their positive emotions.

Research objectives
The objectives of the study are:
1. To assess the epitome of a teacher's persona into the personality of students.
2. To assess the role of a teacher in the development of a nation by students in the course of personal and professional traits.

This search will locate the teacher's traits through which they can mold the character of students, the raw material into a valuable part of the society.

Hypothesis of Research

H1. The empathetic teacher will be positively associated with students' success.

H2. Resourcefulness teacher will be positively associated with students' learning

H3. Wittiness is a teacher persona's trait that will be positively associated with students' success.

H4. Teacher's acknowledgment will be positively associated with students' development.

H5. The determined teacher will be positively associated with students' determination towards the achievement of their tasks.

H6. Teachers' creativity will be positively associated with students' vibrancy.

Significance of the study

The study depicts that the teacher's persona reflects in students therefore they respect students' essential social and personal abilities for life, both in school and social community. Although this research will cover, the area of District Sahiwal (Primary level schools) but the results can be fruitful in many perspectives. Teachers must be competent in knowing how and when (Calderhead & Shorrock, 1997). Students learn success skills through Communicative teaching and supportive learning (Luz, 2015), therefore, teachers must design good communication skills with colleagues, administration, and parents.

Scope and limitations of the study

Teachers and students both are fundamental parts of society. Therefore, the findings will help to solve the educational/social problems. The potential beneficiary of the research is society. Students can also be reluctant to response in presence of their teachers, so it can be requested to have a friendly session in the absence of teachers in their free time, or an observational session during class can be held to fill the questionnaire for data collection.

Delimitation of the study

Only six traits of a teacher's persona will be considered to reflect the effects and changes that directly influence students' performance. Primary students have multifaceted behaviors to erect and articulate their perceptions. They express their thoughts, emotions, questions, and needs through different modalities.

Operational definition(s)

- Personification is like to paint a picture in a person's mind, as "The shadow of the moon," so "students of their teacher's persona.

- A teacher's persona is the personification of personal, social, emotional, psychological, and cultural experiences that offer them to frame their role and position in a social setup.

Meador (2018) describes that persona is a combination of instinctive characteristics and life episodes. It determines the success rate of students as they follow the traits of their teacher's persona. From the hypothesis, it is very clear that a person, alone, could not achieve any goal without others' input. "This exchange of ideas and attitudes impacted at a deeper level, ultimately the students" (Talis*, The Teaching and Learning International Survey*, 2009, p. 101). So the teacher maintains a co-operative design from the panoramic view of social and emotional support through the realistic recommendation of the administration, parents, community, peer ones, and students for the professional attitude.

Conceptual framework

It is the outcome of the prior literature, on the teacher-student relationship concerning the teacher's persona as a personification in students and consequently identifies its scope. Gablinske (2014) supported the ideology that effective classroom interactional practices are the trait of effective teachers, a keystone in a teacher-student relationship (p. 1). Barch (2015) also found the impact of a quality relationship between the student/teacher on children's communal and cognitive development in a healthy environment. No one is a natural teacher as Davis (2011, p. 3) explained, "They adopt personae and improvise it according to the situation". Teachers and students both perform the parallel roles and their reactions bring change. The purpose of this study is to search out the effect of teachers' persona on students that they enact as their own personality traits.

Teaching persona

A Latin word "Persona" is used for the mask. Davis (2011, p. 3) visualized it as a mask that involves artifice. Compassionate teachers rein it through virtues and entrench it as their main purpose. In addition, in the caring teaching approach, teachers' pedagogical orientations are more "moral and emotional" than technical and methodological. Consequently, a determined, resourceful, and creative teacher establishes a wit and empathetic attitude, in order to acknowledge the students, as the cores of the learning environment. This effectively engages students to be part of different activities inside and outside of the school.

The Construct of students as the personification

Shadiow (2016) discovered the influential effect of teachers' persona that sets a dynamic tone, which brings clarity and delight of learning for students. A meta-analysis reflection suggests that the nurturing of students' characters represent personal concern while didactical bias and respectful didactics call only for academic success.

Social psychologists explored the fact of the enactment of teacher's roles including the social, emotional, psychologically protected, and motivational learning environment. Therefore, the persona is an enactment of social behaviors and identity is its dispensation as the students' first interaction outside the home is with teachers.

3. Theoretical framework

Erik Erikson (1902–1994) was a phase theorist who adapts Sigmund Freud's theory of psychosexuality and tailored it into a "Psychosocial theory of human development," in eight stages. The hypothesis is developed on Erikson's stages (a) stage-three; **Initiative vs. Guilt from** 3-5 years and (b) stage-four**; Industry vs. Inferiority from 5-13 years.**
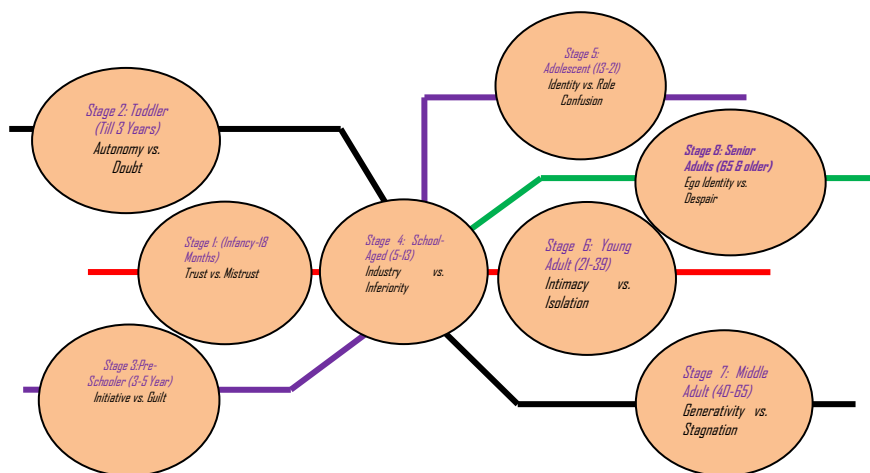

Fig.1: Erik Erikson's Eight Stages of Psychological Human's Development

He incorporated cultural propositions along with socio and psychological development. For him, ego formulates a positive approach and ability at every developmental stage of children's growth that enables them to be the active components of society.

The preschool (third stage) children become proficient to take initiatives and learn customs, wisdom, gestures, and planning through activities to achieve their aspirational goals, while interacting with parents, peers, friends, and teachers.

In the elementary school (fourth stage), they start the comparison with their peers. They take the wisdom of pleasure and achievement through small tasks as lessons completion, games, and social interaction. They may come up with self-blaming in case of failure at any stage. They try to adopt diversified roles, set targets, and put their efforts into self-realization.

3. Research model

Two variables are extracted from Erickson's theory of human learning to prove statistically significant differences after data collection and analysis with regard to 'Student performance' as dependent variables (DV), and teacher traits as the independent variable (IV).
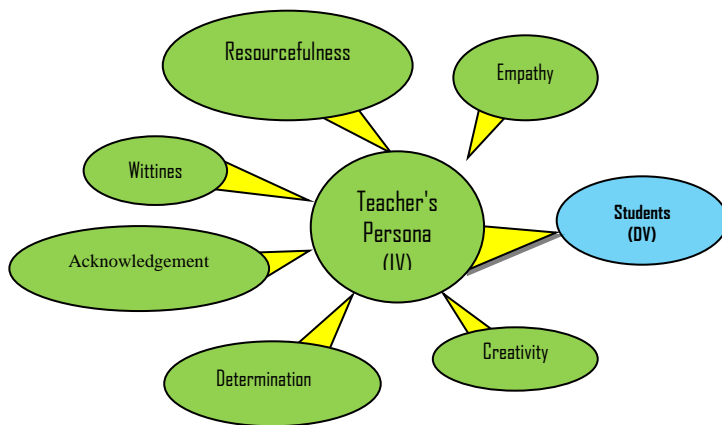

Fig. 2: Model of the Research Framework

This model explained the actions on the teacher's behalf to display a persona to manage the students' impressions. Teachers are not only schooling the young children at a primary level rather they teach them the skill of existence. Children are imitators of surrounded behaviors-how their teachers greet the class,

colleagues, and identify social relations. It affects their perception of belonging (Howard, 2006).

The existing literature has a trivial exploration at the part of the teacher's persona; the intention of this research is to locate the impact of teacher's persona in their students, at the beginning level. The research questions are the guidelines to assess (1) the epitome of a teacher's persona into the personality of students, and (2) the role of a teacher in the development of a nation by students in the course of personal and professional traits. This will enable us to guess the value of a teacher's role as a nation's builder, in the future.

Students personify the Empathetic Teacher

González & Arias (2017) explained that students could behave offensively, even with defiant gaze (p.1698), so teachers can lose control of their class, both at an academic and personal level. On the other hand, a strict but calm and polite teacher can reflect on students during their understanding of other's problems for the positive outcomes. They become the helping hands for peers without arrogance.

Students personify the Creative Teacher

Meador (2018) explained this trait as 'the ability to think outside the box to solve a problem'. Creative teachers can share a learning-friendly environment with students. They think critically to encourage students through individualize their teaching methodology for every student and help them in their practical life.

Students personify the Determined Teacher

Determined teachers collide through hardship to achieve the target that helps students to compose the student's personality as of achievers. They did not have lame excuses and learn to deal with society.

Students personify the Resourceful Teacher

The resourceful teacher can contain the most out of the available resources to solve the problems as, 'the most bang for their buck' (Meador, 2018). They teach the students to be independent of adversity to utilize their weapons at their full capacity. It is a power seldom recognized (Lounsbury, 2017) form of life.

Students personify the Wittiness of Teacher

Wittiness is a teaching tool for friendly communication with students, colleagues, and the community. According to Susan Howard (2016), it reinforced a sense of justice and goodwill (p.2) that reflects children's academic and relational persona.

Students personify the acknowledging Teacher

Teacher acknowledgment develops a constructive and accommodating atmosphere of trust and respect for students by maintaining their dignity (Barch, 2015). This enables the students to work agreeably with their peers and people in society, and respect their beliefs, feelings, and approach.

Students' performance (Dependent variable)

For children of the age (3-12 years, and above), eminence interaction with the teachers rests with them throughout their lives. Barch (2015) seconds this as a cognitive foundation from which perceptual expectations of other non-familial relationships are construed in the future (p. 1). Primary students are on the voyage of learning cultures, mostly in between school and home. Unconsciously, they learn about the values, food, terminologies, and unusual expressions from body language along with personality traits, personal inclinations, and unique potentials. This developing human stage required highly skilled teachers who can assert the students' diversified personalities (Park & Gauvaine, 2009).

The development of 'Teacher's persona' is a time-oriented activity. This research will discover the phenomenon that the classroom is the part of society, so as the students, and teachers should entail insight into human behavior to be successful. The teachers are the mirrors, and students are their reflection. Their persona adds to the overall classroom effectiveness. It is the outcome of dialog with students, parents, colleagues, and the community inside the social, cultural, and institutional environment (González & Arias, 2017, p.1693).

4. Research methodology

Research approach and data collection tool

This paper will continue with the quantitative approach. Thus, the tools (e.g., questionnaire), concepts, and research framework pivot with the relative existed literature. The questionnaire is developed on results and observations of the existing literature in order to measure teacher's persona including the following traits: 'Empathy (E)', 'Resourcefulness(R)', 'Wittiness (W)', 'Acknowledgement (A)', 'Determination (D)', and 'Creativity (C)'. The initial draft consisted of 42 items for the academic and personal care of teachers. Unclear items were rephrased and few were dropped in response to the feedback. The final instrument carried 30 items, 5 to each of 6 teachers' traits, on a 5-point Likert Scale, where 'Strongly disagree = 1', 'Disagree = 2', 'Neutral = 3', 'Strongly agree = 4', and 'Agree = 5'. The concept of students is simply a conceptual framework in order to discover the possible magnitude of teacher's persona effects.

Population

The targeted population is the primary schools in Sahiwal District, out of which the targeted sample consists of 40 teachers and 153 students, from the age of 3 to 13. The schools are personally visited for data collection. Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) is the format of analysis. The research is based on the non-probability purposive sampling method.

5 Data analysis

To calculate the descriptive statistics of categorical variables, frequencies are used for the respondents' responses. Approximately 230 questionnaires were distributed but the feedback was of only 195, as completely filled. The demographic profile of respondents comprises of age and education level/grade are presented in given tables.

Frequencies Statistics for age and study grades of Respondents

		Age of the respondents	What is the highest grade or level you have completed?
N	Valid	193	193
	Missing	3.00	3.00
Minimum		1.00	1.00
Maximum		3.00	2.00

Tab. 1: Frequencies Statistics for age and study grades of respondents

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	07-09	22	11.2	11.4	11.4
	10-12	47	24.0	24.4	35.8
	Above 12	124	63.3	64.2	100.0
	Total	193	98.5	100.0	
Missing System		3.00	1.5		
Total		196	100.0		

Tab. 2: Age of the respondents

The age limit of students from 07 – 09 at grade 3rd, age limit from 10 – 12, and above 12 for Grade 5th.

According to data, ages of much of the respondents are above 12, primary graduates, percentages as 64.2 %, in the government sector. The respondents of the age (07-09) ratio is 11.4 % while the percentage of 47 respondents of the age (10-12) is only 24.4%. The greater part of students are involved from (07-12) and above 12 years, those were present during and after exams.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	3rd grade	32	16.3	16.6	16.6
	5th grade	161	82.1	83.4	100.0
	Total	193	98.5	100.0	
Missing		3	1.5		
Total		196	100.0		

Tab. 3: The highest education level of students

The education level of 161 respondents is 5th-grade having a percentage of 83.4% and only 32 respondents are in or under 3rd grade with the percentage, 16.6%. The reason is that most of the students have just completed their primary education.

Descriptive statistics (DS) for continuous variables
The descriptive statistics for continuous variables incorporate mean, median, and Standard deviation to calculate the information in a single go.

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Respondents' age	193	1.00	3.00	2.5285	.69257	-1.149	.175	-.014	.348
Grade/Level	193	1.00	2.00	1.8342	.37287	-1.811	.175	1.294	.348
Valid N (listwise)	193								

Tab. 4: Descriptive Statistics of continuous variables of age and grade of study

Interpretation of descriptive statistics of continuous variables
Positive skewness value in the table shows a bunch of scores on the left side of graphs and a negative value on the right side. A positive value of kurtosis clarifies

that the distribution of scores is peaked and negative values demonstrate the flat distribution of scores.

Normality

Histogram, scatter plots, and box plots are used to check the normality of data for the Pearson correlation and multiple regressions, analysis.

Empathy

Descriptive statistics of empathy

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistics	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
E1	193	1.00	5.00	4.6580	.65124	-2.834	0.175	11.196	.348
E2	193	3.00	5.00	4.7358	.47611	-1.509	.175	1.253	.348
E3	193	1.00	5.00	4.2953	.90762	-1.338	.175	1.635	.348
E4	193	1.00	5.00	4.5907	.67955	-1.994	.175	5.112	.348
E5	193	2.00	5.00	4.5181	.68536	-1.488	.175	2.298	.348
Valid N (listwise)	193								

Tab. 5: Descriptive statistics of the IV's component, empathy
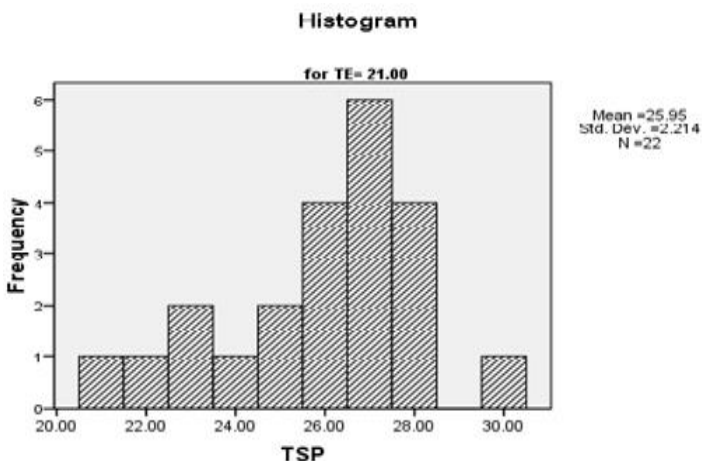
Fig. 3: IV's component of empathy

Resourcefulness

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
R1	193	1.00	5.00	4.0311	.91803	-1.041	.175	1.039	.348
R2	193	1.00	5.00	4.2539	.90300	-1.468	.175	2.418	.348
R3	193	1.00	5.00	4.3575	.77167	-1.471	.175	3.194	.348
R4	193	1.00	5.00	4.3834	.77603	-1.327	.175	1.970	.348
R5	193	1.00	5.00	4.4093	.77279	-1.814	.175	4.888	.348
Valid N (listwise)	193								

Tab. 6: Descriptive statistics of resourcefulness
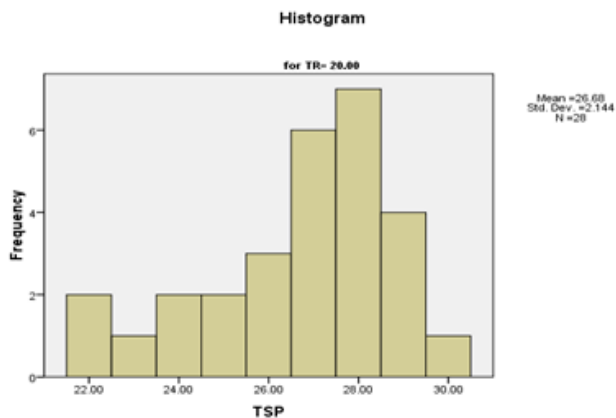
Fig. 4: IV's component resourcefulness

Wittiness

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
W1	193	1.00	5.00	4.2332	.93683	-1.557	.175	2.746	.348
W2	193	1.00	5.00	4.6995	.55231	2.435	.175	9.944	.348
W3	193	1.00	5.00	4.2487	.86621	-1.477	.175	3.093	.348
W4	193	1.00	5.00	4.5440	.65302	-1.582	.175	3.774	.348
W5	193	1.00	5.00	4.3316	.83783	-1.657	.175	3.739	.348
Valid N (listwise)	193								

Tab. 7: Descriptive statistics of wittiness

Normal Q-Q Plot of TSP
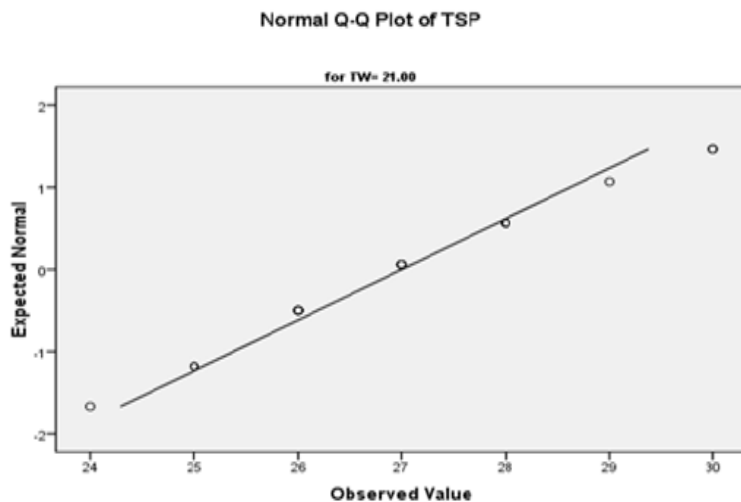
Fig. 5: Q-Q Plot of IV's component wittiness
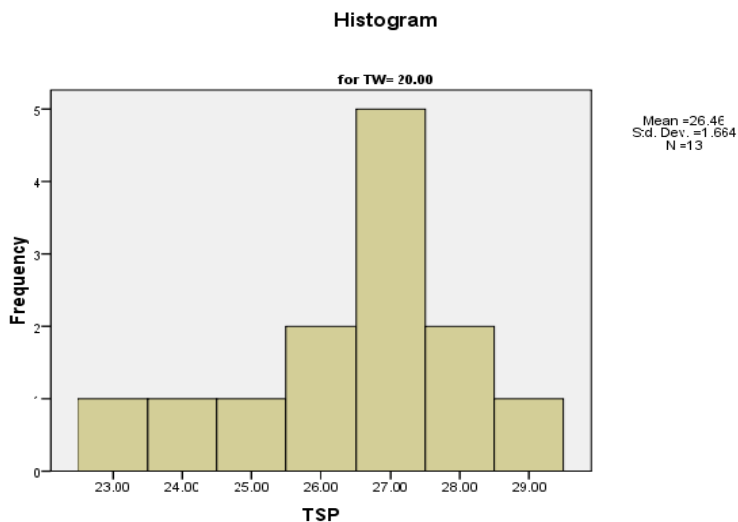
Histogram

Fig. 6: Histogram of IV's component wittiness

Acknowledgment

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
A1	193	1.00	55.00	5.0207	3.65142	13.483	.175	185.579	.348
A2	193	1.00	5.00	4.5803	.71809	-2.503	.175	8.650	.348
A3	193	1.00	5.00	4.5233	.72939	-1.831	.175	4.534	.348
A4	193	1.00	5.00	4.5078	.68556	-1.547	.175	3.374	.348
A5	193	1.00	5.00	4.7254	.54221	-2.658	.175	11.373	.348
Valid N (listwise)	193								

Tab. 8: Descriptive statistics of acknowledgement
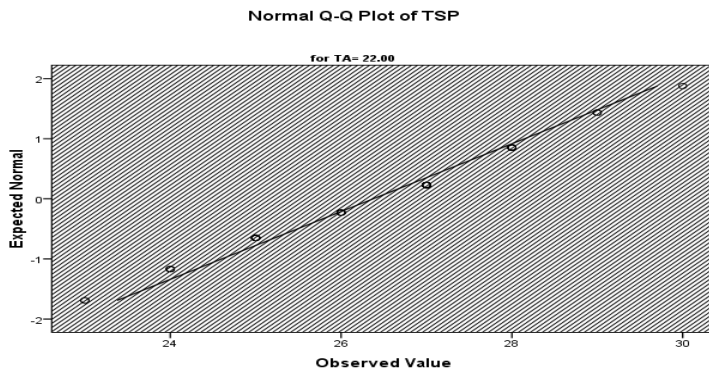
Fig. 7: IV's component acknowledgment.

Determination

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
D1	193	2.00	5.00	4.7306	.56821	-2.528	.175	7.521	.348
D2	193	1.00	5.00	4.5751	.63394	-1.711	.175	4.583	.348
D3	193	1.00	5.00	4.3057	.80675	-1.394	.175	2.907	.348
D4	193	1.00	5.00	4.5855	.68784	-1.767	.175	3.565	.348
D5	193	2.00	5.00	4.5492	.62825	-1.206	.175	.959	.348
Valid N (listwise)	193								

Tab. 9: Descriptive statistics of determination
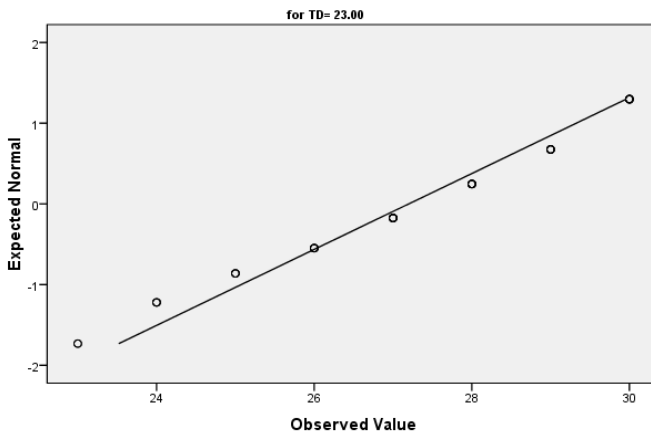
Fig. 8: IV's component determination

Creativity

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistics	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
C1	193	1.00	5.00	4.2332	.83700	-1.216	.175	2.065	.348
C2	193	2.00	5.00	4.6477	.59530	-1.637	.175	2.337	.348
C3	193	1.00	5.00	4.4715	.75723	-2.048	.175	6.028	.348
C4	193	1.00	5.00	4.0622	.99282	-1.319	.175	1.834	.348
C5	193	2.00	5.00	4.5440	.69175	-1.400	.175	1.282	.348
Valid N (listwise)	193								

Tab. 10: Descriptive statistics of creativity
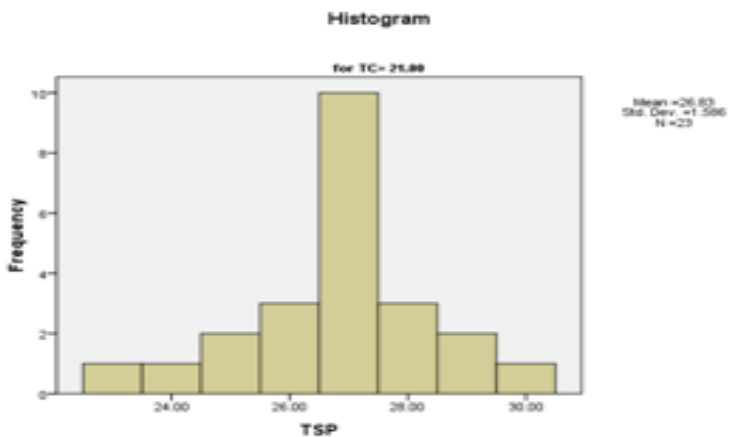
Fig. 9: IV's component of creativity

Student performance

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
SP1	193	1.00	5.00	4.4819	.74368	-1.665	.175	3.337	.348
SP2	193	2.00	5.00	4.4508	.72809	-1.259	.175	1.224	.348
SP3	193	3.00	6.00	4.6943	.53504	-1.343	.175	1.196	.348
SP4	193	2.00	5.00	4.7565	.50803	-2.248	175	5.675	.348
SP5	193	2.00	5.00	4.5389	.67684	-1.466	.175	1.989	.348
SP6	193	1.00	5.00	4.5337	.84789	-2.308	.175	6.020	.348
Valid N (listwise)	193								

Tab. 11: Descriptive statistics of student performance

Reliability

Variable	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
Empathy	0.611	5
Resourcefulness	0.624	5
Wittiness	0.663	5
Acknowledgement	0.780	5
Determination	0.653	5
Creativity	0.628	5
Students' Response	0.563	6
Tab. 12: Reliability Statistics		

Reliability statistics of the variables (≤ 0.7), except students' responses (0.563)
Cronbach's alpha value (≤ 0.7) is used to measure the reliability of the questions' similar construct. The tables of each variable illustrate that alpha values of the variables, except one, are more than 0.6 so the scales are reliable in our

research. The reliability table shows the correlation values of all the items are ≤ 0.7, except the students' response (0.563) so further analysis is preceded.

Correlation

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
TR	21.4352	2.62544	193
TW	22.0570	2.55397	193
TE	22.7979	2.16881	193
TA	23.3575	4.01840	193
TD	22.7461	2.16814	193
TC	21.9585	2.49340	193
TSP	27.4560	2.29796	193

Tab. 13: Descriptive statistics of DV and IVs

Interpretation

The above table shows that there is no negative relationship between variables because (1) '0' shows no connection, (2) '-1' shows a perfect negative correlation, and (3) '+1' shows perfect positive correlation (Cohen, 1998).

r = 0 .50_1.0 or r = -0.50 _ -1.0	Huge/large
r = 0.30_0.49 or r = -0.30_-0.49	Average/medium
r = 0.10_0.29 or r = -0.10_-0.29	little/Small

Tab. 15: Correlation standards of measures

- ❖ There is a positive and huge correlation between R and W   (r=0.548)
- ❖ There is a huge correlation between R and E   (r=0.547)
- ❖ There is a positive and average correlation between R and A   (r=0.367)
- ❖ There is a positive and average correlation between R and D   (r=0.499)
- ❖ There is a positive and huge correlation between R and C   (r=0.602)
- ❖ There is a positive and average correlation between R and SP   (r=0.404)
- ❖ There is a positive and huge correlation between W and E   (r=0.624)
- ❖ There is a positive and average correlation between W and A   (r=0.393)
- ❖ There is a positive and huge correlation between W and D   (r=0.567)
- ❖ There is a positive and huge correlation between W and C   (r=0.513)

		TR	TW	TE	TA	TD	TC	TSP
TR	Pearson Correlation	1	.548**	.547**	.367**	.499**	.602**	.404**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	193	193	193	193	193	193	193
TW	Pearson Correlation	.548**	1	.624**	.393**	.567**	.513**	.453**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	193	193	193	193	193	193	193
TE	Pearson Correlation	.547**	.624**	1	.311**	.551**	.505**	.510**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	193	193	193	193	193	193	193
TA	Pearson Correlation	.367**	.393**	.311**	1	.107	.357**	.071
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		.140	.000	.328
	N	193	193	193	193	193	193	193
TD	Pearson Correlation	.499**	.567**	.551**	.107	1	.554**	.570**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.140		.000	.000
	N	193	193	193	193	193	193	193
TC	Pearson Correlation	.602**	.513**	.505**	.357**	.554**	1	.470**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000
	N	193	193	193	193	193	193	193
TSP	Pearson Correlation	.404**	.453**	.510**	.071	.570**	.470**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.328	.000	.000	
	N	193	193	193	193	193	193	193

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Tab. 14: Correlations of dependent and independent variable

❖ There is a positive and average correlation between W and SP (r=0.453)
❖ There is a positive and average correlation between E and A (r=0.311)
❖ There is a positive and huge correlation between E and D (r=0.551)
❖ There is a positive and huge correlation between E and C (r=0.505)
❖ There is a positive and huge correlation between E and SP (r=0.510)
❖ There is a positive and little correlation between A and D (r=0.107)
❖ There is a positive and average correlation between A and C (r=0.357)
❖ There is a positive and very small correlation between A and SP(r=0.071)
❖ There is a positive and huge correlation between D and C (r=0.554)
❖ There is a positive and huge correlation between D and SP (r=0.570)
❖ There is a positive and huge correlation between C and SP (r=0.470)

6 Regression Analysis

The following tables are the outcomes of standard multiple regression of IV and its relationship with other components (R, W, E, A, D, C) and DV (SP) according to the Standard Multiple Regression (SMR) approach.

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.641[a]	.411	.392	1.79167

Tab. 16: Model summary[b]

- Predictors: (Constant), TC, TA, TE, TD, TR, TW
- DV: TSP

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	21.9218	29.5487	27.4560	1.47338	193
Std. Predicted Value	-3.756	1.420	.000	1.000	193
Standard Error of Predicted Value	.152	1.646	.307	.149	193
Adjusted Predicted Value	22.2509	29.5393	27.4848	1.45459	193
Residual	-5.32771	4.15529	.00000	1.76345	193
Std. Residual	-2.974	2.319	.000	.984	193
Stud. Residual	-3.000	2.479	-.004	1.009	193
Deleted Residual	-7.49715	4.74909	-.02887	1.91008	193
Stud. Deleted Residual	-3.067	2.515	-.006	1.015	193
Mahal Distance	.395	161.108	5.969	12.517	193
Cook's Distance	.000	2.112	.017	.152	193
Centered Leverage Value	.002	.839	.031	.065	193

Tab. 17: Residuals Statistics[a]

a. Dependent Variable: TSP

Histogram
The standardised residual value (SRV) can be (3 < SRV < -3) range. This presents information about cases that have SRV is above 2.319 and below -2.974. In the histogram, the bell-shaped peaked graph is obtained in a range of 3.3 and -3.3.

Histogram
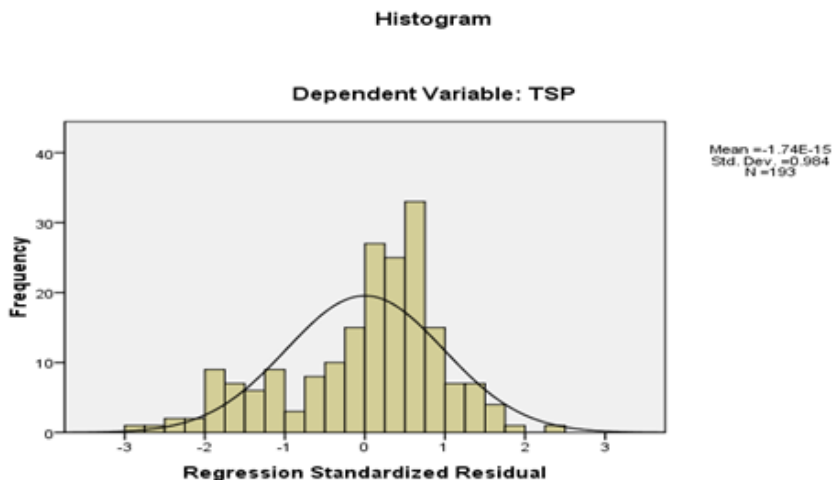
Fig 10: Regression Standardised Residual graph (3.3 < SRV < -3.3) range

Normal P-P Plot
In the normal P-P plot, the points lie in a reasonably straight diagonal line from the bottom left to the top right. This would suggest no major deviations from normality.
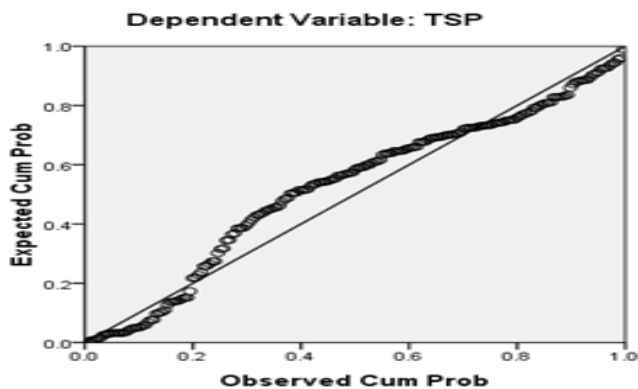

Fig 11: Regression Standardised Residual Normal P-P Plot (3.3 < SRV < -3.3) range

Scatter Plot

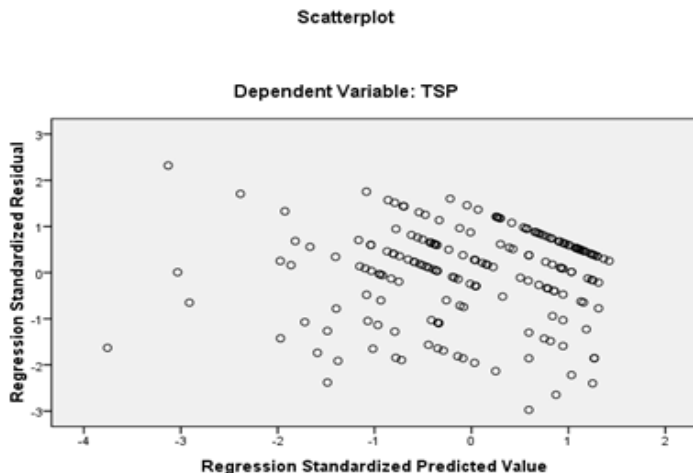In Fig 11, the plot is clearly in the rectangular form between the ranges of 3 and – 3.

Fig 12: Regression Standardised predicted value (3.3 < SRV < -3.3) range

Evaluation of Independent variables

	Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	416.802	6	69.467	21.640	.000ᵃ
	Residual	597.073	186	3.210		
	Total	1013.876	192			

Tab. 18: Description of IVs in ANOVA[b] Table

- Predictors: (Constant), TC, TA, TE, TD, TR, TW
- DV: TSP

The value of R square demonstrates the overall variance in DV. Within the model summary box, r square is 0.411, the 41 % variance of DV.

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Significance	95% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	Const.	10.769	1.608		6.698	.000	7.597	13.941					
	TR	.021	.068	.025	.313	.754	-.114	.156	.404	.023	.018	.518	1.932
	TW	.085	.074	.094	1.147	.253	-.061	.230	.453	.084	.065	.471	2.125
	TE	.243	.083	.230	2.917	.004	.079	.408	.510	.209	.164	.511	1.955
	TA	-.081	.037	-.141	-2.160	.032	-.155	-.007	.071	-.156	-.122	.738	1.354
	TD	.312	.084	.295	3.732	.000	.147	.477	.570	.264	.210	.508	1.968
	TC	.164	.072	.178	2.269	.024	.021	.307	.470	.164	.128	.515	1.943

Tab. 19: Coefficients[a]

a. DV: TSP
b. IVs: R, W, E, A, D, C.

The ANOVA table tests the null hypothesis. The model of the research shows high statistical significance (Sig = .000, p<0.05) proves a significant unique contribution to the prediction of the dependent variable.

Coefficients diagnostic
The beta value (0.295 > 0.05) of determination (D) explained the contribution dependent variable in the calculation (Pallant, 2015) as one unit increases in, which will cause 0.295 increases in SP.

Part Correlation Coefficients (PCC)
The result shows that the TD scale has a 'Part correlation coefficients' PCC of 0.210, the square of which is 0.42, indicating that TD has a unique contribution of 42% of the variance in DV (SP) scores. For the TE the value is 0.164, which squared gives us 0.328 of 32% to the explanation of variance in SP.

Hypothesis analysis

The results analysis and regression weights DV through the path of IVs, to accept or reject the hypothesis of the research objectives are found one by one as under. The 'Tolerance' (T < 0.10) and 'Variance' inflation factor is (VIF ≤ 10) for the non-violation of multicollinearity.

➢ **H1.** Empathetic teacher positively associates with students' success as (Beta value is also contributing as 0.023 < 0.05, that is 2.3%, t=2.917, Sig. =0.004, p<0.05, T = .511, T > 0.10, VIF=1.955, VIF ≤ 10) , **Accepted**

➢ **H2.** Resourcefulness teacher is absolutely associated with students' learning process as (Beta value is contributing to some extant as 0.025 < 0.05, that is 2.5%, t=0.313, Sig.=0.754, p>0.05, T = .518, T > 0.10, VIF=1.932, VIF ≤ 10), **Accepted**

➢ **H3.** Wittiness is a teacher persona's trait that is optimistically coupled with students' success as (Beta value is contributing as 0.094 < 0.05 that is 9.4%, t=1.147, Sig. =0.253, p>0.05, T = .471, T > 0.10, VIF=2.125, VIF ≤ 10), **Accepted**

➢ **H4.** Teacher's acknowledgement is allied with students' development as (Beta value is also contributing as 0.141 > 0.05 that is 14%, t=2.160, Sig. = 0.032, p < 0.05, T = .738, T > 0.10, VIF=1.354, VIF ≤ 10), **Accepted**

➢ **H5.** Determined teacher will be optimistically associated with students' determination towards the achievement of their tasks as (Beta value is also contributing as 0.295 > 0.05 that is 29%, t=3.732, Sig. = 0.000, p < 0.05, T = .508, T > 0.10, VIF=1.968, VIF ≤ 10), **Accepted**

➢ **H6.** Teacher' creativity contributes positively in students' vibrancy as (Beta value is also contributing as 0.178 > 0.05 that is 17 %, t=2.269, Sig. = 0.024, p < 0.05, T = .515, T > 0.10, VIF=1.943, VIF ≤ 10), **Accepted**

6 Findings

Data analysis supported the hypothesis that empathetic teacher have positive acquaintances with students' success. To enable this, it is essential to get the best possible knowledge of students, both academically and individually. This attitude encourages students to participate in the life activities, with moral values.

The second hypothesis, about a resourceful teacher, possesses the ability to hold their nerves in a difficult situation. The students imitate their elders, especially in the selected age group and discover the way to value their passion as a lifetime experience (Meador, 2018). Teachers are like mediators who calm down the overflow of immense knowledge that is necessary for their academic and personal achievements.

Witty teacher influences the students' personality positively**.** They learn to treat carefully, listen courteously, and respect to fellow beings for a harmonized

and dignified atmosphere inside the class and, ultimately, in the society. As a friendly teacher can carry comfortability and sincerity (González & Arias, 2017, p.1672).

Acknowledging and appreciative teachers treat the students according to their abilities like a treasure and maintain their personal information for **positive feedback, bestowed confident personalities.**

Determined persona persuades them to achieve their goals. They acquire the ability to accept their shortcomings, follow the teacher's punctuality, reject the diversion, and continue the tasks. They are regarded in every field of life as reliable and loyal.

The creative teacher connects them with artisanship and possession of their wisdom. They take interest in their studies by noticing the angles in block structures, count the toys and note their colors, and recognize their name letters on billboards.

Hypothesis supports the research objective that teachers' persona provides the base for student's personal, emotional, academic, and ultimately social development. Students' personify their personalities in terms of their behaviors, people and pupils' interaction, dynamic approach, acceptability, and passion for their professional duties.

7 Recommendations

Additionally, the teacher must be aware that their persona carries contented and sincere relationships with students that do not involve jokes, but a tale can be associated with the situation. Erikson viewed that at primary level children seek control over their world as tying new shoes, building new dimensions with blocks, and feel kindness for sapling (1959). Experiences sharpen up teacher's critical thinking skills to rekindle personal and professional persona. Tie together primary students' natural strengths to develop their character, imagination, identity, and physical engagement to become active contributors towards a better society.

8 Conclusion

The study aimed at the fact that teachers must be trained according to their natural instinct to have a bona fide teaching persona that can serve to animate a spark in students for the wisdom of life through the curriculum. This a continuous series of needs, values, experiences, feelings, and capacities built along with the individual personal and professional experience. They must educate ethics and common morality. Schools must recognize their responsibility to build up the positive social, emotional, and moral character of young as they adopt the new culture of school due to the transitional phase of self-identification.

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APPENDICES
A. List of Selected Schools in District

Sr #	School Name
1	Government Girls Elementary School 87/9-L, Sahiwal
2	Government Girls Elementary School 59/12-L, Chichawatni
3	Government Girls Elementary School 105/7-R, Chichawatni
4	Army Public School, Sahiwal
5	Government Girls Primary School 109/9-L, New Abadi, Sahiwal
6	Government Girls High School 86/6-R, Sahiwal
7	Government Girls Primary School 66/4-R, Sahiwal

B. Variables Oriented Questionnaire
   a. Personal information:
   (1) What is your age?
   i.   07 – 09
   ii.   10 – 12
   iii. Above 12
   (2) What is the highest grade or level, you have completed?
   i.   3rd grade
   ii.   5th grade
   b. Independent Variables

Sr#	Teacher Persona Traits	SD	D	N	A	SA
Empathy:						
E1	Do you practice, teacher empathy beget trust in student?					
E2	Do the empathetic attitude encourages students?					
E3	Is empathetic attitude, trivial to teacher's persona?					
E4	Does empathetic behavior bring morality in a student?					
E5	Does teacher empathy help students to be succeeded academically?					
Resourcefulness:						
R1	Does your teacher promote independence in case of resources?					
R2	Does your teacher encourage the use of technology?					
R3	Does your teacher reflect on your problem- handling situations?					

R4	Does your teacher reflect on collaboration techniques in difficult situations?					
R5	Does your teacher teach conviction to students through activities?					
Wittiness:						
W1	Does your teacher go to the extra mile in order to engage you?					
W2	Can your teacher be serious when she needs to be?					
W3	Does your teacher's wittiness flip the classroom's learning environment?					
W4	Does your teachers' wit encourage you to speak/share?					
W5	Does your teacher's wit bring persistence in difficult situations?					
Acknowledgement:						
A1	Does your teacher's acknowledgement give you confidence?					
A2	Does your teacher give you positive feedback?					
A3	The teacher gives you respect!					
A4	Does your teacher acknowledge your questioning?					
A5	The teacher's acknowledgment encourages you!					
Determination:						
D1	Determined teacher brings motivation in you					
D2	The determined persona of your teacher encourages you to achieve your goals, Do you agree?					
D3	It reflects in students to face difficult situations!					
D4	Positive words affect student perception.					
D5	A determined teacher creates a safe and supportive environment for students!					
Creativity:						
C1	Is your teacher is open minded due to her creative persona?					
C2	Does creative teacher bring a passion for learning in you, agree?					
C3	The teacher's creativity made your life colorful.					
C4	Can you express yourself vibrantly in her class?					
C5	Is she ready to value your efforts and appreciate it?					

c. **Dependent Variable**

Sr #	**Student Performance (SP)**	SD	D	N	A	SA
SP1	Teachers determination towards her profession have an effect on students					
SP2	Teacher wittiness is an important factor for the success of students					
SP3	A teacher should use creative ideas in the class					
SP4	A teacher should acknowledge the students for their good work					
SP5	An empathic attitude of teachers leaves a positive effect on students					
SP6	A teacher also has to use newer technologies for their students					

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On a shoestring: child speakers of other languages in Slovak education

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Abstract
This article focuses on children who cannot speak the language of the majority when they enter the school system. It recommends that the term child speakers of other languages should be adopted in Slovakia. Various approaches and types of support used in other European countries (Germany, Denmark, Czechia) are presented. These could be adopted nationally to integrate these children in school. The legal situation and current situation in preschools and primary school is also explored. The article outlines potential forms of support for preschool children and their families that require little in the way of additional funding and human resources.
Keywords: child speakers of other languages, preschool, preschool education, strategies for working with child speakers of other languages

Introduction
The Slovak Republic is a nation state comprising Slovaks, who make up the majority population, and various minorities. Most of these are either national or ethnic groups that have lived in what it is now the Slovak Republic for generations. The character of the nation state is preserved through conservative immigration policies, for which Slovakia has frequently attracted criticism. Nonetheless, there are migrants, refugees and asylum seekers in Slovakia, who receive various kinds of support but also face multiple barriers, of which language is probably the most challenging. To learn a foreign or new language, individuals have to first acquire communication skills and then cognitive academic skills. The easiest and quickest stage is learning how to communicate in everyday situations, which takes around six months to two years.

Children who have to attend school in Slovakia find themselves in the special situation of having to acquire a second language at the academic level. Successful

mastery is considered crucial to further educational achievement and takes approximately five to seven years (Cummins, 2000). The focus in this article is on children who do not speak the official state language and are not yet in compulsory schooling. The aim is to investigate the circumstances and conditions under which these children attend preschool and to suggest minor adjustments to classroom approaches that can be implemented without either systematic central or non-governmental support. As the title of this article suggests, child speakers of other languages are not entitled to any special or additional assistance.

First there is a brief discussion of the term child speakers of other languages, then several strategies used in selected countries are considered. Based on the experiences of these countries, a set of strategies aimed at preschool teachers whose classes are attended by one or more such children is presented.

1 Child speakers of other languages

To begin with it is important to distinguish between the many terms in use as they are often misunderstood and incorrectly used, particularly as a result of media coverage. In ordinary everyday usage, the terms used to describe foreigners are conflated and so foreigners are frequently stereotyped as wanting to come to Slovakia so they can access the (supposed) benefits. But in reality migrants are people who decide to live in countries around the world and do so for various reasons (e.g. to study, travel to be with family members, to look for work). Migrants are often confused with refugees (i.e. all migrants are portrayed as refugees). Refugees are people who have no choice and are forced into migrating, perhaps owing to persecution in their own country, or because of war endangering their lives. Asylum-seeker is a term used in Slovak law to describe refugees. Statistics collected by the interior ministry show that in 2019 asylum was sought by 208 asylum seekers and that by November of that year four had been awarded asylum and 16 had been granted protection.

The children of refugees and unaccompanied children (children under 18 without a parent or guardian) come under the remit of the interior ministry and the other ministries, which means that children of school age have to attend school (Fajnorová & Števulová, 2009).

Children attending school, and preschool, who do not speak Slovak – for whom Slovak is not their first language – include refugee children, unaccompanied minors, the children of foreigners legally resident in Slovakia, but also children who do not belong to these groups. Therefore, following other countries, the authors of this article are attempting to introduce the term child speakers of other languages (commonly used in e.g. the Czech Republic) on the basis that it is more representative. The term child speakers of other languages covers a much wider group of children and can also be used in relation to Slovak citizens. These may be

children of migrant families who possess Slovak citizenship, children of Slovaks who have returned to Slovakia after living abroad for many years, children from bilingual families where Slovak is not the mother language and so on. They cannot therefore be referred to as foreigners or foreign children with any accuracy. 'Child speakers of other languages' may be problematic in a legal context but from an education perspective it is an extremely useful term.

Where Slovak is the native language, the term child speakers of other languages refers to all children who do not speak Slovak or for whom Slovak is an additional language. Slovak as an additional language (SAL) is a term used in conjunction with children who understand the basic conversational Slovak used in preschool and school, but whose main language is not Slovak.

Here it should be noted that there are a number of terms used to describe this group of children. For example, Gažovičová (2011) gives three basic terms: foreign children (not Slovak citizens), migrant children (children who migrate with their parents, and unaccompanied minors) and children from a migrant background (children/or parents who have come from a different country and cultural and linguistic background but who are Slovak citizens). However, for our purposes, the term child speakers of other languages covers all of these different categories (Linhartová, Horáčková, 2015).

1.2 Child speakers of other languages in Slovak preschools

The following is known about child speakers of other languages in the Slovak education system:

Slovakia has produced a migration policy plan (the current one is valid until 2020) and a *Global report on the fulfilment of the tasks, aims and goals of migration policy* (*Súhrnnou správou o stave plnenia úloh, zámerov a cieľov migračnej politiky;* the most recent one is for 2018). According to the report, in the 2018/2019 school year 761 foreign children were attending preschool (including state, private and church preschools). The majority of these, 520, were attending state preschools. By way of comparison, in that same school year, there were 2,682 foreign children attending primary school, 2,072 of whom were attending state primary schools. From this it is clear that the vast majority attend state schools. It is therefore essential that state school heads and teachers receive the necessary support (not simply teaching guidance).

The number of foreign children attending preschool and primary school refers to children who meet the legal definition of foreign children (Section 146(1) of Act No. 245/2008):

- persons who are citizens of another state or stateless persons, who have a Slovak residence permit,
  - persons who have applied for asylum in the Slovak Republic under special legislation,

- Slovaks living abroad,
- persons seeking asylum or additional protection under asylum law,
- foreign minors in Slovakia with no legal representative.

The statistics do not therefore include children who are Slovak citizens but struggle to overcome the language barrier: in other words, children who cannot speak Slovak at all or who speak it at only a very basic level.

There is one particular group of children in Slovakia to whom this may apply – Roma children. Roma people in Slovakia do not constitute a single homogenous linguistic group (Ivanov et al., 2012). They may consider their first language to be Slovak, Hungarian or Romany (statistically more than half of Roma declare their first language to be Romany). It can therefore be assumed that most Roma children grow up speaking a language other than Slovak, and that the Slovak they encounter in public communication is an additional language for them. The situation regarding Roma children is further complicated by that fact that although Romany is a codified language, standardised in 2008 (Cina, 2012), it varies greatly in the domestic environment. Roma children therefore face a double language barrier that they must grapple with in everyday life.

Preschool education need not provide them with the help they need. As a number of organisations have pointed out, inequalities in accessing preschool continue to exist. Statistics show that, in the 2017/2018 school year, only 28.16 percent of Roma children aged 3–5 years were enrolled in a preschool, compared to 83.1 per cent of children from the majority population (Cvek, 2019). Research conducted by non-governmental organisations working in the field found that, in the areas inhabited by the largest numbers of marginalised Roma, on average only 10 percent of Roma children attend preschool. This is despite the fact that longitudinal studies have shown that investments in early childhood education greatly improve the social and learning abilities of these children and have a deep impact on their educational and employment opportunities in the long term (Barnett, 1995; Heckman, 2006). Early childhood education systems are considered a key factor in breaking the cycle of transgenerational poverty and increasing children's opportunity to live a healthier life. The Slovak authorities are aware of this and are introducing compulsory preschooling, which is due to begin in the 2021/2022 school year.

However, statistical discussions about the total number of children whose first language is not Slovak are of little consequence to the schools and teachers whose classes these children attend. Simply having one, or a small group of SAL pupils, in the classroom or preschool raises workloads considerably.

2 Selected experiences from abroad

There are countries with far larger numbers of child speakers of other languages, including at the preschool level, and consequently they pay much greater attention to this category of pupil. Having accumulated long-term experience in meeting the needs of children and families of speakers of other languages, their systems and support systems have become highly professionalised. Although they do of course reflect the specific culture and preferences of the country concerned.

One of the most developed, systematic and generously funded systems is to be found in Germany. Germany's experience of immigration is different and so the programmes and support that have become established there over the years are not simply narrowly focused on education. Many programmes include comprehensive assistance for family integration. Qualified trained staff provide support and assistance within the home (*Geh-Struktur Programme*) or as part of centre-based programmes (*Komm-Struktur Programme*) (Stamm & Edelmann, 2013). As Germany has a federal system, the programmes vary greatly but all share the common goal of improving pupil and parent engagement in the education process.

Intensive language support is provided in preschools, and the Federal Ministry for Family, Seniors, Women, Children and Youth funds projects to raise the level of language teaching qualifications among preschool teachers. For instance the federal state of Hamburg runs the Kita Plus Programm (Kita+). This programme is open to all preschools with an above-average number of socially disadvantaged children or children from migrant families. Hamburg state also provides preschools with assessment tools SISMIK and HAVAS5 (SISMIK consists of a form for assessing language development in child speakers of other languages, from age three to primary school age; HAVAS5 is a diagnostic tool for determining the level of all the languages spoken by the child. It is targeted at mono- and multi-lingual children aged 5–7 years) (Ulich, Mayr, 2003; Hamburger Verfahren zur Analyse des Sprachstands Fünfjähriger, non-dated) so teachers can establish levels of language development, and language support is provided both individually and in groups. In 1989 a special method was developed in Munich for teaching German as a second language to preschool age children – the KIKUS method (Garlin, 2008). It was then adopted in the remaining federal states and other language versions were developed as well.

Like Germany, Denmark has a long preschool tradition that receives generous state support. The *kommunes*, or municipalities, are legally obliged to provide some form of language-stimulation activities, and so are responsible for providing support to families where Danish is an additional language (ECEC Policy in Denmark, 2000). Although Denmark has a long-standing tradition of universal

access to ECEC, disadvantaged families are more likely to keep their children at home longer (Sibley, 2015). Therefore in 2018 Denmark embarked on reforming its *Day-care Act,* in place since July 2019 (Witcombe, 2019). This law makes it compulsory for all children from marginalised areas (ghettos) to attend preschool for a minimum of 25 hours per week once they reach the age of one-year old. That way the children are not only in contact with the language but also learn about Danish traditions, celebrations, standards and values (it is not unusual in Denmark for one-year olds to attend preschool). As preschools are free at the point of access (including meals), parents have to comply with the law otherwise they risk losing the social support they receive in child benefit.

Not only do child speakers of other languages have to be enrolled in preschool but they also have to undergo language tests – as do all preschool children in Denmark – which monitor language development and are used as the basis for further assistance if required (Motiejunaite, et. al., 2019).

The freedom and variation in provision for child speakers of other languages can be seen in the approaches taken by the *kommunes* of Aarhus and Vejle. Preschools in Aarhus are entitled to employ a certain number of assistants depending on the number of children from homes where Danish is not the first language/mother tongue. Parents are therefore required to indicate which language(s) are spoken at home when filling in the preschool enrolment form. Aarhus Kommune supports and funds the systematic and regular provision of education activities as part of its language education. These take the form of reading groups attended by small numbers of children of various ages and languages (children of different nationalities and different linguistic ability). The groups are led by a trained teacher in a dedicated area of the preschool. Part of the programme involves selecting the books and developing sets of instructions, post-reading activities and inspiration. The youngest children have little boxes of pre-prepared support materials to accompany the books (Laeseleg, no date).

In Vejle the local government strategy for the inclusion of child speakers of other languages follows two principles: *language is everywhere (global reading)* and *endorsing the child's home language* (Biliteracy i børnehaven, 2012)*.* But this does not mean that child speakers of other languages are given systematic support in their first language. Instead, the two principles are combined: words are given in the written form whenever possible in both the majority language and the home language of the children attending the school. This way the children are aware of the presence of the written form of the word in their home language, which may have a non-Latin script. Grammatical accuracy is not important. The point is to show parents that their heritage and language is an important part of inclusion.

The Czech Republic is both culturally and geographically close to Slovakia and, like Slovakia, has no tradition of providing systematic support to child speakers of

other languages, although it has recently begun to do so. The change was prompted by an education ministry implementing decree (No. 26/2016) categorising pupils with a poorer or little grasp of the language of instruction as children, or pupils, with special educational needs. This simple change means child speakers of other languages can be given substantial assistance. An act amending the education law completes this change in philosophy by not categorising child speakers of other languages according to level of disadvantage or difficulty but according to level of support required. The law sets out five levels of support, and children who are level two and above are entitled to a greater degree of language support, a modified syllabus, lesson content, special classroom resources, an assistant and so on.

These changes have paved the way for children to receive language interventions in Czech preschool classrooms. Strong support is provided to preschools by META, a well-established non-profit organisation that provided courses and methodological support for teachers, based on the KIKUS method mentioned above.

3 What kind of support is available in Slovakia?

Educational attainment can prove a real stumbling block for children who do not speak Slovak. Others have already noted that the measures and rules currently in place are ineffective. However, it is important to point out that this is a new area for Slovakia and that there is only a small number of non-Slovak speaking children from other countries who are obliged to attend schools where the language of instruction is Slovak. This is not an excuse, but it has to be borne in mind when facing the reality, rather than just endlessly criticising the situation from the standpoint of various postmodern ideologies.

Children who start primary school are entitled to the following:

Systematic support for teaching foreign children is provided for language only, in the form of classes aimed primarily at adults and children aged six and over. The law only recognises 'foreign children' so the support provided is available for children in this category (explained above).

However, the reality for many primary school heads is quite different from what the law provides for. Sometimes language courses cannot be run because the numbers of children or adults wishing to attend are too small for the courses to be economically viable. Schools attempt to deal with this by offering, for example, education vouchers that can be used for after-school language classes.

Another strategy is to not include the children in the first two school assessments. It is hard to judge whether this is long enough for them to have obtained a sufficient grasp of the language. Although SAL experts point out that linguistic nuances and more complex grammatical aspects can cause great difficulties for pupils and may even be insurmountable in some cases. For example,

SAL learners are expected to be able to tackle the same dictations as children who speak Slovak as their first language.

Another way of handling this situation is to put SAL pupils in a lower year. However, it is easy to imagine how frustrating it must be for children who cannot understand the language of instruction to have the extra complication of being in a year with younger children. Criticism of this practice is entirely justified as there is no guarantee that the language they encounter in a lower year will be any less complicated, formal or semantically complex.

Many heads suggest that a better alternative would be for SAL pupils to attend language lessons and non-core subjects, such as music and art, for perhaps the first year. This is common practice in a number of countries. Some even allow children to study their first language as well because additional language development occurs simultaneously (many child speakers of other languages speak three or four languages).

Let us now turn to preschool education as that is the main focus of this article. From 2021 preschool teachers will face the same situation that primary school teachers currently have to deal with. As noted earlier, foreign children are obliged to attend school. Under the education law (Section 146(2) of Act No. 245/2008) these children have the right to receive education, accommodation and meals in schools under the same conditions as Slovak citizens. In 2021 preschool attendance becomes compulsory for all children in the year prior to starting primary school, and this applies to SAL pupils as well.

The education of foreign children is therefore underpinned by the education law, while teaching methods come under the remit of the National Institute for Education (NIE). Its website has a special section on teaching foreign children, where teachers can also find a document entitled *Information and guidance for teachers of pupils from various multicultural backgrounds* (Žáčková, Vladová, 2005). The title would suggest it is aimed at primary school teachers. It does not take the new legislation into account (it was published 15 years ago) and is concerned with multicultural education, but nonetheless one might think it useful for teachers looking for guidance. However, it is not appropriate for use in preschools.

The NIE has issued teaching guidelines for basic and more extensive Slovak courses but for pupils aged 6–10 years and 11–16 years. There are other teaching recommendations for language courses (issued in 2014) but these are aimed at 6–15 year olds.

The expertise and funding for these language courses (basic Slovak and extensive Slovak) is provided by the Ministry of Interior (under the education law) and the education ministry is responsible for the organisation, funding, expertise and guidelines for SAL staff training courses. In its guidelines for the current school

year (2019/2020), the education ministry recommends that staff teaching foreign children use the *Slovak as a Foreign Language* handbook available on the Methodology and Pedagogy Centre (MPC) website. It states that 'language courses for foreign children are organised and funded by the *OŠ OÚ* [Department of Education District Office] based on requests from the school trustee'. Educational activities for teachers focusing on refugees, asylum and migration will be provided in collaboration with the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) and subsequently through the MPC. The UNHCR has also provided Slovakia with teaching and classroom resources for pupils aged 6–9 years and 9–12 years (these can be found on the UNHCR website).

The state therefore ensures that foreign children receive the same education as Slovak citizens and provides language support in the form of Slovak as a foreign language courses.

However, this only applies to children aged six and over. As yet there is no systematic state support for preschool children and yet, as our overview of preschool provision abroad shows, preschools are the ideal place for early language support. On the plus side, preschools have ample opportunity to develop pupils' language potential within their own organisational frameworks, more so than is the case in primary schools. Therefore the focus here is on preschools and the aim is to gather together different strategies and resources for preschool teachers wishing to support SAL pupils in the classroom.

Organisations such as the *Human Rights League, Marginal, CVEK and the Milan Šimečka Foundation* have long been concerned at education provision for foreigners, which is itself hardly encouraging. They have published resources, initiated public debates to draw attention to foreigners' lives and organised meetings. Recently they held meetings with foreigners in various district towns aimed at finding out how they can be better integrated into society. They found that Slovakia does not provide enough Slovak language courses and that language difficulties create hurdles for parents in the workplace and for children at school. However, the 2018 *Global report on the fulfilment of task, aims and goals of migration policy* states that 'language courses for foreign children are funded through agreements based on requests by the trustee. We have not recorded any complaints from trustees regarding the system currently in operation'.

As previously suggested this is hardly encouraging for the simple reason that the state cannot rely on the non-governmental sector (which contains organisations of various ideological hues) to provide a systematic solution that can be applied across the board. This becomes self-evident on looking at the situation of the Roma. There is no point repeatedly criticising the state for its inaction in this area. However, in order to highlight the inadequacy of the systemic support for teachers provided by the network of Methodological and Pedagogical Centres, two

examples are presented here from a handbook created by a Teach for Slovakia participant who was working in a primary school in the Prešov region. After a series of lesson failures in a class where the majority of the pupils were Roma children who could not speak Slovak, she created materials to be widely distributed among teachers confronted with similar situations as she was. Although it may be possible to explain away some of the criticism aimed at Slovakia's poor record with foreigners, there is no excusing the failures here. It is scandalous that the Methodology and Pedagogy Centres seem unable to provide more systematic support (i.e. resources and guidelines) for teachers who have had to deal with this issue for decades now. Instead, the work of this state-funded organisation had to be supplemented by a young, proactive teacher with no expertise but who was able to sit down in front of her computer and find online resources.

4 Creating a favourable climate

As has been shown child speakers of other languages receive no systematic support in Slovakia. The aim therefore is to find inspiration for preschool teachers who do not have the time, facilities or resources that would enable them to support these children and supply them with additional work.

Astute readers will not need reminding that simply doing language work with the child is not enough on its own. If SAL pupils are to be fully and successfully integrated, then their parents have to be involved as they are part of the cycle and therefore contribute to its effectiveness. But how can we engage parents who may not have sufficient knowledge of the language?

4.1 Communication

The first welcoming step that can be taken to show openness and willingness is to provide leaflets, basic instructions and documents in the parents' language. Alas, it is not a cheap option. Bearing in mind that SAL pupils' parents will come from a wide range of backgrounds, it should not be assumed that they will be able to speak English nor that they will understand how the preschool system works. Preschools that are likely to have relatively stable numbers of SAL pupils could produce information leaflets summarising key documents and forms (e.g. on pupil enrolment) that are appropriate for parents with a minimal understanding of Slovak.

Pictograms are the most popular and cheapest resource and can be used by children as well, as shall be explained. Pictograms – showing easily identifiable pictures – can be used not only to indicate locations but to inform parents about the daily routine, forthcoming activities and activities the child has participated in. That way parents can then ask their children about their day and use the

information to ask further questions, developing their understanding of time and their language skills.

Parents meetings present another challenge. If the preschool is attended by SAL pupils who share the same first language, then separate meetings could be arranged for their parents. If the parent cannot bring an interpreter, a parent with superior language skills should be found who can act as language mediator. Favaro (2001) states that mediators should have four functions: to promote social inclusion; to facilitate communication between the school and family; to support enrolment in school; and to enact initiatives that promote the first languages and cultures.

Here it is worth mentioning that this is a role children can take on as well – one of the pupils in the class could interpret for classmates. They could be children from the same country or a Slovak child who 'looks after' an SAL pupil.

Where the preschool is in shared premises, a cubby-hole system can be used instead. Parental notes can be left in the cubby holes, and that way the notes can be linguistically appropriate and the teacher will know if the parent has collected them.

4.2 Reading together

Knowledge of the official language or language of instruction is also key to the successful integration and subsequent educational attainment of SAL pupils. Language support can be provided through reading together. As noted above, the family may not be highly educated and may need encouragement – they should be welcomed at any time of the day and able to stay as long as they like as many will not what to do even if they are willing. On the one hand, this is one way parents can find out about good literature in both their own language and in Slovak and on the other they can learn about methods to use when helping their children with their homework. They should be given access to the classroom so they can see how the teacher uses the books with the children (especially during the child's adaptation period) and learn what to do themselves. Here, the preschool is like a library – teachers can recommend parents can take home books that are used in the classroom and in lessons for them to read with their children.

In other countries it is common for preschools to organise regular sessions with small groups of parents, who bring their children with them and then read together. The preschools can encourage them to read together: mothers take turns in reading a story to all the children. That way the children hear the story in their own language and in the other languages spoken by the children in the group. The story should always be illustrated and the children can help the mothers pronounce some of the words. The native speakers have an opportunity to hear foreign languages and experience their classmates' everyday life: having to learn to concentrate closely, sustain attention and listen hard – all of which can be tiring.

This strategy of encouraging use of the children's first language in the classroom is often favoured because the proficiency developed in one language is transferable to another, provided there is sufficient exposure to both languages and the motivation to learn. Cummins (2001) believes that the non-dominant[1] languages are a resource for, and not a threat to learning the school language. Preschools do not have the capacity to support first language use in SAL children, but they could employ various bilingual strategies that not only create a positive atmosphere for parents and children but help children recognise different language scripts.

When the children begin preschool, 'Welcome!' signs can be displayed in different languages (the first languages of the children in the class).

The children's parents could be asked to write words in their language (hello, thank you, smile, items of clothing) on a large piece of paper hanging in the cloakroom. The teacher could stick high-frequency words relating to that week's topic on the board. Parents who do not speak Slovak can then expand their child's vocabulary in both their first and additional language, while learning new words themselves.

If the preschool has the latest resources – such as a mini interactive board that records sounds to accompany pictures – the parents could be asked to record the sound of the word to go with the keys. Danish preschool teachers were surprised at how enthusiastically the parents took to this task. The children proudly played the sound, saying things like 'My Dad said that. He's really clever'.

The preschool walls are then filled with multilingual signs and multilingual visuals relating to the topics covered at preschool (parts of the face, main parts of the body, colours, days of the week, numbers and common words like mum, dad, children, teacher). It is not important at this stage if the foreign-language visuals contain grammatical errors.

4.3 Teacher openness

Regardless of the type of assistance the preschool decides to provide, success is always dependent on the teachers being open and willing. Intercultural competence, a term used in this context, is considered essential to the success or failure of any strategy.

Having visited many preschools in Slovakia and abroad, though, these seemingly simple steps are not a given. In a preschool in Palermo, Italy, the teacher used bilingual resources that gave the name of the items in both Italian and Bangladeshi, which has a non-Latin script, and she wrote down the pronunciation

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[1] The term 'non-dominant language' refers to a language that is not used by the majority of the country's population.

in Latin script. She did so of her own accord because she felt she should teach the pronunciation of key phrases and words in the language spoken by many of the children in the class. This self-education paid off when a new girl joined the class and she was able to reassure her in her own language: 'This is a lovely school' – Skula sundara [*Skul sciundor*], 'There are lots of children' – Aneka scisu ache [*anek scisciù accè*].

4.4 Sport and the body

Sport is often thought to offer great potential for integrating different marginal groups, including child speakers of other languages. Encouraging team sports has numerous positive effects, both for the minority groups and the community as a whole. For minority groups it is a way of becoming a fully valued member of the community. Misener and Mason (2006) point out in their article that sport creates opportunities for people to get to know one another, socialise, create contacts, make friends and develop networks. This also applies to preschools as sport and games form part of the curriculum. Sport is important because it does not require mastery of the language; it is non-verbal.

Another important aspect is that physical movement has been linked to language development, which is why there are many language acquisition theories that contain a physical element (e.g. TPR, Asher, 1996). Language development is not simply aided by the non-verbal communication but by the activity itself, which is often associated with verbal communication. All children's sports and physical exercise requires some form of communication, which can initially be reductive non-verbal communication that then develops into comprehension (e.g. understanding the teacher's instructions) until independent language use is reached (e.g. communicating with fellow players) (Masaryková, 2020). One example of the use of sport in second language acquisition is a method developed in Germany (Zimmer, 2009) involving sport and physical exercise for use at the preschool level.

5 Ways of supporting second language development in preschool children

None of the relevant institutions in Slovakia offer special interventions for child speakers of other languages. Instead the onus is on young children developing sensitivity to language cues on their own. The well-established finding that the provision of language support at a young age is important not just for language acquisition but for the child's future as well (Neuman – Dickinson, 2001) has been met with inaction from the Slovak state. Studies on literacy in disadvantaged children show that deliberate stimulation has a positive effect and that there is a need for this kind of intervention (Zápotočná – Petrová, 2017). The Danish

experience shows us that introducing compulsory preschooling in the absence of any additional intervention does not necessarily lead to the desired effect in children's language skills[2] (ECEC Policy in Denmark, 2000). Neither has the inclusive education provided in Italy for many years proved sufficient without further support (Dovigo, 2018).

Preschools have a great deal of leeway to set their own organisational framework, which means they can devote greater attention to developing these children's language skills than primary schools can. Given this greater capacity to promote language development and the nature of preschooling itself, to not provide systematic assistance is nothing less than a wasted opportunity.

In practice, the lack of a specific legal definition covering child speakers of other languages creates complications as schools and teachers cannot claim extra funding for interventions in education and language development or for facilitating (or even enabling) communication with the child's parents. Any additional work teachers carry out to help these children is voluntary and unpaid. Everyday practices therefore differ greatly between preschools as they are dependent on the willingness of individual teachers and heads to take the initiative and develop an interest in teaching Slovak as an additional language.

All the steps for fostering children's language development presented in this article can be used under the existing, albeit less-than-ideal, circumstances found in Slovak preschools, but they do of course depend on the capacity of the teachers and the preschool.

5. 1 Diagnosing the child[3]

The lack of attention paid to teaching SAL pupils in the Slovak school system is also reflected in the lack of available resources for language stimulation and support and for diagnosing children's language skills[4]. There are of course, as has been noted, materials produced for use in English language environments;

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[2] Having found that child speakers of other languages were not making sufficient progress in Danish, the authorities decided not just to make preschool attendance compulsory from a very young age (from the age of one) to ensure bilingual development, but to ensure that additional systematic language support was also provided.

[3] On the potential and difficulty of diagnosing bilingual children, see Linda Doleží, Pavlína Vyšínová, Tomáš Nikolai: Diagnosing linguistic and general cognitive functions and culture-fair tests.

[4] Teachers can use the diagnostics in Communicative Behaviour Test 2 (TEKOS II., Kapalková et al, 2008), available online at www.laboratorium.detskarec.sk. This test is not aimed at child speakers of other languages, but is a standardised test for Slovak-speaking children up to the age of three. However, some of the sections that highlight problem areas in the child's language skills may prove useful to teachers, who can then set additional tasks to target these areas.

teachers may find these useful as an orientational framework for planning support. The strategies the teacher will be able to make use of will depend on whether the child has no knowledge of the language, is beginning to develop initial skills, is gaining confidence or has already mastered the language. Support can therefore range from helping children to understand the everyday context of their classroom, to expanding their vocabulary and grammar or explaining the cultural and social aspects of what is said (Hester, 1990).

5.2 Effective approaches for use in everyday activities

The easiest way teachers can adapt their everyday routines is for them to be conscious of their own classroom language, adjusting it as required. Modifying or supplementing language use could be the first cost-free easy step teachers take to foster additional language acquisition in pupils (Linhartová, Loudová Stralczynská, no date). Many of the recommendations for parents and teachers who communicate with pupils with speech development problems can also be used with SAL pupils. These include adjusting speed, pronunciation, volume and intonation when speaking. Teachers can also modify their syntax so they are 'one step ahead of the child'. In everyday situations the communication strategies of modelling, commenting, repeating and expanding the child's linguistic output should be used (Horňáková, Kapalková, Mikulajová, 2005). One approach recommended by the civic organisation Meta on www.inkluzivniskola.cz is for teachers to write out common phrases to use when doing a range of classroom activities. To ensure a systematic approach is adopted, individual language development plans can be created for the children, taking account of language level and classroom lesson content, with appropriate vocabulary and language that the teacher can cover with the child during spare moments (during free play, breaks, outdoor periods). Before embarking on organised group activities, teachers should briefly cover the topic, vocabulary and structure of the activity with SAL pupils. In addition to focusing on spoken language development, teachers should also encourage written language development and highlight the connection between the two. Reading, and especially listening comprehension, play a particularly important role in young children's language development (Zápotočná, 2017). It is a key component of preschool education and all the crucial aspects are detailed in the Language and Communication section of the State Pre-primary Education Programme (2016). Children whose language skills lag behind the group may be unfamiliar with some of the cultural aspects of reading and require a more individual approach – dialogic reading with a competent adult who can discuss the text with the child and do further activities to help them better understand the text, both explicitly and implicitly.

5. 3 Finding inspiration in special needs best practices

Another low-cost solution is to find approaches used with special needs children and adapt them for use with SAL pupils. However, this does require teachers to take the initiative, think outside the box and be willing to invest the time and energy. Visual props can be used to help reinforce language use on a daily basis in preschools. This method is used with pupils on the autistic spectrum to structure environments, time and work. It helps the children to anchor themselves in the activity or daily routine, making it easier for them to understand and interpret the environment and events and to orientate themselves (Laudová, 2003). They can reassure themselves about what will happen next by repeatedly returning to the visual depiction of the daily routine or class rules, which should be displayed in a visible place. This helps reduce insecurity and fear of the unknown. Another way visual props can be used is to illustrate key words and phrases by showing pictures or photographs when explaining content. The children then find it easier to access the topic and pick out individual words in speech flows. When reading or telling stories, pictures can be used to illustrate the sequence of events, or props can be used to dramatise the events to help the child better understand the text.

Visual props can also be used to help children express themselves at early stages of language development. Another example from special needs practice is communication cards for helping children with communication disorders (primary or symptomatic) to express themselves. These picture cards are used to compensate for pupils' lack of language (Šedibová, 2000). These are perhaps best used during the initial adaptation period. They provide the children with an immediate and effective means of expressing their needs in the new preschool environment.

Further inspiration can be found in resources used to help children with hearing difficulties communicate. Such children often have speech development problems (Schmidtová – Ristvejová, 2017). One strategy for encouraging communication that both teachers and parents can use is to keep a diary. These should be A4 size and unlined. The adult fills the diary with photographs, images, pictures, and the vocabulary and dialogues that occurred in the situation depicted. The teacher or parent creates the diary and it should be a personalised account of the child's experiences, preferences and personal events. The diary content is then used to help stimulate communication as it is a record of all the important things in the child's life and the strong emotional experiences that prompt conversation. Photographs are most effective as they depict the children doing their favourite things with important others. The idea is that the child is most motivated to communicate with those around them when they wish to express their own desires. Hovorková (2017) suggests that appropriate topics that can be

incorporated into the diaries of preschool-age children include daily routines (self-care, washing, helping), everyday life (places they visit regularly, emotions expressed in various situation, daily activities), stories, funny and interesting things, special events and the child's achievements. In addition to creating the diary, it is important that regular time is set aside for conversing with the child and that the focus should be on specific language areas – vocabulary development, grammar, creating sentences, engaging in dialogue, using prepositions and so on. The diary could cover topics linked to lesson content – topics or practising grammatical constructions when discussing the diary content. Last, but not least, writing words or dialogues in print form helps the child understand the link between the written and spoken forms of the language.

5.4 Teaching Slovak through special language courses for preschool children

The third low-cost option and most effective method of supporting language development in SAL pupils is special language courses based around a systematic methodology. This option is more organisationally demanding but is recommended for preschools with larger numbers of SAL pupils. However, it requires the teacher to take the initiative and to prepare and teach group lessons (ideally twice a week). The only widely available and tried and tested method in Slovakia is KIKUS[5].

The Slovak version of KIKUS has existed since 2016. It was developed by the linguist Edgardis Garlin to foster second-language acquisition in 3–10 year olds and is available online (www.inkluzivniskola.cz). Children learn their first language as well as Slovak. The biggest advantage of this early years language-learning method is that it covers Slovak in the required detail. Teachers wishing to use this method in any additional language courses they provide need no training or accreditation. The course takes them through the essential elements of the language and shows them how to develop second-language learning in young children. It provides a fully functional framework that can be modified and added to according to the needs of the teacher and the pupils in the class.

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[5] There is hope that the narrative format model could also be used by teachers. Zacharová Jursová (2019) experimentally tested the narrative format method in a group of children from a marginalised language environment attending a pre-primary class at primary school. The method was originally developed for use with preschool-age children and the principles of the narrative format could prove useful for working with SAL children. However, the method is not freely available and teachers have to have certification.

Conclusion

As suggested by the title this article has focused on possible forms of support for child speakers of other languages that are suitable for use in Slovak preschools. Although there are few refugees in Slovakia, the article has shown that there are children attending schools in Slovakia who do not fall into the legal category of foreign children (and so are not eligible for state support) but who nonetheless deserve attention. These are children who either do not speak Slovak or for whom Slovak is an additional language. The European Union has put pressure on member states to introduce compulsory preschooling. Slovakia is following the trend, and in an effort to raise education levels among minorities (especially the Roma minority) preschool attendance will become compulsory in 2021. In this article the term child speakers of other language has been adopted from the Czech. It can be applied to the Roma population in Slovakia, and, with the introduction of compulsory preschooling, the expectation is that there will be far greater opportunities for language support and intervention in preschools than was previously the case.

However, since the authors of the article are not in a position to directly push for state provision of language and other forms of support for SAL pupils, the aim was to seek inspiration abroad and collect low-cost alternatives for use in the preschool classroom. Although these are not financially onerous, they do require teachers to take the initiative. Well-established methods used abroad were identified and those suitable for use in Slovak preschools were selected. Our research shows that language courses are only available to children aged six and over. But, if investing in preschool education brings better opportunities later in life and in education, then simply relying on children to spontaneously respond to linguistic stimuli is surely inadequate. This article has shown that targeted and systematic support is essential both to young children's capacity to learn and to special preschool education. The experiences of Germany, Denmark and the Czech Republic in this field are evidence of this.

The article therefore provides inspiration to teachers who are not always able to devote large amounts of time, capacity and resources to providing support for SAL learners. It has pointed out that simply working with SAL pupils in preschool is not sufficient. The family must also be involved in communication and in working with the pupil, despite the language barrier. One method that has proved to be both productive and interesting, and to researchers as well, is sport and physical activity. Sport paves the way to cooperation, socialisation and subsequently communication. The children's language acquisition is fostered spontaneously through non-verbal communication and movement. Various approaches have been presented here for supporting additional language acquisition in preschool that are within the capacities of Slovak preschools,

beginning with diagnosis to providing language support in everyday activities, through visualisation, diary-keeping, reading and special language courses.

Although low-cost options for supporting SAL pupils have been suggested, teachers are required to show willingness, use their initiative and to think outside the box. But it is on this basis that the selections were made precisely because, on their many visits to preschools attended by child speakers of other languages, the authors have seen plenty of initiative among teachers and activists alike.

Acknowledgement

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Self-revision and other-revision as part of translation competence in translator training

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Abstract
There are no doubts that the interconnections between translation competence and revision competence are constantly increasing and contribute to better coherence of the translated product. Other-revision may be developed and made use of as a competence on its own. Self-revision is always part of translation competence.
The study is based on students' attitudes towards self-revision and other-revision. Before starting the revision training in practical translation courses, a survey was conducted to determine students' attitudes towards the process of revision, the benefits of self- and other-revision training and the forms of such training thereof. The study also followed a research design where a semi-structured interview protocol was employed to find out the students' attitudes to self-revision and other revision competences including possible modifications to be made in the translated text and skills required. The findings reveal students' opinions and experiences acquired in translation courses at a higher education institution in terms of the revision process and student attitudes prevailing.
Studying these questions may provide helpful theoretical and practical implications about the use and benefit of revision-related activities in translation classes.
Key words: self-revision, other-revision, revision competence, translator training.

Introduction

Revision is an important part of translator competence. The European Quality Standard for Translation Services 17100 (2015) states that self-revision procedure should not be overlooked in the translation process. Revision may be analysed from two angles where a translator is trained to do the revision of a text translated by another translator or to revise their own translated texts. The former procedure is known as other-revision, and the latter as self-revision. Both competences are equally important and require attention within the translator's curriculum (Mossop, 2011; Kelly, 2010; Robert, 2017). Although interconnections between the translation competence and the revision competence are constantly

increasing and contribute to better coherence of the translated product, other-revision may be developed and made use of as a competence on its own, and self-revision is always part of translation competence.

The aim of this study was to determine the significance of other-revision and self-revision in the translator's competence as viewed by students majoring in translation studies as well as the change in students' perceptions towards the reviser's job. Therefore, students' attitudes towards self-revision and other-revision were analysed by conducting a survey before a practical translation course where the revision competence development was also taken into account with the goal to find out whether students see self-revision and other-revision as an important competence to have, how they perceive the benefits of such a competence and to what extent this competence should be trained within the translator curriculum or left for acquisition in professional career. A semi-structured interview was employed after the practical translation course to reconstruct other-revision and self-revision instances occurring in translation assignments with special attention paid to the aspects to be considered when revising the translated text and resources employed in the process of revision. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first study to address revision competence in the Lithuanian language as part of the translator training.

Theoretical implications

As Schaffner (2012) argues, in translator training, "the translation competence involves more than a competence using two languages" (p. 31). In this way, traditional approaches towards the translation competence are questioned. The translation competence is becoming a much broader concept with the revision competence being a significant component. For this reason, many scholars support the idea of revision competence training (Biel, 2011; Rassmusen & Schjoldager, 2011; Declercq, 2014; Hansen, 2009; Ipsen & Dam, 2016; Murphy, 2013). As noted by Declercq (2014), the revision competence shares various subcompetences with the translation competence.

Hansen (2009) defines revision as a competence which "requires additional skills, abilities and attitudes, and/or enhanced level of competence in certain areas" (p. 274), which is in line with Mossop's (1992) description of revision where he states that the skill of justifying changes is vital for a translation student in order to acquire the revision competence, which highlights revising skills rather than retranslation.

In this study, the revision competence is considered as the translator's competence to perform self-revision and other-revision. Mossop (2011) defines self-revision as the revision by the original translator. Other-revision may be two-fold: revision by a second translator or revision by a non-translator. In certain

cases, it may involve the monolingual revision of the translated text only, while in other cases the target text may be compared with the source text (Scocchera, 2017). In this study, revision by a non-translator is not analysed due to the fact that the research is conducted with the purpose of testing the revision competence in the study programmes of translator training.

Self-revision

Different approaches to self-revision are maintained by translators. How they do revision is highly dependent on translator's personal preferences and/or text peculiarities. Some translators do not revise at all after they translate the text fully because they put much effort to the translation process of a particular text refining each sentence until near perfection. Meanwhile, others first make a draft translation and then focus a lot on self-revising until the text is complete and impeccable. There is also a possibility of constant updates and revisions while still in the process of translation. Some authors note that experience may play a role in assuming one or the other approach. Dimitrova (2005) found that translators with experience tended to make fewer changes than less experienced translators in the revision stage. Experienced translators concentrate more on issues related to the target language and pay little attention to accuracy (Dimitrova, 2005). Text peculiarities that could have input on self-revision may be the translator's awareness and understanding of a domain-specific text, its length and time frame for translation (Mossop, 2011). According to Shih (2013), two revision patterns exist: when a translator performs one or more checks resulting in substantial changes in the target text or one or two quick checks of the translated text.

Other revision

The term other-revision is sometimes interchangeably used with the term revision, which refers to the process when a person other than the translator corrects typographical, factual, logical, accuracy or other errors, if any, in order to improve the quality of the translated text (Ipsen & Dam, 2016). However, the term revision, as advocated by Robert et al. (2017), should not be used to refer to self-revision, but only to that performed by another translator. Although Mossop (2011, p. 137) argues that "revision by a second translator adds considerably to the cost of translation, and to the time required to complete a job" and sometimes for this reason may be skipped, currently such an approach is changing and there are fewer and fewer of such cases due to the ISO 17100 standard requirements for a translation service provider to ensure that the target language content is revised (2015).

Revision procedures and parameters

The studies that focus on revision procedures are still scarce although the revision competence is already considered to be one of the most vital competences for a professional translator to have. Not only are the resources on the topic limited, they do not represent one unified theoretical framework because they provide guidelines on revision procedures grounded on personal individual experience, revisers' opinion obtained through surveys, interviews, think-aloud protocols, or conducted experiments (Ipsen & Dam, 2016; Kunzli, 2007). For example, 5 types of revision procedures were identified by Brunette (2000): didactic, or formative, revision involving a comparison of the source text and the target text; translation quality assessment measuring the quality according to a certain checklist; quality control assuring compliance of the target text with the requirements set in advance; pragmatic revision involving the target text fine tuning by a reviser who is not familiar with the translation; and fresh look involving compliance the reader's expectations.

Although, different approaches towards revision procedures exist, what has been definitely agreed on by different scholars is the division of revision procedures as based on the monolingual and comparative or bilingual approaches (Robert, 2008; Mossop, 2007). In monolingual revision, the most important changes to be made seem to be related to language and logic with usually no reference to the original text; meanwhile, in comparative or bilingual revision, there should be a consistent reference to the source text, which seems to be a prolonged activity but may pay back in more accurate and complete, and thus higher quality, translation.

In any type, monolingual or bilingual, certain parameters of revision are to be taken into account. Mossop (2014) defines four major groups of revision parameters: transfer, content, language and presentation. In the transfer group, the parameters of accuracy and completeness are the means by which the translation of the source text is evaluated. Accuracy refers to the message of the source text and completeness refers to whether the message transferred is full and does not add or subtract anything. The content group includes parameters of logic and factual errors. Logic errors refer to either illogical translation or the source text being irrational when the translator chooses to follow the original text due to domain-specific incompetence. Factual errors occur when the translator introduces mistakes in data transference, which are not even noticed by the reader if left in the target text. The language parameters involve smoothness, sublanguage, tailoring, idiom and mechanics. Smoothness refers to errors in text cohesion, flow and readability. Tailoring takes into account the audience and the purpose of the text. Sublanguage is related to tailoring but focuses on the appropriate genre, field and terminological issues in the target text. The parameter

of idiom refers to the use and representation of formulaic target language. Mechanics refers to issues in grammar, spelling, punctuation as well as the house style. The last group of parameters – presentation – deals with aesthetic aspects of the translated text: layout, typography and organisation. Layout has to deal with spacing, margins, indentations, etc. Typography refers to fonts and formatting, and organisation to headings, page numbers, table of contents, etc. These twelve parameters defined by Mossop (2014) are so far most easily and universally applied in various studies on revision.

However, according to Allman (2008), not all parameters are necessarily present in each type of the revision. In monolingual revision, issues of accuracy and completeness may not be taken into consideration by a reviser. Depending on the requirements of a client for a particular translation, parameters of layout, typography or even organisation, i.e., presentation, may not be relevant. In different circumstances, different parameters may take priority by a reviser who should be able to choose appropriate revision parameters for a particular translated text and a particular situation. Therefore, translator training curriculum developers should consider the best ways and solutions for enhancement of the revision competence.

Revision procedures and parameters

In tertiary education, curriculum is based on the paradigm with prevalence on the learning centred approach resulting in competences acquired by students. The focus in studies on student-driven pedagogical approaches is crucial for a modern curriculum, as defined in various documents of the Bologna process (Rico, 2010). The current European standard for translator training is the European Master's in Translation competence framework for 2018-2024, which defines five main areas of competence, namely those related to language and culture, translation, technology, personal and interpersonal and service provision (2017). One of the important learning outcomes listed is related to graduates' know-how to "[c]heck, review and/or revise their own work and that of others according to standard or work-specific quality objectives" (p. 8). Coblis (2008) identifies the revision competence as one of the value added translation services among technical writing, localisation, translation into B or C languages and similar. The researcher argues that "such activities as technical writing, subtitling, software and web localisation, authorised translation and revision < ... > should be accounted for in the curriculum" (p. 138).

This means that the translator training curricula should include training of the revision competence. This competence may be trained in different ways. As noted by Robert et al. (2017), the curriculum may even include a revision course to prepare graduates with specific and generic competences. Hansen goes even

further to indicate that revision training should comprise at least 25% of translator training because, in fact, the revision competence and the translation competence are closely related but slightly different (Hansen, 2008, 2009). The assignments training the translation, and in turn revision, competence deeply depend on types of teaching and learning activities and how much they "reflect on team and group work, in-class and out-of-class activities, support and mentoring" (Kelly, 2010, p. 92). Therefore, in different social contexts, the curricula cannot follow one and the same content structure. Another crucial factor to lead to successful training is the student profile, i.e., students' prior knowledge, personal features, learning approaches, expectations and motivation as well as the degree of homogeneity (Kelly, 2010). As noted by Huang (2018), working styles of students majoring in translation are also crucial for improvement of their acquired competences.

Methodological implications

Retrospective interviews were carried out approximately one week after the assignments in revision training as the aim of the interviews was not to make the students report on everything they did during the assignments based on the fact that typically students are only able to recall their thoughts immediately after doing the task (Christensen, 2011; Flanagan and Christensen, 2014) but rather evaluate the procedures of self-revision and other-revision. All the interviews were conducted in adherence to an interview protocol in order to obtain reliable data. The interviews with the subjects (n=17, aged 21-22 years old, 14 women and 3 men) were conducted in English, recorded, and transcribed. The subjects were third year students in a undergraduate translation study programme who had already had two practical courses on translation where they were trained revision procedures as well. They were all native speakers of the target language with English as their first foreign language. All of them had English language level C1 skills. During the practical translation courses, they were asked to do self-revision and other-revision of translated texts in their native language. Besides, a specialised course on revision training takes place in the third year. The interview questions and the interview procedure underwent the interview protocol refinement framework which supports the efforts to strengthen the reliability of interview protocols used for qualitative research and thereby contribute to improving the quality of data obtained from research interviews (Castillo-Montoya, 2016). The questions asked during the interview were related to revision training (namely, regarding attitudes towards the acquisition vs training of the competence at university studies), revision competence obtained (namely, regarding experience gained before the translation courses at university), and self-revision or other-revision (namely, regarding the assignments used to develop the competences and prior knowledge in the target language).

A survey was conducted with students on the parameters that are important in doing self-revision or other-revision. Closed type questions with a yes-no option for an answer were formulated. The survey was based on Uotila's (2017) suggested questions with reference to Mossop's (2014) proposed transfer, content, language and presentation groups of revision parameters (accuracy, completeness, logic, facts, smoothness, tailoring, sublanguage, idiom, mechanics, layout, typography and organisation). A yes-no answer possibility was chosen because students do not have a real life experience of translation yet and are only developing a revision competence.

Results and discussion

The survey's results were ranked according to students' opinion about the parameters taken into account in self-revision and other-revision. Figure 1 illustrates students' choices of parameters to be considered when doing self-revision.

All the students (100%) marked two parameters as the most significant: accuracy and one of the mechanics parameters representing grammar, spelling and punctuation. The latter parameter may have been chosen by all the respondents as important because in training translation into their native language aspects of grammar and punctuation are emphasised as very important. The parameters that received the lowest attention from the students were idiom (46%) and one of the text tailoring parameters representing reader's expectations (68%). The parameter of idiom refers to idiomatic and formulaic language elements; therefore, as the revision competence was trained on the target text in the native language, the parameter of idiom may not have been indicated so often because the students might take the text for granted when they do not see any clear mistakes standing out or they do not have enough experience in self-revision and do not clearly understand what aspects are most important. The fact that reader's expectations are not taken into account by all the students may be related to their insufficient training of the revision competence.

Other parameters that were less frequently indicated by the students as important in self-revision were related to facts (70%), smoothness as represented by clear understanding of the text upon its first reading (70%), sub-language (64%) and one of the mechanics parameters representing the house style (64%). Due to the lack of professional experience, students may not even know what kind of requirements are meant by the house style and, therefore, may not see the point in paying attention to the requirements, which is in contrast to the norms in professional translation. When translating for a client, house style requirements are a must to keep to. Other parameters were represented by the respondents' answers as follows: completeness as represented by omissions or additions

(94%), logic as represented by incoherence (94%) and logical sequence of ideas (94%), smoothness as represented by cohesion (88%), tailoring as represented by purpose-fitting translation (82%), layout (94%), typography as represented by correct fonts and formatting (82%) and organisation as represented by document logical structure (88%) and headings, page numbers, etc. (82%). In general, when the students think what they do during self-revision, all the parameters are present to a very high degree in their responses, except for the parameter of idiom and the reader's expectations. This may be due to the fact that they lack professional experience and revision competence training has not been finalised in their curriculum.
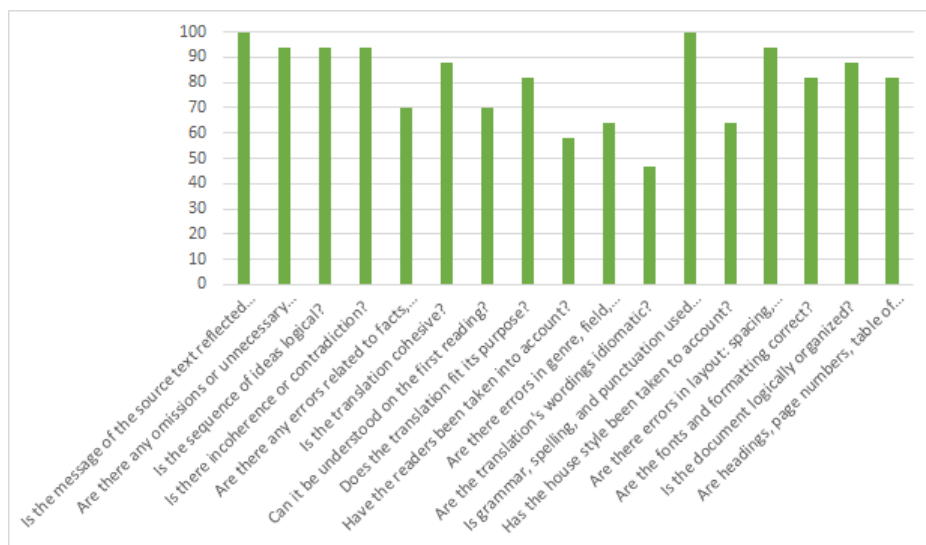
Fig. 1: Manifestations of revision parameters in self-revision

Figure 2 illustrates students' choices of parameters to be considered when doing other-revision. In general, the students agreed that many parameters were important in other-revision as well. One of the mechanics parameters representing grammar, spelling and punctuation was indicated by all the students (100%), like in the case of self-revision, which may result from the fact that the native language of the respondents is extremely formalised, there is an exclusive attention to the grammar and punctuation issues at a secondary school as well as university, and there is an extremely advocated language preservation policy in the country. Other parameters that students highly agreed upon were organisation as represented by headings, page numbers, etc. (100%), organisation as represented by logical

structure of the document (94%), layout (94%), sublanguage (94%), tailoring as represented by the purpose-fitting translation (94%) and logic as represented by logical sequence of ideas (94%) followed by lower scores given for accuracy (88%), completeness (88%), logic as represented by incoherence or contradiction (88%), smoothness (88%), idiom (76%), facts (70%), tailoring as represented by the reader's expectations (70%), and mechanics as represented by the house style (70%). The parameter of typography was marked by a smaller number of the respondents accounting for only 64%.
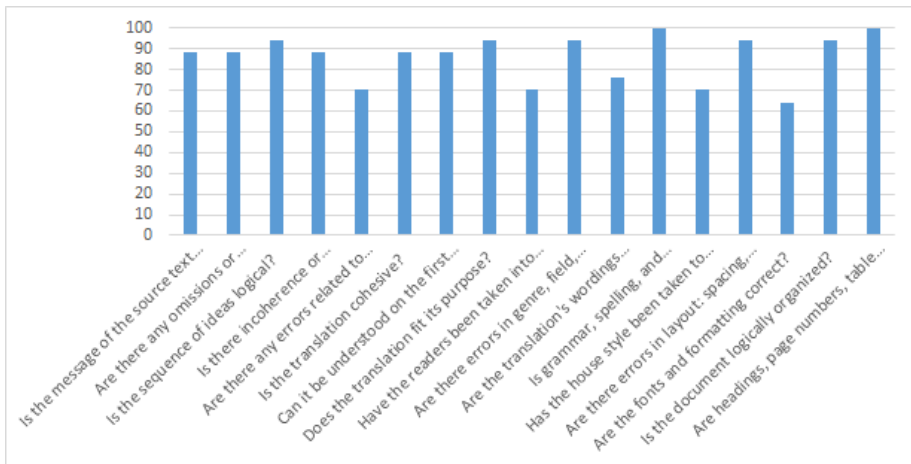
Figure 2. Manifestations of revision parameters in other-revision

The comparison of the parameters chosen by the students in self-revision and other-revision demonstrated the greatest gap in three parameters: idiom (47% in self-revision vs 76% in other-revision); sublanguage (64% in self-revision vs 94% in other-revision); and tailoring as represented by reader's expectations (58% in self-revision and 70% in other-revision). Of note is the fact that, in these three cases, the respondents marked the parameters more often when they thought about other-revision in comparison with self-revision. However, one more parameter which was assessed very much differently in self-revision and other-revision was typography (82% in self-revision and 64% in other-revision). This might be due to the fact that in other-revision the parameter of typography is not considered very important because students may not know the requirements for a particular text that they are revising. Overall, such discrepancies may result from the students' inexperience and lack of training in revision. Therefore, in the design process of the curriculum for translator training, special attention should be paid

not only to translation competence development, but also to an overall aim and objectives as outlined in many European standards for translation training and service provision.

This study is based on revision competence training in the native language, which may have an impact on the respondents' preferences in self-revision or other-revision. Since Lithuanian is a highly preserved language with an exclusive focus on language competence development in schools and universities, the students may have shown preferences for the parameters that are closely related to the linguistic and textual competence, rather than technical presentation parameters, like layout, organisation and typography. However, in a different culture and learning environment, the results of a similar survey may be more diverse depending on the existing linguistically-bound traditions.

During the interviews, the respondents were asked questions related to the benefits of revision training, to the ways how the revision competence may be obtained, and self-revision or other-revision. In terms of revision training, the students were asked whether they thought the revision competence was an advantage for a translator. The absolute majority of them mentioned that this competence was an advantage. They see the revision competence as crucial in ensuring that their translated text is high quality. Some students see revision as a competence allowing them to spot not only their own mistakes but also to identify mistakes made by other translators, as well as to acquire a greater skill of noticing details. A few students mentioned the competence of revision as an advantage for a translator to have in the employer's eyes. Doing revision opens more options for students to be good at, which means that they are more flexible in being able to choose other types of jobs than only translation. The revision competence was identified as a means to critically assess one's work. Overall, since revision assignments are given to students on a regular basis, they express no doubt that the revision competence is part of the translator's work and is a valuable asset for a translator to have.

When the students were asked whether they thought the revision competence could be trained at university or only be acquired through professional practice, the answers provided were very diverse. Some students noted that university training could allow them to acquire the revision competence. Other students thought that university training was not enough as translators could develop their own patterns of revision over time applying some theoretical guidelines. However, a number of students thought that most of this competence could be gained only through practice, e.g.,

> *Theoretical knowledge is also important and it should be combined together with the practical exercises.*[1]
> *It is possible, as the translator could develop their own method or pattern of revision over time. Some theoretical guidelines may be analysed as well; however, most of this competence would be gained through practice.*

Since all the students had very minimal experience of translation outside the university (on the average up to 2 months), they emphasised the importance of theoretical background acquired by way of university training and thought that the knowledge on revision could be helpful when they had to choose the most effective revision patterns in their professional career.

As the greater majority of the respondents thought that the revision competence could be trained at least to some extent at university, they were asked to elaborate on the types of assignments for developing the competence. They provided different answers on how to train self-revision and other-revision. To train the self-revision competence, the students mainly noted the discussion with the peers and the teacher as well as getting more formal feedback from the teacher, e.g.,

> *It could be required to submit a self-revised version of your work after a group discussion with the teachers and students. Students could be required to discuss with the teacher the cases that required revision in their translations throughout the term and could keep a journal of the revisions or type of revisions.*
> *Revising your own work during the lecture and at home. Some tasks could also involve revision of some particular mistakes while translating. Also, gathering your own translations and editing them after some time has passed.*

To train other-revision, the students offered a number of types of assignments to be included into the curriculum, like exchanging translated texts to be revised by peers, doing tasks with particular mistakes, doing revision tasks in a group, e.g.,

> *Group revision … teacher and students … of someone's work and then peer revision, one person revises the other's work and vice-versa. Analysis of a revised and pre-revised work.*
> *We can revise texts of our groupmates, give them feedback, and the teacher should check the revision afterwards.*
> *Revising works of other people. Having tasks with particular mistakes, so you would pay more attention to them.*

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[1] The language of the extracts of the students' answers obtained in the interviews is original.

One of the facts to be noted here is the absence of trust in peer feedback. The students mainly see the teacher as the authority in final identification and correction of mistakes.

The students see self-revision and other-revision assignments as helpful, but in general they tend to keep to the opinion that one of the key factors in consolidating the revision competence is experience. Nonetheless, at the same time they realise that having this competence gives them an advantage in the eyes of employers.

The respondents were also asked to expand on the skills that were vital to self-revision and other-revision. On the one hand, as regards self-revision, they stressed language-related skills, like excellent knowledge of grammar, punctuation, vocabulary and the style how the text should be written. On the other hand, some of them mentioned the skills representing transferable applications, like concentration, research skills, critical thinking, etc., e.g.,

> *Critical thinking, language, grammar knowledge, editing tools knowledge (e.g., track changes), concentration, focus on small details, research skills, to know where to search for rules and examples.*
> *Language competence, observation skills, you need to be self-critical, knowledge of grammar, ability to identify mistakes, attention to detail, distance yourself from your belief that you know everything, knowledge of functional styles.*
> *… concentration, being objective, linguistic knowledge, IT skills …*

In relation to skills that are crucial for other-revision, the students demonstrated similar attitudes and provided identical answers in terms of the importance of source language and target language related skills. However, they also gave priority to interpersonal skills, e.g.,

> *Ability to defend your opinion, linguistic knowledge, ability to search for the best solution when communicating, teamwork skills are important.*

Thus, in revision competence training at university, the curriculum should not only focus on the translation or linguistic competences, but also on a more profound development of transferable skills, since the students find them useful and valuable for their future career, especially in the instances when they have to deal with assessment of their peers. This finding could be noteworthy for future development of different courses in translator training, having in mind that employers also appreciate transferrable skills in professional environment as they lead to faster adaptation to working successfully in group projects, taking leadership, etc.

The last question asked was related to the students' understanding of the reviser's job before they were trained to do self-revision and other-revision in a

practical translation course taking into account their current experience and knowledge. Some students answered that there was no change in their understanding of what a reviser does and what aspects s/he should take into consideration, e.g.,

> *My idea of what a reviser does has not changed. A reviser looks through the text, regarding to both sentences and the whole text itself and searches for various mistakes and errors that could be fixed.*
>
> *My opinion about the job of reviser was pretty much the same as it is now …*

The vast majority of the students highlighted that before the courses the main focus in the reviser's job in their understanding was on the sentence level, e.g.,

> *I thought that a reviser had to check for language and formatting errors mostly sentence by sentence rather than review the text as a whole.*
>
> *I thought that a reviser mostly concentrates on grammatical mistakes, coherence, and sentence structure … so all of the things you can correct without outside sources. But now I see that a reviser has to look outside the text quite often to check the factual information, terms and so on.*

Some students noted the importance of taking the reader into account and seeing that the text fits its purpose, e.g.,

> *The initial idea of what reviser does stayed pretty much the same after the translation course, but I could say that some new tasks of a reviser came up that I didn't think about before, e.g., identification of a reader. We thought a reviser mostly focuses on grammatical, punctual errors. And the rest of mistakes are not as important. We think now a reviser is supposed to focus on a text as a whole instead of just dissecting the text sentence by sentence. Also, the reader should be taken in account.*
>
> *I thought a reviser mostly focuses on grammar, lexical, punctuation mistakes, errors, etc. And that the rest is not that much important. Now I think that a reviser is supposed to have his/her focus on a text as a whole instead of just picking and checking it sentence by sentence. Also, the reader should be taken into account.*

A few students emphasised the importance of a correct transfer of cultural aspects from the source language to the target language, possible audience, overall flow and readability or fluency of the text, e.g.,

> *I thought that a reviser had to check for language and formatting errors mostly sentence by sentence rather than review the text as a whole. I think now that a reviser should review the text in its entirety, taking into account the possible audience, overall flow and*

understandability of the text, as well as potential cultural aspects of both the source language and the target language.

To sum up, the analysis of the students' responses to interview questions demonstrated that they had a particular understanding of what revision means and what a reviser does even before they started training. However, it is clear from the majority of the answers that this understanding has changed over time, mostly due to different revision-related assignments in a practical translation course. It has to be noted that the competence of self-revision and other-revision is not difficult to develop throughout the study period, especially, when students understand the significance and possible added value of having such a competence for their successful future career. The current situation in the employment market requires the universities to adapt to challenges. Translators are not trained only to translate anymore. Apart from the linguistic, technological and translation competence, they need to acquire a number of other skills and competences. Intercultural, interpersonal, communicative, information mining and research, project management competences and other skills are no less important. Development of all these competences and skills presents a challenge for universities involved in translator training.

Concluding remarks

The translation competence and the revision competence are undoubtedly highly interconnected. This interdependence contributes to better coherence of the translated product. Although the number of studies in this field is increasing, no unified terminology or theoretical framework exists. Research-based know-how in the training of the revision competence is still under-developed. Although the training of this competence is supported by official documents like ISO17100 standard and EMT guidelines, its practical implementation into translator training curricula still faces challenges. In a university curriculum, the focus should be on the paradigm with prevalence on the learning centred approach resulting in competences acquired by students. The results of the conducted study reveal that students identify the revision competence as very beneficial for their successful future career. Their attitude towards training of the revision competence at university is generally positive, but they also tend to acknowledge that experience and practice are important factors in acquiring the full command of the competence.

However, the findings also demonstrate that students' awareness of the revision competence, which is being developed during university training, is mostly concentrated on language-related issues. In doing self-revision, most of the attention is paid to the sentence level, including punctuation, grammatical structures, wording, etc. This might be due to the fact that there is a strict language

preservation policy in Lithuania. Technical presentation parameters, like layout, organisation and typography, are not considered by students of paramount importance to the quality of a translated text being revised. In relation to the other-revision competence, students demonstrate similar attitudes, but they also emphasise the significance of interpersonal skills related to critical thinking, research and information mining, communication, i.e., to the skills representing transferrable applications. In a different culture and learning environment, the results of a similar study might be more diverse depending on the existing linguistically-bound traditions.

Therefore, further analysis of the revision competence in translator training might be beneficial as it may demonstrate most appropriate revising patterns that students might tend to choose in doing self- and other-revision. It is equally important to study similar aspects comparing novice and experienced translators, revision practices in countries with different cultural and linguistic traditions as well as make differentiations based on the gender or age. A longitudinal study of the same respondents as they continue their training at university and start working in professional setting might likewise provide helpful implications.

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Perception of factuality in selected online news media

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Abstract

The paper focuses on one's perception of factuality in selected online news media. A group of university students of English were approached and presented with ten statements about Sweden and asked to evaluate their truthfulness. Half of the group (informed respondents) were then advised on the ways media use to infer a narrative onto the reader, potentially influencing the way they view events, while the other half (uninformed respondents) were not made aware of this fact. The respondents were then presented with a news report describing a specific event that took place in Sweden; however, half of each group were asked to read its tabloid description while the other halves were shown the event as reported by a broadsheet (both online). They were then asked to reevaluate the statements they were presented with before and decide whether their opinions changed based on the article they had just read. The results suggest that one is inclined to believe what they read, regardless whether the source seems reliable and whether they are aware of the fact media might manipulate their audiences.

Keywords: perception; factuality; online media; broadsheet; tabloid

Introduction

It has become a cliché to suggest that mass media have a great effect on their audiences; it, however, does not make the fact any less true. Many people (including myself) have stopped watching the evening news on television, as they doubt the information they are presented with is either reliable, or impartial. At best, it is altered in a way that catches the eye of its recipient – not uncommonly in a negative way, arousing one's interest by shocking them. I believe those who have decided to only search for information they truly need for their everyday life in resources they find reliable have done so for a reason – to avoid all the surplus constructed negativity they realise they could do without. Nevertheless, based on my personal experience, many have got used to being shown images and told information they find interesting mainly due to the fact they find it shocking. The

fact they believe it to be true is suggested by the great number of shares such links get on social media. Gervais (2017) claims that people no longer see the difference between a fact and one's opinion, which brings about a threat of people believing someone's opinions simply because they accept them as fact – they see something in written form; thus, they assume it must be true.

Personally, I still occasionally find myself clicking on something that catches my eye but always research its truthfulness before sharing such a link. Many people might, however, not be aware of some of the reasons (if one is to be sceptical, it could be said there is only one reason behind it all – money) behind only partially true, or entirely misleading, information published online, such as media trying to achieve the highest possible attractivity and secure high audience numbers; click-baiting campaigns purely focused on trying to get a reader to click on something they find interesting (only to find out the article provides hardly any information on what the original link promised) for advertisement-based financial gain. Once again, my own experience tells me that even the most intelligent of people are prone to be swayed and are sometimes likely to trust what they have been told just because it supports their already acquired view of an issue. (According to Knobloch-Westerwick (2015), selective exposure theory or paradigm suggests that people choose information and resources that support, or confirm, their already formed views of certain issues.) Others, perhaps due to their trusting nature, might not even be aware their views are being manipulated. It does happen, though, whether we like it or not and whether or not we are aware of it. Holiday (2012), who claims to be a media manipulator that decided to share his secrets with the reader, and, in his words, turn his talents "from exploiting media vulnerabilities to exposing them" states that one should be aware of the times "[w]hen the news is decided not by what is important but by what readers are clicking", or "when the cycle is so fast that the news cannot be anything else but consistently and regularly incomplete", as that is when "media manipulation is the status quo".

Seeing the documentary *A Tale of Two Swedens* on BBC World News (Gatehouse, 2018) on how the information one is presented with might be altered and what the final result and effect could be on those who blindly accept and adopt it, gave me the idea to conduct a small-scale research study to find out whether one is likely to believe what they read even after being told the source might be unreliable. With this in mind, I approached a group of university students of English in order to determine to what extent they still trust the information they were presented with even after being told media do not always share news in an entirely truthful manner.

Broadsheets and tabloids as online news media

The press industry is, in many ways, no different from any other industry. It employs people who are good at what they do while, still, always thinking of profit as one of their topmost interests. When one buys a product by a renowned brand and is disappointed with the product, they might lose their trust in the brand and stop buying their products. There are still many, however, who believe it was a one-off failure and believe the next purchase will be worthwhile. While "[n]ews is a money making industry" and "[o]ne that doesn't always make the goal to report the facts accurately" (Serani, 2011, online), broadsheets and tabloids alike have large numbers of loyal supporters. Prior to the internet era, print media, radio and television dominated the news market. Although there have always been some that kept their content and the ways they presented it sober; there have also been those that are rather sensational and prefer to put form ahead of contents. Online media might differ from print media in the way they reach their audiences; still, the same criteria apply regarding differences between broadsheets and tabloids (in other words 'quality press' and 'popular press') – they vary in the ideological value they contain and also the topics they cover. They frequently report on the same topics while their viewpoints are slightly (and sometimes not so slightly) different. As Preston (2004) suggests, broadsheets tend to commit to in-depth coverage and investigative strategies to news providing, the overall tone of news being moderate and the texts being of lengthier range. Conversely, Rowe (2011) claims that the content provided by tabloids has a strong commercial emphasis and populist vernacular, they feature shorter articles and the attention is drawn to images and the headline. According to Turner (1999), the tabloid press offers entertainment at the expense of information, sensationalism over accuracy. Richardson and Stanyer (2011) examined the readership of the two formats and found out that broadsheet readers are interested in factual stories and reports on domestic issues rather than life style topics or gossip. Generally, broadsheets appeal to readers with a better level of critical thinking who tend to be well-informed. Broadsheets are significant for their fact-checking and researching processes and hard news prevalence; Rowe claims they also devote much effort to refining codes of ethics (Rowe, 2011). The same source suggests that tabloids do not place emphasis on how they collect and present their product, or what it is based on. During the period of tabloidisation, "entertainment […] superseded the provision of information; […] measured judgment has succumbed to sensationalism […]" (Franklin, 1997, in Sparks & Tulloch, p. 215, p. 91).

Since, in the present day, the audience plays a greater role in the production of news, they also help decide on the content of news coverage. This contributes to changes in the freedom and objectivity of the press. As McNair (2006) puts it, in an online world overfull with news from an enormous range of sources (not each of

them being reliable and credible) and hoax messages or half-truths, the audience is positioned between what news to believe to be true and what is only an effort to obtain the greatest readership number of visits on online websites. Since the audience is now seen as consumers, they have an immense power to either glorify the online news source and return to it or completely reject it and move their attention away. Based on Herman and Chomsky's model (1988), a media literate audience knows the boundaries and the restrictions news organisations have; however, they are mature enough to have the possibility of being informed and want to trust the information the organisations' news reports contain. Bingham (2005) believes that too much speculation and not enough reporting is very often seen in news coverage. The same source, furthermore, claims that journalism lacks self-criticism. Connel (1998, in Sparks & Tulloch, p. 215) provides a rather elaborate definition of tabloids when she claims that "a 'storytelling' news style, which, in focusing on personal narratives about individuals, gives predominance to [...] the sensational over analysis and rational description, and entails a growing use of dramatic techniques [...]" (her inverted commas). The media critic and journalist Roy Greenslade (2004, in Johansson, 2007, p. 7) blames tabloids while calling them "illiberal, reactionary, negative, pessimistic and infected with a sentimentality which appeals to readers' emotions rather than their intellect". The same source also claims "they appeal to the basest of human instincts". It is said that tabloids draw upon and strengthen the features of popular journalism. The tabloid style leads to the creation of a public idiom, proposed by Hall (1978), by which newspapers are linked to their readers' everyday life. Ultimately, it will always be the reader who decides what they find more attractive – factuality or sensation.

Media manipulation

"Media manipulation exploits the difference between perception and reality. The media was long a trusted source of information for the public. Today, all the barriers that made it reliable have broken down. Yet the old perceptions remain" (Holiday, 2012, online).

The above quote might partially explain why people still trust sources that have proved to be unreliable. Some audiences do not question what they are shown or told, unaware of the fact some media merely pretend they produce quality news that was once "classified as journalism without adhering to any of the standards or practices that define it" (Holiday, 2018, xiii). The parallel with supporting other industries out of loyalty mentioned above is in place here as well. These would be those consumers who trust their favourite brand and refuse to abandon it, simply because it had provided them with good service; they might even feel it is part of

their image, or part of who they are.[1] While such cases are only potentially harmful, provided the low-quality product one still buys affects their health or well-being in some way, media who present news filled with information they had altered have a great potential to change the way their readers think which, as a consequence, may have a great impact on large groups of people.

Unfortunately, it seems that "media manipulation currently shapes everything you read, hear and watch online" (Holiday, 2012, online). A great number of resources would take any measures to guarantee high numbers of audiences and, since people like to be shocked (Varghese, 2016), they exaggerate the information they present in the effort to make it more attractive. Arousing fear in the audience is a whole (not so) new issue used in (not only) online journalism. "Fear-based news stories prey on the anxieties we all have and then hold us hostage" (Serani, 2011, online). It is true, however, that some sources might not be 'guilty' of intended manipulation. The case simply might be they neither have enough time, nor make enough effort to check the level of factuality of what they are to present. The same author claims that "[t]he need to get-the-story-to-get-the-ratings often causes reporters to bypass thorough fact-checking" (Serani, 2011, online). Whether the views of the audience have been swayed by purposeful misinterpretation of facts or a lack of effort to present the truth, the effect might still result in "potentially harmful consequences in society" (Uribe & Gunter, 2004, p. 388).

As it is tabloids that are infamous for not checking the accuracy of their ouput, they seem to be potentially more harmful in their post-reading effects. Altough they rarely present political news, when they do, they are very selective in their coverage and decide to on the basis of whether it befits their agenda of news or when the covered political issues may be presented in a sensational way (Conboy, 2006). Consequently, the agenda of tabloids is weightily rooted in national-popular discourses and leads to important political after-effects. Taylor (1992, p. 409) claims that a prevailing motivation for tabloids is profit not ethics; therefore, tabloid journalism is considered "the direct application of capitalism to events and ideas". It is said that, instead of a rational public sphere, they provide a melodramatic one (Langer, 1998).

With the above findings in mind, I decided to approach a group of university students of English with the effort to find out how they perceived the factuality of the coverage of the same event by two different media – a broadsheet and a tabloid. In other words, what effect the way a selected tabloid presented facts had on their

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[1] Another parallel might be seen in the case of football fans who "stick with their favourite team through thick and thin", disgregarding the fact their form or success has long since 'gone downhill' and maintain that they are proud supporters.

beliefs while, at the same time, studying whether those who have read the report of the same event by a selected broadsheet were left feeling more optimistic. Moreover, and this was of paramount importance, I was interested to find out whether making one aware of media potentially manipulating the way they report on events changes the way they perceive information they are presented with regarding the level of factuality.

Research characteristics

The present research study was conducted with the aim of finding an answer to the two following questions:

1. *Do informed readers (those who are aware of features typical of broadsheet and tabloid media and potential manipulation) perceive the factuality in online news media differently to those who were not previously informed?*
2. *Does readers' perception of the same event depend on the type of source (an online article from a broadsheet versus one from a tabloid)?*

A group of university students of English were approached and asked to give their opinions on ten statements regarding Sweden, either based on their general knowledge or intuition. Consequently, half of them (the informed group-to-be) were presented with some typical features of broadsheet and tabloid newspapers with the emphasis on the fact tabloids tend to provide information only truthworthy to an extent. The respondents were then asked to read an article – half of them being presented with a broadsheet article describing a specific event in Sweden in an impartial way, while the other half were shown a text published by a tabloid, showing the event in a much darker light. All the respondents were then asked to reevaluate their opinions and mark those that changed as a direct consequence of reading the text they were asked to read.

Target group

A group of 180 respondents (all students of English at the University of Prešov, Slovakia) were approached and asked to participate in the present research study. Half of the group (90 students) were presented with Article A (sourced from the tabloid *The Telegraph*), while the same number were asked to read Article B (originating from the broadsheet *The Guardian*). Since the research was carried out during the author's lessons, the numbers of students within the respective subgroups are not completely equal; still, they are in close approximation (cf. Table 1).

Informed group (90)		Uninformed group (90)	
Article A	Article B	Article A	Article B
44	46	48	42

Tab. 1: Numbers of respondents within individual groups

Research material and methodology

At the very start it should be pointed out that the subject matter of the articles the respondents were presented with had no bearing on the research aim. The key decisive factor in selecting the material was the way information was conveyed rather than the topic they covered. For argument's sake, it could have been any controversial issue, such as religion, politics, gender-related events, etc. However, as Sweden is often presented in black and white (as a highly liberal country where everyone is equal and gets a chance to fulfil their potential which, conversely, also opens its doors to less well-meaning individuals who then 'ruin it for all') and the coverage of events that take place in Sweden is plentiful, it seemed to be a good topic to use for the present research. Since Slovakia also faces a potential influx of immigrants, many misinformed Slovaks feel the need to fear such an event with the vision of the country being slowly overtaking by 'dangerous' people of a different religion, I felt presenting articles covering an event where immigrants to Sweden are mentioned as an issue the respondents might find worthy of their attention. First of all, the respondents were presented with a questionnaire and an article (cf. below) and their individual responses were recorded. A quantitave method was used to arrive at the results, making use of simple descriptive statistics, expressed in percentages. The findings are shown in Table 2 below and are commented on in the paragraphs following it.

Questionnaire

All the respondents were approached in person and presented with a questionnaire in print form, which guaranteed a 100% return rate. They were supposed to mark whether they were male or female and whether they represented the informed or the uninformed group (the informed group were presented with the typical features of broadsheets and tabloids, pointing to the fact tabloids often present data in an emotional and 'not-always-reliable-and-truthful' manner). They were then asked to read ten statements about Sweden, focusing on how safe they believed living in Sweden to be and how they viewed immigrants to Sweden, their task being to decide whether they believed each statement to be true or false. Alternatively, they could express a lack of information by writing a question mark next to the statement in question. The following ten statements were presented to all respondents:

1. Sweden is a highly liberal society.
2. Sweden is a safe country to live in.
3. Sweden is home to a high number of immigrants.
4. Most Swedes feel safe in their own country.
5. Immigrants are responsible for the rise in certain crimes in Sweden.
6. Young girls need to watch out for immigrants at festivals.
7. Immigrants are often unfairly blamed in the media for certain crimes.
8. Immigrants have been rightfully blamed for the majority of rapes in Sweden.
9. Large Swedish cities are becoming unsafe to live in, especially for young women.
10. Media are a reliable source in providing crime-related information.

After they have completed the questionnaire, the respondents were then presented with one of the two articles (cf. below). Consequently, they were asked to revisit the questionnaire and express their views one more time, marking those statements of which they changed their opinion as a direct consequence of having read the article they were assigned.

Articles
All the respondents were presented with an article printed from the website of either the selected tabloid or the selected broadsheet, as having them read it directly off the screen would be much more demanding on the organisation of the research. Both, Article A and Article B, covered the same topic – crimes attributed to immigrants in Sweden, which is an issue commonly featuring in media and often presents contrasting views. Two sources were carefully selected for the purposes of the present research (both accessed online) based on their bias – *The Telegraph* (a tabloid/conservative source) and *The Guardian* (a broadsheet/liberal source). Since "the information expressed in the headline is strategically used by the reader during the process of understanding in order to construct the overall meaning […] before the text itself is even read" (Van Dijk, 2017, p. 50), it was believed the respondents might be able to sense in what kind of source the articles originated, without being explicitly told which article was published by the tabloid and which one was sourced on the website of the selected broadsheet. Text A was entitled *Swedish music festivals hit by reports of rapes by 'migrants'* and was suggestive of the event bearing the following features: *five reported rapes and nearly forty instances of groping*; *fresh reports of sex attacks involving young asylum seekers*; *an anonymous 15-year-old girl who [said] no fewer than five of her six friends had been sexually molested by "foreign youths" stressing [the boys] were "not from a Swedish background. They were probably immigrants"* (Orange, 2016, online).

		Informed group			Uninformed group		
		Pre	Post		Pre	Post	
	Statements		A	B		A	B
S1	Sweden is liberal	82	64	43	69	67	48
S2	Sweden is safe	82	32	26	78	33	33
S3	Lots of immigrants in Sweden	49	77	61	44	75	52
S4	Swedes feel safe in their country	62	18	30	62	33	43
S5	Rise in crime due to immigrants	58	64	22	53	75	19
S6	Girls to be careful at festivals	49	91	35	53	92	38
S7	Immigrants often unfairly blamed	62	27	91	64	25	95
S8	Immigrants rightfully blamed	20	73	13	35	50	19
S9	Large Swedish cities unsafe	47	68	65	36	79	52
S10	Media are a reliable source	31	27	13	24	25	24

Tab. 2: Respondents' views on the factuality of statements pre- and post-reading the coverage of a selected event by a tabloid and a broadsheet *(Source: own processing)*

Text *B* bore the heading *Blaming the Swedish festival rapes on migrants isn't just wrong – it's dangerous* and, among other things, stated that "*more than 50 cases of sexual assault were reported across two Swedish festivals*" while pointing out that "*the police later admitted that only two of the seven men or boys arrested […] were from HVB homes (residential homes for young people, often refugees without parents)*" and that "*there's even less evidence […] the rapes […] were carried out by immigrants – but the two were instantly lumped together*" (Pollard, 2016, online).

Research results

The present section presents the findings of the research conducted for the purposes of the current study, aiming to find out (1) whether informed readers (those who are aware of features typical of broadsheet and tabloid media and potential manipulation) perceive the factuality in online news media differently to those who were not previously informed and (2) whether the readers' perception of the same event depends on the type of source (an online article from a broadsheet versus one from a tabloid). Table 2 below shows key extracts of the statements the respondents were presented with in the first two columns, followed by columns presenting the results in percentages, individually for the informed and uninformed groups – pre-reading and post-reading, the latter being

further subdivided into the group who had been shown an article from a tabloid (A standing for Article A) and those who were asked to read an article from a broadsheet (B standing for Article B). The percentages in which the most significant changes occurred are highlighted.

Due to lack of space, only shortened versions of the statements appear in the table maintaining their main points. The respondents were presented with the statements in their entirety (cf. the section on *Questionnaire* above). 'Pre' and 'post' stand for views as given pre-reading and post-reading respectively. A and B mark Article A (by the selected tabloid) and Article B (by the selected broadsheet), respectivelly.

Based on the statistics presented in Table 2, a considerable number of respondents approached lost their belief in *Sweden being a highly liberal country* (Statement 1) after reading either of the articles. While prior to reading, as many as 82% of the informed and 69% of the uninformed group believed the statement to be true, those who had read the broadsheet article in both (informed and uninformed) groups lost their trust in the concept even more so than those who had read the tabloid article (64% and 48% respectively post-reading). Further research would be necessary to confirm whether the event covered in the two articles made the respondents (especially those in the informed group) more sceptical regarding Swedish society being highly liberal but it could be assumed this was the case. The level of belief in *Sweden as a safe country to live in* (Statement 2) plummeted from 82% and 78% (in the informed and uninformed groups respectively) to the range between 26% and 33%. Clearly, the data provided in both the articles scared the respondents regardless whether they were informed or uninformed. This suggest that, at least in the group of respondents approached for the present research, readers seem to believe what they see in written form, as suggested by the theoretical background provided in the first part of the paper.

The difference in the respondents' perception of the data provided by the two articles when Statement 3 is concerned is rather interesting – although no statistics regarding the *numbers of immigrants living in Sweden* was provided, many more of those respondents who had read the coverage by the tabloid in both, informed and uninformed, groups felt there was a high number of immigrants (77% and 75% respectively) than those who had read the broadsheet article (61% and 52% respectively), while only 49% of the informed and 44% of the uninformed respondents believed the statement to be true prior to reading the articles. This result seems to support the above stated idea that tabloids might be responsible for implying information with, potentially, harmful effects for society.

Statement 4 pointed the respondents' attention to whether or not *Swedes feel safe in their own country*. While, pre-reading, the score in both informed and uninformed groups was identical (62%); the tabloid article disillusioned most of the more optimistic uninformed students, whose score plummeted to 18%. The other three groups (uninformed respondents presented with Article B, the informed group shown Article A and those who read Article B) also scored much lower than prior to reading either article, now achieving 30%, 33% and 43% respectively.

Whereas 58% of the informed respondents believed *immigrants to be responsible for the rise in certain crimes in Sweden* (Statement 5) pre-reading, as many as 64% of those who had read the tabloid article while only 22% of those who had read the broadsheet believed this to be true post-reading. The difference was even more staggering in the uninformed group where the percentage of those who had read the tabloid increased by 22% (from 53% to 75%), while the percentage of those who had read the broadsheet article dropped greatly plummeted to 19% (the difference of 34%). Statement 5 was the first instance where the information provided to the respondents who were to read Article A seems to have caused a rise of a mere 6% (from 58% to 64%) in contrast to the uninformed group where the percentage of 'believers' in immigrants being responsible for the rise of certain crimes in Sweden rose from 53% to 75% (a difference of 22%). The difference between the informed and uninformed groups having read Article B was nowhere near as significant (22% in the informed and 19% in the uninformed group).

The most marked difference was recorded in Statements 6, 7, and 8 regarding *decreased safety of girls attending music festivals* (Statement 6) and whether or not *immigrants have been rightfully blamed for certain crimes*, or, specifically, the majority of *rapes by the media* (Statements 7 and 8). While a similar number of respondents in both groups (49% of the informed and 53% of the uninformed respondents) were of the opinion that young girls needed to watch out for immigrants at festivals prior to reading, the tabloid article seems to have caused a great deal of unease in 91% of the informed and 92% of the uninformed respondents. Those having read the broadsheet, on the other hand, thought there was a cause for concern only in 35% and 38% of respondents in the informed and uninformed groups respectively. Whether or not immigrants to Sweden have been unfairly or rightfully blamed for certain crimes (and, specifically, the majority of rapes) was a concept tested in Statements 7 and 8, in both of which major differences prior and post reading were recorded. While 62% of the informed group and 64% of the uninformed group (so, truly, numbers not really far apart) believed immigrants to be often unfairly blamed in the media for certain crimes, only 27% (informed group) and 25% (uninformed group) having read Article A

(tabloid) now trusted in immigrants being blamed rather unfairly while 91% (informed group) and 95% (uninformed group) of those having read Article B (broadsheet) believed immigrants to be innocent. This instance seems to have caused the most significant differences. In the informed group, the percentage of those who believed immigrants were often unfairly blamed dropped by 35% after having read Article A, while the number of those having read Article B increased by 29%. In the uninformed group, the percentages changed by 39% (a drop in those who had read Article A) and 31% (a rise in those who had read Article B). Whether the respondents were informed or uninformed does not seem to have played any significant role in this instance. Statement 8 was formulated in a contrastive manner in comparison to Statement 7 pointing out the rightful blame of immigrants for the majority of rapes. Prior to reading the articles, only 20% of the informed and 35% of the uninformed respondents believed blaming immigrants was a rightful action. A staggering result was recorded in the group of informed respondents who had read the tabloid article where an increase of 53% occurred (from 20% to 73%) while only a 7% difference (that being a drop) was observed in those having read the broadsheet. The results were less notable, although still highly significant, in the uninformed group where an increase of 15% (from 35% to 50% in Article A's readers) and a decrease of 16% (from 35% to 19% in Article B's readers) was recorded.

Statement 10 was rather general claiming media were a reliable source in providing crime-related information. Here, prior to reading, 31% of the informed ad 24% of the uninformed respondents believed the statement to be true. The views of those having read Article A did not change significantly post reading in either group (27% in the informed and 25% in the uninformed group) and neither did those of the uninformed respondents who have read Article B (24% both prior to and post reading). The only significant difference was recorded in the informed respondents having read Article B who now only trusted Statement 10 to be true in 13% of cases. This instance (alongside Statement 5 claiming the rise in crime is to be attributed to immigrants) was one of the only two where informing the respondents of the features typical of tabloid and broadsheet media, pointing out potentially presenting information of lowered factuality, seems to have made a significant difference. What, however, seems much more relevant is whether one reads tabloids or broadsheets. In other words, the fact that a respondent is aware of the features of the two above types of (online) news media does not seem to sway their perception of factuality. Instead, they tend to believe what they read, be it in the emotionally coloured information found in tabloids or the more factual nature of broadsheet articles. Although the results only relate to the group of respondents involved in the research, they still suggest online news media are a powerful tool responsible for a number of notable beliefs in readers.

Conclusion

The present study was aimed at finding out to what extent the approached respondents believe news reports published by selected online media to be factual. Two research questions were stipulated. The first one discussed whether informed readers (those who are aware of features typical of tabloid and broadsheet media) perceive the factuality in digital news media differently to those who were not previously informed. The results suggest this is not true, as the percentages were consistent – similar results were recorded throughout in both the informed and uninformed groups of respondents (apart from Statement 5 where, in the informed group having read Article A, there was a rise of a mere 6% (from 58% to 64%) in contrast to the uninformed group the increase was much more significant (from 53% to 75%, a difference of 22%). It seems that, in most statements (eight out of ten), informing the respondents of the ways typically used by tabloids to infer a narrative onto the reader, potentially influencing the way they view events, did not make a significant difference.

On the other hand, the results suggest that the answer to the second research question, formulated in an effort to find out whether a reader's perception of the same event depends on the type of source (an online article from a tabloid versus one from a broadsheet), is positive. The differences between the group having read the tabloid article and those having been presented with a broadsheet article were rather dissimilar. The most significant differences were found (as presented in Table 2) in Staments 6, 7 and 8, where changes (increases or decreases) between 15% and 53% were recorded in the group having read Article A (tabloid), while the percentages showing the changes in views of those respondents who had read Article B (broadsheet) only ranged between 15% and 39%.

The above findings are, in my view, rather interesting and suggest that the respondents' views might have been manipulated by the way the information was presented to them by the selected articles. Although the results only apply to the groups in question and further research would be necessary to find out whether the results would be consistent in the entire population, they are still suggestive of ideas put forth in the theoretical part of the present paper. I believe that, in order to prevent potential harm caused within society, one of the following is necessary: either people realise they truly cannot believe everything they read, or media are made obliged to only publish truthful information. In spite of my optimistic nature, I doubt either is going to happen. I am, however, hopeful that the present study points to the ease with which a source of information can raise negative emotions in a person, causing them to form negative views of events and, by effect, towards certain groups of people, and how careful one should, therefore, be when forming them in the first place.

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Historical Bratislava in literary fiction and film adaptation

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Abstract
The aim of the paper is to characterize the city of Bratislava after the First World War as a literary space in the short story *The Worst Crime in Wilson City* (Najhorší zločin vo Wilsonove) and its film adaptation *Wilson City* (Wilsonov). For millions of Czechs and Slovaks, the US President W. Wilson was a legendary figure. The multi-ethnic city wanted to gratify him and suggested to name itself after him. This short episode of our history was found interesting for a Slovak writer Michal Hvorecký, who set a mysterious (horror) short story in Wilson City (Bratislava). The topos of the city became the basic organizational, or, structural element on which the story is built. In the film adaptation of the Czech director Tomáš Mašín there was a generic shift and the film became a detective comedy, or parody of historical events that happened (or could have happened). The paper focuses on the motif of the city and compares this urban space in the literary and film form. It tries to answer the question whether the city – space is only a backdrop of the story or it becomes its (role)player.
Keywords: motif, literature, film, adaptation.

The aim of this paper is to analyze the depiction of the city of Bratislava, the capital city of Slovakia, after the end of the First World War in the selected novel and film. The city was for several months named *Wilson City* after the US President Woodrow Wilson who was a legendary figure in Czechoslovakia after World War I. People even called him "the defender of democracy" or "the apostle of freedom". For millions of Czechs and Slovaks he symbolized "American help" in gaining independence and America's responsibility for the fates of small, oppressed nations. His photographs were found in offices, schools or other public places alongside the portraits of President Tomáš Garrigue Masaryk. Many public places were named after President Wilson, including the railway station in Prague, many streets, squares or hospitals – and one city in Central Europe.

In December 1918, the German city of Pressburg was turned into an independent city under a new name – Wilson City. It was just a comic episode, which serious history does not record in detail, originally a manifestation of a naive effort to defend the city for Czechoslovakia. There was a targeted promotion of the city through postcards, maps, and stamps. The idea of Wilson City had been maintained for months despite the surrounding countries´ attempts to overtake it. On October 24 the Pressburger Zeitung wrote that Pozsony was renamed to Wilsonstadt and it is to become the capital of Slovakia, meeting the demands of American Slovaks. The report was published as an illustration of the great role attributed to today's Bratislava in the envisaged division of Hungary. It was to become a residential and, at the same time, a Czech university city. However, Pozsony was also claimed by Austrian Germans, which created a big chaos when its new name was under discussion. There was a large selection of city names to choose from: *Prešpurok, Prešporok, Prešpork*, or *Wilsonov*, *Wilsonovo mesto*, *Wilsonstadt*, also *Bratislava*, respectively *Bratislav* (Dvořák, 2012). It is necessary to note that in the period after WW I the city was ethnically diverse (German, Hungarian, Jewish, Czech, with a Slovak minority).

Town (city) as a literary space

The historical development of the town/city image in Slovak literature has only partially been studied in Slovak literary studies. The town setting began to be used in Slovak literature only in Realism in the 1870s. As a motif, it was used as a response to the new era, new situation in society and culture. Urbanization was a result of the contemporaneous modernization, being a new phenomenon that people connected with changes in lifestyle. While in the period of Slovak Realism the literary depiction distinguished between the town (mainly Slovak environment) and the city (Budapest, Prague, Vienna, etc.), in the period of modernism also Bratislava was depicted as a city. The small town was presented as ours (Slovak) and the city as something foreign, that is unknown (especially topographically, spatially), other (in terms of customs and morality), or linguistically different. A wider value scale applied in the literary image of the city points to the fact that although at the beginning the individual urban motives (scenes, situations) were stabilized and conventionalized, the stereotypes were not permanent, unchangeable in nature but dynamically changing, depending on a chosen author's strategy, or, more precisely, the application of aesthetic or non-artistic requirements or ideological criteria (Slavic – non-Slavic category). The literary image of the city refers to contemporary mental images closely related to identity. In the case of Slovak literature, it was often a national identity, so the question of ethnicity becomes a key issue in the attitude towards the depicted environment (Hučková, 2011). The space of the city is seen as unclear and considerably differentiated in terms of searching for ethnic signs. Ethnicity

intervened not only in individual identities but also in group attitudes and caused more or less inter-ethnic conflicts (Luther, 2001).

According to J. Lotman (1990, p. 261–263) the most important topological symptom is the border. The whole spatial continuum of the text, which reflects the world of the object, forms a kind of topos. This topos is always present in some way, because space is always filled to humans in some way. According to Lotman, it is not important that in some cases the filling tends to approach the writer's (or reader's) real environment, but that behind a certain background in which the characters move a system of spatial relations, that is, a structure of topos, arises and this structure acts as a language expressing the non-spatial relationships of the text.

In Hodrová's theory, the city appears in literature in three different ways. First (and most often), we observe the city as an environment in which the storyline takes place, suggesting that in a literary text it is never a neutral background; it always acts as a generalizing symbol of certain interpersonal relationships and structures and is associated with certain ideas. Furthermore, one can observe the city in the role of the object (in travel guides, partly in novels), and last but not least, urban space becomes a character, it can act as a kind of subject in personifying metaphors; while personification of the city in poetry is quite common, in prose this phenomenon could be considered symptomatic (Hodrová, 2004). Every place on earth, as well as in the world of literary fiction, is endowed with a specific atmosphere. Genius loci speaks primarily to the inhabitants of the space, who more or less identify with it. A good example of such space is the city. All cities have their stories. The labyrinths of city streets, human dwellings, but above all the intricately interwoven strands of the city's interpersonal relationships create an environment for unprecedented narrative development. Most of these stories are about specific cities, creating specific genius loci of individual urban units (Janeček, 2009).

When analyzing the topos of the city, not only in the fictional world, it is assumed that the notion of the text, which primarily belongs to the field of linguistics and is understood as a synonym of a literary work, now passes into other disciplines. We see the city as a text in motion, a system never culminating, unfinished and happening, as an open dynamic system. This is logical, as it results from the immediate contact between the literary text and the outside world. The text is made up of countless intertextual fibers, and therefore its decryption is a dynamic and unfinished process. In terms of textuality, the city is seen as a text in motion, a system eternally undermined, unfinished and happening, as an open dynamic system (Hodrová, 2006). According to this theory, we can distinguish between the text of the city and the city (urban) text. The text of the city means a "lived" city, the real space of the city which represents a certain

sum of other texts, such as the system of streets, allusions to other cities and also literary texts written about the city. A city (urban) text is a literary text in which the city is somehow present – as an object, a background of a story or a space of existence. There is a mutual rewriting relationship between the two texts, where the structure of the text of the city is written into the structure of the city (urban) text and vice versa (ibid.). This relationship is interconnected by a network. The network of the city as a text is something very dynamic, even alive, vibrating, expanding and contracting, developing or tangling. It is a network and a wave, a system of relationships – channels and current flowing through these channels. The city thus penetrates into literary texts in the form of text – networks of real and potential networks, explicit and implicit, and the field is generated by these networks. The field of the city is present in literary texts as a network of real named places but also anonymous or even fictitious places. The city enters literary texts through networks of past and literary cities. The city (urban) text carries the features of the city, its myth, e.g. repetition, heterogeneity, variability, intertextuality, fragmentation. The city is present both explicitly and implicitly in the text. It becomes the "accomplice" of murders (Hodrová, 2004).

Bratislava as a motif or a character

This paper works with the hypothesis that the city is a key motif in modernist literature. Many literary works reflect the ways in which cities cause confusion, exhilaration, alienation, anonymity or thrill. The author of the selected literary work, Michal Hvorecký, emphasized the realistic depiction of reality, he wanted a real depiction of the place, a description of the facts (scene and setting) and the topography of the individual parts of the city.

The image of Bratislava does not appear very often in Slovak literature, for example in comparison with Budapest which is portrayed ambivalently – on the one hand negatively, with ideological beliefs about the negative or destructive impact of the city. Pest, and later Budapest, was often portrayed as a city of moral decline and moral destruction, even as a factor negatively determining the life of Slovaks. On the other hand, it was also depicted as a venue for great politics and a place of decision-making. It was depicted through the fate of Slovaks – Slovak immigrants, settlers confronted by a new environment, as the city exerting a negative impact on Slovak characters, usually portrayed as innocent and defenceless, and, in the ideology of the period, even exposed to poverty and embodying danger of national revival, or forgetting mother tongue and using Hungarian language. A different situation is, for example, in the depiction of Prague – the Slavic metropolis of the fraternal Czech nation. The city is often depicted based on sympathy, which is nationally and patriotically motivated. The most

fragmentary is the literary picture of Vienna, but the topography of Vienna is quite rare in the texts (Hučková, 2011).

In the 1920s, Bratislava (Wilson City) was a heterogeneous city in terms of social stratification of its population, language and ethnicity. Hvorecký emphasized the realistic depiction of the setting, wanting a real depiction of Bratislava in the 1920s, a description of the facts (scene and setting) and the topography of the individual parts of the city. In the story, one encounters contemporaneous image of the city, presented as a kind of mosaic of dramatic observation of facts and real people with a vivid picture of its "physiology". The text is documentary in many places, giving their accurate topographic picture accompanied by archive maps, photographs, images, and, of course, a dramatic plot. The story is captured lively; the reader is immersed into a photographic sequence of the character's actions and narrator´s observations. The work provides an objective report on the state of the city, its inhabitants and life. The documentary character of the city is connected with the fictional character of the stories, giving the author an opportunity to move smoothly from the factual level to the narrative one.

When analyzing and interpreting literary texts portraying non-Slavic cities, one may note that if the work is set in a foreign environment, the authors usually use a foreign language to express the "foreign" (capturing local specificity) (Hučková, 2011, p. 518). As far as the short story *The Worst Crime in Wilson City* (2001) and its film adaptation *Wilson City* (2015) are concerned, it is interesting to follow the axis "domestic" – "foreign" within the framework of the language. The linguist Mira Nábělková (2007) claims that the use of a language code always opens up some new space, updates certain associations, connotations that the author may leave behind, or, rather deliberately, in the structure of the work. At the same time, focusing on the linguistic heterogeneity of some literary works turns this attention backwards to the forms and functions of multilingualism in previous periods and to compare them with its current functioning. In this short story, we do not perceive the foreignness of the environment, or the ethnic difference of characters based on language, for the author presents the city as a dynamic complex in which different nationalities, social classes, and religions coexist evenly, simultaneously, and all have the same denominator – the residents of Prešporok, Pressburg, respectively Wilson City. We could label it as a "melting pot", a place of mixed heterogeneous society that becomes homogeneous, with its different elements or features somehow intertwined and, consequently, mixed into one harmonious whole. In the film, the "foreign" is more pronounced – the character elements of individual characters are hyperbolized, parodied, or strongly stereotyped.

In the short story, Hvorecký understands the city as a part of the story, as a "living organism". The characters move through particular streets, pass particular

buildings, the narrator watches them in a particular neighbourhood, turns them into mysterious spaces, streets of a crumbling city. As a part of storytelling, streets, houses and religious buildings are connected, in a manner typical for Gothic novels. The space in the short story as well as, though to a lesser extent, in the film, is not only the backdrop, but becomes the subject and the player of the story. Space acts as a text. There is a relationship between the character and the space of the short story. Space influences the flow of action and the actions of the characters – in the film it is expressively captured through the dynamics of music and darkness/light. The protagonists of the story, together with the space-city, enter into a dynamic relationship with each other. The space of the city in the book seems to be ritualizing, linearity changes into a cyclic movement. The author often clings to the city´s architecture, to various buildings, city landmarks, having the city thus portrayed in the presence of storyline. Hvorecký oscillates between an abstract city, dreamy, not coming from this world, and a specific urban space, thus obviously based on real environment. The topos of the town is the basic organizational or structural element on which the story is built. For example, a dynamic structure is created by a quick walk or running of the protagonist around the city and this description of the journey is commented by the narrator. The narrator and characters immerse themselves in the atmosphere created by the postwar Wilson City. It is a space that hides secret, mystery, a restless, dangerous space, fulfilling the characteristics of the "urban space phenomenon".

The film Wilson City was created with an intention of its producers to use the motives of the story *The Worst Crime in Wilson City* by Hvorecký. The story was based on the absurdity that Prešporok or Pressburg (today's Bratislava), wants to become not only an independent city state, but the 49th state of the USA. In the film we see the city as a protagonist. It lives its own life (smoke from chimneys, bells ringing, people in the market, in the streets). The city affects the flow of the plot and action of the characters (light – positive passage of the story, dark – negative). The main characters enter into a dynamic relationship with the city. In the film, the movement of characters in the city space is often ridiculed, parodied, the action of the protagonist is thwarted, or the secret is undetected, the case unresolved. Thus the plot escapes and falls "deeper". The viewer can see a number of allusive contexts, parodic or mystifying shifts. In the film, the emphasis is on depicting a kind of existential "brutality" of the city; dynamism is built on bizarre, grotesque and mystifying play, where reality suddenly changes into fantasy and parody. It is a mixture of profane with mythical, serious with humorous, tragic with comic. Grotesque images that sarcastically or ironically refer to the inadequacy of some values or stereotypes make the film unique. The poetics of its adaptation has common features with the film grotesque, which was predominantly an urban genre. The actors in the grotesque move along the streets, in close proximity to

vehicles, move in the crowd and create images of random encounters of beings and things.

The author of the short story tried to create in the alternative version of the history of the city (Wilson City), which would have the attributes of a metropolis with a secret, a kind of "magic city". He could take inspiration from various world capitals, such as London and Paris, which are found in various stories. Prague could have also been an inspiration during the reign of Charles IV and Rudolph II. The power of the center, the memory and the spiritual energy which boils and settles in the city are significant in Prague (Hodrová, 2006, p. 50). The city, which flourished during the reign of Charles IV, is interesting for its personalities, scientists, artists, but also cheaters and charlatans. Alchemy and astrology are very popular. The mysterious atmosphere of the so-called Rudolphine Prague depicts various mystical elements, a mysterious ghetto with a romantic ancient cemetery and blood-splattered old synagogue due to religious fanaticism, the mystery of a rabbi who performed miracles (Krejčí, 1981, p. 97–100). So what is the city with a secret? Hodrová (2006) believes that if there is any secret of the city (the soul of the city, the genius loci, the myth of the city), it does not hide somewhere in the city, but is present in the perception of the city itself. Just as in Rudolphine Prague, in this short story the center of interest is in the Jewish ghetto of the city. In Prague, the ghetto is the center of Prague magic where the ghost of the giant clay statue of Golem was born and Prague Jewish legends or urban legends were created. In Wilson City, the Jewish ghetto is the scene of mysterious murders committed by a necromant.[1] The author describes this currently unknown part of Bratislava[2] based on historical documents from the 1920s. Hvorecký presents Wilson City as a mysterious city, tested by the fate of war. The city acts as a backdrop here, with each of its districts having its own justification for the dynamics of the plot. The narrator leads the protagonist around the distinctive city landmarks and mysterious streets, giving the fictitious story a real basis in the historical documents and maps. Wilson City by Hvorecký then can be seen as a topography of the city, supplemented with maps and pictures, as a story of murders in the Jewish ghetto, it can be seen as an investigation by a New York FBI agent Food, since the author accurately depicts specific detective practices from this period supplemented with an interest in occultism and the practice in investigation. The necromant is characterized here as a spiritual principle that embodies not only the atmosphere of the city, but, above all, the strangeness and mystery of the Jewish ghetto.

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[1] Necromancy is a kind of black magic, <u>divination</u> involving the <u>dead</u> or <u>death</u>.

[2] Later, the Jewish population almost completely disappeared as a result of the destructive power of Nazism, and socialism removed the Jewish quarter from this multicultural metropolis (Dvořák 2012).

There is a significant generic shift in the film, pushing the level of mysteriousness into the field of the grotesque and parody. Therefore, the investigation of mysterious murders in the Jewish ghetto is also held in bizarre and often absurd circumstances. The topographic element and the depiction of Bratislava from the 1920s is absent from the film. Likewise, the occultism and detective practices of Agent Food are parodied and intended to entertain the viewer. Unlike the story, the film depicts the coexistence of people in Wilson City of different ethnic groups and religions. While the short story does not perceive the Jewish ghetto as something "foreign", the city is portrayed as a homogeneous mass, in the film this "foreignness" is hyperbolized and displayed in contact between individual minorities or ethnic groups, even people of different skin color. The screenplay was also enhanced by the character of Detective Food's assistant (slave), who has an African-American origin and people react with disrespect. Ironically, at the time of the plot, that is, after the First World War, slavery no longer existed in the US. The other ethnic groups are depicted as stereotypically as possible: a Jew as an Orthodox, a Hungarian with strong moustache (but also a woman – naive and uneducated). The film knows no taboo, offends all and everyone – politics, celebrities, communists, marriage, love. This makes the story much more dynamic and confusing, even the content of the character replicas is saturated.

Conclusion

This paper aims to characterize the motifs of historical Bratislava in a selected literary work and its film adaptation. A common feature of the story and the film is the city and the Jewish ghetto, in which mysterious murders have taken place. The primary objective of our research was the topos of the Wilson City, its dynamic and static nature. The city was presented as an important organizational element of the literary work as well as the film. In the short story and in the film, the fictional story takes place in a real urban space, in the book it is even a strictly descriptive factual space of the 1920s. The characters in the short story and in the film immerse themselves in the atmosphere created by the postwar Wilson City. It is a space that hides a secret, a mystery - in the film it is a restless and dangerous space. The topos of Wilson City is not only the backdrop, but becomes the subject, the actor of the story. There is a correlation between the characters and the space that influences them when they enter into a dynamic relationship with the city. The story refers to a number of cultural-historical problems and issues that were directly related to a particular historical-political situation in a given period, and on this basis the author either creates an alternative reality (the short story) or parodies the situation (the film).

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