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Questions and Verbal Feedback and Their Implications on Thai Undergraduate Student Participation

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Abstract

This study investigated effects of teachers' questions and verbal feedback on student participation in three undergraduate English conversation classes. The research instruments were observations, a questionnaire, and interviews. The results showed that for the question types, referential questions were the most frequently asked questions in two classrooms and display questions were more common asked questions in one class. Regarding effects of display and referential questions on student participation, longer student responses were elicited by referential questions (3.6 the average words per a referential question, but about 2 words per a display one). Concerning the verbal feedback types, the results showed the high occurrence of interactional feedback in all classes. For effects of evaluative and interactional feedback on student participation, surprisingly in two classes evaluative feedback was associated with longer statements and answers than interactional one. In terms of student satisfaction on questions and verbal feedback, from the questionnaire results it was seen that the students were satisfied with referential questions and interactional feedback. Another interesting result from the questionnaires was that the students were motivated to participate in classroom discussion by both teachers' questions and verbal feedback. Regarding the effects of teachers' questions and verbal feedback on student participation in general, the verbal feedback was associated with a bit longer statements and answers than the questions (3.4 the average words per verbal feedback, but about 3 words per question). It can be concluded that in these classes, both questions and verbal feedback had the potential to be supportive of different aspects of student learning. Since questions and verbal feedback allows teachers to increase or reduce students' opportunities for discussion, it is necessary to select the appropriate type to support students' participation. Teachers should develop their use of questions, verbal feedback, and aim for patterns of classroom communication that are appropriate for students' abilities, interests and motivation.

Keywords
question, verbal feedback, student participation

One of the most important problems for English teachers in Thai university classrooms involves an inactive classroom activities; where students are unresponsive and avoid interaction with their teachers. As Forman (2005) observed, Thai students maintain considerable verbal reticence in the classroom, in particular the English classroom. This happens when teachers look for an interaction such as asking questions to the whole class. Sometimes students do not answer their questions because they do not know answers, but often students do not answer although they understand questions, know answers, and are able to answer. Ten years later, Thai students were still passive in the English classroom (Teng & Sinwongsuwat, 2015). As Nunan (1996) explained, student's "learning style will result from personality variables, including psychological and cognitive make-up, socio-cultural background, and educational experience" (p. 168). According to the researcher's teaching experiences, Thai students do not like to speak in class or even ask questions when they do not understand and need more clarifications from the teacher. This may be because of the fact that they feel shy or hesitate to talk to the teacher in English. Thai students are worried that teachers might not understand what they say, which may be from their poor accents or incorrect pronunciation. Moreover, this may be that in Thai culture students are taught to respect teachers. Consequently, they do not usually feel comfortable asking questions or giving opinions because they are taught to be quiet and defer to teachers. This was confirmed in Saengboon (2002 cited in Teng & Sinwongsuwat, 2015) that "Thais are not supposed to challenge and confront teachers or superiors" (p. 15). Thus, students communicate with teachers by using body language rather than by speaking for example, agreeing or disagreeing, understanding or not understanding by nodding, shaking head or express facial actions. Therefore, this is a responsibility of teachers to encourage more classroom interaction between students and teachers.

According to Long's Interaction Hypothesis, the interaction in classrooms will lead students to better learning and activate their language competence (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991). This view is further supported by Abebe and Deneke's (2015) student participation in EFL classroom study. They explained that when students respond to teachers' or other students' questions, requests, and comments, they actively involve in expressing and clarifying their intentions, thoughts and opinions, which are necessary to language acquisition. Brown (2001) declared that the most important key to creating an interactive language classroom is the initiation of interaction by the teacher. Regarding the interactive language classroom, Kuutila (2014) stated that, "teachers can increase students' willingness to communicate by behaving in a supportive and enthusiastic manner and by being genuinely interested in their students and in the students' learning process" (p. 16). Teachers' interests in students' contributions can be

seen from their talk. However, normally the distinguishing features of teacher talk can be summarised as teachers ask plenty of questions, initiate discussion topics, and attempt to control content of classroom activities (Tharawoot, 2010). Regarding teacher talk, there are two factors affecting students' willingness to speak in the classroom: teachers' questions and verbal feedback (Dudley-Marling & Searle, 1991). However, according to Nassaji and Wells (2000), teachers' selection of verbal feedback is much more important than the choice of the kinds of initiating questions for the development of classroom discussion. Based on their assertion, the researcher was interested in studying about teacher verbal feedback in postgraduate classrooms. Two studies' findings showed that both evaluative and interactional feedback could promote student participation (Tharawoot, 2010; Tharawoot, 2015). Moreover, students were satisfied with their teachers' verbal feedback providing (Tharawoot, 2015). However, those findings have not proved Nassaji and Wells' assertion. Consequently, it was the researcher's interest in this statement which led to the development of the main research question—"Is teachers' selection of verbal feedback is much more important than the choice of the kinds of initiating questions for the development of classroom discussion?"

As Urano (1996) defined that a question is any utterance produced by the teacher in order to elicit the students' verbal response. It is in the form of an interrogative, or has rising intonation even if it is declarative in form. There are two main question types that are relevant here: *display question* and *referential question* (Long and Sato, 1983, as quoted by Tsui, 1995, p. 27). Conducting his study on the effect of teachers' questioning behavior on EFL classroom interaction, Shomoossi (2004) found that teachers used display questions to provide comprehensible input for students. Referential questions were for a typical of content classrooms and high proficiency language classrooms. However, "it would be dangerous to generalize that referential questions are more useful for language learning or display ones are useless. Each context requires an appropriate strategy for itself" (p. 102-103). For verbal feedback, according to Miller (as cited in Konold, Miller & Konold, 2004), the primary purposes for providing verbal feedback are to support appropriate student behavior, let students know how they are doing, and extend learning opportunities. There are two main types of verbal feedback in the present study: *evaluative feedback* and *interactional feedback* (Cullen, 2002; Garcia, 2005). Evaluative feedback refers to feedback that expresses some kind of assessment of students' efforts, while interactional feedback aims to keep the interaction or discussion going. Although teachers' evaluative feedback should be avoided because it hinders students' further participation and interactive learning atmosphere, it is still essential for some teaching activities (Hall & Walsh, 2002; Nassaji & Wells, 2000).

The purpose of the current study was to investigate effects of questions and verbal feedback on student participation in undergraduate English classes. The research questions to be discovered were as follows:

- What types of questions do teachers use? Is there a preponderance of any particular type? How much participation do questions generate from students?
- What types of verbal feedback do teachers provide? Is there a preponderance of any particular type? How much participation does verbal feedback generate from students?

Question types

The types of questions can be categorized by considering whether teachers already know answers to them. This classification has two types of questions. The terminology of these types of questions was introduced in a study by Long and Sato (1983). The first one is *display questions* which are the questions to which the teacher knows the answer. The teacher uses display questions for facilitating the explanation of words, phrases, and statements to provide a wide exposure to vocabulary that may be useful to basic personal communication (Richards & Rodgers, 1986). Moreover, display questions help to develop aural skills and vocabulary, and encourage whole-class participation before moving to some other teaching technique (Richards & Lockheart, 1996). According to Brown (2001), they demand a single or short response of the low-level thinking kind, as illustrated in (1):

(1)

1 T3: What happened?
2 S: Color has changed.

(Tharawoot, 2016)

The second type of questions is *referential questions*. Referential questions are the questions to which teacher does not know the answer. These questions generate interactions typical of social communication and promote greater student productivity. This type of questions is determined to be more effective during activity-time than asking them to each student because they use more time and effort so this may result in the loss of interest by the other students. This is illustrated in (2):

(2)

1 T2: Why do you like English?
2 S: I want to be good at English.

(Tharawoot, 2016)

In conclusion, referential questions allow students to share information and allow for flexible responses because they are open-ended questions, which help to stimulate conversation. On the other hand, display questions are closed questions, which are barriers to conversation because they are restrictive, and require one single right answer.

Verbal feedback types

There are two types of verbal feedback: *evaluative feedback* and *interactional feedback*. These terms themselves are clear and understandable because they both refer to their main purpose. Evaluative feedback:

- focuses on the correct form or content of a student's contributions;
- shows a teacher's attempt to correct a student's contributions directly or indirectly;
- shows a teacher's evaluation, criticism, displeasure or rejection of a student's contributions.

This is illustrated in (3):

(3)

1 S: I'm going to …
2 T1: No, with will and V1 form.

(Tharawoot, 2016)

Interactional feedback

- focuses on the content of a student's contributions without being concerned with the correct form of a student's contributions;
- reformulates a student's contributions without rejection in order to continue the discussion if a student's contributions are wrong in grammatical structure;
- shows a teacher's intention to encourage a student to talk far more;
- uses a student's contributions to make a discussion move forward.

This is illustrated in (4):

(4)

1 S: I want to be a doctor.
2 T2: *Why?*

(Tharawoot, 2016)

Method

Participants

The study was conducted in three undergraduate English Conversation classrooms which were chosen from ease of scheduling at a public Thai university in Bangkok. The classes included listening and speaking skills and focused on communication and fluency, not correctness.

The participants were three Thai teachers who hereafter were referred to as T1, T2, and T3. They were the researcher's colleagues. T1 is a forty-five male teacher who got

a doctoral degree and had 10 years of teaching experience. For T2, she was 41 years old, got a doctoral degree and had 15 years of teaching experience. T3 who is a forty-one female teacher got a master degree and had approximately 20 years of teaching experience. Besides the teachers, their 98 pre-intermediate second-year students were the participants. There were 42, 21, and 35 students in T1, T2, and T3's sections respectively. These students were from three faculties. For T1's students, they were from Faculty of Engineering. T2's students and T3's students were from Faculty of Technical Education and Faculty of Applied Science respectively.

Data Collection

The study was conducted in three steps: first, observations, audio-recordings, and field notes were conducted to build up a data base for describing teachers' questions and verbal feedback. For observations, the researcher used a semi-structured approach, playing the role of passive observer (Foster, 1996; Spradley, 1980). The teachers and students knew that classroom interaction was interested, but were unaware that the focus was the effects of teachers' questions and verbal feedback on student participation. A total of 27 hours of lessons (nine hours per each section) were observed and audio-recorded. Two mp3 players with highly sensitive built-in microphones were used. Besides audio-recording, the researcher sitting by the wall near a corner of the room took field notes that aimed to capture the overall flow of the lesson. In the field notes, following Day's (1990) suggestion, events should be noted as objectively and neutrally as possible by avoiding the use of evaluative or judgmental language.

Second, the questionnaire in both Thai and English was designed to collect responses from 98 students about their preferences to ways of teachers' questions and verbal feedback. It was developed by the researcher and adopted from Tharawoot's (2015) study. It was checked for content validity by three experts in the field of EFL. The questionnaire was divided into two parts. The first part was about the students' backgrounds. The second part contained two sections: (1) 15 statements of opinions and feelings about teachers' questions and their effects on student participation, and (2) 11 statements of opinions and feelings about teacher verbal feedback and its effect on student participation. For the first section, statements 5, 13, and 14 represented display questions, statements 3, 7, 8, 9, and 12 represented referential questions, statements 1, 2, 6, 10, 11, and 15 represented the students' opinions and feelings about teachers' questions and statement 4 represented the questions' effects on student participation and studying English. For the second section, statements 1–6 represented evaluative feedback, statements 7–9 represented interactional feedback, and statements 10 and 11 were related to the students' opinions and feelings about teacher verbal feedback and its effect on their participation respectively (see Appendix A). The students were asked to respond by choosing from a five-point Likert scale. Each question is divided into five levels. The evaluation criteria were as follows:

Score range	Description
4.20-5.00	Strongly Agree
3.40-4.19	Agree
2.60-3.39	Neutral
1.80-2.59	Disagree
1.00-1.79	Strongly Disagree

Finally, interviews were semi-structured and conducted with 20 students (T1 = 7, T2 = 3, T3 = 10) who had willingness to spend time to be interviewed on the last day of observations. Since English was not the first language of either the researcher or the students, Thai was used. Some interview questions were related to the data from the observations and the questionnaires. The students were asked about their personal backgrounds and past English learning experiences, how they felt about the teacher's approach. They were also asked their opinions and feelings related to the teachers' questions and verbal feedback and their effects on student participation (see Appendix B).

Data Analysis

From the observational data, discussions between teachers and students were selected and transcribed. In the transcripts pseudonyms were used for three teachers: T1, T2 and T3. In these three sections, there were 57 teacher-student discussions (TSDs) (T1 = 22, T2 = 19, T3 = 16) were coded and analyzed, as questions and verbal feedback typically occurred when teachers started a discussion to encourage talk between themselves and the students about the course content or a topic that they had raised. During discussion, students were asked to exchange opinions and comments.

In coding the 57 TSDs, the researcher used the move as the unit of analysis (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975). According to Sinclair and Coulthard, a typical exchange in teacher-student interaction has three moves: initiation-response-feedback (IRF). If teachers asked one or more follow-up questions of the same student, the researcher only coded the original question as the beginning of IRF, and grouped the others as part of the expansion/remediation response. Moreover, the researcher added one further move, student response (SR), after teacher verbal feedback to capture whether teachers' verbal feedback were associated with further student participation, as shown in (5).

(5)

1	T1:	Any experiences?	I
2	S:	I went to Phu Kradueng National Park.	R
3	T1:	Wow. By cable car?	F
4	S:	No, walking.	SR

(Tharawoot, 2015, p. 61)

Teachers' questions and verbal feedback moves were further analyzed based on type (as detailed earlier). In summary, 57 TSDs were coded and counted to calculate frequencies of questions and verbal feedback by type. In analyzing the extent to which questions and verbal feedback was associated with student participation, the length of students' responses to questions (R) and verbal feedback (SR) was measured by counting the number of words in the contribution associated with each type of questions and verbal feedback (Qashoa, 2013). To determine coding reliability, the researcher invited two colleagues to participate in establishing inter-coder reliability. First, the coders were given a detailed explanation of the coding categories. Then they were asked to practice coding several transcripts from the observation data. After that, the coders and the researcher examined each other's coding and discussed both the agreements and disagreements of the coding. The actual coding by the coders began when they were certain that they thoroughly understood the characteristics of the coding categories (Gay, 1996). After coding reliability was estimated, it was found that inter-coder reliability was .80. This level of agreement was deemed acceptable for this study (Barlow & Hersen, 1984).

In order to identify the students' opinions and feelings about teachers' questions and verbal feedback and their effects on student participation, interviews were transcribed and carefully read and marked according to the following data categories: personal information, past English learning experiences, perceptions of the teacher's teaching style, and opinions and perceptions related to question and verbal feedback types, and their effects on student participation.

Results

Class Observation Results

Results are divided into five parts: 1) question types; 2) response to display and referential questions; 3) verbal feedback types; 4) response to evaluative and interactional feedback; and 5) results from the questionnaires and the interviews. The first and second sets of results are related to answer the first research question, while the third and fourth sets are related to the second research questions. For the fifth set of results, it is related to both research questions.

1. Question Types

The frequency of display and referential questions is presented in Table 1.

Table 1 Frequency of Display and Referential Questions and the Percentage in the Total Sum

Teacher	Display Questions		Referential Questions	
	No.	%	No.	%
T1	6	27.27	16	72.73
T2	3	15.79	16	84.21

T3	12	75	4	25
Total	**21**	**36.84**	**36**	**63.16**

As shown in Table 1, out of a total of 57 question moves of three teachers, 21 (about 37%) were display and 36 (about 63%) were referential. In summary, the teachers used referential questions 1.7 times more than display questions. Two teachers (T1 and T2) preferred referential questions over display questions, but T3 asked display questions more than referential questions.

2. Responses to Display and Referential Questions

Tables 2 presents the total number of words in Rs for each type, with the average length of the student contribution (calculated by dividing the total number of words by the total number of each type).

Table 2 R Length by Display and Referential Questions

Teacher	Question Types	Number	Total Words	Average Length of R	SD
T1	Display question	6	19	3.16	1.47
	Referential question	16	64	4	1.71
T2	Display question	3	4	1.33	0.57
	Referential question	16	37	2.31	1.99
T3	Display question	12	31	2.58	1.73
	Referential question	4	18	4.5	0.57

As shown in Table 2, the total number of words in Rs varied by display and referential questions. In all sections (T1, T2, and T3), referential questions had the highest average: 4, 2.31, and 4.5 respectively. An exemplary referential question from the study data is, "Why do you like English?" Such a question was found to cause more students' contributions than display questions – such as "Pickpocket, what does it mean?" – did.

3. Verbal Feedback Types

The frequency of evaluative and interactional feedback is presented in Table 3.

Table 3 Frequency of Evaluative and Interactional Feedback and the Percentage in the Total Sum

Teachers	Evaluative Feedback		Interactional Feedback	
	No.	%	No.	%
T1	16	39.02	25	60.98
T2	5	12.5	35	87.5
T3	17	51.51	16	48.48
Total	**38**	**33.33**	**76**	**66.66**

As shown in Table 3, out of a total of 114 verbal feedback moves of three teachers, 38 (about 33%) was evaluative and 76 (about 67%) interactional. In summary, the teachers used interactional feedback 2 times more than evaluative feedback. Two teachers (T1 and T2) preferred interactional feedback over evaluative feedback, but T3 provided evaluative feedback a bit more than interactional feedback.

4. Responses to Evaluative and Interactional Feedback

Tables 4 presents the total number of words in SRs for each type, with the average length of the student contribution (calculated by dividing the total number of words by the total number of each type).

Table 4. SRs Length by Evaluative and Interactional Feedback

Teacher	Verbal Feedback Types	Number	Total Words	Average Length of SRs	SD
T1	Evaluative feedback	10	45	4.5	2.32
	Interactional feedback	19	69	3.63	1.38
T2	Evaluative feedback	2	2	1	0
	Interactional feedback	33	99	3	2.29
T3	Evaluative feedback	10	44	4.4	2.27
	Interactional feedback	16	62	3.88	2.63

As shown in Table 4 the total number of words in SRs varied by evaluative and interactional feedback. In two sections (T1 and T3), evaluative feedback had the highest average: 4.5 and 4.4 respectively, but the average length of the students' responses to interactional feedback in T2's section was higher.

Questionnaire Results

Based on questionnaire responses, for question in all sections, there was difference in students' overall satisfaction as shown in Table 5.

Table 5 Student Satisfaction on Questions

Teacher	Display Questions		Referential Questions		Satisfaction in General		Influence on Student Participation	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
T1	3.06	0.49	3.98	0.50	3.73	0.46	4	0.83
T2	3.19	0.75	4.19	0.44	3.94	0.53	4.24	0.54
T3	2.92	0.58	3.88	0.53	3.49	0.42	3.67	0.76

As shown in Table 5 the students in each section were neutral with display questions, but they agreed with referential questions. This suggests that they were more satisfied with referential questions in general. Moreover, the students in all sections agreed that they were satisfied with questions. In T1 and T3's sections the students agreed that questions encouraged them to participate in classroom discussion, but the students in T2's section strongly agreed with this statement.

Table 6 presents difference in students' overall satisfaction on verbal feedback.

Table 6 Student Satisfaction on Verbal Feedback

Teacher	Evaluative Feedback		Interactional Feedback		Satisfaction in General		Influence on Student Participation	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
T1	3.77	0.55	4.03	0.55	3.74	0.77	3.98	0.87
T2	3.69	0.68	4.17	0.62	3.62	0.80	3.90	0.77
T3	3.28	0.56	3.89	0.45	3.14	0.72	3.64	0.72

As shown in Table 6 the students in T1 and T2's sections agreed with evaluative feedback, but in T3's section the students were neutral with it. For interactional feedback, the students in all sections agreed with interactional feedback. This suggests that they were a bit more satisfied with interactional feedback in general. Moreover, in T1 and T2's sections the students agreed that they were satisfied with verbal feedback, while in T3's section the students were neutral with it. In all sections the students agreed that verbal feedback encouraged them to participate in classroom discussion.

Interview Results

According to interviews, in T1's section all seven students indicated that T1 always encouraged them to participate classroom discussion by questioning: "I liked his

teaching method which encouraged us to answer questions", "I liked his questions", "I liked when the teacher encouraged us to participate in classroom discussion. This provided me opportunities to practice English." However, two students commented that "I thought the teacher should ask easier questions", "I wanted more questions relating to my daily life." Furthermore, one student described that "I liked the teacher's verbal feedback when I gave incorrect answers. He did not blame me, but create a good atmosphere of humour. This encouraged me to study more."

For three students in T2's section, they indicated that they liked T2's questions and verbal feedback: "The teacher's questions were understandable", "She used understandable questions and verbal feedback. If I could not understand them, she could explain them clearly", "I liked the teacher's verbal feedback because it was easy to understand."

In T3's section, five of ten students stated that T3's questions were good and encouraged them to speak: "He used easy questions which made me want to give answers", "The teacher often asked questions and gave sample answers", "He always asked questions which did not focus on correctness." For T3's verbal feedback, four students described that when they gave incorrect answers or contributions, T3 always helped them understand what they had said incorrectly: "The teacher made me confident to speak. If I spoke incorrectly, he corrected what I had said", "I liked when the teacher corrected my contributions. This helped me understand more vocabularies and grammatical structure." On the other hand, two students commented that they wanted T3 to correct their incorrect contributions immediately: "I wanted the teacher told me right away what I had said was incorrect because this made me dare to communicate in English".

Discussion and Conclusion

It was not surprising to see the high occurrence of questions and verbal feedback asked and provided by the three teachers since questioning and providing verbal feedback are key tools for instructing and evaluating in classrooms. It was in consistent with Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) and Wells' (1999) claim about the interaction between a teacher and students normally the teacher initiates talk in classroom (usually by questioning), one of the students attempts to answer the question and the teacher evaluates the student's response. Concerning the teacher question types, the results revealed that referential questions were the most common and frequently asked questions in the two sections (T1 and T2). In this study, referential questions were asked to get students' opinions or interpretation about the discussed topics. For example, "What will you do on your next vacation?" in T1's section and "How well do you play football" in T2's section. Additionally, the nature of the lessons (English Conversation) might make teachers asks more referential questions since they elicit longer, more authentic responses. As Nunan and Lamb (1996) explained that selection of question types should depend on the purpose of the lesson. Furthermore, it was observed that

proficient students could interact with teachers' referential questions rather than average and low level students. For example, in T3's section there were two students who sat in the front row, paid a lot of attention, and were willing to do every tasks were often a volunteer to answer the teacher's questions. On the other hand, in T3's section display questions were more common and frequently asked questions than referential questions. It was noted that display questions were used to warm up the class, review previous lessons and elicit factual information. For example, "What happened to her?", "What does it mean?" and "How can you keep the story going?" In this study, display questions were asked to involve all the students in the interaction.

Regarding the effects of display and referential questions on student participation, longer student responses were elicited by referential questions (3.6 the average words per a referential question, but about 2 words per a display one). Increasing the amount of class discussion is of great importance for EFL context where the target language is produced only in classrooms (Canale & Swain, 1980). It was worth mentioning that the longer responses elicited by referential questions in this study might be related to other factors such as interesting topics (favourite subjects, sports, musical instruments, vacation, previous experiences) and teacher techniques (as mentioned in the interview results). Alarmingly, sometimes referential questions elicited only one or two words as shown in (6).

(6)

1 T2: What's the subject do you like?
2 S: *Maths.*

Moreover, some display questions elicited long answers (seven words) as shown in (7).

(7)

1 T3: What did he do before coming home?
2 S: *He put his clothes into the machine.*

Consequently, the researcher think that both teacher question types are useful in EFL classrooms. It might be risky to conclude that display questions are useless and they elicit only short answers or referential ones are useful for language learning and they produce long responses. Teachers should use these questions based on students' levels, lesson purposes and student learning strategies as the students indicated in the interview results.

With respect to verbal feedback, its provision was found in almost every turn of the teachers both by responding to the content and correcting errors. Concerning the teacher verbal feedback types, the results revealed that the high occurrence of interactional feedback in these three undergraduate classes, particularly in T1 and T2's sections

suggests that the teacher tried to encourage the students to participate in classroom discussion. Moreover, for evaluative feedback, the teachers usually preferred to tell the students directly what they had said was incorrect. As the researcher observed, the teachers tried to avoid evaluative feedback whenever possible. However, if they considered a correction to be necessary, their common ways was to tell the students immediately as shown in (8).

(8)

1	S1:	I'll go to Singapore.
2	S2:	How long…
3:	T1:	*No, use three sentences to response such as "That'll be terrific", "Good luck" and "That'll be nice".*

Surprisingly, as the students in T3's section commented that they preferred to be informed by the teacher that their responses or contribution were incorrect as mentioned in the interview results. This might have been because in the Thai classroom, it is believed that students need some knowledge and truth, and get trained to behave correctly and properly. The classroom is seen as the place to fulfil these purposes and what students should do in the classroom is to listen to the teacher and accept what the teacher says as the truth and knowledge. In Thai culture students are taught to respect teachers.

Regarding interactional feedback, the most common way was by extending the students' contribution or adding humour as shown in (9).

(9)

1	T1:	What do you do on your vacation?
2	S:	Beach.
3	T1:	*Why?*
4	S:	It's beautiful.
5	T1:	*Who?*
6	S:	<confused>
7	T1:	*Who beautiful?*
8	S:	The beach.
9	Ss:	<laughing>

Regarding the effects of evaluative and interactional feedback on student participation, surprisingly in T1 and T3's sections evaluative feedback was associated with longer statements and answers than interactional one. Since the students' English proficiency was low, it took time to provide the correct forms or answers. Consequently, they had to produce longer responses. On the other hand, the average length of the students' contributions to interactional feedback was higher. This might have been

because when the teachers commented on the students' contributions, the students tried to participate more in the discussion, finding that their comments enhanced their enjoyment of the classroom discussion and motivated them to continue to participate.

In terms of student satisfaction on questions and verbal feedback, from the questionnaire results it was seen that the students were satisfied with referential questions and interactional feedback. Therefore, this indicated that they were welcomed by the students. However, it did not mean that display questions and evaluative feedback should be avoided because the students were satisfied with all types of questions and verbal feedback in general. As described earlier, teachers should use questions and verbal feedback based on students' levels, lesson purposes and student learning strategies as the students indicated in the interview results. Another interesting result from the questionnaires was that the students were motivated to participate in classroom discussion by both teachers' questions and verbal feedback. Regarding the effects of teachers' questions and verbal feedback on student participation in general, the verbal feedback was associated with a bit longer statements and answers than the questions (3.4 the average words per verbal feedback, but about 3 words per question). This result can confirm Nassaji and Wells' (2000) explanation that "teachers' selection of verbal feedback is much more important than the choice of the kinds of initiating questions for the development of classroom discussion".

It can be concluded that in this setting, both questions and verbal feedback had the potential to be supportive of different aspects of student learning. Since questions and verbal feedback allows teachers to increase or reduce students' opportunities for discussion, it is necessary to select the appropriate type to support students' participation. Teachers should develop their use of questions, verbal feedback, and aim for patterns of classroom communication that are appropriate for students' abilities, interests and motivation. Since this study involved three teachers and their three classes, it is not possible to generalize the study's results. The results of the study could be followed up with larger scale studies or larger samples of questions and verbal feedback. Broadening the data collected from participants by interviewing teachers would be another useful step. Teachers' attitudes and preferences about questions, verbal feedback, methods of asking questions and providing verbal feedback, and other aspects of interaction and participation might disprove or confirm the conclusions the researcher draw about questions and verbal feedback on student participation. Nevertheless, results in this study evidenced that teachers' questions and verbal feedback are a stimulus to set classroom interaction in motion.

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Appendices

Appendix A
Questionnaire Statements
Section 1: Questions

1. My teacher's classroom questions make the teaching of English interesting.
2. My teacher's classroom questions motivate me to learn English.
3. My teacher's classroom questions improve my high level thinking skills in English.
4. My teacher's classroom questions help me to participate in classes.
5. My teacher's classroom questions can be an effective way to find out what students have mastered after the teaching process.
6. My teacher's classroom questions are used as positive reinforcement for student learning.
7. My teacher's classroom questions lead to discussions and communication in class.
8. My teacher's classroom questions prompt me to express myself freely.
9. My teacher's classroom questions help to stimulate my thinking abilities in solving problems.
10. My teacher's classroom questions always makes me active in English lesson.
11. My teacher's classroom questions encourage me to pay attention in English lessons.
12. My teacher's classroom questions encourage me to think during English lessons.
13. My teacher's classroom questions are always closed-ended questions.
14. My teacher's classroom questions are always used for testing more than teaching. This makes me stressful.
15. My teachers' classroom questions have an impact on my performance in English.

Section 2: Verbal feedback

1. I liked when the teacher corrected my incorrect contributions immediately.
2. I liked when the teacher corrected my incorrect contributions by repeating what I said/ responded without incorrectness.
3. I liked when the teacher told me to correct my incorrect contributions by myself instead of correcting what I said immediately.
4. I liked when the teacher did not correct or tell me what I said/ responded was incorrect, but commented, gave information, or asked questions related to the correctness of form or content of my statements/ responses.

5. I liked when the teacher did not correct or tell me what I said/responded is incorrect, but asked for a sentence completion, asked a question to elicit the correct contributions or asked me to reformulate what I said/responded.
6. I liked when the teacher did not correct or tell me what I said/responded is incorrect, but repeated my incorrect contributions in order to let me know that they were incorrect.
7. I liked when the teacher corrected my contributions to be available and also audible without interrupting the flow of conversation.
8. I liked when the teacher made my contributions understandable, added humor and extended what I said /responded.
9. I liked when the teacher picked up on my contributions by repeating them and added his/her comments.
10. A teacher's verbal feedback for my contributions encouraged me to participate in classroom discussion.
11. I was satisfied with the teacher's verbal feedback to my contributions.

Appendix B
Interview Questions

1. Personal information
   - Which faculty are you in?
   - What is your current year of study?
   - How long have you been learning English?
2. Past English learning experiences
   - Do you like learning English? If yes, why? / If no, why not?
   - Who was your favorite English teacher? Why did you like him/her? What was his/her teaching style?
3. The participant teacher's teaching style
   - What do you think about the teacher's teaching style?
   - Did she provide you opportunities to speak?
   - How did you feel when you spoke English in class?
4. Classroom discussion and teacher verbal feedback
   - Did you actively participate in classroom discussion?
   - Did you feel free to disagree with the teacher?
   - Do you think the teacher's talk influenced your participation in discussion?
   - Do you think your teacher's questions help you to participate in classes?
   - Could your teacher's questions be an effective way to find out what you have known after the teaching process?
   - Do you think your teacher's questions lead to discussions and communication in class?
   - Do you think your teacher's questions prompt you to express yourself freely?

- Were your teacher's questions always closed-ended questions?
- Were your teacher's questions always used for testing more than teaching?
- Do you think your teacher's questions have an impact on your performance in English?
- When you gave contributions, what did the teacher do after that?
- When you gave contributions, but the teacher seemed dissatisfied with them, how did she follow up?
- Do you think it would be better if the teacher did not correct or indicate any of your errors and just made some general comments?
- Did the teacher's verbal feedback encourage you participate in discussion?
- Were you satisfied with the teacher's verbal feedback on your contributions?

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Learning Strategies Facilitating the Processes of Language Learning in Adult Education

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Abstract

The issue of learning must be based on the latest knowledge of various sciences and also respond to the needs of society. The meaning of life of adults lies in satisfying their needs as well as their self-realization in personal and career direction. In this paper, we focus on the issue of adult language education. Success in acquiring foreign language skills of adults depends on several factors, the level of cognitive functions is different from children, and therefore it is necessary to respect this fact when teaching adults. The way to succeed in this is to teach how to search for information, to sort and use them logically in practice. A precondition is to teach how to learn, how to use metacognitive strategies and learn how to plan the learning. The aim of this paper is to point to learning strategies, such as concept maps through which it comes to the development of metacognition and building a comprehensive knowledge structure in adult education.

Keywords

educating adults, strategies, autoregulation, metacognition, foreign languages

Introduction

Knowledge and use of foreign languages have belonged to the most significant feature as well as a part of education since ancient times. Already in times of John Amos Comenius - The Great Didactic, The Gateway to Languages, and a textbook Orbis Pictus, there had been considerations about didactic aspects of forms and methods that serve to facilitate the acquisition of the foreign language (Tandlichová, 2008). The most preferred direction in adult learning is foreign languages learning as adults recognize

"capacities" in that direction, but also the opportunities of applying foreign languages in life.

Autoregulation And Metacognition

With the development of our society, there are increasing demands on education, ability to work with a lot of information, to evaluate critically, to classify information, to think logically and to use metacognitive strategies. These strategies lead the learner to search for the meaning in terms of curriculum content, especially they lead to an independence and in case of an adult to active learning. Kariková (2014, p. 71) points out that cognitive level of adulthood is characterized as a phase post - formal thinking which is characterized by:

- keeps in mind all aspects of the problem,
- understands the relativity of different situations and solutions of mutual relations,
- creates the ability to compromise and accepts a solution that is acceptable to other people,
- change of attitudes to the own thinking, to my opinion it is one of many valid opinions,
- accepts cognitive uncertainty
- ponders in a more pragmatic way,
- thinking is more flexible and open.

From the above mentioned it can be assumed that an individual learns through their entire life. The issue of learning is an interdisciplinary matter of psychology, pedagogy, andragogy and psychodidactics. With an increasing knowledge in the field of neuroscience as well as psychodidactic sciences, we naturally ask the following questions: Can we keep track of the amount of information that is available? Can we use knowledge as our advantage, use them in practice?

An important part in the education of children as well as in adult education plays a teacher / trainer, who leads the learner to meaningful processing of curriculum content and creation of a knowledge structure by using various learning strategies. In this way an adult can use their knowledge even if they occur in stressful situations because they are able to recall the main concepts and their structure (Vacinova, 2013, p. 106).

As for an adult education, it is important to recognize and diagnose individual learning style, motivation, experience, and learning conditions. During the educational process, the lector works with adults who understand the logical structure of the curriculum at an excellent level but on the other hand, they are also adults who have certain gaps and therefore, the lector needs to approach to them very individually.

In terms of andragogical theories, not only the teacher plays an essential role but also learning as such is the role of adult learners. In a more recent concept Fulková (2008) understands the term the self-education (autonomous education,

autodidacticism, self - study) as a specific type of education, during which there are combined the functions of an educator and educant in one person at the same time.

As Vacinová reports (2013, p. 109), adults are accustomed to self-management, they take responsibility for their decisions, they need to see the usefulness and fast usability in the curriculum, drawing on their experience. An essential part is getting feedback from the instructor or from classmates.

In an adult education, there are present several attributes. From the point of an adult learner:

- motivation to learn,
- experience,
- capability to learn,
- focusing on their goal,
- feedback information about their progress;

from the point of the teacher:

- knowledge and experience (not only professional but also psychodidactic)
- personality traits,
- a way of communication with adult learners,
- use of teaching forms and methods,
- material and didactic aids.

The main aim of adult education is to find the meaning of what they learn. Referring to Mareš (1998) and based on Bloom's taxonomy, it is important for adults to develop metacognitive knowledge. Krykorová (2008) understands metacognition in adult education as a tool for cognitive awareness, they focus on the results of their activity or the process how to achieve those results, to realize what was good and what I have to work on. Formulating their own questions to the contents of the text is an important tool for enhancing the understanding of the text as well as an indicator of the level of control of metacognitive processes. Metacognitive processes are an important complement to reading text. The reader, who has developed metacognitive skills, selects the activities depending on task type as well as according to the characteristics of the text. This allows them to work successfully with text. On the contrary, a person who has not developed these skills, works unproductively, gropes or turns to mechanical reading and learning the text by heart. (Mizerák, 2014).

Among the experts on the issue it is still not clear whether metacognition is a subordinate or subsidiary concept of self-regulation. Self - regulation is a personal trait on an individual, characteristic with self – education, autonomy, cognitive sovereignty and issue of metacognition. There is no doubt about the importance of self-regulation and developed self-regulation capabilities result in an effective performance of particular activity. Self - regulation is based on social - cognitive learning approach. K.

Hrbáčková (2009) emphasizes awareness of the kind of thinking that calls for different situations we deal with.

It enables pupils to develop such level of learning that makes them become active agents in their own learning process, both actively and metacognitively. (Duchovičová, Škoda, 2013). Self-regulated learning could not take place without acquiring metacognitive strategies. They are an integral part of the education process that develops the learning process through which adults become agents of their own learning, using elements of metacognition.

Krykorková (2004) understands metacognition as part of self-regulation and it is also seen as a determinant of successful learning affecting motivation, memory, planning and deciding for the most appropriate teaching procedures. In practice, this means that an adult student must know their weaknesses and need to make an effort to remove them. He may also use lector´s help to accomplish this goal. In order to enhance educants´ learning strategies, it is necessary to familiarize themselves with effective strategies for learning and help them to realize their own way of learning, set their own goals and develop the ability for self - evaluation (Badinská, 2014).

Autoregulative Skills and Training

Skoda and Doulík (2011) map the nature of the autoregulative capabilities training on two pillars:

- The role of the teacher who stands between students and stimuli from the environment. The teacher acts as a role model, facilitator, organizer...
- The meaning is not in the curriculum at all but in what the pupil brings to teaching, pupil´s activity.

The process of adult learning as such should be organized with respect to their individual learning strategies and their effective use. Development of this capability is meant as learning to make decisions and take action.

The starting point of the theory of language learning is knowledge of Connor-Seymour (1996 in Mužík, 2004, p. 16), who divides the learning process into following phases:

- unconscious ignorance (I do not know that I do not know something)
- conscious ignorance (I know that I do not know something)
- conscious knowledge (I know that I know something)
- unconscious knowledge (I do not know that I know something).

Hanková (2011) states that in the process of language learning it is the role of lector to create situations that help students to get aware of the following phases, from the phase of awareness what I do not understand to the phase of automation and continuous use of language orally. Basically, there comes to a process of metacognition. Success in acquiring foreign language skills when it comes to adults is influenced by several factors, such as learning strategies, specific human skills but also age. Kapová (2015)

adds to the previously mentioned factors the knowledge (preconceptions), features of temperament (work pace) and properties of nature (responsibility, diligence).

In response to the research findings, Lojová (2005, pp. 108-126) suggests that age is important, and notes the following differences between children and adults language learning.

- Adults learn faster than children mainly in formal education, thanks to the cognitive maturity and conscious acquiring of the rules of the language system (lexicology and grammar).
- As for the adults, the pace of acquiring is fast at first, then more slowly. When it comes to children, the process takes place the other way round.
- Adults have a sense of their own insufficiency, they are often impatient when being educated and set unrealistic goals.
- Adults have longer attention span.
- Adults have higher level of mother tongue, which allows them to create hypotheses about the functioning of the foreign language structures, which allows speeding up the learning process.
- Adults have more experience, but may have inhibitions to use them in education process.
- Adults have better long - term memory
- Adults are able to adjust to the less interesting curriculum.
- For adults, the intrinsic motivation is dominant, which influences the choice of learning strategies.
- Adults often have a fear of failure and setback.

Definition of learning strategies is mentioned in the Pedagogical Dictionary (Průcha, Walterová, Mareš, 2001, p. 230) and it is defined as: "a sequence of activities in learning thoughtfully included to achieve the learning goal. Using it, the student decides which knowledge and in what order to use"

Wolff (1992, p. 77) defines foreign language learning strategies as *"strategic action methods that a student uses, among others, in learning and using a foreign language."* Complex planning strategies control the student's actions within the learning process and also within his/her interaction with other partners in communication.

Oxford (1990) have found while researching that people who are aware of their learning strategies use them at higher rate. The learners can use learning strategies especially if the strategy is conscious, when the learner has metacognitive knowledge of particular strategy.

The factors that affect learning strategies are the subject of many researches. Vlčková (2007) states the following underlying determinants of learning:

Gender – the research shows that women use a wider range of learning strategies than men (Nykios and Oxford 1989, in Vlčková, 2007a).

Age-results indicate that with younger students, there were present communication strategies, while older students prefer cognitive strategies more (Janíková, 2007).

Socio-cultural competence – according to R.L. Oxford (1996 in Vlčková, 2007) students from Eastern countries use fewer strategies (explaining, verifying) than students from Western countries.

Environment – in the school environment, there occur formal strategies, in leisure time the strategies of cooperation in a natural environment prevail, and outside of school the cooperation strategies seem significant. The use of strategies is also affected by bilingualism in the family, when social strategies are used increasingly.

Level of proficiency in a foreign language - studies point to the fact that more advanced students use more complicated learning strategies (Macaro, 2001).

Time allocated to learning - the impact of this factor is not based scientifically.

Learning styles - determines the choice of learning strategies. The student with analytical style uses the analysis of words and phrases. The student with global style prefers searching by relevance.

Personality characteristics of students - extrovert adopts different strategies than introvert

Student attitudes - negative attitudes reduce the use of strategies and positive attitudes support them (Vlčková, 2007).

Motivation - from the researches done by Vlčková (2003), it results that motivational factors are closely related to the use of indirect learning strategies.

Purpose of language learning- learning is closely related to motivation.

Awareness of learning styles - students aware of their learning process are characterized by more effective use of learning strategies.

Task Type – Janíková (2007) reports that students use more strategies while working on isolated language tasks (if they work with vocabulary) and fewer strategies when working on the integrated tasks (listening comprehension).

Teacher's method of teaching - what methods the teacher / lecturer use influences the selection of individual learning strategies.

Strategies training - a process during which the effective strategies can be learned and practiced.

Cohen and Weaver (2006) distinguish between the following strategies for languages learning: strategies of listening, reading strategies, speaking strategies, writing strategies, vocabulary strategy, translation strategies, revision strategies, compensation strategies.

R.L. Oxford (1990) divides learning strategies into direct (memory, cognitive, compensation) and indirect strategies (affective, social and metacognitive).

From our point of view and in terms of the aim of this article, we focus on metacognitive strategies, which are aimed at awareness of our own learning process and include self- regulative learning.

When it comes to adult education, the teachers face with situations where adults use inefficient methods and learning strategies and thus they produce an incomplete or incorrect structure of concepts and curriculum content. Experts examining brain functions point to the fact that the information is being stored in the brain in a non-linear way. This process is similar to adult remembering. The non-linear techniques include conceptual mapping. In our country, the following professionals dedicate to the topic of conceptual mapping - Duchovičová - Gunišová (2015), Petrová - Kozárová (2015), Veteška (2009) and others.

All concepts which the adult acquires are compared and combined with other concepts, which are stored in their individual semantic unit. The basic principle of this teaching strategy is to visualize concepts, relationships and it prevents from the mechanical acquiring of the curriculum. Vacínová (2013) states that as for the above mentioned strategy of adult education, can as opposed to child, occur the following:

- inhibitions when it comes to the processing of maps,
- on the basis of developing different types of intelligences, they have no problems in structuring concepts,
- adults have better verbal memory and remember the map as single word terms, the short-term memory is worse.

Significant benefit of conceptual maps is motivating students but also removing the fear that the content cannot be dealt with in stressful situations (e.g. test).

Bontová (2014, p. 301) points out that the role of the teacher is removing of barriers and fear of questioning an adult human experience, or the quality of human relations. The lector works with human experience, so it is important to be aware of motifs and it is important to keep an open dialogue with adults.

From the perspective of the teacher the neutrality in the assessment is important. Neutrality in expressing observable observations appears to be the optimal way of support, when it is to an adult to confront the results with the results of lecturer´s introspection. Didactic view of the acquisition of learning strategies submitted by Bimmel and Rampillon (2000), L. R. Oxford (1990), Cohen, Weaver (2006), Lojová and Vlčková (2011), Janíková (2008) and others.

Conclusion

Finally, it is important to note that the role of the teacher is to provide their students with different strategies that enable better and long lasting understanding and remembering of the curriculum. Through the training to use the maximum capacity of each strategy, because there is no single teaching strategy that would fit all adult learners.

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A Blended Learning Approach to Academic Writing and Presentation Skills

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Abstract

Blended learning is a common learning mode in higher education which combines the use of online and face-to-face classroom learning. The use of blended learning for English for Academic Purposes (EAP) with non-native university students, however, can pose challenges from the methods and materials to the student perceptions. This article describes the blended learning implementation of an EAP course for academic writing and presentation skills and how the students perceived the blended course mode, methods, workload, learning atmosphere and challenges. Results indicate that non-native university students appreciated blended learning for the EAP course and found the flexibility and convenience of blended learning beneficial to their EAP learning. This encourages the further development of blended learning options for EAP writing and presentation skills as students no longer require the extensive classroom teaching context but instead adapt well to self-regulated and reflective learning of EAP.

Keywords

blended learning, academic writing, academic presentations, course feedback

Introduction

Blended learning is a pedagogical model which combines face-to-face classroom teaching with the innovative use of information and communication technology and online learning experiences (Gaebel, Kupriyanova, Morais & Colucci, 2014; Garrison & Vaughan, 2008; Graham, 2006). Blended learning is considered a versatile way to introduce new elements of online media into a course while still recognising the merits of face-to-face contact so that this mixture or 'blend' combines the best of both worlds. Also in the teaching and learning of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) or English for

Academic Purposes (EAP) in higher education, the traditional classroom teaching has expanded to include various levels of blending as language learning can be seen to benefit from a thoughtful integration of both classroom learning and online learning, with the strengths of both blended into a unique and effective learning experience (Garrison & Kanuka, 2004; Glazer, 2011; Lim & Morris, 2009; MacDonald, 2008; Moskal & Cavanagh, 2014).

For teachers and instructors of EAP in higher education, blended learning can thus enhance pedagogical richness through various educational possibilities in creating the best mixture of onsite and online learning for each course and set of learning outcomes (Mortera-Gutiérrez, 2006; Stein & Graham, 2014). In higher education in general, rationales for blended learning have been argued to include supporting flexibility and diversity, enhancing the learning experience, engaging students outside the classroom as well as increased efficiency and cost-effectiveness (Graham, Allen & Ure, 2005; Sharpe, Benfield, Roberts & Francis, 2006).

These elements are particularly poignant when teaching EAP for non-native speakers of English at university level such as in Finland, where ESP and EAP courses are a required part of the university Bachelor's degree in most degree programmes. Finnish students whose degree of 180 ECTS credits may include 4-10 ECTS credits of ESP and EAP studies, may often seek the most effective and flexible manner of completing the studies while still obtaining valuable knowledge, learning and practice for their studies and future professional lives. Therefore, blended learning arguably lends itself well to the practice of academic and field-specific language and communication skills as it allows for flexibility and convenience through the online components while retaining the benefits of the classroom communicative and interactive face-to-face experience that may not lend itself to online delivery.

Therefore, one of the main benefits of blended learning particularly from an advanced EAP language learning perspective is the implementation of classroom learning instead of relying solely on an online learning environment. After all, online learning has been criticised for the lack of physical presence which can complicate the cognitive, meta-cognitive and social learning, particularly in discussion and other oral communication situations (Francescato, Porcelli, Mebane, Cuddetta, Klobas & Renzi, 2006). Previous studies have also showed that students value the classroom teaching context i.e. face-to-face time, which can be vital in engaging students in a sense of community (Conole, de Laat, Dillon & Darby, 2008; Edginton & Holbrook, 2010).

In essence, even though young adults today are primarily considered digital natives, learning through online environments or blended learning may still generate difficulties (Lernstrup, 2013). From a faculty perspective, the largest causes for concern with blended learning courses have been the unsuitability with students who need individual attention or who are not competent with computer use (Moskal & Cavanagh, 2014), or otherwise have time management issues or struggle with personal organisation skills

(Edginton & Holbrook, 2010). It has also been established that not all students enjoy studying in online environments, particularly exclusively (MacDonald, 2008), and that university students have been found to consciously avoid blended learning courses (Riley, Gardner, Cosgrove, Olitsky, O'Neil & Du, 2014). Hence, while blended learning offers students flexibility, it also requires discipline, time management skills and comfort with technology (Napier, Dekhane & Smith, 2011).

The premise for this study lies on Ginns and Ellis (2007) who have encouraged higher education instructors with blended learning courses to not only focus on the technical possibilities and functions of the online materials and activities but also to seek to understand the students' perceptions of the learning in blended learning environments. Against this background, the purpose of this study was to examine student responses and perceptions of studying EAP writing and presentations skills in a blended learning course. The students in this study were Finnish university students of Business and Economics at the University of Eastern Finland (UEF). A course included in their Bachelor's degree, *English Academic Writing and Presentations* (3 ECTS, CEFR level C1) has been organised as a blended learning course since the spring semester of 2013.

With student feedback collected in spring 2014 and autumn 2015, the aim was to determine how the Finnish students as non-native speakers of English perceived the blended learning environment, methods, materials and workload of an EAP course with an arguably challenging target of practicing and developing formal academic writing and academic presentation skills. Another element of interest in exploring student perceptions on this blended learning course was that the impetus to arrange the course as blended learning had not come from the students themselves but from their department, the UEF Business School, for the main rationale of reducing required classroom hours for students often unable to attend classes because of work or living elsewhere and studying as distance learning students. Therefore, an added element was to gauge how the students themselves viewed the blended learning of EAP writing and presentations and whether some would have preferred a classroom teaching course if given the choice.

EAP in Finnish Universities

Within the context of this study, EAP is inherently connected to Finnish university studies. Since the mid-1970s all higher education degrees in Finnish science universities have included compulsory language and communication requirements (Karjalainen & Laulajainen, 2011; Tuomi & Rontu, 2011). According to the Finnish government decree on university degrees, in addition to demonstrated proficiency in domestic languages Finnish and Swedish, all students must also attain skills in at least one foreign language that enable them to "follow developments in the field and to operate in an international work environment" (794/2004, Ch. 1, Sec. 6). The purpose is to prepare students for the

concrete application of field-specific, professional and academic language skills in their studies, future working lives and in the development of their academic expertise. The vast majority of Finnish university students elect English as the foreign language as this is a continuation of their first foreign language from comprehensive school.

The background of English from secondary and upper secondary school levels and the overall positive attitudes towards English in Finnish society (Leppänen & Nikula, 2007) also facilitate the efficient teaching and development of EAP at university level, typically provided by the university language centres. As a result of the Bologna Process and the principles of lifelong learning, language centres have increasingly moved to promote self-directed language learning (Räsänen, 2008) and adopted new pedagogical technology and learning environments to support the changing student population and the versatile needs and backgrounds. This has also paved the way for increased online and blended learning options for various ESP and EAP courses.

As EAP courses at Finnish universities aim at developing students' skills in academic and subject-specific reading, writing, oral and communicative proficiency, learning outcomes for courses typically include elements such as academic text comprehension, vocabulary knowledge, listening comprehension, oral fluency and presentation skills, all specified to focus solely on the needs of the learners in their field (cf. Flowerdew, 2013; Huhta, Vogt, Johansson & Tulkki, 2013). EAP courses hence are intended to enable students to proceed efficiently with their studies where much of the course literature, lecture notes, current research and even teaching may be in English, and to prepare them for the future demands presented by modern working lives. Every year in course feedback Finnish university students show their appreciation for the EAP courses they attend, finding them relevant, meaningful and enjoyable.

Teaching EAP through blended learning for Business and Economics students

The most common ESP courses taught in European higher education institutions are related to Business English or English for business purposes (Räisänen & Fortanet-Gómez, 2008; Saarinen, 2014), also the specific focus area in this study. At the UEF Business School students working towards their Bachelor's degree in Business and Economics must complete three English language and communication courses provided by the UEF Language Centre: *English for Business and Economics* (3 ECTS, recommended for the first year of studies), *English for Communicating in Business* (4 ECTS, recommended for the second year), and *English Academic Writing and Presentations* (3 ECTS, recommended for the end of the Bachelor's degree). The courses vary in length, workload, activities, content and learning outcomes and offer any business student at UEF a comprehensive opportunity to develop his/her field-specific, professional and academic English language and communication skills.

In 2012, a request was made by the UEF Business School that the last of these courses, *English Academic Writing and Presentations*, was to be conducted as a blended

learning option. The request may have been influenced by the prevalent use of e-learning for studies in business and management in European higher education (Gaebel et al., 2014), however the primary rationale provided was that many students found the 80 % required attendance in the regular classroom teaching of 36 total hours challenging because of work commitments or studying as a distance student. In fact, a common motive for adopting existing courses to blended learning has been the location of the students, i.e. studying at a distance from the institution or otherwise unable to attend classes on campus (Littlejohn & Pegler, 2007). The University of Eastern Finland also has the most distance learning students of all Finnish universities at 20 %, with the national average being 11 % (Ministry of Education and Culture, 2014), this was arguably a valid cause for concern expressed by the students' department.

The EAP blended learning course was then designed to accommodate the needs of students who were geographically dispersed and/or had conflicting schedules (cf. Pituch & Lee, 2006). However, the course was made exclusively blended learning without providing the students an option between classroom teaching for those who may have preferred more face-to-face contact and practice throughout the course, or blended learning for those with scheduling restrictions or other preference to online studying. Therefore, initially concern was raised about students' reaction to the blended learning approach since students in blended learning are required to be independent and self-regulated learners with good time management skills and comfort with using information technology (Ellis & Goodyear, 2010; Napier, Dekhane & Smith, 2011). However, previous research on Finnish university students' learning has indicated that many students are in fact self-directed (Heikkilä, Niemivirta, Nieminen & Lonka, 2011), so this juxtaposition generated an interest to examine the student perceptions more closely.

Course Design

According to Garrison and Vaughan (2008), successful implementation of blended learning requires an understanding of versatile learning environments, communication characteristics, and the requirements of various disciplines and resources. The EAP course then as blended learning was designed with consideration to these criteria, the course learning outcomes related to EAP and a thoughtful and effective mixture of onsite and online materials, exercises, assignments and other content. The EAP learning goals for the course were the foundation for planning the division between onsite and online components, and they were as follows:

- Practicing and developing writing and presentation skills in English in the context of academic study of Business and Economics with lectures, classroom activities, pair and small-group discussions and written and oral exercises
- Practicing formal English language use in writing and in oral communication, including argumentation and critical use of references

- Activating academic vocabulary for increased lexical variety in written and oral communication
- Developing academic presentation skills in connection with students' research interests
- Providing constructive peer feedback to others on academic writing and presentations skills

Course content

The course was constructed as an 11-week blended learning course, with an onsite kick-off, main components online, onsite presentation and optional feedback and course ending, as illustrated in figure 1.

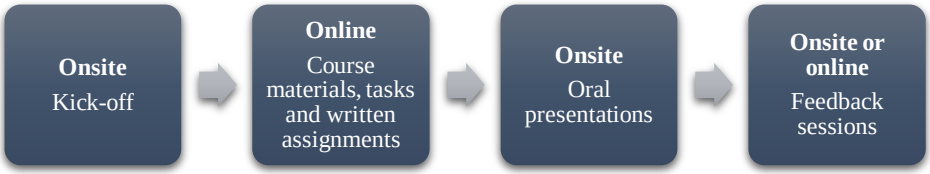

Fig. 1. Online and onsite blend in the EAP course.

The structure, content and blend of the course materials and activities can be viewed in table 1. Information and instructions on the larger assignments on the course were available for students from the beginning of the course.

Table 1 Blended learning course content and schedule

Week	Onsite / Online	Theme	Materials, task(s) or larger assignment(s)
Week 1	Onsite kick-off, continued online	Introduction to the course	- Onsite: Introduction to the course - Onsite: Group discussions on EAP experiences - Onsite task: Students write a sample text - Online task: Participants' reflective introductions and peer comments
Week 2	Online	Academic style in writing	- Online materials on academic style and formality - Lecturer feedback on sample texts (with audio)

			- Task: Students rewrite a section of the sample text into more formal style - Task: Peer feedback on rewritten sections
Week 3	Online	Critical review	- Assignment: Critical review on a journal article - Exercises on academic vocabulary
Week 4	Online	Structuring essays, use of referencing	- Online materials on referencing and structuring writing - Task: Students post reflections on their writing process, with peer comments
Week 5	Online	Preparing academic presentations	- Lecturer's video feedback on critical reviews, detailed marking and assessment sent to students by e-mail - Online materials on preparing academic presentations, with video examples - Task: Students send in a video analysis (5 min) on their presentation experiences and any concerns about more formal presentations
Week 6	Online	Academic presentations and essays	- Lecturer's video lecture and feedback on presentation skills analyses from previous week - Task: Students post essay topics to Moodle
Week 7	Online	Academic essay	- Assignment: Academic essay (c. 1000 words)
Week 8	Onsite	Presentations	- Assignment: Delivering an academic presentation on campus, with peer feedback and discussion - Presentations recorded and files sent to students
Week 9	Online	Presentation self-analysis	- Task: Written or video self-analysis of the presentation performance and audience feedback

Weeks 10 - 11	Onsite or online	Feedback sessions	-	Each student attends an individual feedback session with the lecturer to discuss the essay and presentation

In practice the online components of the course were executed through the Moodle online learning environment. Moodle as a Virtual Learning Environment (VLE) is a typical delivery mode of the online part of a blended learning course for university purposes (Sharma, 2010) as it offers a great variety of functions such as integrating instructional material (via audio, video and text), e-mail, live chat sessions, online discussions, forums, quizzes, tests and assignments.

With the variety of tasks in the course, the role of the teacher was more of a facilitator rather than a lecturer (cf. Lernstrup, 2013), and the responsibility of the learning process was transferred more towards the students. Blended learning also allows instructors to promote behavioural, emotional and cognitive processes and development, highlighting the importance of reflection on learning processes (Yang, 2011). According to Picciano (2009), blending with purpose comprises of not only content but supporting students socially and emotionally in both the online components and the face-to-face meetings. Students should also be engaged to dialectics or questioning for instance through discussion boards in the online environment, and to reflective and collaborative learning, with a wide variety of methods, including online tools for the synthesis, evaluation and assessment of students' learning.

These principles were thus adopted in the construction of the EAP course as blended learning, i.e. the role of the lecturer was diminished and most of the discussion, reflection and commentary during the weekly tasks was performed by the students themselves as peer feedback or comments. After all, peer assessment can improve the tasks of both the author and the reviewer as students can identify strengths and weaknesses in their peers' work (Stein & Graham, 2014). Asynchronous online tools typical of blended learning such as discussion forums, email and wikis lists (MacDonald, 2008; Stein & Graham, 2014) were actively used throughout the course to engage the students to the collaborative learning process and to commit them to what Glazer (2011) refers to as essential in effective online learning: discourse, reflection and writing. In some weeks, online lectures were also used to relay information to the students on new topics. However, the online lectures were always supported by other materials and were kept relatively short (between 6 and 12 minutes) to ensure the students' interest. The lectures were then rather prefaces to the week's tasks and activities rather than traditional classroom lectures, which in any case are often rare in ESP and EAP teaching.

Online EAP writing assignments

The main assessed assignments on the course were connected to academic writing and presentations. In addition to the weekly tasks, students composed a critical review (c. 600 words) on a chosen journal article related to their own research interests and an academic essay (c. 1000 words) on their own research interests and/or Bachelor's thesis. The main written tasks were chosen to benefit the students' studies in Business and Economics and to elicit selective and purpose-driven reading and critical thinking (cf. Johns, 2009). To combat plagiarism in the writing assignments completed online, a common concern in EAP writing (Bloch, 2013), students provided a brief sample of their writing (45 minutes) in the first onsite meeting of the course and later the plagiarism software Turnitin® was applied to check students' assignments and instruct them in the use of proper referencing and paraphrasing techniques.

Onsite EAP oral assignment

In the main oral assignment, students prepared an academic presentation on a topic related to their own research interests, with suitable formality and use of reference materials. Students of Business and Economics at UEF are required to attend two previous ESP courses prior to this EAP course so they have already acquired experience preparing and delivering field-specific presentations in English. The transition into a more academic and formal style of presenting is therefore not considered overly challenging yet the use of more formal language and speaking on a research-based subject have been the main causes of concern with students on this course. This can refer to what Hyland (2009) has seen as a potential problem for undergraduate speakers in ESP and EAP classes, i.e. the adoption of an appropriate tenor, or interpersonal attitude to the audience, since students both seek to display knowledge and a presentational competence to the lecturer and also speak directly to their classmates.

The onsite presentation situation on the EAP course was, however, made arguably more comfortable for the students who had spent the majority of the course online, by the arrangement that students deliver their presentations to small groups of 4-5 students and the lecturer. This smaller audience was considered easier for all students but particularly those with performance anxiety or otherwise nerves about presenting (in English), and the smaller group of attendees also made providing peer feedback less strenuous when given in writing to only four or five fellow students.

Data collection and analysis

Data on the implementation and execution of the blended learning EAP course was gathered electronically with the course feedback form after two occasions: spring semester 2014 and autumn semester 2015. During those two semesters, 106 students of Business and Economics at UEF attended the EAP course, and 24 students provided optional feedback on the course with the electronic form, with a response rate of 23.1 %.

Students were not given any course credit or other incentive to provide feedback on the course.

The feedback form (see appendix) had six identical questions in both semesters, one multiple choice, two Likert scale and three open-ended questions. Students were asked to indicate their preferred mode of study for the course: blended, classroom, no preference or a chance to choose, and reasons for the choice. Students were also asked to evaluate the learning and teaching materials used on the blended learning EAP course with open-ended answers, the course workload using a 5-point Likert scale (1 = too much and 5 = very suitable), the learning atmosphere using a 5-point Likert scale (1= not encouraging and 5 = encouraging), and the most challenging aspects of the course as open-ended answers.

Descriptive statistics and frequencies of the response options were used to analyse the multiple choice and Likert scale questions. The qualitative open-ended responses were analysed using content analysis, with a coding scheme created for each individual question. The open-ended responses were coded using the original Finnish language to avoid any second-hand analysis of analysing the translated data instead of the original.

Results and Discussion

The EAP blended learning course in the spring semester 2014 and autumn semester 2015 was attended by 106 students. Of the participants 63.2 % (n=67) were male and 36.8 % (n=39) were female. This division can be seen as indicative of the gender representation of Business and Economics at UEF since in 2015 the UEF Business School hosted 633 Bachelor's level students, of whom 65.4 % were male and 34.6 % were female (Ministry of Education and Culture, 2015). Overall in Finnish universities the gender division in 2015 was 48.9 % males and 51.1 % females (ibid.) so this emphasises the more male-oriented preference to Business and Economics studies at UEF. However, gender was not specified in the course feedback form and therefore it will not be discussed separately in the results.

Blended learning vs. classroom learning

In the course feedback form students were asked about the course mode, i.e. if they preferred the blended learning they had attended, would have preferred classroom teaching, had no preference or would have liked the option to choose between blended or classroom teaching. The results (N=24) are listed in table 2.

Table 2 Frequency of the students' preference to the course mode (N=24)

Preferred course mode	Frequency (N=24)
Blended learning	18
Classroom teaching	4
Having a choice between blended or classroom	1
No preference	1

As can be seen in table 2, the majority of students (n=18, 75 %) preferred the blended learning option for the EAP course they had attended. Students were asked to specify reasons in open-ended answers for their selection in the follow-up question. Content analysis revealed two main reasons for the preference to blended learning: time management and convenience. Below are comments written by students, translated from the original Finnish. The comments are identified with a letter marker S (student) and numerical marker (1-24).

Especially for my own busy spring this blended learning was an excellent fit. (S1)

Blended learning is a good choice since I have also other courses to complete and work to go to. (S2)

Not having to sit in compulsory classes for several hours every week made it easier to plan my studies, which is important at the end of the Bachelor's level. (S3)

I liked the blended learning because it suited my own schedule better than required classroom meetings. (S9)

The results appear to reflect similar findings obtained in previous studies of university-level blended learning where students have expressed high satisfaction with the implementation of blended learning (Albrecht, 2006), with particular emphasis on convenience. Similar trends related to positive responses to reduced attendance requirements have also been found by Sharpe et al. (2006) and the subsequent time-saving and flexibility aspect of blended learning by Moskal and Cavanagh (2014).

Working and/or studying at a distance from the university campus have also been one of the main rationales for the implementation of blended learning (e.g. Gaebel et al., 2014), visible also in this study in the student responses:

A blended learning course is a crucial option for a distance learning student. (S11)

Blended learning makes it possible to move and it's not tied to any one place and that's important. (S15)

This also carries a connection to the initial reason for the UEF Business School to request the EAP course to be offered as a blended learning course. With a diverse student population and the extensive numbers of distance learning students at UEF and its Business School, blended learning courses also for language and communication courses will arguably grow in demand.

Students who either would have preferred the course to run as classroom teaching (n=4) or would have liked to have been able to choose between a blended learning and a classroom learning option (n=1) in the open-ended answers mostly missed the contact of face-to-face communication. This has also been a frequent misgiving in previous findings on blended learning where students have indicated that classroom communication is a vital component of higher education (Akyol & Garrison, 2011) and in blended learning some students have missed the efficiency of instant responses, personal contact and peer interaction (So & Brush, 2008; Picciano, 2009). These same themes were also visible in the student responses on this EAP course:

I still feel I would have learned more in classroom teaching because my own participation would have been more active. (S12)

It could be useful to have the option to choose between blended and classroom, at least for students with poor language skills, to get the optimal level of learning. (S17)

Some number of classroom meetings would suit me better because they bring presence to the course. Now I felt the course practically didn't exist. (S18)

Hence clearly some students felt they would have benefitted more from the classroom learning environment, particularly in an EAP language and communication course such as this. Admittedly, one of the downsides of blended learning for EAP courses can be the reduced amount of face-to-face oral practice, even though in this course audio and video were used in the course activities and tasks.

Learning and teaching methods

Students were also asked to evaluate the learning and teaching methods with open-ended answers, with 21 of the 24 respondents providing feedback in writing. Overall,

the student responses to the weekly tasks, instructions and materials were positive, with some students focusing on the weekly tasks and course progression and some on the larger written and oral assignments.

I felt the tasks and assignments were challenging enough to acquire learning. The weekly tasks were good because I was able to keep myself at a certain pace. (S2)

The weekly tasks were suitable and I was able to complete them every week and not have something huge at the end of the course. The smaller weekly tasks also gave a better chance to complete different types of activities and learn academic English in various ways. (S3)

Versatile teaching methods: different written tasks, discussions, video, presentation. (S4)

While these comments on the EAP blended learning course are overall positive and encouraging, the comments could mostly also apply to any regularly scheduled classroom teaching course for EAP skills. The variety of methods was appreciated yet the same variety can be seen in most ESP and EAP teaching in university language centres across Finland, the European Higher Education Area and globally. Therefore, a more suitable comparison with the methods could have been drawn with other online or blended courses that the students had attended during their studies where they may have had less interaction and fewer tasks on a weekly basis and instead materials to read and a larger learning assignment to complete at the end of the course.

On this course the consistent and active use of weekly tasks, reflection and peer comments were considered essential to developing academic English communication skills in a blended learning environment. Since blended learning allows students more time to reflect on their thoughts rather than participate in discussions instantaneously in the classroom, this was a systematic part of the course progression, and also commented on by one student in the course feedback:

I think studying at home and thinking about the style in peace was even more effective than attending limited hours in the classroom. (S7)

Glazer (2011) and Stein and Graham (2014) have argued that for this very reason blended learning is often beneficial for quieter or more hesitant students who can utilise more time to express themselves through written online tasks and discussions.

Another key element of blended learning, cooperative and collaborative learning, was also emphasised on this EAP course as students repeatedly provided peer feedback to each other, on both the weekly tasks and the larger assignments. In previous studies

on blended learning in the university context, students have equated blended learning with a sense of community, collaborative inquiry and deep learning (Voegele, 2014) and a similar process was identified with at least two students in the course feedback:

> *At least for me it was useful to get peer feedback from other students on my writing and nice to read others' thoughts about the same subject. (S8)*

> *The best thing about this course was the writing tasks and the feedback received from both the instructor and other students. (S14)*

Workload

The EAP course was a 3 ECTS credit course which means students were expected to 'attend' the course for c. 36 hours and study independently for c. 45 hours. The larger assignments on this blended learning course were the same as completed when the course was organised as a traditional classroom teaching course. The main difference in the workload could be argued to be the required attendance of two hours twice a week for nine weeks, versus independent weekly tasks for nine weeks and presentations and feedback sessions on campus. A 5-point Likert scale was used to determine the perceived workload of the students on this course, the results of which can be seen in figure 2.

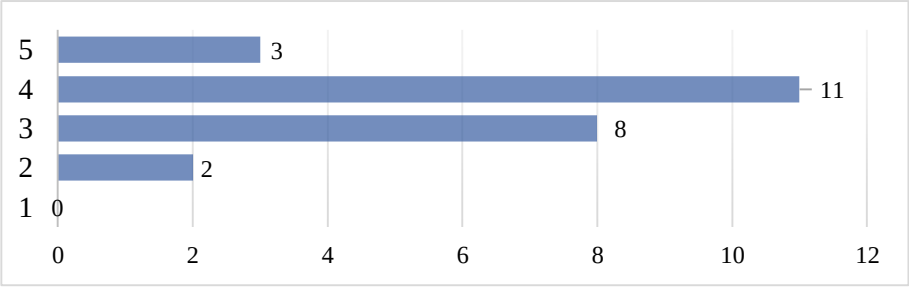

Fig. 2 Workload in the blended learning EAP course (N=24).

The mean for the perceived workload in the Likert scale between 1 (too much) and 5 (very suitable) was 3.48, with a median of 4 and standard deviation of 1.04. This would indicate the students found the amount of work required on the course mostly reasonable. At times Finnish university students on ESP and EAP courses have complained about the amount of work required with the variety of exercises, assignments and required attendance (cf. Author, 2014) yet in this case with the required attendance mostly removed, the workload, while taking virtually the same number of

weeks with weekly tasks and larger assignments, was still considered reasonable and manageable.

Learning atmosphere

Another 5-point Likert scale question in the course feedback form was connected to the perceived learning atmosphere, with 1 = not encouraging and 5 = encouraging. Questions related to the learning atmosphere are also recommended for all feedback forms at the University of Eastern Finland and therefore also relevant in this EAP course feedback form. The learning atmosphere in most learning is often the classroom atmosphere but in blended learning the atmosphere can be seen to comprise of the tasks, instructions, the style and tone they are written, the student and lecturer comments, the students' peer feedback comments and the overall tone of the course. Hadfield (2013) maintains that a positive atmosphere can be beneficial to the morale, motivation and self-image of the class or course participants so attempts should be made in all learning to entice this elusive, intangible quality.

Because of the nature of blended learning and in this course the prominent use of the online component, it was also vital to distinguish how students perceived this type and mode of learning in their field-specific and academic language and communication studies which traditionally have emphasised face-to-face communication situations in the classroom. The scores for the course learning atmosphere are illustrated in figure 3.

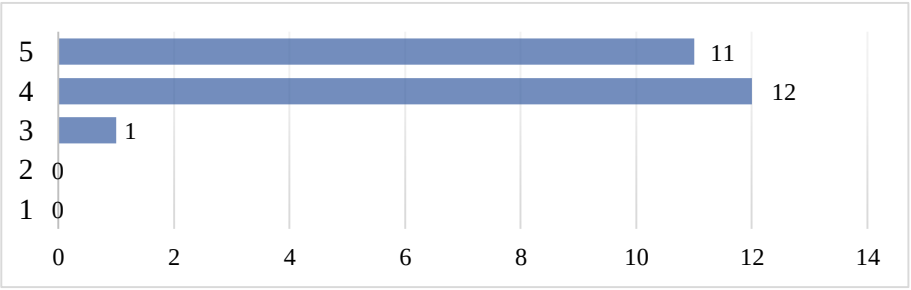

Fig. 3 Learning atmosphere in the blended learning EAP course (N=24).

The results for learning atmosphere for this blended learning course for EAP are encouraging since 23 of the 24 (95.8 %) students were either satisfied or very satisfied with the learning atmosphere during the course. Similar high percentages of overall course satisfaction have been obtained in US studies of blended learning (e.g. Dziuban et al., 2006; Moskal & Cavanagh, 2014).

Perceived challenges in the EAP blended learning course

The final item on the course feedback form concerned challenges posed by the course, either with blended learning or the course content. The open-ended question was answered in writing by 18 of the 24 respondents, with six students leaving the question blank. From this it could be inferred several students on the course did not find any specific element of the course mode or content too challenging for their skills or knowledge.

From the 18 responses most students found academic writing to be the most challenging of the course (n=6), followed by delivering an academic presentation (n=4) (Table 3).

Table 3 Comments received from students regarding the most challenging aspect of the EAP blended learning course (n=18).

Response	Frequency (n=18)
Academic writing	6
Academic presentation	4
Course subject (EAP)	2
Motivation	2
Self-study	2
Time management	1
Skills	1

Overall the comments would appear to signal the general challenges of adapting to a more formal style of English as academic writing and presentations were considered the most challenging. As academic style requires the use of academic vocabulary and longer, more complex language structures, it is an advanced level of English, especially for non-native speakers. However, while writing, presentation skills and the course subject of EAP were generally the most common topics posing challenges on the course, four comments could be deduced to relate to blended learning: motivation (n=2), self-study (n=2) and time management (n=1). Therefore, for some students the course mode of blended learning was the primary challenge in the learning process, with comments confirming these tendencies:

Finding the motivation to study was difficult. (S1)

Independent study and motivation to the independent study were the most challenging to me. (S12)

Perhaps finding a pace for the tasks and assignments and starting early enough. (S17)

Time management because I was working on my Bachelor's thesis and it was difficult to disconnect and focus on this course. (S24)

Some of the comments could be also infer to general study motivation or time management which can be challenges for some students in higher education. However, the emphasis on independent study seems evident and the need for some students to obtain more structured classroom learning to help them pace the course content and assignments more effectively.

Conclusions

This study aimed to explore non-native university students' perceptions of learning English academic writing and presentation skills through blended learning. The purpose was to determine how students viewed blended learning in general and in connection to their EAP studies, if any would have preferred classroom teaching, and how they perceived the materials, methods, workload, learning atmosphere and challenges in the EAP course organised as blended learning.

The results of the study indicate that the Finnish university students of Business and Economics demonstrated an enthusiasm for blended learning, particularly for its convenience, flexibility and greater allowances for individual time management, reflecting similar results obtained in earlier studies on blended learning in higher education (cf. Albrecht, 2006; Moskal & Cavanagh, 2014; Sharpe et al., 2006). A vast majority (75 %, n=18) of the respondents on the course preferred the blended learning mode they had attended, with only a few (n=4) indicating a need for more traditional classroom learning. While some students did show an inclination for more face-to-face contact, overall these results appear to support the implementation of blended learning for EAP courses.

Nevertheless, the role of face-to-face communication in EAP studies should remain prominent but the methods to implement the personal contact can be varied. With this course, some students signalled the need for more classroom communication to activate their speaking skills and to commit them more strongly to the course. However, on the whole these Finnish university students were able to commit to the blended learning course through the weekly tasks, posting comments and peer feedback and attending the few onsite sessions. It would appear that this combination of commitment and flexibility created a positive learning experience on the course.

While the course lasted for 11 weeks and most weeks included smaller weekly tasks and/or larger written or oral assignments, the workload for the course was considered

either very suitable or very reasonable by 58 % (n=14) of the respondents. Similarly, the learning atmosphere on the course was considered either encouraging or good by 95 % (n=23) of the respondents which can be seen as a positive result in any type of learning process. In this blended learning mode, it also reflects the variety of tasks and the active use of peer comments and feedback and instructor comments and feedback throughout the course.

Teaching EAP skills in any higher education institution to non-native speakers of English can be a challenging task but the results of this study indicate that blended learning is a viable option and a learning mode that today's busy and digitally adept students appreciate. Today's university students seem to have recognised the role of blended learning in encouraging them to learn more independently and taking responsibility for their time management (Riley et al., 2014). Effective blended learning still requires finding a balance between the online and onsite components in connection to the course learning outcomes, content and assessment through careful planning. In addition, developing any EAP blended learning course benefits intensely from student feedback and perceptions to create the most effectively blend of information and activities to entice meaningful learning. Ideally, the results of this study, while limited in size and scope, will encourage more EAP instructors to utilise blended learning with EAP writing and presentation skills as for students the benefits of the blend seem significant.

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Appendices

Appendix A

Questions from the EAP course feedback form

1. This course on academic writing and presentation skills is currently organised as a blended learning course. What is your preference to the course mode? (Select one only)

   - o Blended learning
   - o Classroom learning
   - o I have no preference
   - o I would like the chance to choose between blended and classroom learning

2. Please specify your reasons for the selection above (open-ended)

3. How would you evaluate the teaching and learning methods and materials used on this blended learning course? (open-ended)

4. How do you evaluate the course workload for yourself?
   1 = too much
   2 = heavy but can be done
   3 = OK
   4 = very reasonable
   5 = very suitable

5. How do you evaluate the learning atmosphere on this course?
   1 = not encouraging
   2 = could be better
   3 = OK
   4 = good
   5 = encouraging

6. What did you consider most challenging on this blended learning method? (open-ended)

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Genre of an Academic Lecture

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Abstract

The lecture is one of the most common forms of instruction in universities throughout the world being used as a form of studies, with the aim of conveying knowledge to a large number of students. The article looks at the nature of the academic lecture genre, its specific characteristics in comparison to other types of written or spoken modes of different genres. It introduces key theories of Genre Schools, such as New Rhetoric Studies, Systemic Functional Linguistics and English for Specific Purposes, explores the peculiarities of the university lecture as a separate genre, looks at its structure and studies the characteristic features.

Keywords

academic lecture genre, core and secondary genres, interdiscursivity, intertextuality, interdisciplinarity

Introduction

The author of the present article aimed at investigating the characteristic features of an academic lecture by looking at the findings of the schools of Genre studies and studying the probable macro-structure of a lecture. The idea underpinning the study was to find out the common features and peculiarities that are characteristic to contemporary lectures delivered in English as lingua franca to international students regardless of the field of their study with the further practical application of lecture structural models in the improvement of the efficiency of non-native speaking lecturers' discourse or preparing prospective and novice lecturers.

Theoretical Framework

During the last several decades, linguists have directed their attention to the study of written text and spoken discourse, including the lecture as a central spoken genre in higher education in Europe and many countries world-wide (e.g. Flowerdew 1994; Miller 2002). Three schools of Genre Studies were formed - New Rhetoric Studies, Systemic Functional Linguistics and English for Specific Purposes, though all three have been preoccupied with some specific study of genres, the distinction between the approaches is often vague, so they can be seen as complementary, rather than competing approaches.

New Rhetoric Studies (Hyon, 1996; Johns, 2002) is also called Rhetorical Genre Studies (RGS) with the term RGS coined by Freedman (1999, 2001) and developed by Bawarshi and Reiff (2010). The approach to discourse implicit in RGS was first introduced in Carolyn Miller's article "Genre as Social Action" (1984/1994). Miller (in Freedman and Medway, 1994) explained the significance of the genre studies for the pedagogical needs: "for the student, genres serve as keys to understanding how to participate in the actions of a community", for example, academic genres (a seminar, a workshop or a lecture) are usually tailored in such a way (linguistically) that help learners associate the specialized knowledge (linguistic forms, terminology, functional language) they acquire in the academic setting with their profession, get prepared for the active participation in the discourse community they will be representing, for example, work in the tourism industry for the students of the faculty of Tourism.

Miller (1984) proposed to consider genre as a social action, Berkenkotter and Huckin (1995) claimed that genres „can be modified according to rhetorical circumstances", "genres evolve, develop and decay", and in other words, although genres have a certain form, they should not be viewed as static texts as they can be modified depending on the communicative situation.

Systemic Functional Genre Studies, often known as 'the Sydney School' of genre studies, (Hyon, 1996) lay out their theoretical foundation on the works of Halliday (1994); Halliday and Matthiessen (2004), Halliday and Hasan (1976, 1985), and Martin (1984, 1992) who considered language primarily as a resource for making meaning, rather than as a set of rules. The importance of meanings in context is vividly shown in the quotation of one of the forefathers of the SFL approach Halliday (1985:10) who claimed that "for a linguist, to describe language without accounting for text is sterile; to describe text without relating it to language is vacuous." SFL involves the notion that language consists of a set of systems which offers the writer/speaker choices in expressing meanings. Systemic functional linguistics views meaning as social, where social meaning impacts on linguistic forms and the role of form is to serve a social function. Genre by SFL researchers is considered:

- social because people participate in genres with other people;
- goal-oriented because they use genres to get things done;

- staged because it usually takes a few steps to reach people's goals. (Martin and Rose, 2003)

Martin (2001) (in Nunan, 2008) differentiated between spoken and written genres, where the first may include "casual conversations, academic lectures, political speeches, talk show interviews", and so on, whereas the second group includes: "recounts, narratives, procedures, reports, explanations, expositions and discussions." Representatives of Australian movement of genre studies the Functional School of Genre theory looked at the functions of different texts. Users of separate genres may always keep in mind the functions and aims of the texts that they create, whether the aim is achieved and whether the choice of linguistic features is appropriate to the aim of that specific genre. For example, a love letter will look ridiculous if the formal cliché style of commercial correspondence is used or a lecturer may sound unprofessional if he uses only private informal examples from his personal experience to illustrate some concepts or ideas in the course of a lecture.

Having investigated findings by Halliday (1978), Halliday and Hasan (1985) and Martin (1992), Trappes-Lomax in Paltidge (2004) the following models and approaches pertinent to SFL were set out:

- "Language is seen not only as an autonomous system, but as a part of the wider socio-cultural context;
- language has a meaning potential – speakers and writers simultaneously represent experience (the ideational function), manage their relationship with the co-participants (the interpersonal function) and produce dialogue or monologue (the textual function);
- the realization of the meta-functions can be discerned at the micro-level of clause-structure and at the macro-level of context (register features: field, tenor and mode);
- systemic functional linguistics provides a comprehensive theory of text analysis and genre."

The English for Specific Purposes (ESP) Genre Theory (Bhatia, 1993, Swales, 1990, Flowerdew, 1993, Hopkins and Dudley-Evans, 1988, St John, 1998) has investigated genres in order to incorporate a better understanding of how language is structured to achieve goals in specific contexts of use. The theory has been especially welcomed by language teachers because of the expanding number of culturally and linguistically diverse students. The term 'genre' was first introduced in ESP in 1981 in an article by Tarone and her colleagues (Paltridge, 2001).The area of interest included spoken and written language of non-native speakers in academic and professional settings. Swales (1990, 2000, 2001, and 2004), who has become a crucial figure in ESP, has identified two key characteristics of ESP genre analysis:

- focus on academic and research English and
- use of genre analysis for applied ends (Swales, 1990).

Swales discussed quantitative studies of the linguistic properties of registers of a language with the purpose of identifying frequency of occurrence of certain linguistic features in a particular register. The linguist referred to genres as 'communicative events' with special 'communicative purposes' that possess their own "structure, style, content and intended audience" (Swales, 1990:58). The specific 'communicative purposes' are determined by the members of a 'discourse community' who provide the rationale and constrain the discourse structure, content, and purposes of a certain genre, and define its rhetorical functions. By the term 'discourse community' Swales (1990:466) means a group of people who share common purposes, and the setting of communication, for example, university lecturers and students of the same faculty who attend lectures. Later Flowerdew (2015) reviewed Swales's approach to pedagogy in Genre Analysis, acknowledged and elaborated on his concept of discourse community and suggested six characteristics relevant to discourse communities, which will be looked through below from the perspective of an academic lecture:

1. "Common public goals" – the common goal of the lecture participants – lecturer and students is the exchange and acquisition of new knowledge;
2. "Mechanisms of intercommunication among its members" (for example, lecture room, seminar room);
3. "Membership within a discourse community depends on individuals using these mechanisms to participate in the life of the discourse community" (students' and lecturers' background/ experience and the language competence);
4. "Discourse community utilizes and possesses one or more genres in the communicative furtherance of the aims"; these genres must be recognized by members of a discourse community (for example, lectures on Sustainable Finance may be better understood and discussed by the students studying finance rather than medicine, whereas medical discourse will most probably be problematic for the discourse community of business or finance studies);
5. "Discourse community has acquired some specific lexis, which can take the form of shared and specialized terminology, such as abbreviations and acronyms" This way, for example, a student who studies medicine might experience initial difficulties in understanding professional financial terminology, especially, acronyms and abbreviations. In other words, representatives of each discourse community possess specialized lexical stocks and schemata knowledge of the profession which can be ambiguous for the representatives of other discourse communities. This may mean that the content and the lexical units of the specialized subjects of other fields delivered to students for whom this subject is out of their professional circle have to be simplified to some extent and adapted to the needs of the target audience.
6. "A discourse community has a threshold level of members with a suitable degree of relevant content and discoursal expertise" who can pass on knowledge

of shared goals and communicative purposes to new members. So, shared goals and discoursal expertise of lecturers in the specific field are sent to the target audience (students) who in the course of time start belonging to the same discourse community as their lecturers.

Bawarshi (2010) who has provided the classification of all three genre schools considered that "a typical ESP approach to genre analysis will begin by identifying a genre within a discourse community and defining the communicative purpose the genre is designed to achieve. From there, the analysis turns to an examination of the genre's organization – its schematic structure – often characterized by the rhetorical "moves", and then to an examination of the textual and linguistic features (style, tone, voice, grammar, syntax) that realize the rhetorical moves." In other words, a linguist who wants to do the analysis of some text or discourse will proceed from a genre's schematic structure to the lexico-grammatical features, and as Flowerdew noted (1992), the process tends "to move from text to context."

Although the three Schools of Genre studies developed separately in different geographical areas and were focused on different objects of study, they have much in common. Both Sydney School and the ESP Genre School stressed the need to recognize the social dimension of genre ("genres are social actions"); emphasized the addressee, the context and the occasion (Adam and Artemeva, 1982). The difference between systemicists and ESP specialists lies in the target audience, where the former focuses on students who acquire English as a second language or whose English skills need improvement and the primary audience of the latter are students in EFL situations or those who study English for academic purposes. The present research will use findings of all three Schools described above, for example Bakhtin's (New Rhetoric School) views on speech genres, Halliday's (SFL) dimensions of tenor, field and mode, Swales's views on genre studies and other findings.

Genre, Register, Discourse, Style

Genre studies go back to the Ancient Greek times when Greek rhetoricians pointed out the systemic differences in purpose and structure between lyrics, epics and other literary forms. Aristotele in his *Poetics* used the word genre in the meaning of 'kind' or 'form' to refer to major types of literature: poetry, drama and the epic.

The present research requires the explanation and exemplification of the concepts *genre, register, discourse* and *styl*e since they are often encountered in diverse interpretations in the theories of genre, discourse, corpus linguistics and other studies and can sometimes be confusing and misleading for the readership.

As we have previously seen 'genre' was presented by the scholars of all three schools of genre studies as a multi-dimensional and a complex concept. The present part of the article will provide definitions by all three schools and will find those most suitable for the present research. Bakhtin (1986) defined genres as "relatively stable

types of . . . utterances" within which words and sentences attain typical expressions, relations, meanings, and boundaries, and within which exist "typical conception[s] of the addressee" and typical forms of addressivity. Other scholars of the New Rhetoric School, for example, Berkenkotter and Huckin (1995) considered that "genres are dynamic rhetorical forms that develop from responses to recurrent situations and serve to stabilize experience and give it coherence and meaning", Freadman (1994), Devitt (1991), and Orlikowski and Yates (1994) claimed that genres do not exist in isolation but rather in dynamic interaction with other genres.

Nunan (2007), representing ESP School of genre studies defined genre as "a purposeful, socially constructed oral or written text such as narrative, a casual conversation, a poem, a recipe or a description. Each genre has its own characteristic structure and grammatical form that reflects its social purpose." Nunan's definition of genre explains in a simple way that in order to belong to a specific genre, the text needs to have some social purpose, it should have different characteristics in structure and grammar, however the definition does not seem to be complete because it does not explain what exact characteristics the text may possess. One may find a more detailed definition of genre in the Encyclopedic Dictionary of Applied Linguistics (1999) compiled on the basis of the works of the representatives of ESP school of genre theory Bhatia (1993), Cook (1992) and Swales (1990):

> "Genres are types of spoken and written discourse recognized by a discourse community. Examples are lectures, conversations, speeches, notices, advertisements, novels, diaries, shopping lists. Each genre has typical features. Some may be linguistic (particular grammatical or lexical choices), some paralinguistic (e.g. print size, gesture) and some contextual and pragmatic (e.g. setting, purpose). Some genres overlap (a joke may also be a story) and one can contain another (a joke can be a part of a story)..."

This perception of genres as if clarifies Nunan's definition by specifying what characteristics/features genres may vary in: linguistics, paralinguistic, contextual and pragmatic. It also states the intertextual or interdiscursive aspect of genres, for instance, the speech of a lecturer may include quotations and stories from other texts by other authors, the so-called process of recontextualisation can be noticed in the discourse.

Some SFL scholars (Halliday, 1978; Frow, 1980) viewed the concepts of genre and register as synonyms whereas others, for example, Martin (1985) strongly differentiated between these two concepts. Martin considered genre being realized through registers, and registers being realized through languages. That is why the text from one genre may contain elements of tenor, mode and field from another text of another genre. The contextual variables of 'field', 'tenor' and 'mode', first introduced by Halliday (1985/89) have been elaborated on by Martin and Nunan, who claimed that 'field' refers to what and where something is going on, for example, tennis, opera, linguistics, cooking, building, construction, farming, education and so on. Martin (2001) considered

that 'tenor' is connected with personal relationships between the individuals involved in an activity, "e.g. the degree of power between two interactants will determine how a particular event is carried out", whereas 'mode' refers to the channel of communication, whether the text is written or spoken, if it is a face-to-face conversation or a telephone conversation. Nunan (2008) also suggested that two texts that are delivered to the receiver via different modes can belong to the same genre. The example provided by Nunan (ibid) shows that one and the same task discussed by the same interlocutors but using different channels (modes: face-to-face and a telephone conversation) brings to different text types within the same genre. Field and tenor remain the same, but the modes change. The difference between the definitions of genre and register proposed by Nunan (2008) is that genre relates to the context of culture, but register relates to the context of situation.

In the context of the present study, the concept ***genre*** will be used to refer to the social processes existing in institutional contexts and fulfilling communicative purposes; ***register*** will allow relating text and context through the features of 'field', 'tenor' and 'mode'. In the context of the present study the 'filed' refers to topic, theme of the lecture, a so called 'social activity', 'tenor' answers the question 'Who' and applies to the status of participants – in our case – lecturer and students, ascribes the relationship and the interpersonal skills of the actors, whereas 'mode' is concerned with the channel of communication, the format in which communication takes place, for example, a lecture as well as the format in which the lecture occurs, this is spoken mode. We agree that the constituencies of register may differ, but not necessarily the genre will immediately change, consequently, the lecturer's speech may change from monologue to the interactive mode of information delivery, however it will still belong to the genre of an academic lecture.

The 'mode' continuum suggested by Nunan (2008) can be adapted to the purposes of acquiring the content within academic genres and can be depicted as follows:

Table 1 Channel of Communication

Face-to-face interaction (e.g. seminar, workshop)	Monological type of lecture	Webinar / Skype lecture	Handouts / Textbook / Report	Use of Internet resources for distant learning and blended learning, e.g. Moodle

Immediate feedback ⟷ Delayed feedback

Depending on the possibility of contact between the interlocutors (in our case a lecturer and students) the 'quality' of feedback may differ from immediate to delayed: the interactive style presupposes a two-way communication, the closer there is the verbal contact between interlocutors, the more chance there exists for the immediate feedback, the easier way speakers may interfere into the conversation, ask, interrupt and

fulfil other communicative functions. A monological style involves active role of a speaker - speech of one participant and more passive roles of listeners (students) - the listening process of other 'stakeholders' who may have a "responsive attitude" (Bakhtin,1986) toward the speech, the feedback is less noticeable because participants (students) do not share their thoughts aloud although they may have inner mental processes taking place, that can be accompanied with the non-verbal behaviour demonstrating their feedback, the feedback can also be delayed until the moment when listeners (students) have to demonstrate the acquired knowledge in any form of test. Communication in a distant form, for example a lecture by Skype or a webinar may evoke immediate feedback when students ask or write questions and provide comments, however due to some technical discrepancies that can sometimes occur, students' feedback can be more delayed than during face-to-face communication. Written genres, such as, for example, reports, handouts and textbooks that may also serve as a study form do not presuppose the immediate feedback since they require more time for the cognitive processing of information – reading, considering and only then coming back with the reaction in the form of test, oral communication with a lecturer or any other form of test of knowledge.

Biber and Conrad (2009) differentiated among the terms 'register' and 'style' referring them to different perspectives on text varieties. They considered that the difference of style and register lies in the fact that style "reflects aesthetic preferences" of a particular author in some particular historical period. Style is connected with the individual use of language; it can also reflect the preferences of the user, for example, laconic style of writing or speech versus open and generous use of language or, the use of a monologue-type lecture versus an interactive style with a lot of student engagement.

Leech and Short (in Norgaad, 2010) define style as "the way in which language is used in a given context, by a given person, for a given purpose and so on." Style is restricted to the style of an author / speaker and can be characteristic of a situation, a character, a text, linguistic expressions used over time.

'Discourse' is a more general concept that includes 'genre' and the 'register' of some particular genre. It is "language above the sentence" or "language produced and interpreted in a real-world context" (Cameron, 2001). Discourse implies the use of both spoken and written modes of language.

ESP scholars, such as Paltridge (2006), Richards and Schmidt (2002) defined genre as a type of discourse that takes place in a particular setting, has "distinctive and recognizable patterns and norms of organization and structure" (ibid) and has distinctive communicative functions. Genre is considered as if a kind of structure for discourse where genre shapes the content and purpose of discourse and consequently any type of genre-based discourse has a particular content that people expect within this genre. So, if we want to organize all the above-mentioned concepts in the framework of their

meanings, then genre would be placed between discourse and register in the hierarchy, whereas style would follow register:

Table 2 Conceptual Framework

Discourse → Genre → Register → Style

Any discourse will belong to some specific genre, dependent on the communicative purposes of the speaker, whereas the genre will use some specific register, for instance a written mode or an oral mode, with the individual stylistic features of the author. So, for example, academic discourse may have different genres within it (lecture, seminar, workshop, conference, class, webinar, text book), whereas all these genres may belong to different modes (spoken, written, face-to-face, monologue, dialogue, conversation, etc.) with one speaker choosing the individual style (e.g. preferring reading aloud, whereas another speaker choosing to interact with students and to engage them in communication).

The table below was worked out by the author of the present article on the basis of the definitions of 'genre' by SFL and ESP scholars and demonstrates the example of the above hierarchy and the possible variations:

Table 3 Examples of Academic Discourse

Genre / Communicative Purpose	**Register**	**Style**
Academic lecture / to explain/ deliver new information to students	Field: (setting) lecture room, (theme) e.g. Marketing, Tenor: lecturer, students, Mode: spoken interaction / written text in the slides.	**Monological style** Use of Power Point slides. One way interaction. Individual style of the lecturer.
Academic lecture / to explain/ deliver new information to students, to make a discussion	Field: (setting) lecture room, (theme)e.g. subject in Marketing, Tenor: Lecturer, students, Mode: Spoken interaction / written text in the slides	**Interactive style** (involvement of students in communication); use of Power Point slides. Individual style of the speaker.
Seminar / Discuss the subject, find out the ideas, knowledge of students in the particular area	Field: (setting) **seminar room**, (theme) e.g. subject in Marketing, Tenor: **Students**, **lecturer**, Mode: Spoken interaction.	**Interactive style** (involvement of students in communication); use of Power Point slides. Individual style of the speaker.
Conference / Share knowledge, get new ideas	Field: (setting) Conference **room**, (theme) e.g. subject in Marketing	Presentations with the use of Power Point.

	Tenor: Academic staff, Mode: Spoken interaction / written text in the slides.	Individual style of the speaker.
Textbook	Field: subject in Marketing Tenor: Academic staff, students from the same academic discourse community, Mode: written text.	Individual style of the writer.

The present table demonstrates that texts of different registers and genres can belong to the category of similar discourse (academic discourse) regardless of whether they are of spoken or written mode.

Genre of the Academic Lecture

The lecture is one of the most common forms of instruction in universities throughout the world. All educational institutions use the lecture as a form of studies, with the aim of conveying knowledge to a large number of students (Buckley, 2000; Custers and Boshuizen, 2002; Pettu, 2001). Lectures are an example of genre, they may be attended by the students of mathematics, but also by the students in other fields, therefore lectures represent a genre, but not a register. Lectures are supposed to be delivered by experts who possess practical and theoretical knowledge in the field of their subject, have excellent presentation-making and socializing skills; lecturers are able to give examples of practical application and to relate personal experience with the content of the lecture. A successful lecture would be presenting relevant content to the motivated audience in the appropriate setting, delivering "value-laden discourses in which lecturers not only present information to the audience, but also express their attitudes and evaluation of the materials" (Thomson, 1994, Lee, 1990, 1994).

Social science lectures delivered through the spoken channel are also characterized by social relations of the participants and their mutual interaction (lecturer – student, student-student, and student - lecturer). However, sometimes lecturers prefer to choose the monological type of lecture that is deprived of any interaction with the target audience, is speaker-focused and does not expect students' feedback.

Lecture is an example of an 'oral academic genre' which has been studied by such researchers as Giménez (2000), Bellés and Fortanet (2004) or 'pedagogical process genre' (Thompson, 1994, Lee, 2008). Representatives of ESP school of genre studies (Carter and McCarthy, 1997) consider lecture a pedagogical genre, Camiciottoli (2007) who represents school of Systemic Functional Linguistics considers that a lecture is a genre realized through the *pedagogic register*, "featuring the informational content of the lecture as *field*, the lecturer-audience relationship as *tenor* and face-to-face spoken language as *mode*" (ibid.). The lecturer is supposed to fulfill different functions during a lecture: to describe objects, notions, concepts or events in their static and dynamic

form, to narrate, creating a sequence of events, where there are the stages of problem crisis, and solution or resolution, to inform, explain, discuss, develop cause and effect arguments, to provide definitions, to compare and draw conclusions. This process is ensured by the fact that lecturers usually are aware of the genre specifics of the academic lecture. As Flowerdew (1994) pointed out, lecture research: "knowledge of the linguistic/discoursal structure of lectures will be of value to content lecturers in potentially enabling them to structure their own lectures in an optimally effective way."

Academic lecture as a separate genre may be attributed to the secondary genre (Bakhtin, 1986), since a modern lecture is a combination of written and spoken genres – the text in the Power Point presentation often includes quotations from other texts (written or oral); the lecturer uses theoreticians' quotations while delivering the lecture; thus, he bases his discourse on the texts of other authors.

On the other hand, each lecture is an example of the individual style of a lecturer, each new lecture is unique and cannot be reproduced word for word by any other lecturer, even by the same author, because the cognitive and communicative processes are dynamic, ever-changing, and situative (occurring in relation to a specific situation) that may be dependent on such circumstances as target audience (e.g. students), setting (lecture room), time of the lecture, et cetera.

The idea of Bakhtin (1968) about "responsive attitude" of speech communication may be applied to the situation of an academic (university) lecture – students' perception of the lecturer's discourse does not always result in an immediate response but can lead to delayed action – a student uses thoughts and words of a lecturer in his further work in the subject – a test, a seminar, creating a written text and later, hopefully in the course of his professional life. As Bakhtin (1986) stated: "any speaker is himself a respondent to a greater or lesser degree" as a result, any utterance produced by a speaker is a "complexly organized chain of other utterances." In other words, both a lecturer and students become speakers and respondents who reproduce other speakers' utterances. Moreover, the lecturer may also use students' ideas and words; the so called cyclic process takes place.

An important characteristic of spoken genre is the fact that there is no direct distinction between a sentence and an utterance in the speech (Bakhtin, ibid). It is important to note that not always the boundaries of sentences are determined by the change of the speaking subject. This peculiarity of speech that can be noticed while listening to an academic lecture can cause a problem with the lecture perception; this may occur in the situation when a lecturer is not a good orator and does not use pauses for the demonstration of the change of the topic or end of the theme, or uses pauses in places that mislead the listeners from the right perception of the lecture.

The idea of '**speech plan**' (Bakhtin, 1986) or 'educational exigence' sounds applicable in the context of a university lecture – the lecturer has a plan of his speech that he follows, does not matter, how spontaneous or improvising the discourse may

sometimes sound; the lecture is a separate genre, that expects a lecturer choosing the most applicable forms of address to the audience, using specific terminology, characteristic to the subject being taught.

The lecture is characterized by such concepts as '**involvement'** and '**detachment'** (Chafe, 1982) – different concerns and relations that speakers and writers have with their audience. Unlike writers who are removed from their audience, lecturers need to communicate and to reflect their own emotional participation – 'experiential involvement' (Chafe, ibid). The importance of the lecturer, his presence / authority in the discourse he creates – expression of personal feelings, attitudes and emotions (Biber and Finegan, 1989), 'stance' have been studied by Biber (1994).

Lecture is an interactive and an involving activity. The characteristic features are the use of special lexical-grammatical elements that serve different functions, for example, inviting students to speak, asking, confirming, disagreeing, and etcetera. The interactional dimension of speech has been elaborated by Goffman (1981) who sees speech as "participation framework", he (1981) distinguished different speaker production formats that include:

- 'animator' (the person who physically produces the text / speech)
- 'author' (the person who is the author of the speech) and
- 'principle' (the person or organization who endorse the content of the speech)

Goffman recognized the triple role of lecturers as principal, author and animator all in the same person and whose 'status' can change when, for example, a lecturer shifts to a more personal self, e.g. digressing from the topic of a lecture.

Another characteristic feature of the academic lecture as a genre is the aspect of '**contextuality'**, '**situationality'** or '**improvisation'**. The lecture, does not matter how many times the lecturer has spoken about the same topic, is always delivered at the moment of speaking; it is a flow of speech that is dynamic, never static, never the same. The main characteristics of the academic discourse could be:

- The speech of a lecturer should be logical and consistent;
- The speech should be systematic and clear;
- The speech elements can be of standard type, lecturers may use cliché – type phrases in the metadiscourse of a lecture;
- The speech should be objective;
- The speech should be unambiguous;
- The speaker should be laconic;
- The speech should have intellectual expressivity.

It is important to note that the lecture as a genre is **changing** and has changed a lot from the times when it was first used as a pedagogical form from old-fashioned "chalk and talk" (as information transmission) and "sage on the stage" (an educator, who imparts knowledge by lecturing to an audience; the method of imparting knowledge

used by such an educator) to a more interactive and more constructive "guide on the side" (King, 1993).

Genre mixing (Helal, 2013) has become a contemporary trend of a modern lecture – a combination of spoken and written / formal and informal registers, supplementing of speech with the use of visual materials demonstrated with the help of various modern means. Decades ago it was an overhead projector, today these are programmes such as PowerPoint, YouTube, Prezi, Elluminate Live, VoiceThread, Adobe Captivate and other technical aids.

Aguilar (2004) quoted in Camiciotolli (2004) has mentioned the **hybrid nature** of peer seminars, sharing some features with lectures, conference presentations and written research article. However, the hybrid nature can be attributed to a genre of an academic lecture too, because lectures today often are a mixture of different pedagogical genres: a research article that may be quoted by a lecturer, a seminar, when a lecturer invites students to interact; group work, discussion or a conference, when a lecturer asks students to present some works within the lecture.

A lecture today is "a remarkably adaptable and robust genre that combines textual record and ephemeral event, and that is capable of addressing a range of different demands and circumstances, both practical and epistemological" (Friesen, 2011). Böhme (quoted in Friesen 2011: 101) introduced the term "transmedial culture" to denote the significance and the emphasis of media on the modern culture in pedagogy.

The use of multiple sources of information both in oral and verbal ways makes the process of lecture more complex and the perception of lecture by students more intricate. Students today are forced to multitask –not only listening to the speaker and taking notes, but following the speech and reading the written text from the screen, perceiving video-recorded volumes of information. As a result, information processing is becoming more complex.

The academic lecture can be an example of '**interdiscursivity'** (Foucault (1969), Fairclough (2003) - one genre interacting with another – for example a genre which represents a combination of spoken discourse (speech of a lecture) and written mode (Power Point presentation) and '**intertextuality'** (Kristeva, 1980; Bakhtin, 1981, 1986) having texts created by lectures on the bases of other texts and adding stories or quotations of other authors into the newly-created text (discourse). Bakhtin (1981, 1986) emphasized the 'dialogic' qualities of texts, that is, how multiple voices are transformed , Kristeva (1986) talked about the ways in which texts and ways of talking refer to and build on other texts and discourses (Kristeva 1986). Recent ESP approaches to genre study acknowledge the dynamic and interactive nature of genres (Bawarshi and Reif, 2010), they attend to what Swales calls "genre chains", "genre systems" (Bazerman, 1994), "genre sets" (Devitt, 1991) – taking into account other genres with which the target genre interacts and "intertextuality"– borrowings from other texts, one genre interacting with another, one genre is necessary antecedent for another" (Swales,

2004) or as Counine (in Fairclough, 1992) called it "separating an interior and an exterior". Fairclough (1992) and Hyatt (2003) use the term "interdiscursivity". Intertextuality may take various forms, Flowerdew (2013) summarized the findings on it (Kristeva, 1980, Bakhtin, 1981, 1986, Fairclough, 1992, Devitt, 1991) and worked out the typology of intertextuality. The author of the present article adapted it for the purposes of the analysis of the intertextuality of academic lectures.

Table 4 Types of Intertextuality in the Academic Discourse

Type of intertextuality	**Definition**	**Source**
Manifest intertextuality = Horizontal	Quotation, citation and paraphrase	Fairclough (1992a) Kristeva (1986)
Constitutive intertextuality = Vertical intertextuality	Refers to merging prior texts in new texts which may assimilate, contradict, or ironically echo them	Fairclough (1992a) Kristeva (1986)
Functional intertextuality	When a text is part of a larger system of texts dealing with a particular issue	Devitt (1991)

All these types of intetextuality are interconnected, although lecture as a separate genre is mostly characterized by "manifest intertextuality" (horizontal) when the lecturer quotes other authors on whose materials his course is based, paraphrases or generalizes the citations of others manifesting their ideas in discourse, projecting their identities in his text. "Constitutive intertextuality" (vertical) in a lecture discourse may be noticed if the speaker exemplifies several authors who contradict one to another or quote something ironically. Since the course usually contains a series of consequent lectures, 'functional intertextuality' may also be observed, when the lecturer continues a new lecture with the use of information from the previous lecture.

Finally, it is worth mentioning Camiciottoli (2007) who pointed at the interconnected nature of the concepts of interdiscursivity and intertextuality relating to the academic lecture:

"When preparing lectures, speakers often draw from texts written by others and refer to these explicitly during the lecture itself. While speaking, they may make reference to various written texts, such as a textbooks, handouts, overhead slides or writing on the chalkboard. Thus, formal written texts are transformed into spoken discourse of a more conversational and interactive nature, thus rendering their concepts more accessible to learners."

Interdisciplinarity may be called as another important feature of academic lecture genre. It applies to social science lectures delivered in English, since a lecturer is not only a subject expert but also a language researcher – one who is obliged to make mental notes on terminology – looking for the translations of concepts, thinking about the

appropriate formulation of sentences in a foreign language. Lectures are always interdisciplinary because there is no science that is purely homogenous. Most social science lectures incorporate topics from other disciplines, for example, the subject Intercultural Communication may include information of such subjects as History, Linguistics, Anthropology, Geography, Economics, Social Psychology, Communication, Information Technologies, Globalization and others. Moreover, a modern lecture today comprises the use of statistics, visual arts (e.g. graphics, diagrams), social sciences and other disciplines.

Macro - Structure of an Academic Lecture

It was admitted (Wijasuriya, 1982; Lebauer, 1984; Chaudron and Richards, 1986, Flowerdew, 1994) that an inability to recognize macro-structure of a lecture is seen as one of the main problems of non-native speakers in understanding lectures. Understanding the formal structure of a lecture facilitates better understanding, planning and delivery to the target audience. In "Advice to a Lecturer", Michael Faraday, described the following on the lecturer, "his thoughts … and his mind clear from the contemplation and description of his subject"; on diction," a lecturer should endeavor … to obtain … the power of clothing his thoughts and ideas in language smooth and harmonious and at the same time simple and easy. His periods should be complete and expressive, conveying clearly the whole of the ideas" (cited by Murray, 1999).

The present part aims at eliciting the possible theoretical findings on structuring an academic lecture through the overview of the rhetorical and move analysis of Systemic Functional School of genre studies and English for Special Purposes genre studies and to create the model most suitable for the structural analysis of the academic lecture discourse.

The university lecture discourse is not purely monological, neither fully dialogical; it is oriented towards the audience as well as expects the audience interaction. The structural analysis of lecture extracts can allow finding out the successes and possible reasons of failures of the lecturer-student interaction in the course of a lecture.

The Systemic Functional Linguistics that laid the groundwork for the studies of spoken language within the tradition of Discourse Analysis has described the classroom discourse that deals with the interactions between the teacher and individual students in school settings (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975) as a series of three-part exchanges: Initiation – Response – Feedback (IRF), which contain 21 functional moves, for example, framing, focusing, answering, et cetera. Coulthard and Sinclair (1975, 2002) studied the classroom interaction and developed the Discourse Analysis (DA) model to analyze spoken discourse that is also known as the Birmingham model or, at the level of *exchange*, the Initiation-Response-Follow-up structure (IRF). They initially differentiated two ranks: *utterance* and *exchange*, where "*utterance* was defined as everything said by one speaker before another began to speak, and *exchange* as two or

more utterances." Later following Bellack (1966) they added another category move because a two-way exchange is not always the case, often "moves combine to form utterances which in turn combine to form exchanges." It was agreed to express the structure of exchanges in terms of moves. A three layer structure of interaction in the classroom was introduced: *initiation* by the teacher, followed by a *response* from the pupil, followed by *feedback*. The boundaries in the lesson noticed by Sinclair and Coulthard (ibid:3) were indicated by functional words 'right', 'well', 'good', 'OK', 'now', that occurred in the speech of all teachers. The term *frame* was used to mark off the "settling-down time" (ibid), (*such as now, now then*); *focus* was used to denote "metastatements about the discourse". By metastatements they meant statement about the statement, it is probable to suppose that the term was not frequently used and can be interchangeable with the concept *metadiscourse* - linguistic features commenting on the content of the text - that was studied by Hyland (2005, 2009). Other terminology introduced by Sinclair and Coulthard (ibid) included transaction, lesson, period and act. The final DA model contained the ranking scale of 4 components in descending order of hierarchy: transaction, *exchange*, *move* and *act*. Thus, the structure of transaction by Sinclair and Coulthard (ibid) consisted of units of exchanges, exchange units of moves, and move units of acts. The model has evolved and expanded (Coulthard and Montgomery (1981), Sinclair and Brazil (1982), and Sinclair and Coulthard (1992)) to allow the application of less-structured discourse.

IRF model is perfect for the analysis of everyday speech and classroom talk, but since the traditional academic speech that is the object of the present study has lengthy episodes of lecturer speaking (with some interruptions for questions made by students) and is much more complex by its structure than a school lesson this model cannot be considered as the only one or the most appropriate for the analysis of lecture discourse.

Move analysis was also initiated by ESP school - Swales (1990) and Bhatia (1993) who studied the interconnection of "communicative purposes" and properties of texts claimed that people who belong to the same discourse community and regularly participate in some genre "share similar communicative purposes" (Flowerdew, 2013) that are expressed in a series of "staged" moves. The most frequently quoted model among ESP practitioners is the CARS model ('Create A Research Space') by Swales (1990) who looked at academic research article introductions and attributed to moves and steps the characteristics of being 'obligatory or optional', 'sequencing', and even 'embedded one within another' (ibid) Swales's model is represented by three stable 'moves' and 'steps' that serve as sub-moves, he described texts as a sequence of rhetorical moves: Establishing a territory (Move 1), Establishing a niche (Move 2), Occupying the niche (Move 3) with the corresponding steps/sub-moves (for example, Move 1 including Claiming *centrality, Making topic generalization(s), Reviewing items of previous research*).This model is applicable for the professional and academic writers, it has been adapted to teaching research papers, for example Swales's "Writing

for Graduate Students"(2001) that was designed to help non-native students with their academic writing based on the texts from a wide array of disciplines (from medical engineering to music theory). We consider that CARS model is suitable for the analysis and development of written texts, however it is not very applicable for the analysis of spoken academic discourse that is less rigid, less structured and can have more variations in style.

Thompson (1994) used Swales's (1990) rhetorical move analysis to describe the structure of lecture introductions. She noted that lecturers appear to be ''aware . . . of the need to set up a framework for the lecture discourse and provide a context for the new information to come" (Thompson, 1994) however, she pointed out that lecture introductions seem to lack a preferred rhetorical order and also vary in their move structure. She concluded that rather than having a typical move structure, lecture introductions are a largely unpredictable mix of two discrete functions - *setting up lecture framework* and *putting the topic in contex*t and their respective subfunctions (for example, announcing topic). Thompson (ibid) gave a very clear model for the lecture introduction but it did not include enough of the introduction part as well as functions because she was mostly concerned with the development of listening to lectures.

The exploratory study by Lee (2009) who investigated the impact of class size on the rhetorical move structures and lexico-grammatical features of academic lecture introductions is of interest for the purpose of our study because he extended Thompson's model and proposed three moves, including *Warming up, Setting up the lecture framework and Putting the topic in contex*t. The researcher subdivided the moves not into sub-functions but into steps, put next to each step evaluation of whether it is obligatory or optional in the lecture setting depending on the size of the audience.

We will take all the moves and steps by Lee into consideration of the present research without accounting for the number of attendees since all of them were noticed in the course of observing the soft science lectures, independent of the size of the group. According to Lee (ibid) Move 1 acts as an introduction to the forthcoming lecture, giving students time to attend to other matters about the course that may or may not be related to the current lecture. Step 1 *Making a digression* allows the lecturer to offer students "general course information and course-related asides (or digressions). Digressions as often unconscious for the lecturers technique is often used by them to lighten up the content of the lecture, for example, self-mention, joking. As Camiciottoli (2005) put it: "asides or digressions serve as a way for lecturers to create a relaxed environment and maintain a positive lecturer–audience relationship." Step 2 *Housekeeping* may provide information about organizational *issues*, the lecture that is not going to take place or is postponed, step 3 *Looking ahead* may be connected with the future actions (for example, instructions to read some texts to foster the course understanding, to prepare for the test or exam).

Move 2 is concerned with the introduction of the topic of the lecture realized through step 1 *Announcing the topic*, step 2 *Indicating the scope, step* 3 *Outlining the structure and step* 4 *Presenting the aims.* As the names suggest step 1 may deal with announcing the theme, step 2 with talking in general about the scope of the lecture, step 3 may provide the plan of the presentation and step 4 would give goals of the lecture. Lee (ibid) noted that these three steps in move 2 are messier, are not always in a 'linear sequence' and are often sequenced in reverse order. The author of the present research agrees with this observation through the personal notice of lecture sequencing. Aims (step 4) may be presented before the outline of the structure (step 3) or indicating the scope (step 2). Sometimes lecturers skip some steps from move 2, for example, *Outlining the structure*.

Move 3 *Putting the topic* in the context corresponds to the body of the written text, the lecturer prepares students for understanding the new information and activating the existing knowledge, steps of move 3 may also occur in different order and some of them may be even missing, "no sequential pattern is implied by the numbering of the steps" (Lee: ibid: 49). Step 1 as the title suggests aims at proving newsworthiness, importance and necessity of the lecture topic pertaining to the course, using the step 2 the lecturer relates the given new theme to the old theme of the present lecture or the previous lecture or relating the currently-described topic to the future theme, step 3 is often used to connect the new information to the previously acquired information.

The author of the present research was interested in analyzing the structure of the whole lecture, including its introductory part, main text and conclusion, however, since she did not discover any researches of move structure on the whole lecture she decided to work out her own model on the basis of Lee's model and taking into consideration Cheng's strategies in lecture closings (2012), where the researcher took a corpus-based approach to the closings of academic lectures. Cheng distinguished three main rhetorical stages of lecture closings including 15 strategies that were categorized into 12 Teacher Strategies (for example, indicating the end of lecture, asking if students have questions, calling for attention and others) and three Student Strategies (raising questions about course-related issues, raising questions about lecture content and responding to the lecturer). The author of the present research was interested mainly in the discourse of the lecturer that is why she considered only Cheng's Teacher Strategies and ignored Student Strategies, the rest of Cheng's strategies were grouped into four steps*: Referring to the audience, Looking ahead, Housekeeping, Summarizing the content and concluding the lecture.*

The move analysis of seven randomly chosen randomly chosen soft science lectures was done – three of them – lectures recorded in Saint Petersburg State University of Economics and transcribed by the author and four downloaded from YouTube – one from Saïd Business School of the University of Oxford and three from Yale Courses that are available for free access online. The idea was to look at the typical structure of a lecture. To attain this purpose the author based her model on the three-move model of

Lee and added an additional Move 4 that she called Concluding the lecture, the function of which is to indicate the end of a lecture or to come to a conclusion of lecture content. So the structure looked as follows:

Table 5 Move Structure of Lectures Suggested by Lee (2009) with Move 4 Added by the Author

Move 1: Warming up
- Step 1: Making a digression
- Step 2: Housekeeping
- Step 3: Looking ahead

Move 2: Setting up the lecture framework
- Step 1: Announcing the topic
- Step 2: Indicating the scope
- Step 3: Outlining the structure
- Step 4: Presenting the aims

Move 3: Putting the topic in context
- Step 1: Showing the importance of the topic
- Step 2: Relating "new" to "given"
- Step 3: Referring to earlier lectures

Move 4: Concluding the lecture
- Step 1: Referring to the audience
- Step 2: Looking ahead
- Step 3: Housekeeping
- Step 4: Summarizing the content and concluding the lecture

The table below demonstrates four moves of an academic lecture structure, communicative functions of the moves and is exemplified with the extracts from 7 authentic academic lectures.

Move/ Step	Name	Communicative Function	University Lecture Extracts (Recorded in SPBGUE and Downloaded from Free Internet Resources)
Move 1	**Warming up**		**An introduction to the forthcoming lecture**
Step 1	Making a digression (*)	General course information and course-related asides (e.g., assignments or class hours)	*Lecture 2* [Good morning, everyone. Today we start our course on development of marketing and services. Ok? So, as you already know [pause] we will have classes throughout the week [pause], six days, four hours a day. [pause] Ahh, and, well, my name is A…G…, I hope you have noticed it yet, I am from Spain…and I was actually, I was I was born in this city (points at the slide)] *Lecture 5* [On the 11th of November you will give a short presentation… you can think about it in the beginning of the course… from 12 to 15 minutes… you can present it as a group. First of all, you are welcome to give any topic… you think it will be interesting for others… I won't limit you… you are welcome to present it… I have a suggestion of course.]
Step 2	Housekeeping (*)	Information about organizational issues; Explaining non-course-related matters	*Lecture 5* [As you know we will be studying just for a week, not longer and there will be one class on the 10th of November, which will be a visit to the museum. Did you get it already? Did you get this understanding? So, on the 10th of November our International Department will take you to the museum which is called Grand Maket Russia. If you visited it already, that's fine, just tell the international department …]
Step 3	Looking ahead (*)	Indicating the plan for the future (e.g., course content or activities for the next class)	*Lecture 1* [All right. Let's start. So, as I already told you the second part of the session will be a practical case. This is again as you already know is going to be for at least on Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday and Friday.]
Move 2	**Setting up the lecture framework**		**Introduction of the topic of the lecture**
Step 1	Announcing the topic	Announcing the theme	*Lecture 2* [So, what I usually do when I start my courses, no matter which course I am teaching, the first class is what I call "the background". The background isn't related directly to service development, but it's a background… it is common to every single course, every single field. And this background…ah…it consists of three things. Ok? People, economy and technology. So, I will go to them, again that at the micro level. So I always need this information, because I think it's important. For later on. Because you will be developing services in my course and you need to keep this in mind. Ok? By the way, my all courses are all about interaction. And I really don't enjoy, you know talking for one hour and a half. I bet you don't enjoy this either, so I am hoping to have a discussion in all my classes.] *Lecture 4* [This is Financial Markets, and I'm Robert Shiller. This is a course for undergraduates. It doesn't presume any prerequisites except the basic Intro Econ [Introductory Economics] prerequisite. It's about --well, the title of the course is Financial Markets.
Step 2	Indicating the scope	Talking in general about the scope of the lecture	*Lecture 4* [By putting "markets" in the title of the course, I'm trying to indicate that it's down to earth, it's about the real world, and, well, to me it connotes that this is about what we do with our lives. It's about our society. So, you might imagine it's a course about trading since it says "markets," but it's more general than that. Finance, I believe, is, as it says in the course description, a pillar of civilized society. It's the structure through which we do things, at least on a large scale of things. It's about allocating resources through space and time, our limited resources that we have in our world. It's about incentivizing people to do productive things. It's about sponsoring ventures that bring together a lot of people and making sure that people are fairly treated, that they contribute constructively and that they get a return for doing that. And it's about managing risks, that anything that we do in life is uncertain. Anything big or important that we do is uncertain. And to me that's what financial markets is about. To me, this is a course that will have a philosophical underpinning, but at the same time will be very focused on details.]
Step 3	Outlining the structure	Providing the plan of the presentation	Have not noticed it at any lecture

Move 3	**Putting the topic in context**	**Preparing students for understanding the new information and activating the existing knowledge**	
Step 1	Showing the importance of the topic	Showing newsworthiness, importance and necessity of the lecture topic pertaining to the course.	*Lecture 2* [So, I have the map of the world in here and I would like to ask you at the very general level to look at the trends happening in the world at the moment. And I am talking about really big macro trends. What's going on in the world? Which things are happening in the world in the really general level?]
Step 2	Relating "new" to "given"	Relating the given new theme to the old theme of the present lecture to the previous lecture	*Lecture 1* [Hello. Have you read the case/ I was at the meeting today of our department. … we should discuss the case… so, you have this story at facebook and you have this story, printed story… Please tell me who has read the story… Ok, so very good we have already discussed with you … **so we are talking about** the strategy… let's start…] *Lecture 7* […it is what we talked about in the first couple of our sessions together especially in the discussion about jobs to be done is a big difference between understanding for this correlated with the outcome versus what causes it and at this point we just have correlation …but if it's a strong or robust correlation then you'll take that in go back and look at other phenomena and you can predict if this is a good correlation what you're gonna see and if in fact you see what you predicted you'd see you might feel good as a researcher but if you leave what you're trying to do …]
Step 3	Referring to earlier lectures	Connecting the new information to the previously acquired information	*Lecture 7* [Right good evening everybody. It's a pleasure on behalf of this business school to welcome Clayton Christensen to his third lecture … yesterday he talked to introduce the concept to the pandas thumb in organizations …evolutionally hangovers whose purpose was completely forgotten and I thought of Oxford University and some of those features he talked about that in each lecture he's been provocative stimulating and fun and that's final lecture …] *Lecture 3* [Hello. You are very kind to come back for the second time. Am… Today I think it will be a different part than last night…. I thought about last night staff a lot…, a part of the [charter] here for me is to give a talk that I haven't given before I've written about. And… so these are the thoughts that I have made and …I would love to have you listen to it mmm and when we have discussing toward the end …have you been able criticize my thinking or …reinforce my thinking if you think that there is something here that is useful…]
Move 4	**Concluding the lecture**	**Indicating the end of a lecture / Coming to a conclusion of lecture content**	
Step 1	Referring to the audience	Asking if students have questions; Answering students' questions; Calling for attention; Raising questions or issues for discussion.	*Lecture 2* [So, it will be important if you raise your hand and I'll tell you, please do talk, if you say your name out loud. So, it helps me remember it.]
Step 2	Looking ahead (*)	Indicating the plan for the future (e.g., course content or activities for the next class).	*Lecture 6* [There's an interesting book by Robert Frank, I don't have it on the reading list, called Richistan, who talks about what wealthy people are like these days. And if you read his book sometimes they are disgustingly rich and spending the money on silly things. But there is an idea among many of them that they are going to do their good things for the world. Because I think many of you will do these things, I want to think about the purpose that you'll find in finance. So, that's just the closing thought. I'll see you again on Wednesday. But the closing thought is that this is about making your purposes happen. OK.]
Step 3	Housekeeping (*)	Information about organizational issues, Explaining non-course-related matters.	*Lecture 5* [As you know we will be studying just for a week, not longer and there will be one class on t he 10th of November, which will be a visit to the museum. Did you get it already? Did you get this understanding? So, on the 10th of November our International Department will take you to the museum which is called Grand Maket Russia. If you visited it already, that's fine, just tell the international department …]

Step 4	Summarizing the content and concluding the lecture	Summarizing the content of a lecture; Summarizing or reviewing key points; Indicating the end of a lecture; Coming to a conclusion of lecture content.	*Lecture 4* [Let me just recap. The two themes are that independence leads to the law of large numbers, and it leads to some sort of stability. Either independence through time or independence across stocks. So, if you diversify through time or you diversify across stocks, you're supposed to be safe. But that's not what happened in this crisis and that's the big question. And then it's fat-tails, which is kind of related. But it's that distributions fool you. You get big incredible shocks that you thought couldn't happen, and they just come up with a certain low probability, but with a certain regularity in finance.] Lecture 3 [And nobody decided that we should live life this way, but just it happens to us and we need to be more conscious about it. Anyway, the other two are even worse (the audience is laughing), but we can talk about that another time. If I can go down here and if you guys have questions can you throw that on me (applauses).]

*This step may occur throughout the lecture in different moves.
Table 6 Move Structure Analysis of the Academic Lectures

Lecture 1 Corporate Social Responsibility, November 11, 2015, SPBGUE, Saint-Petersburg
Lecture 2 Development of Marketing and Services, October 19, 2015, SPBGUE, Saint-Petersburg
Lecture 3 Lectures on Management - Clarendon Lectures, June 11, 2013, Saïd Business School, University of Oxford
Lecture 4 Financial Crisis of 2007-2008 and Its Connection to Probability Theory, April, 2011, Financial Markets, 2011, Yale Courses, Free Internet Access
Lecture 5 Russian Civilization, November 2, 2015 SPBGUE, Saint-Petersburg
Lecture 6 Introduction and What this Course Will Do for You and Your Purposes, Financial Markets (2011) (ECON 252), Yale Courses, Free Internet Access
Lecture 7 Lectures about the Process of Research - Clarendon Lectures 12th June 2013, Yale Courses, Free Internet Access

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Having analyzed structure of seven lectures at their macro level, the author has noticed that the Concluding phase – Move 4 includes steps that may recur in other moves, for example, *Looking ahead and Housekeeping*, id est, the lecturer may indicate the plan for the future (Step 2) in the beginning, middle and at the end of the lecture and it will sound coherent and will not disturb the structure of the lecture, as well as explanation of non-course-related matters (Step 3) may occur in any part of the lecture, whereas, Step 4 that includes *Summarizing the content of a lecture; Summarizing or reviewing key points; Indicating the end of a lecture and Coming to a conclusion of* lecture content may appear only at the final phase of the lecture, and never in the beginning or in the middle that is why it is logical that the move structure of the lecture has to consist of four moves, including not only Warming up, Setting up the lecture framework and Putting the topic in context, but Concluding the lecture too.

Another possibility to investigate the structure of an academic lecture is to look at the six phases proposed by the representative of SFL school of genre studies - Young (1994) who did a research of a corpus of lectures, divided them into two phases (metadiscoursal and non-metadiscoursal) and identified six recurring lecture 'phases' based on language choices: *Discourse structuring, Conclusion, Evaluation, Interaction, Content and Example phases*. They have been developed on the basis of three situational functions (ideational, interpersonal and textual) that have been influenced by Halliday's (2000) situational factors of field, tenor and mode.

- Discourse structuring phase – aims at indicating the way, direction that a lecture is going to take. This phase recurs frequently throughout the lecture, a lecturer indicates to listeners new directions of a lecture.
- Conclusion phase – the lecturer summarizes points that he has done throughout the discourse. As Wu (2013) pointed out "the frequency of this phase is determined by the number of new points made in any particular discourse";
- Evaluation phase – evaluation of material; the lecturer reinforces each of the moves by evaluation the information that is transmitted. Lecturers realize it by showing the listeners their personal agreement or disagreement;
- Interaction phase – lecturers maintain the contact with the audience. This is realized through the dialogue with the listeners (students), questions and pauses;
- Content phase – reflects lecture's purpose and transmits theoretical information. "In this phase theories, models, and definitions are presented to the listeners" (Wu, 2013);
- Example phase – explains theoretical concepts through concrete examples, familiar to students.

Flowerdew (1994) analyzed the academic discourse and has concluded on the basis of findings of Murphy and Candlin (1977) that although lectures are basically monologues in comparison to school lessons, they do have a number of interactive acts that are characteristic to the latter. The terminology used by Flowerdew (ibid) includes:

- *marker / discourse marker* (language elements used to move from one theme to another or from one part of discourse to another), e.g., well, right, now;
- *starter* (lexical-grammatical elements used to initiate, start the theme) e.g. Let*'s move to … Let's begin with…*
- *informative* (explanation or definition provided by a lecturer), e.g. Individualism is characterized by interests of an individual put higher than collective interests;
- *aside* (words spoken so as not to be heard by others present), e.g. "running out of blackboard here" (Flowerdew: ibid.);
- *metastatement* (a statement giving information about another statement);
- *conclusion* (end of an idea, thought or theme summarized by the speaker).

All these interactive features can be encountered in the course of the academic discourse within the genre of an academic lecture. They assist students in lecture processing.

The lecture "remains the central instructional activity" (Flowerdew, 1994). Academic lecture discourse is a complex speech process, which involves communication rather than reading a text. The lecturer as an addressor encodes the information which is passed on to the student who is an addressee. In the course of a lecture, subject teachers provide output of their theoretical and practical knowledge, use specialized lexicon and professional jargon, demonstrate their ability to construct sentences, show attitude to the theme, express their point of view, argue, summarize and conclude.

Karpińska-Musiał (2009) enumerates the following features of a lecture which remain prone to contextual differentiation: linguistic etiquette, audience reactions, length of speech, physical environment, type of a lecture hall/room, level of stress, modesty topos and its adequate application, style of delivery (spoken/read/presentation/using notes), eye-management, non-verbal behaviour, paralinguistic features of language (tone of voice, loudness, pitch, pace, pausing and timing, clear articulation). Cicero used to claim that the top skill of an orator is to *inflame the soul of the hearer*.

The academic lecture delivered in the English language is likely to develop students' micro and macro skills of the target language. The style of lecture chosen by a lecturer is dependent on the purpose, subject, theme, knowledge of students and their schemata. A lecturer chooses and applies the style which is the most appropriate to the conditions of time, the number of listeners, and subject area. The taxonomy of **micro and macro-skills** worked out by Richards (1983) defines the skills that are important for successful academic listening comprehension by students. Meanwhile, the quality of listening and understanding lectures by a student depends on the lecturers' skills to deliver information. It is self-evident that the speech of a lecturer should be coherent, precise,

logically organized, and cohesive. Subject teachers' macro-skills are of essential significance, too. They comprise how speakers structure their lectures, whether the lecture discourse is effective for students' comprehension and encoding.

A contemporary academic lecture by its constituency differs much from what it was several decades ago. The former lectures were conducted more in the form of a 'reading style' (Dudley-Evans and Johns, 1994), where a lecturer was reading a lecture from the notes previously prepared at home or delivering it as if reading, whereas students had a more passive role in taking notes, interrupting a lecturer from time to time in order to clarify concepts and to check understanding. The studies on lectures styles done before Dudley-Evans and Johns included Goffman's and Bereday's classifications. There was the use of 'talk-and-chalk style' (Bereday in Mason, 1983) which was characterized by lecturer's delivering the material with the accompanied use of blackboard. Again, students were mainly involved in organizing information in the way of note-taking. Goffman (1981) distinguished three modes of lectures – 'memorization', 'aloud reading' and 'fresh talk'. 'Memorization' applies to a lecturing style where a lecturer does not read his/her script, but follows it closely and, thus, it is almost identical to 'aloud reading'. 'Fresh talk' may be characterized by free speech of a lecturer on the topic with the use of notes. Frederic (1986) refers to a 'participatory lecture', which is close to a discussion. Morrison (in Jordan, 1989), studied science lectures and divided them into two kinds: formal and informal, where the formal style was "close to spoken prose", whereas the informal one was "high in informational content, but not necessarily in high formal register".

With the advance of modern technologies and extensive use of Power Point, in which a lecturer structures his speech according to the logical plan of his presentation in slides, several other characteristics of lectures should be mentioned. The most important shift in the lecture is that today it is not a purely spoken discourse. By being accompanied with text from slides on the screen, lectures have 'multi-faceted nature' (Swales,1995 in Camiciottoli, 2007), where on the one hand they serve the function of the 'transmission and dissemination of knowledge' with the use of all professional terminology and concepts (Merlini (1983) in Camiciotolli, 2007), which is more characteristic of written genres of academic writings and, on the other hand, we can find a lot from dialogic devices, for instance, metadiscursive expressions, imperatives, argumentative sequences. Bakhtin (1986) attributes lectures to a 'secondary speech genre' which is described as the sphere of communication that is relatively formal and culturally-organized. Another important characteristic of a modern lecture is its interactiveness, which means that a modern lecture happens in a way of a conversation with the involvement of students in the discussion of the theme. According to Benson (in Camiciotolli, 2007), they are becoming less formal and more interactive with the role of the lecturer as more of a 'facilitator' and a 'guide' with "open style" lecturing which allows for better comprehension. If a lecturer provides students with handouts of

his presentation, the role of note-taking decreases, since students are more preoccupied with following the speaker rather than writing notes on his speech. Both the complex nature of the lecture and the interactive approach may be a cause of difficulty for non-native English speaking students who study in English. The fact that students possess ready-made handouts can also have a dubious effect of correct notes made by a lecturer and lack of personal notes that are an integral part of the study process since they foster memorization and improve studies. Consequently, one of the tasks of the research was to distinguish what lecturing styles are mostly preferred by students and what lecturing styles academic personnel choose in the course of their work.

Conclusion

The present article investigated Genre theories and the nature of a university (academic) lecture as a separate spoken pedagogical genre with its specific features. It was concluded that lecture is an example of a secondary spoken genre with social exigence, speech will or social purpose to provide new information by a lecturer to a group of students.

Using the findings of Systemic Functional Linguistics, lecture is a social, goal-oriented and staged activity with a logical plan (stages), composed and realized by the lecturer. In the course of a lecture using specific linguistic features lecturers may fulfill different functions and purposes. Swales's concepts of the communicative event, purpose and discourse community are applicable to the context of the university lecture, making academia, that is lecturers and students, belong to the same discourse community that shares common goals and uses a common language. Bhatia's and van Dijk's views on the discourse genre are applicable to conducting of analysis in academic and professional settings.

The analysis of concepts of genre, register, discourse and style has helped in clarifying the terminology, placing discourse on top of hierarchy as the most general term. It is followed by the concept of genre related to a particular context of culture, where genre uses specific register, and style.

The lecture is characterized by 'involvement' and 'detachment' of lecturers reflecting their emotional participation. It is an 'interactive', 'contextual', 'situational' and to some extent 'improvising' activity of a highly dynamic nature. It is a changing genre which has transformed from a one-way lecture speech imparting knowledge to a more interactive and constructive style. It is an example of 'genre mixing' – a combination of spoken and written registers, use of modern technologies with the hybrid nature of seminars, lectures, conference presentations and written research articles.

The lecture has 'intertextual' characteristics – lecturer's text / discourse is usually based on previously created texts and quotations of other authors. A modern lecture has features of 'interdisciplinarity', comprising a combination of diverse sciences and disciplines.

The researcher investigated different ways of the analysis of the macro-structure of the academic lecture and has developed a four – stage model that comprises moves, including 1. warming up, 2. setting up the lecture framework, 3. putting the topic in context and 4. concluding the lecture. The analysis of 7 authentic academic lectures showed that some moves and steps may recur and repeat, although, as a rule, a well-structured university lecture follows the model where all four stages are present and follow one another.

The style of a lecture is dependent on the purpose, subject, theme and knowledge of students and can vary from 'reading', 'talk-and-chalk', 'fresh talk', 'memorization', 'aloud reading' to 'participatory' styles.

The current investigation was limited by a small number of lectures visited and analyzed, therefore it is recommended that further research be undertaken.

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The Aspects of Civic Consciousness in Georgian Literature

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Abstract

Only society, equipped with civic consciousness will retain identity and take a stand in the modern global world. The research aims at revealing distinctive characters of Georgian way of thinking based on the examples from scientific works and fiction.

Interesting explanation regarding the essence of citizenship is given by a great Georgian scientist Saint Grigol Peradze in his series of letters "Content of real citizenship" (interpretation of The Lord's Prayer - Our Father). He postulates:" Aim of citizen's life and of citizenship itself should be God". Civic Consciousness in the history of Georgian literature originates from hagiography and immediately comprises double service. Hagiography hero serves for conversion of physical and spiritual "desert" into "city".

The poetry of great Georgian poet Vazha-Pshavela possesses all characteristics of highly developed civic consciousness. Vazha-Pshavela is considered to be "a poet of future" (critic Tamaz Chkhenkeli), also "a poet of soul" (Grigol Kiknadze), because his creative work is directed towards spiritual forces of a human and serve for spiritual prosperity.

Keywords

Civic consciousness, citizenship, Grigol Peradze, literature, Vazha---Pshavela

Introduction

In order to define an essence of civic consciousness, it's necessary to describe a term citizen (citizenship) in the light of literary tradition. In the majority of world languages (Georgian, Russian, English, German) base for this word is a large urban area – city, ქალაქი, город. The Brockhaus and Efron Russian Encyclopedic Dictionary gives historical meaning of term "citizen": "In Greece and Rome a "citizen" (πολίτης, cives)

was called not a resident of a city in general, but only a member of a civil unity" (Brockhaus, Efron,1890-1907).

In the above Encyclopedic Dictionary it is stated that in old Greece, the word πολιτεία (citizen) implied a whole body of citizen's rights, from which the followings were the most important ones: marriage, purchasing of realty, claiming, participation in general meetings, holding posts. In Rome, two kinds of citizen's right were distinguished: 1. Public (jura publica) and private (j.privata). First mainly implies political rights, while the second one - marriage and ownership of realty. Due to the above, Roman citizens were divided into full and underprivileged members of the city.

After French revolution a word "citizen" was used not only in the field of political legislation, but in conversational speech as well; it replaced forms of address "monsieur" and "madame".

Meanings of terms "Citizen" and "Citizenship" in Georgian ecclesiastical literature

Great Georgian lexicographer Sulkhan-Saba Orbeliani (1658-1725) defines "citizen" as one, being in the city (Orbeliani, 1991, p. 509). Georgian Apostolic Symphony – dictionary defines "citizen" and "citizenship" based on all lexical units of old Georgian versions: "citizen" – the one, living in the city, гражданин; „I am a Jewish man, from Tarsus, Cilicia, not a citizen of a strange city, case 21,39" (Dictionary, 2009, p. 252). In the same dictionary we see word combinations - "mentally good citizen" and "citizen of a heaven". In old Georgian texts, being a "mentally good citizen" is a way to save a soul and find a heaven; "because our real citizenship is in heaven"(dict).

"Citizen of a heaven" – this form of address is used by Georgian figure of 19th century Mikhail Sabinin, who is an author of "*The Paradise of Georgia"*, a voluminous lithographed edition of biographies of important Georgian Orthodox Christian saints. In the preface he thanks for assistance mother superior Nina from Samtavro monastery and called her a "Citizen of a heaven": „some materials were given to me by The bride of Christ and a citizen of heaven, mother superior Nina from Samtavro monastery"(Sabinin, 2015, p. 7).

Following formulation is given in Georgian Easter chant: "Christ is risen and life is citizening"; thus, a citizenship is more than life, it's associated with spiritual victory, it's superiority to everything terrestrial.

In Georgian Hagiographic texts, citizenship comprises lives of Saints. Great Georgian hagiographer of 10th century Giorgi Merchule in his work "Life of Grigol Khandzteli" used the following epithet, when talking about saint Grigol –"the one who converts desert into a city" (უდაბნოთა ქალაქმყოფელი). Saint Grigol of Khandzta constructed monasteries in the South of Georgia (modern Turkey), on the land ravaged by Arabian conquerors in the 8-th century. His epithet do not describe physical

construction only but initially implies filling of spiritual emptiness with bliss, conversion of spiritual "desert" into a "city".

According to the above, in Christian tradition and old-Georgian literature, citizenship has a meaning of active, dynamic process –striving towards spiritual developmentv and prosperity.

Saint Grigol Peradze's viws about citizenship

Interesting explanation is given by a great Georgian scientist of 20th century, doctor of theology Saint Grigol Peradze in his series of letters "Content of real citizenship" (interpretation of The Lord's prayer - Our Father) – these are sermons, pronounced in Saint Nino's Church in Paris. In 1988-1989 these letters were published in journal of Georgian Patriarchy "Jvari Vazisa". Grigol Peradze thoroughly reasons about spirituality of citizenship, the essence of word, features of the real citizen. Following thesis seems to be the main postulate of Grigol Peradze: "Aim of citizen's life and of citizenship itself should be God" (Peradze, 1988, p. 41).

The author states, that main feature of a citizen is "consciousness", "conscious membership" of homeland: "a citizen means each conscious member of homeland; it's not a one, owning property, but the one who feels great property: life, its essence and liability"(Peradze, 1989, p. 80). Thus, civic consciousness is not determined by unconscious liabilities, implemented without reasoning, but the mental and spiritual perception of personal liabilities and significance of life.

Grigol Peradze emphasizes meaning of word "citizen" in the context of someone, fighting against evil: **„**this is a word massive and rich in content**...**citizenship implies spiritual life of saint: his struggle against himself, his circle and darkness, i.e. struggle for implementation of aimed ideas and principles" (Peradze, 1989, p. 80).

Saint Grigol Peradze enumerates in detail features of citizen and makes very interesting conclusion; he states that civic activity is not required only from saints, but from the whole society in general: „citizenship demands from each citizen consciousness, honesty, ability of thinking, wisdom, courage; citizenship requires to see things in cheerful light, prudence, steadiness, modesty, which is not characterized for slave but for educated person; citizenship is ability to see a human in people and to appreciate it" (Peradze, 1989, pp. 80-81). Grigol Peradze considers Pater Noster to be a source of "citizenship" and emphesizes following part of the prayer - „and forgive us our debts, as we also have forgiven our debtors" – just these words reveal an essence of real citizenship. Forgiving of neighbour is very difficult for person – it needs suppression of revenge and passions, sacrificing.

Artistic representation of civic consciousness in Vazha-Pshavela's poems "What has made me a man?" and "My Entreaty"

"If I am asked what will I wish for my country, I would say: certainly consciousness... good and the evil of the life is mainly connected with this consciousness-ignorance. Everything written by the mankind for its benefit was written when recovering consciousness, but unfortunately not every nation was conscious in this period: one nation excels the other in consciousness"(Vazha-Pshavela,1979, p. 196) – these words belongs to great Georgian poet of 19th century Vazha-Pshavela (1861-1915). Thus, "consciousness" or "recover consciousness" of each person is the main base of nation's development.

Vazha-Pshavela is a pseudonym of Luka Razikashvili and literary means a "man from Pshavi". Professor of London University, translator of Vazha's works in English – Donald Rayfield notes: „As the Georgian futurists admitted, when repudiating all the past, 'Vazha stands outside time and space'. He is qualitatively of a greater magnitude that any other Georgian writer" (Rayfield, 2013, p. 187). Among various themes found in Vazha-Pshavela's creative work, a civic-social one is certainly the most important. It is artistic realization of writer's inner, spiritual requirements. Poems "What has made me a Man?" and "My entreaty" give vivid reflection of this passion.

Motif of sacrifice has a basic place in Vazha's works. Poem "What has made me a Man?" reveals two poetic phenomena – humanity and being a rain. A lyrical character wishes to be a rain:

"What has made me a man
Why haven't come I as a rain?" (Vazha-Pshavela, 1986, p. 87).

The rain is a "child of heaven", "beads of clouds", "worshipper of the sun", "disappointer of death". The sweat of rain makes dying surroundings to revive and this in its part make a poet happy. Overwhelming love strives for blending with nature; it desires to make nature alive and is ready for sacrificing. This motif in Georgian literature is presented from of 12th century poem, masterpiece named "Vepkhistkaosani" ("*The Knight in the Panther's Skin"*). Avtandil's (character of the above poem) singing merges with nature; his inner, spiritual energy revives inanimate objects, makes animals listen carefully, even stones listen to his song. The same motif can be found in works of romantic poet Nikoloz Baratashvili, who wishes to be the sun at sunrise to revive dried meadow, to make birds and flowers happy. In newest Georgian literature, this theme is most impressionably revealed in works of Galaktion Tabidze and Terenti Graneli. In Galaktion's works, there is no border between the world and poet's heart ("I and the Night"),

Terenti Graneli is courageous to state: "I wish I was everywhere like God" (miniature "Blood drops from heart") – it is not a blasphemy, but overwhelming desire to spread in world and merge with space.

Thus, "being a rain" in Vazha's poem is not neglect of humanity but its acceptance and recognition, preservation of similarity with God, what can be achieved only through sacrificing and care of nears. In this poem, poet develops an idea of Christian love, of correct sacrifice. During defining an essence of citizenship, Saint Grigol Peradze was writing: "citizenship means sacrificing, self-burning for giving a light to other" (Peradze, 1989, p. 80). Vazha-Pshavela's lyrical character is a bearer of civic consciousness.

Ilia II, Catholicos-Patriarch of modern Georgia, gives highly appreciates to Vazha-Pshavela's poem "My Entreaty": "It's a result of highest Christian thinking, a praise of modesty, love, heroism, loyalty; its author is a real friend of God and not only a gifted person"(Ilia II, 2006, p. 1).

In this poem, Vazha desires to be in the place of grass and not a scythe, he even agrees to be a lamb, but never a wolf; anxiety makes him happy. Leading theme of this poem is Christian perception of the happiness. Being a "grass" or a "lamb" is considered to be a happiness by the author, i.e. citizenship, implemented with modesty. Taking care of other and protection of oppressed makes him happy. It's a visible side of internal suffering, which is difficult to stand, but at the same time is desirable for the author: „Only suffering makes me happy". Doing a good is a huge internal desire of the poet (even it is not appreciated by others). Indifference and lack of cordiality is like a death for him.

Being a "grass" and a "lamb" is not considered as helplessness by the author; he never lets himself be eaten by a wolf and never lays his head in front of a scythe. Wolf and scythe are symbols of indifference, cruelty, lack of cordiality and tenderness. Vazha damns such life and is not going to arrange a truce with it. Uncompromising struggle with evil is Vazha's choice and the main goal of his characters.

Conclusion

According to the present-day interpretation given in dictionaries, citizenship means legal belonging to certain State: „Status of citizenship gives certain rights and liabilities (defined under the current law) to person, living in State"(Dictionary, 2011, p. 129). Thus, citizenship implies rights and liabilities, defined under legislation.

Hence, a term "citizenship", from the standpoint of historical and literal traditions, also present social-political conditions, comprises, on the one hand, spiritual features (a way of spiritual perfection) and ,on the other hand, rights and liabilities defined under the law. These two sides fill each other. A citizen is responsible to God, State and society. That's why in Georgian hagiography saint Grigol from Khandzta is called "A man of heaven and an angel of the earth", i.e. mediator between earth and heaven, executor of both liabilities. In new Georgian writings (Akaki Tsereteli's poem "Tornike Eristavi", Alexander Kazbegi's story "Khevisberi Gocha" etc) this harmony is given in following formulation -"God's word –nation's word".

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Translation as Testimony: The Politics of Cultural Representation in Daoud Hari's *The Translator* and Laura Esquivel's *Malinche*

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Abstract

When the Nahua woman known as La Malinche became the interpreter of Hernán Cortés, the conqueror of Mexico, she was not only carving her name as one of history's most influential translators, but was also rendered one of the most enduring symbols of the cultural intricacies of translation. Malinche's knowledge of both Spanish and Nahuatl and the way it made her instrumental in the conquerors' success took her role from the level of linguistic mediator to that of an active agent in cultural transformation, or rather cultural erosion. Having used her linguistic abilities to help the invaders against her people, Malinche has since the conquest been labeled a traitor. Becoming Cortés's mistress served to further confirm this idea. Yet, being arguably the bearer of the first "mestizo," Malinche came to be perceived as the mother of the Mexican people and the progenitor of the new race. In both cases, La Malinche has till this moment been emblematic of the complexities of cultural representation.

Laura Esquivel's novel *Malinche* (2007) explores the heroine's position at the crossroads between two cultures where the demarcations between the target and source languages are blurred as her allegiance is put into question. The act of translation is rendered ambivalent with the translator, being a slave to the Spaniards, lacking the free will for such a vocation, thus unable to choose sides or determine who she represents. She, however, could have played a major role in preserving the memory of her pre-Colombian world just before its eradication. Daoud Hari's *The Translator: A Tribesman's Memory of Darfur* (2008) offers a different perspective of the role of the translator. Hari, who belongs to the Zaghawa tribe in Western Sudan, acts as a mediator between his people, who are being subjected to systematic genocide by the government-backed Janjaweed militia, and the outside world. Through making the conscious decision to go back to Darfur, Hari turns his knowledge of English into the tool through which he can make the voice of his people heard, hence choosing to be their representative and taking upon himself the task of

documenting their trauma.

This paper tackles the nature of translation through comparing the role of the translators in both works and exploring the different levels of representation associated with the process of translation. This will be done through examining the loyalty-treason paradigm and how far it affects, positively and/or negatively, the role of the translator as the bearer of his/her people's memory. The paper will, therefore, deal with the relation between translation and testimony and will investigate how far translation can, in this sense, complement storytelling as a means of chronicling and resistance.

Keywords

translation, cultural representation, betrayal, testimony, Laura Esquivel, Malinche, Daoud Hari

Introduction

"Traduttore, traditore" is a renowned Italian expression that literally translates into "translator, traitor," hence linking translation to betrayal. This expression can be seen from a variety of angels, among which is the fact that the original is more likely than not to be misrepresented in the translation and the mediator becomes, therefore, the reason for this unfaithful transfer of knowledge from one language to another even if he/she did not do so consciously. However, there are cases when the translator is accused of intentionally serving the interests of a specific party at the expense of another, thus having an agenda that goes beyond the boundaries of a regular paid job. This agenda politicizes the role of the translator as he/she is rendered a representative of the group he/she translates for, hence an enemy of the opposing group that, in turn, questions the legitimacy of this representation and considers it the very source of betrayal. This situation is rendered more complicated when the translation process takes place within the context of a conflict or a war. Here, translators are endowed with an exceptional power that at times creates of them a party in the conflict and validates betrayal accusations leveled against them. Serge Gavronsky (1997) argues that the association between translation and treason goes as far back as the construction of the Tower of Babel since God's punishment entailed people's inability to understand each other and translation comes to defy divine will through making intelligible what is supposed to remain unintelligible. Translators also betray each linguistic group through stripping it from the power to monopolize the ability to decipher a given code through allowing speakers of different languages to understand each other. Translation, therefore, becomes as much of a "threat to God's hegemony" as the tower (p. 43).

Thomas O. Beebee (2010), who translates the Italian expression into "transtraitor," attributes the link between treason and translation to the fact that "double-talk" always arouses suspicions (p. 298). That is why people who speak more than one language are hardly seen are "Traduttore, traditore" is a renowned Italian expression that literally

translates into "translator, traitor," hence linking translation to betrayal. This expression can be seen from a variety of angels, among which is the fact that the original is more likely than not to be misrepresented in the translation and the mediator becomes, therefore, the reason for this unfaithful transfer of knowledge from one language to another even if he/she did not do so consciously. However, there are cases when the translator is accused of intentionally serving the interests of a specific party at the expense of another, thus having an agenda that goes beyond the boundaries of a regular paid job. This agenda politicizes the role of the translator as he/she is rendered a representative of the group he/she translates for, hence an enemy of the opposing group that, in turn, questions the legitimacy of this representation and considers it the very source of betrayal. This situation is rendered more complicated when the translation process takes place within the context of a conflict or a war. Here, translators are endowed with an exceptional power that at times creates of them a party in the conflict and validates betrayal accusations leveled against them. Serge Gavronsky (1997) argues that the association between translation and treason goes as far back as the construction of the Tower of Babel since God's punishment entailed people's inability to understand each other and translation comes to defy divine will through making intelligible what is supposed to remain unintelligible. Translators also betray each linguistic group through stripping it from the power to monopolize the ability to decipher a given code through allowing speakers of different languages to understand each other. Translation, therefore, becomes as much of a "threat to God's hegemony" as the tower (p. 43).

Thomas O. Beebee (2010), who translates the Italian expression into "transtraitor," attributes the link between treason and translation to the fact that "double-talk" always arouses suspicions (p. 298). That is why people who speak more than one language are hardly seen are trustworthy. For Arthur C. Danto (1997), translation is associated with treason because it places information that should stay only intelligible to a specific group of people in the hands of another group that should have stayed ignorant of it, thus stripping the first group of the power it had over the second: "A secret language gives power only so long as it is secret, and I betray the secret when I translate, putting knowledge and the power in alien hands" (p. 62).

Laura Esquivel's novel *Malinche* (2007) and Daoud Hari's memoir *The Translator: A Tribesman's Memory of Darfur* (2008) both tackle the role of the translators during a time of conflict or national crisis, the conquest of Mexico in the first and the Darfur genocide in the second. Esquivel offers a semi-historical account La Malinche, the Nahua translator and mistress of Spanish conquistador Hernán Cortès, and Hari, a member of the Zaghawa tribe in Darfur, tells his own story as a translator for foreign reporters and UN staff investigating the atrocities committed against non-Arabs by the Sudanese regime, hence occupying different positions as far as allegiances are concerned. While Malinche's knowledge of Spanish is instrumental to her people's defeat at the hands of the Spaniards, Hari's knowledge of English becomes a tool

through which the voice of his people can be heard. Therefore, Malinche becomes a representative of the enemy, which explains why she has since the conquest of Mexico been labeled a traitor and associated till the present moment with a variety of derogatory terms in Mexican culture, on top of which is "la chingada" or "the fucked one." The different levels of representation for which Malinche and Hari stand pose a number of questions about the loyalty-treason paradigm associated with the process of translation, yet also underline that the complexity of this process goes far beyond such a seemingly simplistic dichotomy and extends to other realms such as the relationship between translation and testimony and how far a translators, regardless of their real or imagined allegiances, contribute to chronicling the history of their respective nations and preserving collective traumas from sinking into oblivion.

The translator's agenda and agency

Translation is a process that is by definition ambivalent owing to the fact that it endows an outsider with a power that neither the source nor the target possesses, that is, the knowledge of both languages. By virtue of being different, the translator can be eyed with suspicion by the two parties for which he/she serves as a linguistic mediator. This is especially true when applied to the relationship between the translator and the ruling authority. Vincent L. Rafael (2009) refers to Theodore Roosevelt's 1917 article "Children of the Crucible," in which he explicity warned of the threat bilingualism poses to the national security of the United States and stressed that there is no room for any other language except English. For Roosevelt, speaking another language implied multiple allegiances, thus situating "the monolingual citizen on the side of national identity and security" and pitting him/her against "the polyglot foreigner" (p. 11). The power the translator possesses by virtue of bilingualism at times of peace is rendered more crucial and/or problematic in wartime, depending on which side the translator chooses to take and which cause he/she decides to champion since it becomes in most cases inevitable for the translator to get involved in the conflict and at times take part in the course it takes and the way it is narrated to the public. According to Mona Baker (2010), translators during wartime are placed in a complex situation where their identity is, in fact, shaped by the conflict and is hardly prone to negotiation later on: "the fact remains that in war situations, and particularly for those experiencing the war firsthand, one's identity is almost completely constructed and enforced by other actors, and once constructed to suit the exigencies of war, it becomes set in stone" (p. 200). This identity is closely linked to the issue of representation since it is the party the translator represents that determines where his/her allegiance lies and to the issue of testimony since the translator is partially involved in the narrative that comes out of the conflict. Those two issues are usually determined by the function of the translation and the purpose for which it is initiated whether on the part of the translator or the entity that seeks the translation.

In the cases of Malinche and Hari, translation serves as a tool of empowering one party over another. Through becoming Cortès' translator, Malinche provides the Spaniards with access to the natives they are attempting to conquer and opportunities at communication and negotiation that might not have been made available otherwise. Malinche's role, therefore, revolves around cracking the code of the enemy, which in this case becomes her own people, whose destruction is not a goal for her personally, yet becomes so when she works for the invaders and that is how she, whether intentionally or not, becomes party in the conflict rather than just a translator. Hari, on the other hand, uses his translation abilities to forge alliances that can help the cause of his people. Like Malinche, Hari's role surpasses that of a translator as he becomes the main mediator between the Zaghawa people on one hand and reporters, UN staff, and government officials on the other hand. Similar to Malinche who becomes the reason for several Spanish victories and the eventual success of the conquest, Hari exposes the atrocities committed by the Sudanese regime against the people of Darfur and takes part in the international investigation to determine whether such atrocities can be categorized under genocide. In both cases, translation turns from a job into a vocation and its impact transcends personal boundaries to national, and at times global, developments. The translator, as Maria Tymoczko (2006) notes, is no longer just transfering information from one language to another: "Translation is seen as an ethical, political, and ideological activity rather than a mechanical linguistic exercise" (p. 443). Tymoczko cites a number of other activities besides translation in which translators in conflicts become involved and they all apply to both Malinche and Hari even if in different way. Those acitivities include "gathering intelligence, negotiating cultural difference, and producing propaganda" (p. 444).

The agency of the translator can be summed up in the formula created by Tobias Döring (1995) where he discarded the term "go-between" to describe the translator and replaced it with "get-between," for while the first means receiving information in one language and reproducing it in another, the second implies a form of intervention that does not only involve language, but also extends to cultures. This formula is congruent with the view of António Sousa Ribeiro (2004) about the translator occupying a "third space" between the source and target languages, a space that is literal rather than metaphorical in the sense that it involves getting in the middle in the full sense of the word: "The 'third space' of translation signals the point of contact between the same and the other—the border—and points to the prevalence of a relation of tension between both frames of reference" (p. 193).

This agency is the product of the power of translation, which makes the translator in a stronger position than the parties between which the mediation takes place. This is demonstrated when Hari decides not to translate the words of his driver Ali who was mistreated by the police: "I said I would not translate if they were going to beat him. I stopped talking" (Hari, 2008, p. 157). Hari adopts the same stance when Ali decides he

does no want to talk to the police, thus confirming his power over the Sudanese state, which is at this moment in dire for the translation:

> "What did he say?" a commander demanded of me.
>
> "I am not translating for you. Sorry," I replied. (p. 148)

Through choosing to translate only if this translation serves his companions, Hari's job is politicized as he controls the course of events in favor of the cause for which he originally chose to be a translator and which he will betray if he does otherwise. Malinche's case is different, for even though she does intervene in the translation she provides, she does not abstain from translating altogether like Hari does: "Now it was she who could decide what was said and what went unsaid, what to confirm and what to deny, what would be made known and what kept secret… When translating, she could change what things meant and impose her own vision on events" (Esquivel, 2007, pp. 66-67). Malinche's intervention is restricted to the space allowed to her and which does not include abandoning her role in aiding the Spaniards. However, Malinche's perception of her agency is quite different, for she believes that translating for the Spaniards is part of her revolution against the Aztec kingdom which, under the leadership of Moctezuma, has strayed from the teachings of Quetzalcoatl through practicing human sacrifice and which deserves to be overthrown for this reason. Seeking her and her people's freedom is, in fact, what makes Malinche reconciled to the idea of working for the Spaniards: "To know that the kingdom that permitted human sacrifices and slavery was in peril made her feel at peace with herself" (p. 73). Malinche's view of her vocation is not, therefore, different from that of Hari who instead of joining the rebels in Darfur and taking arms against the Sudanese government decides to fight in his own way, which involves no less danger: "I, too, had chosen to risk myself, but was using my English instead of a gun" (Hari, 2008, p. 5). Malinche's argument is similar to that of the protagonist of Inaam Kachachi's novel *Al-Hafida al-Amrikiya* [The American Granddaughter], an Iraqi exile who works as a translator for the American forces to help bring down Saddam Hussein's regime, hence take part in liberating her country and people. This, in fact, has been the actual dilemma of a large number of Iraqis who worked as translators for the American army.

It is only after the Cholula massacre, in which Cortés orders the killing of thousands and sets the city on fire, that Malinche perceives the fatal aspect of her translation skills, now used for the annihilation of her people. Since the massacre is carried out based on intelligence from Malinche, who befriends the wife of one of the city leaders to know about the plan to ambush the Spaniards, her agency is set in stark contrast with Hari's and her agenda turns from one of revolution to one of destruction. In an attempt to reverse this situation and assuage her guilt, Malinche decides to destroy the very tool of this destruction: "She decided then to punish the instrument that had created that universe. At night she crossed through the jungle until she found an agave plant from which she pulled a thorn and with it, pierced her tongue. She spat blood as if she was

ridding her mind of poison, her body of shame, and her heart of its wound" (Esquivel, 2007, pp. 158-159). Through this auto-sacrificial rite, Malinche assumes agency even if a passive form of it as she decides to render herself incapable of translation. True, she only inflicts pain upon herself and takes no further action to redress her mistake and assume full control like Hari does, but her action still bears fruit as it leads to the failure of Cortes's expedition to Hibueras. Malinche's self-inflicted punishment epitomizes her position within the conflict between the Aztecs and the Spaniards, where she cannot reverse the damage nor prevent it from expanding, but can at least reconcile with her moral failure. Through damaging her tongue, she hopes to no longer be fit for the title "the tongue," as she is labeled by the Spaniards.

The form of agency each of the two translators adopts is closely linked to the choices they make and which in turn determine, if possible, their position across the loyalty-treason spectrum. According to Thomas O. Beebee (2010), the tendency to accuse translators of treason is almost always applied to all people who practice this profession at the time of conflicts. Beebee applies the Latin term "homo sacer," which according to Roman law described "someone who had committed a severe transgression and was not punihsed but set out as an outlaw who could be killed with impunity" (p. 296), to translators as they automatically make enemies with at least one party owing to their professional choices. This, Beebee adds, also applies to translation outside a war zone when such choices are pitted against the beliefs or interests of a large number of people. He cites the example of the Japenses, Italian, and Turkish translators of Salman Rushdie's *Satanic Verses* who were charged with treason and subjected to assassination attempts—the Japenese died and the other two survived—for propagating Rushdie's allegedly blasphemous ideas in different languages: "In all three incidents, it was though the aim was dismemberment, one linguistic limb at a time" (p. 301). The degree of treason associated with these translators is measured in accordance with the level of their agency determined to a great extent by their choice to translate.

Hari's decision to return to Darfour despite the danger and his initiative to accompany and translate for reporters and UN staff underline the voluntary nature of his mission and places him at the extreme ends of the spectrum as he becomes an epitome of loyalty for his people and an outlaw for the authorities he is defying: "This is my cell phone number. I speak English, Arabic, and Zaghawa and will take reporters and investigators to the Darfur refugee camps and into Darfur. I translated for the genocide investigators if you want to talk to them about me" (Hari, 2008, p. 87). Upon embarking on this project, Hari is immediately rendered an enemy of the state, thus a traitor or an agent of foreign powers. This is clear in the confrontation where the Sudanese general accuses Hari of being a war criminal: "'You are the problem, here. You, not us, are the war criminal. You bring reporters in to lie about us and bring Sudan down. You are the criminal'" (p. 149). The authority with which Hari addresses his

interrogator underlines a confidence inspired by the strength of his choice and which acts as the main impetus for his agency:

> "First, you have to tell your guards to stop beating us. Second, if you have a cigarette, you have to give it to me."
> "Okay, I'll give you a cigarette. But if you don't talk, the guard here will beat you."
> "No," I corrected him, "If the guard beats me, I will not talk. It works like that. I will die." (p. 155)

Malinche's position, on the contrary, is as ambivalent as it is mutable for while she is technically forced into her job by virtue of being Cortés' slave, hence not having the power to resist, she believes in her role as the liberator of her people and in the Spaniards' advent as part of a divine plan to achieve this end. However, there are times when even after she starts questioning this assumption, which is shared by a considerable number of the Aztecs, she still chooses to carry out her duty as diligently. This raises the question of whether she seeks her people's freedom or only her own and whether her work as a translator is in return for her emancipation from slavery, but not necessarily that of her people from oppression: "Only a victory by the Spaniards would guarantee her freedom…. And if to assure their victory, she had to keep alive the idea that they were gods coming from the sea, she would do so, although by now she wasn't very convinced of the idea" (Esquivel, 2007, pp. 66, 68). Here, Malinche's agency is quite obvious as she seems to have chosen which path to take based on her and/ or her people's best interest and to have decided channeling her translation towards that goal. However, it is only after the Cholula massacre that Malinche admits to or claims lack of agency from the beginning and presents herself once more as a slave who lacked the luxury of choice: "In translating and interpreting, she had only followed the orders of her Spanish masters, to whom she had been given and whom she had to serve promptly" (p. 97). This change of stance could mark a realization on Malinche's part of the magnitude of her role in the destruction of the Aztec Empire and a subsequent desire to strip herself of the very same agency that she had embraced earlier and to deny having had any choice from the start. It is at this stage that Malinche starts seeing herself as a traitor rather than a liberator and where she would rather deceive herself into thinking that she was forced to commit treason than come to terms with the fact that she voluntarily took part in the annihilation of her people. Malinche's loyalty to her people is as ambiguous as the extent of her choice to translate for the Spaniards, for it is through her treason that she demonstrates loyalty in the sense that, for her, she needs to cooperate with the Spaniards in order to secure her people's freedom. However, it is only when the power of translation is turned against her people that she realizes that the Spaniards are no different from the Aztec Empire she aspires to overthrow.

The politics of representation

A substantial part of the power translation acquires is the role it plays in representation. This is especially true in the cases of conflicts where translators are often considered representatives of the group for which they translate even if they are not adopting one cause against another. In Fact, Mona Baker (2010) argues that impartiality is not possible for translators, who are themselves human beings with personal histories and ideological beliefs. In this sense, translators are not different from other citizens in which the conflict is taking place and who eventually cannot help but take one side against another: "translators and interpreters, like other members of society, soon find out that there is no place in war for fluid, shifting identities, for split or even strained loyalties" (p. 200). The "you are either with us or against us" rule, Baker adds, also applies to translators in conflicts even if with varying degrees from one culture to another. Waring factions, she says, always consider foreign translators a member of an apposing camp: "being different in terms of national origin or ethnicity is one reason for automatically branding an individual or groups as 'against us', as 'one of them'" (p. 201).

Being a non-Arab and a member of the Zaghawa tribe, Hari becomes an enemy of the Sudanese state which is waging a war that amounts to genocide in Darfur. This status is confirmed by Hari's decision to translate his people's testimonies about the atrocities committed by the regime, hence choosing to represent the opponent. The link between respresentation and allegiance is very clear in Hari's case since he chooses to represent the group to which he pledges absolute allegiance, hence is not subjected to the conflict through which a translator with no ties to the group he/she represents goes. That is why Hari's representation becomes a source of empowerment for the Zaghawa people, since it is the feeling of belonging to a group that makes representation empowering. The translator identifies with the condition of the people he is representing, which endows translation with an emotional aspect that reflects the translator's empathy and the way he ties his fate to that of his people: "I was asked why I was taking the risk, and I told them, not trying to be too dramatic, that I was not safe because **my people** were not safe—and how can you be safe if **your people** are not safe? [emphasis added]" (Hari, 2008, p. 173). This empathy is closely linked to Hari's agency since it is his intervention while repeating the stories in the target language that retains the emotion of the narrated experience in the source language. There are times when he actually adds emotion that is absent in the original story owing to the impact of the trauma that leaves his interviewees too psychologically and physically drained and at times renders their testimonies a bit mechanical: "These slow stories were told with understatement that made my eyes and voice fill as I translated; for when people seem to have no emotion remaining for such stories, your own heart must supply it" (p. 80).

Being part of the conflict itself and hence bearing witness to the same atrocities, Hari is also capable of blending the stories he hears with the stories he has, thus

translating for himslef as well: "These stories from the camps, mixed with things I had seen with my own eyes, such as the young mother hanging in a tree and her children with skin like brown paper and mothers carrying their dead babies and not letting them go…" (p. 85). Hari's attempt to draw the scenes he witnessed and heard is similar to the translation process in the sense that both transfer those stories from one meduim to another, thus endowing them with a universality they would have otherwise lacked. Hari starts drawing after realizing that he is unable to sleep because he is haunted by the stories of his suffering people and putting those scenes on paper is therapeutic for him the say way translation is. Both drawing and translation imply conquering silence and assuage the survivor's guilt people in his position are prone to having. Hari also feels responsible for all members of his tribe including those he does not know personally and does not meet with reporters. This is shown in his feelings towards the Zaghawa man he runs into in Chad and who insists on telling him his story: "… like two Zaghawa men who should be friends anyway" (p. 82). For Beebee (2010), while the term "translator" in the title of the memoir implies professional neutrality, "tribesman" is "a term of solidarity and belonging" (p. 306). The combination of the two terms, Beebee adds, establishes a link between his job as a translator and his position as a member of the tribe for whose cause he is translating: "Tribesman and translator also engage in a dialectical relationship: Hari's tribal origins are essential to his translatorial skills" (p. 306)

Malinche's collaboration with the Spaniards starts from a conviction that the conquest would save her people from a king who violates the teachings of Quetzalcòatl through the practice of human sacrifice: "The change that she wished for **her people** was simply to put an end to human sacrifice, but she expected everything else to remain the same [emphasis added]" (Esquivel, 2007, p. 100). Being an opponent of the kingdom renders Malinche incapable of representing "her people" if this means the Aztecs, thus puts her in a situation similar to Hari's who also could not represent the Sudanese government even though they take entirely different paths. Hari is capable of representing his people since they are victims of the government, which is not the case with Malinche. In her revolution against the Aztec Empire, Malinche decides to represent the people who oppose the practice of human scarifice and who, however, will not have necessarily chosen allying with the Spanish to have this practice abolished. Therefore, in an attempt to represent a segment of her people, Malinche ends up representing their enemy for whom she only represents the Aztecs linguistically. Therefore, unlike Hari, Malinche belongs to one group and translates for another, thus representing the group to which she does not belong and which is after destroying her own group. While Malinche's position vis-à-vis the representation of her people can be seen as quite ambivalent in the sense that she represents them in a way and is, therefore, involved in a process of double representation, the Cholula massacre determines to a great extent who she represents and underlines the link between translation and

representation. Through translating what she is told about the ambush plan into Spanish, she chooses to represent the Spaniards since this very translation involves a pledge of allegiance to Cortés, whom she warns of the ambush and who accordingly decides to carry out the massacre.

While Hari's translation for the Zaghawa empowers them, the opposite applies to Malinche who disempowers her people when translating for the Spaniards, thus representing the conquering power. In fact, through translation Malinche empowers Cortés who could have otherwise been unable to conquer this territory at all. In fact, having Malinche as his translator gives Cortés the confidence he needed to defeat the Aztec and which he lacked when he was unable to speak their language: "Not knowing the language of the natives was the same as sailing through a black sea… Their unintelligible voices made him feel insecure, vulnerable…" (Esquivel, 2007, p. 35). Cortés' lack of knowledge about the language makes him weak, yet it is Malinche who gives him strength: "Without words, without language, without speeches, there was no mission, and with no mission, no conquest" (p. 37). Historical accounts of the conquest of Mexico agree that the Spaniards could not have won without Malinche's help, which is exmeplified in *The History of the Conquest of New Spain* by Bernal Diaz del Castillo (2008), particularly the chapter entitiled "Enter Doña Maria," dedicated to detailing her indispensible role in the conquest: "This was the great beginning of our conquests and thus, thanks be to God, things prospered with us. I have made a point of explaining this matter because without the help of Doña Marina we could not have understood the language of New Spain and Mexico" (p. 51). Malinche is both powerful and weak in this sense. While she has the power of language over the Spanish, she does not have the power to rebel against her role as their translator or to make radical changes to her translations in favor of her people. She offers a peculiar example of representation where she represents her people in a way that weakens them and the enemy in a way that strengthens it.

Translation as testimony

The traditional perception of translation as the transfer of knowledge from one language to another has been challenged by the meaning of the word "translation" in different languages and which provides an understanding of the process that is quite different from the conventional Eurocentric approach. Tymoczko (2006) cites the example of the Arabic language in which "translation" is "tarjama," meaning "biography." She attributes this to the fact that early translations into Arabic, done by Syriac Christians, mainly focused on the Bible and the lives of saints. The connection between the two concepts, she argues, highlights the link between translation and storytelling and establishes the translator as a storyteller: "The association of the word for 'translation' with a narrative genre, biography, indicates that the role of the translator was seen as related to that of the narrator; in turn this suggests the powerful potential of

the translator's agency as one who 'tells' and hence frames the material 'told'" (p. 449). Similar examples, Tymoczko adds, are seen in other languages such as Igbo and Chinese, proving how translation is in many cultures equated to storytelling. In the case of conflicts, storytelling takes the form of testimony, where facts intentionally kept from the public are brought to the limelight by those who experience the conflict first hand.

Through choosing to represent the Zaghawa tribe and to translate their stories into English, Hari offers as example of the testimonial aspect for translation. Listening to his people's testimonies only constitutes one step towards making their story heard for it is only when it is translated into English and made available to the world that the testimony can yield the results it was created for. According to Mona Baker (2006), translation is what allows a given narrative to transcend its local boundaries, thus taking it to the next level: "Clearly narratives do not travel across linguistic and cultural boundaries and do not develop into global meta narratives without the direct involvement of translators and interpreters" (p. 467). This is exactly what Hari does when he transfers the narratives of his people to the rest of the world, thus performing the same mission of the testimonial: countering the official narrative. When Hari offers his translation services to a number of international organizations such as such as the United Nations, Doctors Without Borders, Oxfam, and Intersos and media outlets such as the New York Times and NBC News, he forms what Baker calls a "narrative community," whose members work together to support the values promoted by the narrative they adopt: "These, I argue, are ultimately motivated not by any intrinsic attributes of the individuals who constitute each group but by a sense of identification with a 'story' or set of 'stories' around which the group gathers. They are, in other words, held together by their willingness to subscribe to the same, or a very similar, set of narratives" (2006, p. 463). While Hari translates the testimonies of his people to a language that is accessible to the world, those entities make sure the world gains access to these testimonies. The testimony, therefore, becomes impossible without the intervention of translation and the propagation of the translated material.

The power of translation lies in its ability to offer a different version of a text or an utterance, which makes it as dangerous as a testimony for any entity that strives to hide the truth: "Just as speech calls for writing, so language in its translatability calls for a version that is seen as the original's supplement. The translation is added onto the original but also threatens to supplant it" (Beebee, 2010, p. 305). That is why like activists, revolutionaries, and all members of the opposition, translators are seen as a grave threat to governments that engage in human rights violations since they all provide counter narratives that expose the truth to the world. In addition to translating the testimony of his people into English, Hari combines his own testimony to that of the people he interviews into the memoir he writes about the entire experience, which involves a number of truths the regime wanted to keep hidden such as Janjaweed attacks on defenseless civilians, the recruitment of child soldiers, the deplorable conditions of

refugee camps, and abuses against women and refutes a number of allegations the regime is keen to propagate such as the conspiracy against the country by reporters, translators, and aid workers. The memoir becomes an integral part of the story of Darfur, thus the culmination of his project which starts with his decision to go back to Darfur and translate for his people: "Hari's most significant translation project is his memoir itself, a rendering in English by a native informant of a conflict carried out in Arabic and a dozen local languages" (Beebee, 2010, p. 306). Like many testimonies, Hari's memoir does only not only aim at acquainting the world with the Darfur conflict, but also instigating it into action since the crisis is far from over. The absence of such action, Michele Levy (2009) argues, is likely to render the risks taken by Hari and his likes futile: "he asserts that taking risks for news stories means nothing 'unless the people who read them will act.' Hari thus challenges us to respond to the suffering engendered by ethnic cleansing and genocide" (p. 78).

In addition to exposing the lies of the Sudanese regime and making the truth about the conflict known to the world, Hari's translation of his people's testimonies gives voice to an ethnic non-Arab minority in Sudan and which has always been marginalized and remained unknown to most of the world. In this sense, Hari fits the description of the post-colonial translator who Melissa Wallace (2002) defines as one "seeking to give voice to minority cultures, bringing the silenced to the attention of the masses, similar to feminist scholars who seek to recover works 'lost in the patriarchy'" (p. 71). In translating the Zaghawa, Hari gives voice to a group that remained disenfranchised throughout the colonial and post-independence eras, thus allowing the "sub-'subaltern'" to speak. In addition to giving a voice to his people, Hari is driven in his decision to embark on his project by his keenness on preserving the memory of a world that was threatened with annihilation, of a community he was trying to protect against vanishing: "This beloved world was nearly lost, but here was some of it yet" (Hari, 2008, p. 103). While translating the stories of the Zaghawa people and which almost solely focus on the conflict, Hari also offers an insight into the structure of the Darfur society, with special emphasis on family ties and the role of women and in a way that intensifies the tragedy, as Consoler Teboh (2009) notes: "*The Translator* elaborates in graphic detail how the bravery and independence of Darfur women and their decision-making power, with a unique family structure and social-support system, are haphazardly crushed by genocide" (p. 101).

Hari's memoir also offers an example of the manipulative skills a translator is expected to possess in order to direct the text towards a given path, which, according to Melissa Wallace (2002), is one of the characteristics of the post-colonial translator: "*translators as manipulators*—translators with the power to manipulate texts at more than one textual level, between linguistic, cultural, and even political boundaries" (p. 66). Hari does not opt for only publishing his translations of the testimonies he hears, but decides instead to produce a meta-text which politicizes those translations and

asserts his visibility as a translator who decides to take part in shaping the translated text. This is demonstrated in the way he blends the translations with his own story and the two appendices he adds to the memoir. Appendix 1 is called "A Darfur Primer" and provides a brief, yet illuminating, account of the Darfur conflict while Appendix 2 features the text of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. Both confirm the testimonial aspect of the memoir as they not only provide a background on the crisis, but also provide a global text against which the practices of the Sudanese government should be measured. Whether they are read before or after reading the memoir, the two appendices, together with the parts Hari adds about his own experiences, turn Hari from a translator, as he describes himself in the title, to an activist who situates his translation in the position where it can serve his cause. Hari, hence, demonstrates Maria Tymoczko's (2006) argument about translation not being restricted to the knowledge of two or more languages, but also the knowledge of all aspects related to the original material and how its translation aids in propagating this knowledge: "translation has a fundamental epistemological dimension: it does not merely reflect existing knowledge, it can also precede knowledge. It can be a mode of discovery used to create or amass knowledge, and in this role it can have marked political and ideological dimensions" (p. 455). In the introduction to the memoir, Hari makes it clear that he is alerting the world to the genocide in Darfur so that an action can be taken to stop it and to prevent similar practices from taking place: "If the world allows the people of Darfur to be removed forever from their land and their way of life, then genocide will happen elsewhere because it will be seen as something that works" (Hari, 2008, p. viii).

Malinche's translation, on the other hand, is technically not taken to the level of testimony. Despite bearing witness to and being a mediator in the encounters between the natives and the Spaniards and which facilitated the conquest of Mexico, Malinche does not write her own account of the events, hence the absence of the female/feminist perspective of the conquest as well as the translation process itself. In fact, all accounts of the conquest are written by males such as Hernán Cortès' *Cartas de Relaciòn* [The Letters], Bernal Díaz del Castillo's *Historia verdadera de la conquista de la Nueva España* [The True History of the Conquest of New Spain], and Francisco López de Gómara's *Crónica de la Nueva España* [Chronicle of New Spain]. In addition to being male, all the afore-mentioned writers are Spanish, thus only the colonial, naturally Eurocentric, view of the conquest is offered. True, they all mention Malinche and most of the information they wrote is actually taken from her translations, but she is never given the voice to tell her own story. Ironically, all information about Malinche is obtained from these male colonial sources, which Esquivel also uses to write her novel. Louise von Flotow (1997) notes that the difference between male and female translations can be detected through certain features or what she terms "the mark each translator, as a gendered individual, leaves on the work" (p. 12). Von Flotow cites the example of Howard Parshley's 1952 English translation of Simone de Beauvoir's *Le*

deuxieme sexe, in which he eliminated "the names of 78 women--politicians, military leaders, courtesans and saints, artists and poets" (p. 50) as well as depictions of women's lives that he considered inappropriate. It is also noteworthy that accounts of the conquests written at the time were meant to be read by the king of Spain, especially Cortès' letters, actually addressed to Charles V, which means they do not provide a testimony that preserves the memory of a vanishing world, which is what Malinche could have done, but rather focus on the victories of the Spanish army. Malinche, therefore, does not engage in what Melissa Wallace (2002) sees as the mission of the feminist translator, that is, amending "wrongdoings" through retranslating works "lost in the patriarchy" (p. 67) or "threatening the stronghold of authorship" (p. 69).

While not developed to a testimony proper, Malinche's translation does serve to document the conquest in a different way, through the initiation of a new race that combines indigenous and Spanish blood and that has defined the Mexican identity until the present moment. Her relationship with Cortès and later on her marriage to Jaramillo see the birth of the first Mexicans, which explains why Malinche is seen as the mother of Mexicans. This mixture of races, the "mestizaje," becomes Malinche's way of coming to terms with her role in the conquest, a means of reconciliation through which she brings to the world a new race that attempts to heal the wounds perpetrated by the conquest and to overcome the subsequent trauma. Malinche offers to her people the compensation she can afford and a testimony that takes the form of a new people who constitute the fruit of her translation. However, the shame with which Malinche is always associated in Mexican culture raises a lot of questions about whether this compensation was accepted and whether the Mexican people are able to overcome the disgrace of being the offspring of a woman who is looked upon as a traitor. In his article "The Sons of La Malinche," Octavio Paz (2002) examines the status of Malinche in Mexican collective memory through her nickname "la chingada" and the verb "chingar" from which it is derived. According to Paz, "chingar" does not refer to a woman who voluntarily surrenders to a man, but rather one who is violated and usually symbolizes male domination and female passivity: "The person who suffers this action is passive, inert and open, in contrast to the active, aggressive and closed person who inflicts it. The *chingón* is the *macho*, the male; he rips open the *chingada*, the female, who is pure passivity, defenseless against the exterior world" (p. 21). Malinche's weakness, however, does not from Paz's point of view absolve her from guilt since it is the reason for the shame Mexicans are still unable to come to terms with. He explains that the slogan "¡Viva Mexico, hijos de la chingada!" always repeated on independence day, is a protest rather than an expression of pride, an expression of the Mexican people's inability to reconcile with where they came from or to forgive their mother for her betrayal: "In this shout we condemn our origins and deny our hybridism. The strange permanence of Cortés and La Malinche in the Mexican's imagination and sensibilities

reveals that they are something more than historical figures: they are symbols of a secret conflict that we have still not resolved" (p. 26).

Malinche's testimony, thus, loses its liberating potential since it is not subversive like Hari's, but rather constitutes a submissive response to conditions that are forced upon her and lack a substantial attempt at resistance. This is confirmed by the ending of the novel, in which Malinche is portrayed as a happy wife leading a peaceful domestic life with her Spanish husband and "mestizo" children, which denotes submission to the colonial patriarchy. The description Esquivel provides of Malinche's house glorifies the domestic sphere and portrays Malinche as having finally reached self-realization: "The patio was not only an architectural creation, a harmonious play of spaces, but it was a mythical center, a point of convergence for various spiritual traditions. It was the place where Mainalli, Jaramillo, and the children interwove the threads of their souls with the cosmos" (Esquivel, 2006, p. 171). According to Ryan F. Long (2010), Esquivel counters Paz's idea of La Malinche as the mother who brings disgrace upon her children and, instead, gives her credit for initiating a reconciliation that brought peace upon two warring factions: "Esquivel's novel transforms Paz's misogynistic view of 'La Malinche' as traitor into the affirmative construction of Malinalli, a symbol of reconciliation and unity, of honorific *mestizaje*. She becomes a mortal equivalent to the spiritual convergence of culture and spirituality represented by the Mexican Virgin of Guadalupe" (p. 204). Esquivel, Long adds, offers her own type of feminism which attempts to strike a balance between "embracing patriarchy and resisting it" (p. 203). In this sense, Malinche's testimony, though neither written nor told, takes the form of the link between the two races, this link that in itself bears witness to and documents the earlier encounter between those two races and records the moments that initiated the formation of a third race. Esquivel's description of the new race demonstrates this view of the unity between the two races as a peaceful conclusion to a violent conflict: "A race that could contain them all. A race where the Giver of Life could be remade, with all manner of names and shapes" (Esquivel, 2006, p. 173). Esquivel's perception of the Malinche implies that her translation does not turn out to be in vain as it is generally thought to be in Mexican culture.

Conclusion

The comparison between Hari and Malinche is faced with a number of difficulties on top of which is the fact that while Hari provides a first person account of his experience, Malinche's story is inspired by several accounts that do not include her own, which means the inevitable presence of gaps that had to be filled by Esquivel when writing the novel. However, since the novel offers the most comprehensive account possible of Malinche's life based on historical records, her position as a translator can be examined accordingly. The comparison between both characters makes it clear that Malinche is a much more complicated one since Hari's goals remain consistent from

beginning to end and even at the time when he is charged with treason or espionage by the Sudanese government, his allegiances do not shift and he does not undergo any conflicts regarding which party he belongs to. Malinche, on the other hand, is torn between her loyalty to her people and her desire to rebel against the practices of the Aztec Empire. Her fascination with Hernan Cortés, who she initially believes is the savior of her people, and her position as a slave make her situation more complicated. That is why while the lines between the active and passive aspects of the translation process are clearly demarcated in the case of Hari, they are far from being so in the case of Malinche.

While Hari's agency is demonstrated almost every time he engages in translation, which becomes very obvious in his choice of when to translate, who to translate for, and how the translation informs his cause, it is still not possible to claim that Malinche lacks agency in her role as a translator for the Spaniards. Malinche's decision to stage her revolution against Moctezuma through the Spaniards and channeling her translation skills towards that end demonstrate an agency that surpasses that of a slave obeying the orders of her masters. Overlooking the price her people will pay, however, casts doubt over whether this agency serves her people or her aspiration for personal freedom as promised by Cortés. The ambivalence of her position is underlined following the Cholula massacre, when after she realizes that her world is being destroyed and that the Spaniards are not a form of divine rescue as she thinks, she does not embark on resisting Cortés, a decision that in itself involves a form of agency even though as passive as her self-imposed punishment. That is why both Malinche and Hari are translators that make choices even if in different ways and for different reasons, for while Malinche's motives are at times personal, Hari's are solely focused on rescuing his people.

The difference between the forms of agency Malinche and Hari embrace is reflected in the extent to which each of them represents his/her people. Both of them opt for nonconformist forms of representation for as a Sudanese citizen, Hari is expected to abide by the laws of the state but he chooses to side with his people at the risk of being charged with treason. Malinche's treason charges might, however, seem more grounded even though her intentions are not initially to betray her people, but rather to rescue them. In this sense, Malinche is engaged in a process of double-representation, one that is further enforced by the fact that she gives birth to a child that has both indigenous and Spanish blood, thus bequeathing this form of representation to her offspring for good. For both, translation could not be separated from the issue of representation, especially that the case of Malinche and Hari involves the necessity of choosing sides.

While Malinche and Hari are different in terms of the form agency and the level of representation, this difference is particularly accentuated as far as the translator's visibility is concerned, hence in determining the link between translation and testimony. Hari's memoir confirms his role as a post-colonial translator who uses his language skills to subvert the official narrative and provide a testimony of the suffering of his

people at the hands of the Sudanese regime. On the other hand, Malinche's invisibility is demonstrated by her inability to transform the translation process into a chronicle of the conquest that counters male, Eurocentric records, through which she and her culture are only seen through Western eyes. Through allowing her memory to be only preserved through the texts of others, Malinche opts for making her history the property of the Spaniards and for immortalizing the fact that her translation skills constituted a main reason for their victory, thus chooses submission and strips her translation from the potential of turning into a testimony. Malinche's visibility is, however, illustrated in the status she comes to occupy as the progenitor of "mestizaje," which can also be regarded as a form of translation. The creation of a new race, brought about through translation, is in itself a form of testimony, though not similar to that of Hari since it lacks the will to preserve a memory threatened with extinction. Malinche's existence and the continuation of her offspring, however, provide a testimony of the cultural encounter that created the new race, the colonial project that exterminated a civilization and created another, and the dilemma of a people who still struggle with their origin.

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Cultural Memory in the Novel Unterstadt by Ivana Šojat-Kuči

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Abstract

Unterstadt (2009) by Ivana Šojat-Kuči can serve as an example of a literary and artistic intervention in the process of cultural oblivion. It is a novel that has won numerous literary awards in Croatia for its innovativeness. For the first time, it tells a story in which minority culture members themselves narrate about their ideologically suppressed family memory in order to imaginatively (re)construct the past, considering the needs of re-examining the destiny of a bourgeois family of German ancestry in the town of Osijek. Themes such as reminiscence, remembering and raising awareness of the town space are a textual polygon for telling the story as a family saga about the destiny of women in four generations – great-grandmother, grandmother, mother, and daughter. Remembering and reminiscence are considered as social and cultural constructs that arise out of mutual interaction between the members of a specific family and community. Thereunto, the role of remembering and forgetting in the process of establishing historical events, female identity and the town's toponymy as cultural/material objects should be determined, and vice versa, the role of culture-moulded objects in memory formation should be defined. There are three methodological approaches or perspectives to the reading of the novel. First, the historiographic layer of the novel is analysed, followed by the analysis of the town as a physical givenness and a cultural construct – a point of intersection of different identities, but also as an area of trauma. The issue of oblivion and reminiscence of the German national minority in the context of specifically female history is tackled as the third perspective. The novel Unterstadt

is an example of a text presenting the mechanism of official remembering and forgetting and re-creation of the past by using the discursive act of narrating human fates conditioned by great historical events.

Keywords
cultural memory, historiographic fiction, contemporary Croatian novel, Ivana Šojat-Kuči

I

Ivana Šojat-Kuči (born in 1971) is a contemporary Croatian author, translator and editor of plays performed in the Croatian National Theatre in Osijek. She published collections of short stories titled *Kao pas* (2006), *Mjesečari* (2008) and *Ruke Azazelove* (2011), a collection of essays *I past će sve maske* (2006), collections of poetry Hiperbole (2000), *Uznesenja* (2003), *Utvare* (2005) and *Sofija plaštevima mete samoću* (2009), and novels *Šamšiel* (2002), *Unterstadt* (2009), *Ničiji sinovi* (2012) and *Jom Kipur* (2014). She is also a translator from French and English. She has translated the books by Amélie Nothomb, Roland Barthes, Raymond Carver, Gao Xingjian, Pat Barker, Nuruddin Farah, Alice Sebold, Moussa Nabati, Luc Besson and Paul Auster to name a few.

She has been awarded a number of national literary awards: the novel *Šamšiel* was awarded the *Charter for Success* (2002), the novel *Unterstadt* won the *Vladimir Nazor Award for Literature* (2010), the *Ksaver Sandor Gjalski Award* for the best novel (2010), the *Fran Galović Award* for best prose dealing with local history (2010) and the *Josip and Ivan Kozarac Award* for the book of the year (2010).

Following a number of literary awards, positive reviews and a wide readership, the novel *Unterstadt* was dramatized and directed by Zlatko Sviben, Nives Madunić Barišić and Bojana Marotti in 2012. The play has also received several awards, such as the *Audience Award* for the best play, the *Croatian Actors' Guild Award* for the best overall play and the *Croatian Actors' Guild Award* for the best accomplishment in directing.

In the novel *Unterstadt*, Ivana Šojat Kuči tells an intimate story of an Osijek bourgeois family of German descent spanning the whole twentieth century. She describes the fate of four generations of women – great grandmother, grandmother, mother and daughter –intertwined with massive social, ideological and political upheavals. In portraying the dark side of the family history, the novel reveals various facets of the official history. It focuses on a family of Danube Germans, who were detained in camps by the Partisans and the members of the Communist regime after World War II, specifically from May 1945 to the early 1947, in which many of them were killed. The equalization of the condemnation of crimes committed by the members of two totalitarian regimes, Nazism and Communism, has awakened public interest, because it has demystified the stereotyped difference between the winners and losers in a war, that is, between the Partisans and the Germans. To be specific, collective

culpability for Nazi crimes was unfairly ascribed to all Danube Germans. In addition, the portrayed urban historiography of Osijek under the Austro-Hungarian Empire, along with typical, yet almost forgotten *Esseker* terms and phrases, have nostalgically sensitized the readership and reminded them of the Middle-European cultural and social milieu to which they have belonged ever since.

In the 19th and 20th century Osijek (Essegg/Eszék) saw a rapid economic, cultural, and urban development as a true central European town, largely owing to German immigrants who, being mostly craftsmen and artisans, contributed to the progress of the region as early as in the period immediately following the liberation from the Turks in the seventeenth century. However, in the midst of the Second World War the Germans became unsuitable. This resulted in many of the indigenous people of Osijek, the so-called Essekers, vanishing in camps after the war, or being expelled as enemies of the people and forced to leave all their possessions to Partisans.

> 'The history and destiny of Croatian and Yugoslav Danube Germans at the end of and in the aftermath of World War II was inseparably, exclusively and one-sidedly associated with the fall of the Third Reich, as was the destiny of Germans in the East and Southeast of Europe. As a result of hostilities, the majority of Croatian Danube Germans left or were expelled from their homes in the last stages of World War II and went mainly to Austria and Germany, where they welcomed its ending. The members of the German minority in Yugoslavia were deprived of all their ethnic/national and civic rights by the communist authorities, and their property was confiscated. The Yugoslav authorities took a firm stand against the return of the exiled ethnic Germans (folksdojčeri) during the war and the immediate post-war period. Moreover, the Yugoslav communist authorities adopted a decision to expel the remaining ethnic Germans from Yugoslavia. Only the ethnic Germans who were able to prove their participation in the Partisan movement or their or support for it did not fall victim to the collective reprisal. The others were subjected to the confiscation of property and expulsion or deportation to the camps.' (Geiger, 2012, p. 393)

It is precisely the memory of the trauma, its articulation and the resulting catharsis among the victims that offer the humane guiding principle which makes *Unterstadt* by Ivana Šojat Kuči a contemporary and current, politically unbiased novel, as it realistically describes inter-ethnic relationships in all their complexity.

II

The novel begins with the narration by Katarina Pavković, who is working in Zagreb as a fine art restorer. When Jozefina, a family friend, informs Katarina that her mother is on her deathbed, she travels by train to Osijek. The framework story of the novel is Katarina's stay in her native town, her mother's burial, the selling of the house and her

conversations with Jozefina. Katarina left her home at the age of eighteen. She lost her boyfriend Slaven in the Croatian War of Independence in the early nineties of the twentieth century, and the child she aborted is haunting her as well. Katarina's stay in Osijek passes in the reminiscence of her family history, partly deriving from her memory of her grandmother's stories. Katarina discovers family photographs. Her grandmother Klara was born in 1918, and her parents were Viktorija and Rudolf Meier. Besides her, they had a son Adolf and a daughter Greta, while the daughter Alojzija died. With disordered mind, owing to the war on the Galician front, Rudolf took to drinking and entertainment with casual women. Viktorija's story is intertwined with the story of her daughter Klara. Klara married Peter Schneider, with whom she had a son Anthony and a daughter Katarina. Klara's brother Adolf introduced Peter to Nazism, and he himself went to war on the Nazi side. Viktorija, Klara and her children, and Jozefina with her daughter and mother ended up in a concentration camp. Klara's new-born daughter Elza and Jozephina's daughter Terezija both died in the camp. Upon their release from the camp, Viktorija and Klara were allowed to move in into a single room because their whole house was occupied by Marko, a settler from Kordun. Greta was killed as a Partisan, and Klara was left on her own with her remaining daughter Marija. Katarina's mother Marija married Stjepan Pavković in order to survive the years in the aftermath of World War II. The novel ends with Katarina's disclosure of family secrets and the creation of a continuous story of her life without repressed and suppressed events.

III

Although the process of remembering and forgetting is tackled in the novel Unterstadt within the textual limits of fictional reality, the analysis and interpretation are nevertheless focused on objects and material actions that are forged in the memory as tools of its revival, modification or erasure. Therefore, the diegetic paradigm is exhausted in the creation of history not only in the fictional (re)production, because literature is 'culture's memory, not as a simple recording device but as a body of commemorative actions' (Lachmann, 2004, p. 172).

Remembering and the memories of the Osijek Germans are considered at the point of intersection of each individual existence of the four female characters. They are considered in the natural environment of their immediate and extended families, as well as in social and cultural relations with a wider socio-economic community, and in the imposed environment of a camp and social class degradation. It is necessary to identify the role of remembering and forgetting in the perception of major historical events and from the perspective of parallel family microhistories with particular emphasis on the role of women and the special characteristics of their identities. Furthermore, it is necessary to illustrate how the space, the toponymy of a town or a family house as a site of interpersonal communication, function as cultural/material objects in the memory.

Especially with regard to the trauma passed through generations, and, vice versa, to define the role of such culturally shaped objects in creating memories.

A family saga as a genre presents an effective way of a literary discussion about the creation of memories with the help of human relationships and involvement of different generations of one family in a broader social framework. By structuring alternating perspectives, which is carried out from the viewpoint of the members of one family of Danube Germans, various forms of remembering and memory are juxtaposed and opposed, while the focus is on the issue of cultural amnesia. In this way, different versions of memory and counter-memory are put in correlation and they create a specific perspective in the fictional structuring of the controversial period in the history of the Danube Germans. At the same time, the novel does not deal with an official reconstruction of history, but with a sort of a lower perspective – that of ordinary people: their desires, aspirations and temptations, and their everyday life. It is the family issues that, with the help of semantization of space and time that become a metaphor of remembering and forgetting, make *Unterstadt* the catalyst text (Rigney, 2008, p. 351), or a literary work engaged in historical and cultural discussions. It also points at the controversial or suppressed historical periods, which is particularly evident in the exploration of ways in which a literary work can function as a fiction of memory.

In analysing the novel *Unterstadt*, three methodological perspectives need to be distinguished. The first is used to analyze the historiographic layer, that is, the effect of macrohistory, such as the First World War, the Second World War and the Croatian War of Independence on the spiritual and material values of the Danube Germans. And conversely, a microhistory of a German family embodied in cultural heritage is described, whereas the intimate story about the heritage becomes a parallel history that competes with official historiography. The town as a physical givenness and a cultural construct – an intersection of different identities, but also a place of trauma resulting from the exodus of Germans – is analyzed in the second perspective. The streets, the houses or heirlooms become valuable memorabilia that are retroactively inscribed in the family history and bear their inherent meanings. The third perspective puts into focus the issue of oblivion and the memories of the Germans in the context of a specifically female history, while photographs and decorative items prominently appear as objects that affect memory and that are incorporated in the collective/individual family memory in a special way.

IV

At the first level of interpretation, it is a novel of history and its changes in which certain historical events are re-interpreted, such as the Battle of Galicia, the Second World War, the controversial issues of the exodus of Germans after the Second World War, and the Croatian War of Independence. However, they are not re-interpreted through the lens of the great and official history, but through that of intimate

experience of primarily male members of the Meier, Schneider and Steiner families, whose fates are directly associated with the events of the war. The discrepancy between the macrohistory and the small life stories which it affects is often insurmountable, which is why its pathogenic effects are most prominent in the novel. After returning from Galicia, Rudolf Meier ended his life by hanging himself in the closet, Petar Schneider was 'swallowed by the darkness', that is, shot by the burst of rounds of a firing squad after the Second World War, while Stjepan Steiner, having survived the camp, died of cancer bearing someone else's last name, Pavković.

Owing to the patriarchal structure of the family relationship in the novel, gender polarization and the relationship between history and family life shape the mechanisms of memory by means of cultural amnesia and collective family memory. On the one hand, all three generations of the German family tend to ignore the historical circumstances by nurturing cultural amnesia. Viktorija found employment because Rudolf was too traumatized by war, Klara remained silent before the indifferent Peter, while Marija married a 'sold' man by the name of Stjepan Pavković. On the other hand, the homogeneity of the three generations of the German family supports the cultural memory. The strengthening of national awareness and cultural traditions is exemplified by everyday rituals and activities, material and spiritual heritage of the German language and cuisine. Some of the physical and spiritual imperatives imposed on the family members are the following: a house filled with elegant German-style furniture, 'Mum's museum-like exhibition of crystal ware kitsch' (Šojat-Kuči, 2009, p. 46) for Easter and Christmas, 'a sofa cluttered with various embroidered, crocheted and fluffy cushions' (Šojat-Kuči, 2009, p. 56), silky upholstery fabric, photographs arranged everywhere, curtains, covers and tablecloths, 'the polished giant' (Šojat-Kuči, 2009, p. 52) of a three-door wardrobe passed down from one generation to the other, and so forth. The tradition of giving Germanic names is also inherited as well as forms of address among family members, various dishes on the table, such as floating islands, cabbage and noodles, lard pastry, and vegetable stew.

As a contrast to the material and spiritual values of the German family, the Tito's bust, which Marija and Stjepan Pavković' (former Steiner) daughter Katarina buys on a school trip because of the suppressed family history affected by the cultural amnesia, possesses a distinct symbolic value for the macrohistory. There is also the ceremony of Katarina's admission to Tito's Pioneer Movement and the oath she recites loudly in the living room, the viewing of the partisan film Kozara and so on. Due to the trauma experienced by Germans at the end of the Second World War, when the majority of indigenous German population were expelled from Osijek, and some individuals like Pavković stayed, the need arose to cover up and deny the past as well as to flee from the truth. The role of collective family memory comes to the foreground only later as Katarina returns to her hometown Osijek after the Croatian War of Independence and discovers her true origin in a conversation with a family friend Jozefina Bittner. This is

the reason why Katarina returns and 'completes' the cultural memory, and connects the recollections in order to be able to accept her own cultural and material heritage and the family tradition in its entirety. Thanks to the family cultural memory, a solution to the enigma of the official history is offered, because 'history remembers material things, it keeps only the legacy of the builders. Not because the world is good at the core, but because destroyers leave nothing behind' (Šojat-Kuči, 2009, p. 303).

At the second level of interpretation, it is a novel of the town of Osijek as a point of intersection of German and other peoples, and as a commemorative site of national exodus as a result of which the cultural memory of parks, squares, streets and houses only later gets its true meaning. The cultural memory is not only associated with space, but also with time. The year of 1945 was an important milestone for Germans, or rather the whole period around that time that was marked by the attempts of their expulsion from Osijek. The years marking the beginning of the First and the Second World War were also decisive moments of their traumatic war experience. The town of Osijek is turned into a place of trauma, a place which the members of the German family are closely attached to and which symbolically represents the entire Central European area of the former Austro-Hungarian Empire.

Upon their release from the camp in 1947, the only survivors, Viktorija, Klara and Marija, were allowed to move in only into one room of their former home. Jozefina was left with only a pigsty, while newcomers from Kordun were settled in the German homes. After the end of the Croatian War of Independence in 1999, Katarina returns to Osijek, where she is greeted by Jozefina, the witness of her family's history. Jozefina reinterprets the cultural memory of the town from the perspective of a German. Katarina's return to Osijek should be viewed as a certain initiation rite through which she finds her own origin, symbolized by her original place of residence, the sacred family place. The perception of the appearance of the town itself – its streets, squares, buildings and public areas – plays a crucial role in raising Katarina's awareness of her identity: 'All around Western Europe, in the civilized world, people organize conferences on the Secession (Art Nouveau), the Secession facades are preserved as a national treasure and here they are falling down on people passing by! (…) It is terrible: the two-century old, proud homes of the former Lower Town craftsmen, merchants, lawyers, doctors, professors, the warm homes of people thanks to whom Essek, although geographically 'in the middle of nowhere', has actually always been a part of the 'Central European' spirit, were now falling apart before your eyes.' (Šojat-Kuči, 2009, p. 217).

The semantization of space in the novel is evident in the interpretation of the significance of the town's architecture. The suppression of the memory of a strong German influence is equated with the lack of care for the preservation of cultural heritage which becomes despised cultural legacy. In addition, the space can be read as a metaphor for the memories of the trauma with the recurring contrast we-they as a

contrast between the old derelict buildings and the newly constructed buildings lacking the consciousness of urban architecture:

> 'Like a rounded stone, misery hit me bluntly right in the middle of the forehead. Not a uniform, unanimous misery, but the misery of houses that are rotting away so that someone, most probably, one day, can buy a plot instead of the house, a burial place to raise another transgress kitsch, a grandiose arrogance of the newly rich. The grotesque creations of yellow and red façades bricks are crammed in between the old souls of derelict bricks, with plaster lions at the entrance to a tiny courtyard, with poor, tacky imitations of Doric columns in front of the door and ornate theatre-like curtains. I felt the urge to shout, to wake people up, but few passers-by were already staring at me as if I was a crazy woman, a patient from the nearby psychiatry ward. (Šojat-Kuči, 2009, p. 218)

The economic and cultural development of Osijek, as well as the cultural memory upon which Katarina builds her own identity, is neglected after the dissolution of the Austro-Hungarian Empire. More precisely, upon the arrival of the Partisans and the establishment of a new social order, the Art Nouveau architecture was either neglected or nationalized. A gap was created between the Danube Germans and the culture defined by an ideological regime. The world-renowned theatre premieres were replaced by ideologized films featuring war themes. The novel also points out that the erasure of the 'Central-European' spirit was further evident in the changes of street names. In place of Schulhoff, Reisner, Kaiser or Reinitz, new signs bearing the names of the Partisan heroes were placed on the Art Nouveau buildings.

Although the establishment of democracy after the Croatian War of Independence has raised awareness of the original tradition, history and culture of the town of Osijek, capitalism has led to the privatization of Art Nouveau buildings and to the inadequate protection of their original appearance. In revealing a new meaning of the topography of Osijek, for which Jozefina's word of mouth had an indirect but crucial importance, Katarina makes sense of the integrity of her own identity that is based on German ancestry. Curiously enough, before her departure to Zagreb, Katarina purchases 'a pretty Art Nouveau frame' for a family photo of her grandmother Klara' (Šojat-Kuči, 2009, p. 393).

At the third level of interpretation, the novel Unterstadt represents a type of memory fiction in which the issues of remembering and forgetting of one nation are discussed through the prism of 'female' history – great grandmother Viktorija, grandmother Klara, mother Marija, granddaughter Katarina and family friend Jozefina. The novel is a sample of the narrative development of mimesis of memory. It is a literary work that does not imitate the existing versions of memory, but produces, in the act of discourse, that very past which they purport to describe (Neumann, 2008, p. 334). Therefore, it is necessary to determine the narrative procedures in the analyzed novel as a literary text

in which memory is prominently thematized. As far as the structuring of time categories goes, it functions in a form that represents the way the memory works. Past stories and events are told in the present because there is a need to resolve the problem of authenticity of one's own identity and to achieve a temporal continuity of the group to which one belongs through the reconstruction of the common conventions, behaviour and actions. Consequently, analepsis is the main narrative technique used, that is, a constant switch from the narrative present of great-granddaughter Katarina and family friend Jozefina to their own immediate and more distant family history, spanning over one century. It is an imaginative (re)construction in which recollections are used to fill the emptied zones in the memory of Danube Germans brought on by family amnesia. As a result, mostly unknown prehistories are shaped, which govern the actions and reactions of other protagonists from the background, whereas the explanation of their origin and heritage makes their actions, thoughts and aspirations clearer.

In addition to homodiegetic narration evident in Katarina's telling about herself and others within the framework story, there is also a heterodiegetic narration in the form of an unnamed third person omniscient narrator that tells about the fate of other female characters. The role of such intertwining of perspectives is to emphasize Katarina's search for her own identity, that is, getting to know herself, the last descendant of the family, by the help of its unknown past. The other female characters are narrated without strict chronological sequence, which leads to overlapping of various time plans and detecting the similarities in the fates of these women. This serves as a basis for the establishment of a collective memory of the German family, whose version of history is finally told, albeit fictionally, and that version does not correspond to a generally adopted history, legitimized by the politics of the official winner.

However, the finally told microhistory does not only compete with the official history but it also contradicts the family story which actually does not even exist owing to a forcibly nurtured cultural amnesia. Its causes should be searched for in the fear for their own existence, on account of which German names were 'slavenized' or the Germans would take on Slavic last names. The cultural assimilation in the novel is exemplified by Katarina's father Stjepan, raised by the Pavković family, who gave him their last name after his parents had been shot by a firing squad in the camp. Such a model of social mimicry is further supported by the socio-economic causes. We learn, namely, that Marija married Stjepan in order to look after her materially and morally degraded family, and to gain security herself by taking the Pavković last name. There is also physical memory that is worth discussing, as we learn that all women in the family suffered the tragedy of losing a child and inherited certain fears. For instance, Greta's fear of dead people caused by the trauma of seeing her father's corpse is also evident in Katarina's running away from funerals and deceased persons.

In attempting to get rid of imposed oblivion and to resolve any consequential trauma, the effects of which are passed on from one generation to the other, the family photos

play a prominent role. They feature Katarina's grandmother with her family, Katarina with her mother and grandmother, Katarina's parents as a married couple and her father Stjepan with his parents. The photographs play the role of some material intermediary of the past between those in front of the lens and those who keep those photographs as heirlooms. Katarina's observing of family photos becomes an act of utmost importance to her symbolic connection with her roots, her original ethnicity and her memory. These photographs act as triggers that encourage the storytelling about a history that is censored intentionally. By observing herself and others in the perfect tense, the relationship between remembering and forgetting is thematized and the distance between the observer and her past, or her ancestors, diminished:

> 'I finally removed all photographs that had been probably for years hidden in shoeboxes under mom's bed and took them upstairs into grandma's room. I had the impression that they really belonged there. Having at first leafed through them carefully, I realized that they were literally thrown randomly into boxes, in no particular order, so I decided to simply scatter them onto the floorboards in front of the window. I was overcome by a strange feeling of stepping clumsily into the darkness and falling through a rift in time, back to when I was five or six years old. (...) I stare at the faces which, because of the counterpoint of only two colours, black and white, and their shades, seem to me as if they are peeping out from the gloom, as if they had opened the door to the dark hallways, as if behind them the darkness is billowing into my light, from which I observe them.' (Šojat-Kuči, 2009, pp. 168–169)

The photographs in the novel are objects of special importance to the family history and have the status of not only the testimony from the private sphere of existence, but also the status of a fictitious historiographic document. These are not actual images integrated into the text, but fictitious prose images whose content is described in the text, and serve as important links between the framework story and the story of the past. Family photos in the novel are used as a means for Katarina to fill in the gaps in her autobiographical and family narrative in order to find in these rifts, by reconstructing memories, a space of her own resistance to her family's (self)imposed ideology of oblivion (Hirsch 1997, 192). Given that official history cannot acknowledge certain events, the viewing of photographs in the novel serves to interpret the correlation between private memory of a particular social group, that is the Germans, and history. This is done in order to show what the history has neglected based on the ideologically instructed dyadic division of we-they. Due to the variability of memory and the above mentioned relations of power, the photographs take on the features of an authentic personal testimony of strong impact. Their descriptions constitute the narrative analepsis used to consider the stories and events from the past, in the present. The photographs establish a sense of community and cultural identification which includes the blending of different periods in several generations and a sort of communication

with thus revived family members. For instance, Katarina describes her father's family photo from her childhood memory perspective:

'I stared for a long time at the woman who was sitting on a wooden, almost rustic chair as if something was pinching her. She was wearing a white blouse, turned yellow in the photograph due to moisture or darkness, a lace ornamented blouse collar high up along her delicate neck. She had sparkling, bright eyes, the colour of which I could not seem to figure out (...) Then I looked at the child in white lace stained by time, the round child's head, and somewhat lighter, I guess chestnut locks of hair that wiggled in waves below a white, probably silk cap. Finally, I looked at the man who was standing upright next to his wife, who, as if in fear, put his left hand on to the right shoulder of the woman stiffened in her chair. I stared into his face, and he stared back at me in equal measure staring unwaveringly from his musty, ancient and rigid times. God, I thought, this man looks just like my dad ... (...) I turned the photo and I saw 'Agata and Jozef Steiner' written in pencil on the back. In the right hand corner, on the back of the photo, the year '1943' was written by a trembling hand, in a different handwriting and a slightly oily pencil.' (Šojat-Kuči, 2009, pp. 118-119)

The father takes the accidentally discovered photograph away from Katarina and speaks about it just before he dies. Thereby he gives her a sense of family continuity by raising awareness of the past and establishing the we-identity. This leads to a sort of counter-memory which challenges the hegemonic understanding of culture and history. Thus the descriptions of family photos serve as solid reference points used to manifest the common forms of symbolic behaviour and relatedness in accordance with the theory of Roland Barthes.

The picture of Virgin Mary that Katarina's grandmother leaves to her has a similar meaning. In the Conservation Institute it was discovered that the back of the picture was hiding a devotional prayer of her grandmother for all the dead in the family. In Katarina's hands that particular object indicates the past connected with the present, as it helps the family members memorize the family history and creates a sense of togetherness and tradition.

The family house in Osijek to which Katarina returns also gets symbolic connotations. It marks the place of confrontation with the past and of catharsis experienced after a painful process of self-knowledge with the help of biographies of other female characters, who all become some sort of doubles to one another. The similarities and overlapping of women's fates is also noticeable in the objects as traces of history, such as photographs. Specifically, the repetition of the same patterns of gender memory is particularly prominent, because networks of related views are recognized on the basis of description of such photographs. They create the so called family's view, which is transferred through generations and which connects all members of the family, so that a family photo becomes a mirror of gender truth (Barthes, 2006, p. 128).

In addition to photographs, there are other memorabilia in the house that elicit memories or bring new and unexpected insights. Among them is a tuft of a child's hair which, as Katarina soon learns, belonged to her deceased brother Filip, who was kept secret from her. Apart from the house, there is also the shed in which young Katarina finds objects and photographs belonging to her father's German family about which he only tells her just before he dies: 'I dropped the photograph and the box fell off my lap with its contents spilling out on the floor. Frantically, I looked at hairpins, a piece of white silk ribbon, papers, a picture of a saint with a palm branch in his hand, a photo of a man in a military uniform, of a boy in a sailor suit, scattered all over the grimy dirt floor.' (Šojat-Kuči, 2009, p. 120)

Other significant descriptions are those of grandmother Klara's insanity and her conversations with the ghosts, as well as the dreams in which female characters are dreaming about their men, most of whom disappeared in the war. Paradoxically enough, the ghosts as immaterial entities are signs of personal trauma. Specifically, the unresolved past in the form of ghosts appears in the memories of the loved ones and influences them, while that same history, in fact, re-materializes in the reality, on which it has a decisive, and primarily pathogenic effect.

> 'Although I was afraid of grandma, I was drawn to her in the attic by intense curiosity, just like in moronic horror movies, and the curiosity was additionally and abundantly fed by the fact that mom was scared of grandma's insanity much more than I was. I was afraid of the dead who, according to my grandmother's stories, were staggering around the room, and my mother was afraid of the truth about those dead. It was obvious.' (Šojat-Kuči, 2009, p. 222)

The appearance of literary ghosts in the novel Unterstadt is a reflection of bridging the gap between the past and the present, the individually suppressed and collectively imposed definition of the individual. In other words, in facing the model of 'oneself', which failed to become assimilated in the context of the communist ideology, and the model of 'the other' as the victim of cultural aggression aimed at the Danube Germans, the literary ghosts, 'the colourless transparent ghosts grandmother talked about before her death, who, as she said, kept wandering before her eyes all day long before her death' (Šojat-Kuči, 2009, p. 127) indicate the return of the repressed and the externalization of internalized terror.

Furthermore, Slaven, who was killed in the Croatian War of Independence and is represented as a dreamed spirit of the past, is a sign of Katarina's personal trauma caused by unfortunate historical circumstances of the war in Croatia that started in 1991. Katarina presents the darker socio-economic circumstances of the war by directing her objections to the dead Slaven. She does it in order to emphasize her unhappiness with injustice that caused her own realization of becoming a wife and a mother being interrupted by war, and with the futility of Slaven's death while defending his

homeland, Among other things, war profiteering relativised the spiritual values of the heroic dying of soldiers:

'While you were charging the tanks with your little rifle fighting against injustice, while you were fighting for the so-called centuries-old Croatian dream, they started their privatization business, engaged in the higher levels of thievery, fled to defend us from the banks of the Rhine and Main, from all kinds of refugee centres! Are you at all aware now what a fool you've been? Huh? Are you? They amassed wealth shamelessly, and you fell honourably! Is that sneaky?! Phew!' (Šojat-Kuči, 2009, p. 232)

In addition to the ghosts as non-material entities in the process of recollection of the past, some objects, such as grandma's prayer book, her hairpin with a glass butterfly, or her rose-patterned cushions, have an extremely sentimental value as well. The material heritage also evokes a sense of connectedness and continuity, such as the three-door wardrobe passed over from one generation to the other, along with figurines and crystalware. Besides, these objects are reminiscent of the deceased people and their subconscious obsessions. For instance, mother Marija leaves curtains behind in many unexpected places around the house, which, together with a plastic tablecloth that never reveals the true appearance of the table, symbolize her introversion, constant silence and a lifestyle characterized by keeping secrets to oneself.

The olfactory sensitivity of female characters is on more than one occasion associated with remembering a particular person, place or event, due to the physiological background of memorizing. For instance, grandma's hand smelling of ground coffee; the scent of hyacinth; Jozefina's association of the first encounter with Greta with the scent of linden trees and Greta's cigarette smoke; the smell of the river; Klara's inhalation of the mixture of Peter's sharp cologne, ink and menthol candy. All these examples are evidence of physical memory. In order to achieve it, the body is first excited by some activity in the material realm, the senses are roused, and, finally, excitations are integrated as signs, symbols or internal images of things that have now become part of perception and emotional experience (Barrett, 2013, p. 65).

The novel also deals with the variability of the process of remembering, conscious or unconscious selectivity in remembering facts and events, self-deception and manipulation while emphasizing or suppressing them. The history of Katarina's mother Marija, who hides old photographs and grandmother's and father's things from her daughter, plays a decisive role in covering the family's political unsuitability. In this context, the comparison of the houses with silos (Šojat-Kuči, 2009, p. 219), in which the belongings of the dead are stored is worth mentioning, or that of the family house with a sarcophagus (Šojat-Kuči, 2009, p. 285), in which family secrets are conserved. Memory erased by the removal of items that serve as evidence of this memory points to the performative power of the material sphere that functions as a silo or sarcophagus, or as a keeper of the memories that can be evoked when in contact with the active subject

in the research and in the discovery of meaning and function of particular objects, that is, in placing them in the right context of macro or micro history.

Another issue that is evident in the novel Unterstadt is the cancellation of opposition between the material and immaterial, organic and inorganic, and sensory and non-sensory. This pronounced egalitarianism fits perfectly into the theoretical consideration, according to which there is no movement of dead matter outside of a human or in opposition to him. Instead, the world and life are approached to as constantly active processes of materialization, of which embodied humans are an integral part (Coole & Frost, 2010, p. 8). This is especially evident in attributing inanimate characteristics to humans. For example, Katarina's mother reduces people to dirty, ugly machines (Šojat-Kuči, 2009, p. 168), Viktorija makes noises 'as an inflatable floating mattress that no one will take to the seaside anymore' (Šojat-Kuči, 2009, p. 371), at one point Jozefina resembles a 'plastic coat hanger' (Šojat-Kuči, 2009, p. 197), her ear looks 'like a satellite dish' (Šojat-Kuči, 2009, p. 331), and so forth. Conversely, there is also pronounced anthropomorphism of the world, so that the town is a stubborn (Šojat-Kuči, 2009, p. 11) and unkempt old man (Šojat-Kuči, 2009, p. 58), old town houses have the skin that peels off them as that of old people with low back pain (Šojat-Kuči, 2009, p. 217). Such metaphorical expressions suggest the interaction and overlapping of zones of organic and inorganic world, and mark, in accordance with new vitalism, a solid connection between people and the inanimate world in which they are immersed and which is immersed in them.

The significance of the female body in the novel should also be addressed. There is a recurring subordinate position of women in family photos: the man is standing above the woman and placing his hand upon her as if she were his property. In the context of male-female relationships, Greta's character occupies a prominent place. Greta is the epitome of an emancipated, headstrong, Europeanised young woman in a provincial atmosphere who does not conform to the traditional position of women in a patriarchal and petty bourgeois milieu. However, although Greta joins the Partisans, her post-war fate is typical of the Slavonian destiny of Danube Germans. It is tragic and upsetting because immediately after the war, on her way back from visiting her family in the Valpovo camp she gets raped and murdered under mysterious circumstances (Geiger, 2012, p. 392). Greta's masculine behaviour, which extends beyond her appearance and clothing, is further intensified by her using the objects considered inappropriate and prohibited for women to use. Such objects in the novel bear a subversive meaning in the context of sex and gender. For instance, the record player that Viktorija takes away from her rebellious daughter Greta and breaks into pieces, as it is considered inappropriate for a girl to own one, is the 'work of the devil'. There is also menswear that Greta wears, and the cigarette holder that she so shamelessly uses.

The cultural amnesia in the novel is of dual nature because it applies not only to the Danube Germans as a whole, but also to the repressed memory of mothers and

daughters, to their functioning in terms of family roles and their relationships with men and the (im)possibility of their emancipation. It is a sort of gender sanctioning because, in the novel, the memory keepers, with the traditional role of oral narrators, are prominent women who are double marginalized – they are members of the German ethnic minority and they are female.

The conflict between the outer, socially and politically conditioned world and the inner world of a family is also reflected in the gender roles. The role of a woman is not reduced to chores, and women are identified with typically female decorative fetishes as well. In the case of men, the material is reflected in the struggle for bare survival in the war: 'All their lives women just bear children, do the chores and collect porcelain figurines', he ran his hand over the glass cabinet with Viktica's figurines. 'The whole menagerie, pastoral images! God forbid! As if this were life! As if life were such! They don't know what the trenches are, what it's like when the bastard cannon ball flies between your eyebrows! They consider it mischief!' (Šojat-Kuči, 2009, pp. 94-95)

The gender polarization in the family is further emphasized by the ideological divisions that are reflected as a paradigm in the relationship between the true bearers of official history - Adolf and Greta, a brother and a sister. They end up on opposite sides: he joins the Nazis, and she joins the Partisans:

'(...) I'm solid! I'm not a cheap wannabe theatre actress, a feeble whore no one wants to marry. I am not a shabby old maid. Oh, no, my brother, your namesake, the elf with the funny moustache gave you a magic formula.' Greta stood up and began waving her hands. 'You are no longer trash, you're no longer a transparent little repulsive worm, but an Übermensch! The crazed maniac just snapped his fingers - snap! – and somehow, somewhere from the underground, suddenly only super humans crawled out.' (Šojat-Kuči, 2009, p. 72)

In addition to the ideological divisions, there are multiple conflicts between the male and the female gender in the novel, amplified by social, national and religious beliefs such as the following relationships: Rudolf-Viktorija (soldier-housewife), Adolf-Greta (Nazi-Partisan), Peter-Rebeka, a family friend, (German-Jew), Slaven-Katarina (soldier-restorer), Stjepan-Marija (traitor to his people-betrayer of her own family).

V

The novel Unterstadt by Ivana Šojat-Kuči proves the thesis that memory and history need not entirely coincide. It is, therefore, the task of the memory to question the so-called official history. The novel deals with the cultural memory of the Danube Germans as a group deprived of their cultural, political and social status, although they represent a minority that remained registered in the history of the town, thus completing its multicultural image. The analysis of the novel has revealed the opposition of two cultural programmes, one of which focuses on the imposed cultural amnesia, and the other on the need to remember through the mediation of oral traditions for fear of

forgetting and in order to prove one's own authenticity. According to Ann Rigney, literary texts may differ with respect to the role associated with the textualization of memory. Relay stations are texts through which standardized forms of memories are circulated without analysing them critically (Rigney, 2008, p. 350). Stabilizers are texts through which the existing forms of memory are emphasized, which confirms their status as easily remembered cultural patterns for later recollections (Rigney, 2008, p. 350). Catalysts are understood as texts that draw attention to new or neglected topics in order to enhance memory associated with them (Rigney, 2008, p. 351). Objects of recollection are literary texts that, although they are not working as media of remembrance, still can trigger a recollection of certain culture groups (Rigney, 2008, p. 351). Finally, calibrators are revisions of canonical literary texts in the form of rewriting or revising through which the forms of memory created in canonical texts are analysed critically (Rigney, 2008, p. 351). The described mechanisms of memory and forgetting classify the novel Unterstadt into the so-called corpus of catalytic texts. Although they do not present a reliable point of reference in the constitution of memory owing to their fictional character, they do play a significant role in emphasizing the topics that are forgotten and kept secret. This enables the examination of historical controversies and creates a space for the promotion of the idea of tolerance, further discussion, and thematization of remembering and memory on the basis of material evidence in a particular culture group. According to Birgit Neumann, the privilege of fictional texts is to integrate separated memory versions (Neumann, 2008, pp. 338–339), that is, in the context of the analyzed novel, memory and forgetting. Such integration points at the importance of the forgotten versions of memory, enables the exploration of memorized or forgotten entities, and tabooed topics such as traumas of the past and neglected controversial events. Furthermore, it constitutes a counter-memory 'thereby challenging the hegemonic memory culture' (Neumann, 2008, p. 339), which is sought to be critically examined in the analysed novel.

The analytical approach to the novel *Unterstadt* by Ivana Šojat-Kuči focuses on the historiographic layer, the semantization of space and time and the specificity of female history. The results of the analysis reveal a mutual conditionality of material and non-material realms of existence, everyday life and socio-economic framework, family heritage and individual identity. In addition, this type of analysis permits a different view of the nature *of objects of the histor*y, that is, of the mechanism of (non)historical memory, material dispossession of the 'defeated' party, communist indoctrination of the pioneers' oath and the contents of films, of the objects of ideological significance in living rooms, and so forth. The discussion about the issue of forgetting and remembering of the Germans in the specific context of female history also reveals the nature of the *historicity of objects,* that is, how objects as material evidence of microhistory, such as photographs and decorative items, affect the memory that includes them, in a particular way, in the collective/individual family memory.

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Internationalization of Universities and Teacher Preparation for the 21st Century

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Abstract

The living in 21st century's global world has a great impact on various aspects of life in interdependent society. Teachers and educators are expected to be well prepared to teach in classrooms characterized by diversity in culture, language, abilities and other characteristics of pupils. The other challenge for teachers is to support development of new competences of pupils, competences, which enable them to understand global world and to be active participants in new living conditions. The task of teacher training institutions is to find the ways how to prepare globally competent teachers, as their training as well as a real educational practice has always been connected to the existing socio-historical context. The authors of presented paper pointed out some issues linked to the global competence of teachers and the requirements of globally competent students. The paper is focused on the importance of internationalization of future teachers' preparation. Based on collected empirical data, the authors present possible ways, outcomes and benefits of international study stays of students (prospective teachers) for their professional growth, teachers' competences and personal development.

Keywords

teacher training, prospective teachers, globally competent teacher, internationalization of study, international study stays

Introduction

Rapid changes taking place around us are reflected (or at least should be reflected) into various aspects of the education of children, youth and adults. They demand insistently from us, especially from teachers, to be on the pulse of time, to leave our normal stereotypes and be sensitive what affects the current situation in education of children, which is different from the conditions of their parents and teachers. Speaking about the current questions of contemporary education, every topic is actual, since the education is determined by the changed historical space-time in which it takes place.

The present life is very turbulent and it is expected that many faces of turbulences will influence people in the future. Globalization of today´s world has become a phenomena which is a very frequent topic to analyze and discuss for representatives of variety of professionals. It is considered to be the main factor which enters into everyday lives, in our homes, work and leisure time, which has wide impact on our life style, communication, links to outside world, etc. The process of globalization is not separated from educational scene; it generates new problems, which can be very often solved only in close international cooperation of professionals in education. Reality of a global world has close links to internationalization of education, multicultural and global competences of teachers. Accordingly to P. Richardson there should be a shift in a teaching, as "teaching is a global profession" (2012, p. 23).

The changes in the social context are transferred into the different levels of school life, colleges and especially universities that prepare future teachers inclusively. Applying the ideas of the famous Czech pedagogue J. Kota, it is absolutely true that if we want to change the education of children, first of all, we need to think about the education of adults who come into the educational contacts with children (In Vališová, Kasíková, et al., 2007, p. 16).

To be a teacher, it needs pre-gradual education of a high quality as well as life-long study. According to us, one of the ways of life-long learning, searching professional and personal cultivation of teachers and future teachers is participation in international activities.

1. International cooperation of universities

The importance of international cooperation among universities can be documented by the existence of a lot of International Associations and Unions. One of them is the International Association of Universities (IAU), which was based in 1950. Its mission is to promote the contact among universities in various countries around the world and to find the ways for international cooperation as much as possible for higher education institutions. Significant strategies in cooperation were articulated for example through the international document "The 2000 IAU Policy Statement Towards a Century of International Cooperation", through the conclusions of the international conference on higher education and cooperation in Lyon (2002), as well as through the statements and

calls of "International World Conference on Higher Education“ (2003), etc. An important role in the internationalization of higher education has the European University Association (EUA), European Association for Quality Assurance in Higher Education (ANQA), European Association of Institutions of Higher Education (EURASHE), European Students' Union and other associations. The basic program consists of international instruments related to international conferences and declarations of Maastricht, Amsterdam, Paris, Bologna, Lisbon, Prague, Bergen and others. As P. Zgaga (university education philosopher from Slovenia) stated, in the late 80's of the last century was seen a significant movement at European universities. It was the reflection of Global Market Economy, the political movement and integration processes in Europe from a global perspective, the fall of the Berlin Wall, the free movement of persons and the growing multiculturalism. These and other events triggered international discussions and education policy. Under these conditions there was created the space for the mobility of European students and teachers of universities; in particular through the programs Tempus, Erasmus/Socrates, CEEPUS, Nordplus etc. (2007, p. 19-24).

Under the auspices of The International Association of Universities in 2003 a questionnaire was elaborated and sent off that was to bring the insights of university experts in various fields of international cooperation. It was the first mapping of the situation in the life of universities. It pointed to the need to monitor the level of international cooperation (it became the starting point to draw up the long-term strategies of IAU). The questionnaires were completed by 176 institutions (respondents) from 66 countries (higher education institutions from Africa, Asia, Europe, Middle East, North America and Latin America). It should be added that all addressed countries were members of the IAU, i.e., the concept and context of "internationalization" was clear for them. The questions were designed so that from the answers could be selected existing positives, negatives and the obstacles to fulfill the idea of international cooperation. Despite the evaluated data is from 2003, mostly is still relevant. The analysis of the data was carried out in two stages, first as an overview of all countries and subsequently as the comparison of the countries, in respect of geographical regions.

From the analysis carried out by the J. Knight (IAU, 2003) we choose the most serious findings, because they correspond to our own experience. It was found that:

- the mobility of teachers and students is considered to be the most important activity in the field of internationalization of higher education and it is also the fastest growing area of internationalization;
- as the main benefits of internationalization were mentioned: enhancing level of students, teachers and other professional staff, raising academic standards and quality in higher education and scientific research;

- distance education and the broad use of ICTs is considered to be a key factor in promoting the introduction of innovation in higher education and the internationalization of higher education;
- the negative aspect is that despite the fact that two thirds of the addressed higher education institutions officially declare the existence of policies and strategies for international cooperation and the internationalization of life in college, only half of them implement it in practice (e.g. budget for international activities, monitoring and evaluating the results of this field work, etc.);
- the greatest risks of internationalization of higher education are to fade away the cultural identity (resp. the fear of such an option) and the so-called "brain drain", (mostly confirmed by respondents from African countries);
- the major obstacle to the implementation of the ideas of internationalization of university life was shown a lack of financial resources.

It was further found that 73% of respondents are convinced that the internationalization is one of the priorities at their institution and indicate few major reasons why higher education institutions support internationalization. The reason for this is that it allows mobility and exchange visits of students, teachers and professional staff, cooperation in education and research, it supports to increase academic standards and the quality of university education, allows the participation in international research projects, as well as it provides more space to assist the development programs. Moreover, it creates the opportunities to cooperate in developing and improving higher curricula, to strengthen the international and intercultural understanding, it is the source of better institution profile, its "public image", giving it a raising prestige, it creates a space for diversity of the student and teacher population and allows to obtain the funding from various sources and to receive the students from different nationalities (Knight, 2003, p. 8).

Regarding barriers to implement the idea of internationalization into the life of universities it has shown that most institutions face similar problems such as the lack of strategies to facilitate the internationalization process, lack of financial support (it was generally indicated as the most serious barrier to the process), inactivity, or problems with the administrative staff at universities, competition among different priorities of universities, lack of appreciation and the failure to recognize the work carried out abroad, lack of relevant information, a misunderstanding of what the internationalization of higher education is going on, insufficiently prepared and unqualified personnel in the field of internationalization. Furthermore, were revealed problems at the level of faculties and heads of departments - the lack of common responsibility to promote the internationalization, disproportions in increased workload of teachers involved in the internationalization process and on the other hand, lack of preparedness and support from administration departments (at central, resp.

departmental level), some problems with the transfer of credits and finally problems with bureaucracy (Knight, 2003, p. 13).

The research results about internationalization of academic life are close to many of our own experiences we have acquired in organizing and participating in the mobility of students and university teachers, to innovate the content of future teachers training with respect for the principles of European dimension in education and by participating in international conferences and projects.

2. Teacher preparation for education in the global age

As we have already mentioned before, life in the 21st century has undergone a great changed. Circumstances of life today and for the future underline new competences of people, often called as "global competence". Based on relevant research, experiences and professional resources, Ch.West suggests description of a global competence. according to her ideas and outcomes of other researchers, it is clear, that global competence include knowledge of other world regions, understanding its culture and international issues, it requires skills to communicate in international language (to be skilled in foreign languages), the ability to get and to use information from various sources and to model the values and perspectives of tolerance, respect and interest for the other cultures, people and the global life from general point of view (see more West, Ch., 2012).

Having in mind student´s development globally competent student has:

- knowledge of and curiosity about world historical events, geography, culture, environmental and economic systems and current issues from international point of view:
- language and cross - cultural skills to communicate in effective way with people from other countries and to share experiences;
- a commitment to ethical citizenship, to understand ethical dimension of globalization (Devlin-Foltz, McIlvaine, 2008).

To support students in this difficult task is a challenge for teachers, especially teacher´s educators. They, of course, should be prepared in areas described above and they are expected to have knowledge in international aspects of their teaching subject and a range of global issues, to be skilled to teach their students to gather and analyze various professional sources from foreign countries, to appreciate multiple points of view and to have a commitment to assist students to become responsible citizens (see more Devlin-Foltz, D. – Mc Ilvaine, S., 2008).

High school institutions providing teacher education programs are at the core for future development of global competence not only in the future teacher´s profile but also for other people. Accordingly to B. Devlin-Foltz, S. McIlvaine (2008) there exist a variety of ways for internationalizing teacher preparation and supporting global competence (e.g. revising teacher education programs in the framework of global age

philosophy, supporting foreign language acquisition of students, promoting study in another country and communication, as well as teaching practice in multicultural communities, creating possibilities to gain international experience within home institution and online, to allocate special financial budget for this area, to evaluate the effects of international experiences of students and teacher´s educators on regular basis by applying relevant evaluation tools, etc.).

Authors A. Lugovtsova - M. Yavuz give wider description on teacher competences. They analyze teacher who is multicultural and academically competent. They actually present a wide variety of demands on the work of teachers in today's educational scene. Teachers should be well prepared in five areas: knowledge, abilities and skills, attitudes, personal qualities and behavior. In comparison with other authors, the attribute "academic" is present in their concept of multicultural competence of the teacher. They want to emphasize, that the international interaction and collaboration among teachers are not limited by the process of teaching children, but include also research, discussions and innovations in theory, methods, approaches and philosophy of education (Lugovtsova, Yavuz, 2014, p. 16, 17). The authors also discuss problems of teacher training faculties. It is necessary to create teacher training programs on such a level, that allows prospective teachers to gain relevant knowledge, skills and attitudes. On the other hand, teacher training institutions are expected to arrange internal and external conditions for the "first hand", authentic experiences of student teachers in the field of international communication and contacts. It is natural, that university - faculty teachers (teacher educators) are expected to serve as role models in international cooperation both in educational process as well as in research activities.

The other dimension of this topic is a quality of high school institution, which can be measured from many aspects and by various tools. Intercultural competence is a part of teacher qualification and can be measured by newly developed tools (e.g. "Globally competent teaching continuum", "My cultural awareness profile", "Intercultural development inventor", etc.). Experience on these issues is rare in our educational settings. However, above mentioned tools can be used as a professional inspiration for applying their principles into our system.

3. The authors´ research: the contribution of the international mobilities from students´ perspective.

In the past the Department of Pedagogy at Faculty of Education, Constantine the Philosopher University in Nitra, was always willing to support the idea of international exchange of experience as an interesting and stimulating way of increasing the qualification growth of teachers of the department, as well as the way of expanding their cultural horizon and the combination of professional and personal interests. The Department has been actively involved in the cooperation with 19 high schools/universities for teacher training, through teacher, staff and student mobilities

within the EU Program "Erasmus" as well as the posting of workers abroad, monitoring of students studying abroad, participation in international research teams of cooperating institutions and the presentations of scientific results and educational activities abroad.

The authors of the paper, in the last 20 years, have been very intensively involved to promote the international dimension of education in their own workplace, particularly in the area of students and teachers mobilities (incoming and outgoing). They have been in contact mostly with students from Spain, Great Britain, Northern Ireland, Finland, the Netherlands, Germany, Lithuania, Poland, Hungary, Portugal, Belgium and the teachers from these countries at home university, or as the lecturers abroad.

Over the last years various methods have been applied in benefits evaluation of international mobilities of incoming and outgoing students. They were mainly observant of educational environment abroad and the conditions of implementation of semestral study for students or lecturing stays of university teachers (foreign language competence of the participants were monitored, administrative side of study stays - contacts with the international and study offices, material support of teaching and pedagogical practice, including modern teaching facilities, the availability of learning resources in the partner institutions in Leuven, Mechelen, Nijmegen, Umea, Freiburg, Linz, Porto, Ljubljana, Katowice).

The research goals

The goal of the research as we present in the following text, was to analyze the opinions and experience of students concerning the benefits of international mobilities which also provides the basis for the improvement of internationalization of future teachers' education and their global responsibilities - additional aim.

The research sample

We received a large amount of reviews and we focused on student evaluations over the last five years. Our research sample represented 33 Erasmus students (from the Netherlands, Finland, Belgium, Poland, Ireland, Portugal, Croatia, Slovenia, Austria, Slovakia, Turkey, Spain) who attended study stays in Austria, Slovenia, the Netherlands, Belgium and Slovakia. The average age of students was 23 years, 3 were males and the others were females. The study stays were realized at higher education institution/universities for future teachers in pre-primary and elementary education study programs. There was non-random selection of participants based on availability.

Data acquisition methods

Qualitative empirical data were collected via semi-structured research interviews, self- constructed questionnaires focused on evaluation of semestral study stay abroad and especially written reflections of foreign students studying in our institution. We were inspired also by methods and techniques of reflective student´s leadership by B. Kasacova - reflective writing, specific thematic writing (2005, p. 104). After completion of the study stay we asked students to write an essay: "My personal contribution to international mobility".

Methods of data analysis

We have used the principles of the grounded theory method (Strauss, Corbin, 1999) for processing results obtained through qualitative semi-structured research interviews, self-constructed questionnaires focused on the evaluation of semestral study stay abroad and written reflections of foreign students. Analyzing qualitative data, we used analytical coding. Working with the categories (creating central categories and subcategories, looking for relations between categories), this method allowed us to point out areas that are considered to be significant by students in their international mobilities.

3.1 Selected empirical results

Our intention was to analyze the views and experience of students, which also provide the basis for the improvement of internationalization of education of future teachers and their global competences. We wanted to find dominant leading intentions for participating of students in the Erasmus programme, the impact of study stays on students development (with specific regard to the didactics of pre-primary education) and views on the relations foreign teacher - foreign student and among foreign students.

After the analysis of collected data, we could summarize them into 5 areas:

Leading intentions for participating in the Erasmus program

Based on the data we can state, that all students reported as the main purpose of the study stay, the improvement of their English, as the common language of the European Union. Another dominant intention underlined the international dimension of the whole Erasmus programme. The students wanted to participate in the programme due to the fact that this is a great opportunity to get to know new countries, people and cultures. Some students were motivated by the opportunity to get a glimpse of the studied area from a different perspective. Finally, some students link the stay in relation with future life, for example, one of the students stated: ... *"I wanted to improve my English and even my way of living because when we study in different countries sometimes we change our habits ..." (Slovak student)*. Similar ideas appeared at a Portuguese student: .... *"I think, the stay will develop also my self-control, because I have to take care of myself, my food, money, make decisions ...*"

The impact of study from the students´ perspective

In this set of questions, students appreciated the most an opportunity to understand the disparities among people in foreign learning environment and to implement multicultural education in practice. Erasmus study stay led them to learn to apply critical thinking and combine theoretical knowledge with practice. They highly evaluated that, by presenting their projects and tasks, they improved their level of English and gained new skills in presenting a professional topic in front of the audience as well as the principles and forms of argumentation and debate. Moreover, students appreciated the possibility to approach a study program or a subject from the perspective of other

students and teachers. Teachers, they were in contact with, became for them new and good role-models for teaching. They could also see different methodological approaches in the teaching of individual subjects, which is an incentive for subject methodics.

In this context, especially students of preschool and elementary education positively appreciated the opportunities provided by international study stays in the area of learning the content and methodology of pre-primary and primary education (especially in teaching of the mother tongue, mathematics, sciences and arts). They became acquainted with the concepts and basics of acquisition of pre-literacy skills and mother tongue of children in kindergartens, including the stimulation of language skills and phonemic awareness, methodology of children language skills development, the use of game activities, a wide variety of tools and different types of books for pre-schoolers, resp. "Syllabary" (ABC Books) and other books, or activity books for primary education. Our students stated that they were motivated by the use of online educational programmes, for example, in the acquisition of early literacy skills, in practicing phoneme and grapheme, orientation in space and right-to-left orientation as well as in the acquisition of vocabulary by children in kindergartens etc. It is also noteworthy that all above mentioned activities took place in multicultural classes, in which an official language was not a mother tongue of all pupils. Such a situation required a special approach of the teacher to pupils but also to the cooperation with parents. Educational activities in this area were provided by local teachers and were evaluated by our students as significant experience within their preparation for the teaching profession. The students were provided an opportunity to gain the qualities that a current teacher is expected to have, they were prepared for the teaching in, so called, "global age". In this way, for example, a student of pre-school and elementary education evaluates his semestral study stay in Belgium*:"...I learned a lot, mainly about the methodology of teaching and new approaches of "pupil-centred education". I also gained experience in supporting individual activities of pupils and in project based teaching. I particularly appreciated the fact that active learning was preferred to verbal learning and that ideas of experiential learning were implemented in schools. Everything I learned can be applied to my future pedagogical practice and professional development.* "

Students from Poland, participating as international Erasmus students at the Department of Pedagogy of the Faculty of Education, contributed to our research with several opinions: *"... our horizons of knowledge grew significantly. Therefore, we can discuss similarities and differences in the Polish and Slovak school practice without any problems. ".... "It was a fantastic experience for us to participate in pedagogical practice in a kindergarten. ".... "Contact with children was full of joy and positive feelings and it was also the source of ideas and incentives for the organization of teaching in Poland ..." We had an opportunity to get to know the Slovak language, culture and the way of life in Slovakia. Teachers, employees of the faculty as well as*

students were very hospitable and always willing to help "..." We came here to gain new experience, we were a bit afraid what to expect, and we stayed for a half year and leave with a great feeling".

Concerning the requirements for teaching in a global society, some students stated that it would be appropriate if students, as future teachers, spent more time on pedagogical practice. Moreover, it would also be helpful to have more discussions on current issues, such as ... *"reinforcement of radical right in Europe - racism, Islam phobia, crisis of capitalism, environmental crisis etc*. ..." (An Austrian student). These and similar opinions confirm the maturity of future teachers and their interest in solving the actual problems of contemporary Europe.

Quality of foreign teacher – foreign student relations and relations among foreign students

In this set of answers, we recorded only a positive assessment of students. Erasmus teachers were perceived by students as knowledgeable, sensitive and helpful to the needs of students. Assessments covered the performance of teachers during lessons, the time they devoted to students after the school and their personal characteristics. Students evaluated positively that teachers were prompt in email communication and in providing students with English hand-out materials on seminars. They also supported comparative views on particular topics, gave students possibilities to decide on seminar teaching methods (...*"Every teacher tried to ask us, which way we preferred to learn something and this means, that students had a voice in their class...", or "...even if we think some lessons are bad, it is also good experience!...",* students from Portugal at the Department of Pedagogy of the Faculty of Education), created a good learning climate without competition. Teachers were given characteristics such as kind, human, friendly, polite, supportive, democratic, multicultural, sensitive, etc.

Concerning relations among foreign students, we did not record any negative comments. Students appreciated contacts both at school and in their leisure time as well as friendship they gained during their Erasmus study stay. Thus, for example, a Portuguese student describes friendship: *"... the friends that I had here, were really part of my family, because I am too far away from my family but wasn't alone ...."* Based on years of experience in this field of interest, we can state that for many students, Erasmus study stay is the first experience far away from their parents, relatives and close friends and it makes them feel homesick. For their teachers it means to be prepared professionally and have appropriate language skills as well as to be able to show empathy and understanding to young people studying abroad.

The best and worst study stay experiences of students

All students reported as the greatest bonus making new friends and the ability to live in a new environment (in students´ dormitories and shared accommodation facilities for students). The best experience gained during international study stays is associated with organizing cultural events, getting to know national traditions, legends, folk tales and

songs (e.g. several times Easter traditions were mentioned). Moreover, students also appreciated the feeling of independence and freedom and a characteristic feature of students´ life in all countries: ... *"The Erasmus nightlife is good!"*

As for the worst experiences, only few comments were reported. In general, students were very satisfied, some of them had small problems concerning eating habits in the hosting country (in Belgium), and were not used to have lectures early in the morning (students from Spain in Nitra) and to study hard, particularly, for essay writing. A very nice expression of what is considered to be the worst experience was presented as follows: ... *„that it will end soon ... I would like to stay for longer ..."*

However, we have to admit that our partner universities from the Western European region are better prepared for the international cooperation. This resulted from the analysis of obtained data and observations of practise abroad. It can be noticed particularly in the area of foreign language competences. One of the basic competences of every teacher (not only at a senior position or one that is involved in Erasmus mobility) is to communicate at least in English. This also applies to "mentors" and other teachers in schools where students were on pedagogical practise. All administrative procedures related to the international study stays at universities abroad (acceptance of students, their registration and the transfer of credits) were much easier and smoother because the administrative staff spoke English. This is, for example, how a Slovak student described the situation in Belgium: *"... I was surprised that even the "ladies" in administration offices spoke English, so did the teachers in kindergartens and in all schools."*

On the other hand, the results of our interviews with international students at our university pointed out the lack of foreign language competences of university teachers. This is reflected in a smaller offer of subjects for international students, limited professional contacts and complicated organization and realization of their pedagogical practise. The administrative problems related to the insufficient level of English of administrative staff were solved with the help of the students of the CPU in the position of a "buddy".

Comments on the organisation of Erasmus stays and recommendations for the future

Language competences of teachers abroad are also reflected in the organization of studies for Erasmus students. Based on our own observations and semi-structured research interviews, which were carried out, we can positively assess the system of "international classes". In these classes, all students of different study programmes offered within a particular semester, meet together and are taught by teachers from the university as well as by teachers from abroad. Organization of studies for international Erasmus students (with a different level of English) by offering them common subjects in the international group (International Class) together with their individual attendance on chosen subjects is seen as an appropriate way to meet individual educational needs of international students. Teaching in these groups has more than just an educational

mission. Different activities (e.g. excursions, multicultural meetings) are one of the means of fulfilling the idea of a European dimension in higher education, and fit into the overall atmosphere of respecting the cultural diversity. They provide international students with the possibility to meet together and to get to know the host country as well as with the opportunities for wider international comparison in education (presentation of facts about the education system in their home country and further comparison of systems). Unfortunately, the absence of possibilities of international contacts is negatively assessed by international students at the CPU in Nitra. For example, the student from Riga states: *"...I missed meeting with other students on Erasmus stay. I expected the hosting university will create more opportunities for more varied program of international students, including excursions to get to know Slovakia, its history and culture. "*

Conclusion

Multicultural context of teacher´s educational activities becomes a natural feature of modern education. International study stays of future teachers are valuable professional and personal experience. The need for international cooperation is enhancing for the job of future teachers. Without understanding the basic nature of internationalisation of university education as a whole, it is not possible to fulfil this idea. Based on our long term experience, we believe that the international communication and exchange of experience in pedagogical science, research and practice are important sources for professional and career development, as well as for cultivation of the personality of teachers as a characteristic feature of the future educators.

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Using English to Learn While Learning to Use English: International Field Trips as a Way to Learn (Through) Language

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Abstract

Learning English has always been the goal for many people to achieve. Content knowledge of any subject used to have no direct relation with mastering a foreign language. That is water under the bridge. Learning through a foreign language is a trend and must be considered as a way to prepare students for a globalized world. The adoption of a Content Language Integrated Learning Approach seems to fulfill the need for future successful professionals in field. By offering the opportunity to live real-life situations where content has to be acquired through any understanding of input in English, international field trips are an excellent way to educate content-literate and language-effective students.

Keywords

content language integrated learning; international field trips

1 Introduction

Learning a foreign language, especially English, is demanding nowadays. Besides the importance of being prepared for job opportunities, it is crucial to be able to communicate globally. That is no news, though. People have discussed this matter a lot and everybody agrees on this need. What some researchers in the "foreign language teaching" field might have missed is the growing trend of learning *through* a foreign language.

It is very difficult to think of a "Learning Through a Foreign Language Approach" in the reality of Brazil. Most of our schools are not effective when it comes to teaching English. This responsibility seems to have been transferred to language courses in private Language Institutes, being only available for the ones who can afford them.

Unfortunately, that is not possible for many people, who are left with a grammar-based instruction at regular schools.

At the Federal Institute of Education, Science and Technology of Bahia (IFBA), the students are prepared both with regular high school contents and technical knowledge on several areas. Many of them leave IFBA and go straight to work in companies that need technicians in Chemistry, Mechanics, Automation, Edifications, Electronics, Refrigeration, Geology, among others. Communicating in English is desired, and the students who can do it tend to be more successful when applying for a job.

IFBA has started a program, through its International Affairs Office, that takes students on an international field trip in order to gain technical knowledge in action. They are selected according to their academic reports, as well as to their social conditions. On the first trip, nine students went to Germany in order to visit Volkswagen, BMW, Porsche and Mercedes-Benz factories and museums, aiming at developing their knowledge by observing pragmatically the theory they are exposed to in the classroom.

These students have a good knowledge of English, but they are not all in the same level. Some are more fluent, and others show a little difficulty understanding and producing discourse. Their learning of the English language happened in different contexts: studying at English courses, at school and/or self-studying. However, accuracy and native fluency are not expected; fluency within each student's capacity is. Effectiveness is the expectation. The students should be communicatively effective in order to make the most of such a rewarding international experience.

From the nine students awarded with the participation in the field trip, two were students of Chemistry, three of Automation and four of Mechanics. They were supposed to understand the factory and museum tour guides' explanations (content) in English (language), ask questions and interact in general, aiming at gathering information about the aspects concerning each area. They did succeed.

2 Content Language Integrated Learning (CLIL)

"CLIL is a dual-focused educational approach in which an additional language is used for the learning and teaching of content and language with the objective of promoting both content and language mastery to predefined levels" (MARSH et al., 2010, p.11). It is based on the fact that English – in this situation – is not only the vehicular language to learn content, but also an aim to achieve.

Divljan observes that

> Things have now changed and the previous 'why' generations are being replaced by the 'how' generations. These are young people who need to feel an immediacy of purpose when they learn; young people who resist learning now for use later. 'Learn as you use and use as you learn', is very much a

> mantra of the new generations, and CLIL is particularly suitable for tapping into this modern learning mindset. (DIVLJAN, 2012, p.7)

There are many models of CLIL, which depend on contextual variables. The approach is wide spread in Europe, but very far from Brazil, except for some bilingual schools. It can be used to teach at any educational level to any kind of student, in the full course/subject or part of it. In other words, CLIL is a big umbrella, and any teacher who is willing to teach the foreign language purposefully fits under it.

Redefining curriculum or breaking its boundaries would be huge and a real challenge for teachers at IFBA. Most of our content teachers are not able to give a class in English; our language teachers, on the other hand, are not prepared to teach technical subjects. It will take a while for this to happen there – I really hope it does in a near future. However, we are able to expose our students to a CLIL context by taking them on international field trips accompanied by an English teacher, which is a profitable partial immersion.

Marsh (1994) explains why to adopt CLIL:

> Teaching in a foreign language may be introduced, for instance, (i) to improve foreign language proficiency by increasing the pupils' and students' exposure to the foreign language, ie. increasing their opportunities to obtain a better knowledge of foreign languages in formal schooling than can normally be obtained, (ii) to give a boost to the pupils' and students' confidence by letting them experience that they can understand and use the language "for real" and, through this, bring about a greater interest in using the language and thus also learn more, (iii) to offer a new challenge for teachers who feel that they would like to teach in a foreign language for respective reasons, (iv) to make it easier for educational institutions to receive foreign students, to promote teacher and student exchange and to respond to the challenge of growing internalisation even in education. (Marsh et al., 1994, p.3)

Exposure, confidence, experience and pragmatic language use are great achievements for the students through the adoption of CLIL. Challenge, change and internationalization are the words that describe some consequences CLIL can bring. Involvement summarizes it all: once students, teachers and institution are involved, preparing communicatively effective professionals is no longer a challenge, but an accomplishment.

In order to make CLIL take place, teachers have to keep in mind the need to use Coyle's 4Cs Framework:

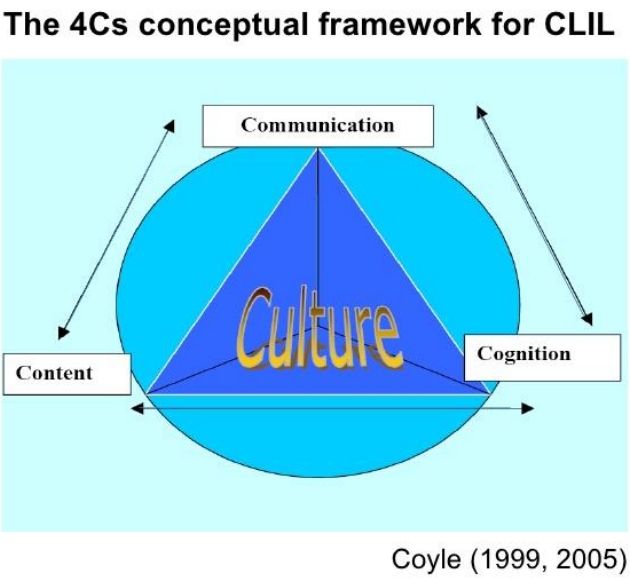

Figure 1 The 4 Cs Framework for CLIL (Coyle, 1999)

Culture works as a background for learning to take place. Effective CLIL involves the integration of content and cognition, as well as communication and culture. In other words, besides using language appropriately, the student has to be able to learn content through that language effectively.

It is clear to see that CLIL aims at having the students as the center for everything. The teaching act is supposed to focus on the learners' needs. Both content and language have to be understood and acquired by them. If the students are not able to comprehend content through language, discuss and write about it, there must be a change in input. Everything has to be done in order to have content-literate and language-effective students, as Ting (2013) portrays on Appendix A.

In this article, English is the additional language for Brazilians, native speakers of Portuguese; the content refers to Automation, Mechanics and Chemistry subjects; and the real-life situation is held at car assemblers in Germany, through guided tours with specialists. That is a perfect background for learning (through) English.

3 CLIL in field trips

The students mentioned here were exposed to an environment where English was spoken and they had to understand it in order to acquire content knowledge. It was an out-of-classroom situation in which the factory and museum tour guides worked as the content holders, while the English teacher accompanying the students would help with any difficulties and questions concerning understanding of language and question-formation ability.

It was the perfect environment to learn about Mechanics, Automation and Chemistry through the English language, situation never met by those students before. The field trip that aimed, at first, at learning technical content only, ended up becoming an excellent opportunity to develop language fluency, especially concerning listening and speaking skills.

Content and language integrated learning (CLIL) "refers to any educational situation in which an additional language (…) is used for teaching and learning of subjects other than the language itself" (WOLFF and LANGÉ, 2000, iii). That is exactly what happened in this field trip. The students were forced to apply their foreign language skills in order to absorb all the information concerning the goal: experience real-life at factories, which can be similar to their future working conditions and environment.

Since they are not fully proficient, some of them missed some information, but the others could help and they could make the most of the opportunity. When asked about the difficulties faced, the opinions were similar: understanding language was more complicated than comprehending content. The first question they answered was "Which was more difficult to understand in the museum and factory tours, language or content?" Some answers are below[1]:

> *From my point of view, was not very difficult to understand the language or contents, but at some moments I don't got what was said, maybe I was not trained enough." (Cláudio, student of Automation)*

> *"It was language, of course. During museum and factory tours some Germans have a deep voice and strong accent. The English about technical area of Mechanic was easy to understand because I studied important words like engine, welding etc. But our tour guides were so dedicated that I learned new words and definitions. I believe that despite this difficulty all content was passed to us." (Edmilson, student of Mechanics)*

[1] The answers are written here as the authors gave them, some with language errors and/or mistakes.

"Most of times the language was the problem, that's because I don't know some technical words, and in consequence of that, I was not able to understand some of the tours' parts." (Nícolas, student of Mechanics)

"In my opinion, the language is more difficult at first, but in a second tour (Porches's museum) the difficult decreased. After, the difficult it was attenuated, because you begins to hear better, because you got used to it." (Carla, student of Chemistry)

As they say, language was more challenging to understand than content. One thing that is similar on their texts is the need to study specific vocabulary before visiting the factories. Cláudio suggested "sessions of conversation with the (students) selected, to improve communication skills". Nícolas agrees and adds: "the easy way to solve this problem is to provide some English classes before the trip with the purpose of *teach* technical words to the students who are going to the visits".

4 Field Trip Plan based on CLIL

In order to facilitate learning through English in Germany, keeping in mind the students' suggestions, here is a macro plan to maximize understanding of the factory and museum tours at the car assemblers. It is based on the 4Cs framework for CLIL.

<table>
<tr><th colspan="2">Car assemblers in Germany</th></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Aim:
- To successfully teach vocabulary and structures necessary to understand guided tours in car assemblers and interact with the knowledge acquired.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Public: 3rd grade students in a pre-intermediate level of proficiency in English. (at least)</td></tr>
<tr><th>Teaching objectives</th><th>Learning outcomes</th></tr>
<tr><td>A. Content</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td>• Vocabulary development: essential features of car assemblers;
• Question – formation.</td><td>• Memorize key vocabulary;
• Describe, explain and ask about functions.</td></tr>
<tr><td>B. Cognition</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td>• Understand concepts and apply them;
• Make choices and justify them;</td><td>• Match car parts and their functions;</td></tr>
</table>

• Problem-solve; • Perform independent research.	• Apply key phrases in different contexts; • Understand justification; • Make informed choices.
C. Communication	
C1. Language of learning Essential vocabulary and grammar related to the content. **Vocabulary**: car parts, adjectives, a car assembler structure, activities developed in each part of the assembler. **Grammar**: noun phrases, basic verb tenses.	
C2. Language **for** learning - How to describe and compare cars; - How to present functions; - How to explain features; - How to interact in guided tours.	
C3. Language **through** learning Homework research: car assemblers' websites and You Tube videos.	
D. Culture	
• Carry out research about the German cities to be visited: Munich, Stuttgart and Wolfsburg; • Observe working conditions in car assemblers.	• Raise awareness about cultural attitudes in Germany and contrast them to your own; • Establish differences among car assemblers in Germany and Brazil.

Conclusion

Adopting CLIL is definitely a challenge. However, if one is willing to innovate and explore authentic subject contexts through the English language acquisition, field trips are a great option to make the most of such an effective approach. The distances have been shortened a lot by internet access, which can help prepare students for different cultural backgrounds where learning can take place. Vocabulary and language structure acquisition through content exposure is not only a trend, but an advance in education.

Some may question the need to start using CLIL when the learning of a subject without linking it to language has always been fulfilled. Others may find it difficult to adopt this approach and end up giving up – or not even considering it. However, it is

known that students who are exposed to CLIL contexts show better results when it comes to applying for jobs or seeking personal improvement. Since successful results are the aim of any educator, the question remains: why not?

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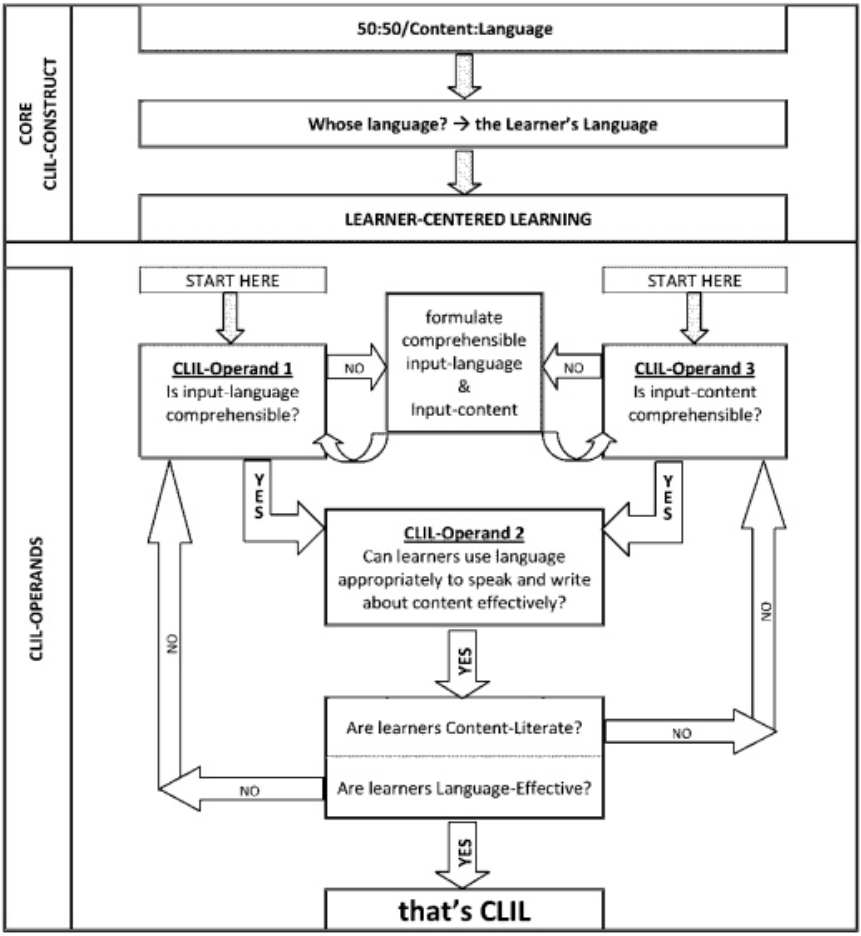
Appendices

Appendix A

A mathematically-derived CLIL-Operational Flowchart (Ting, 2013)



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Supervised Practice Teaching in Higher Education of Future Teachers

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Abstract

Supervised practice teaching is an inseparable part of the higher education of future teachers and is perceived as the bridge between theoretical and practical preparation. It is also a tool for the development of professional competences of future teachers, therefore it is inevitable to pay attention to it in terms of theory, research and practice. This article introduces the position of self-reflection in the process of evaluating the implementation of supervised practice teaching done by students themselves. Through the analysis of self-reflecting evaluation of the implemented practice done by students, it presents various possibilities how to improve the supervised practice teaching in higher education of future teachers itself.

Keywords

supervised practice teaching, higher education, university student, self-reflection, analysis of text documents

Introduction

School is a social institution and is being influenced by society in various ways. Naturally, changes in society are directly reflected in the area of education. The goal of these changes lies not only in the school´s development, transformation and

improvement of its efficiency, but also in an attempt to prepare pupils and students for their active, creative and full-valued lives as much as possible. Education, that individuals receive, should enable them to apply their knowledge and experience to their work, as well as their personal lives. It is obvious that teachers play a key role here and that, as representatives of the school, they need to adjust to current requirements of the society, as well as to the new trends in teaching. This requires an ongoing self-improvement. Great attention is, therefore, paid to their higher education.

The core of professional preparation of future teachers lies in the following principles:

1. Professional preparation of a teacher will be effective if it is based on internal needs of students.
2. Professional preparation of a teacher will be effective if it is based on a student's own experience.
3. Professional preparation of a teacher will be effective if a student is stimulated to thoroughly reflect his own experience (Nezvalová, In Hupková, 2004).

Higher education of future teachers consists of four basic parts, which are: general fundamentals, pedagogical-psychological part, subject-based part and supervised practice teaching. Theoretical preparation should not be focused solely on the formation of basic knowledge, but mainly on its evaluation, analysis, comparison and integration into praxis, even into other areas. Pedagogical skills, however, cannot be acquired based solely on situational methods applied in seminars, through methodics or by applying theoretical knowledge described in literature to praxis. A student's own experience is also necessary. According to V. Švec (2000) this experience itself is not sufficient. It can be, according to him, transferred directly into praxis and thus become a routine activity or it becomes a subject of contemplation, which is very important for developing pedagogical skills. Self-reflection plays an important role in the process of forming and developing pedagogical skills.

Self-reflection and its significance

Reflection of current experience and self-reflection are some of the most important skills of a teacher. They constitute an important precondition of a teacher's self-improvement, self-education and self-development and are also crucial for achieving optimization and efficiency in the teaching process. This is a reason why in higher education great attention is paid to the development of reflective competencies and it is also the subject of many studies. Reflection is not a linear, but a spiral process because it is an integral part of interactive processes, changes and developments.

T. A. Schön (1983), Y. Killion and G. Todnem (1991) describe three types of reflection: reflection about action, reflection in action and reflection for action.

According to the authors the first two types have a markedly reactive character and are characterized by a moment in which they occur. They relate to situations, which a teacher must react to and solve quickly and immediately. The authors also observe that reflection for action is a bit different, because it brings the desired results of the two previous reflections. Reflection is not done in order to go back to the past or in order to become conscious of the meta-cognitive processes that had been applied, but it is done to enable better orientation in the future, better motivation to look for new methods and alternatives of influence. By applying the reflection for action, a teacher predicts problems, focuses on needs or planned changes. Students in pre-gradual study or teachers-beginners tend to focus on reflection for action, while qualified and more experienced teachers concentrate on reflection in action.

T. Svatoš (In Kompoltová, 2000) mentions three aspects of how a teacher can utilize back-perception:

a) Short-term aspect derived from the past – this aspect is significant for current correction of a professional self-image. Every teacher has his own idea of his everyday performance, but at the same time he compares the opinions of others to his ideal "me".
b) Short-term aspect preparing the future growth – this aspect contains a view of the past activity and its analysis and helps to prepare future activities, which he tries to improve. He is aware of the mistakes he had made and tries to avoid them in future work.
c) Long-term stabilizing aspect – an accumulation of individual experience and its evaluation. It is a professional self-characteristic and allocating oneself to a certain type of teachers, for example a teacher-democrat, autocrat etc.

Self-reflection is a foundation for auto-diagnosis of a teacher's pedagogical activity and it can be seen as a diagnostic activity influencing the efficiency of the teaching process. According to E. Urbanová self-reflection is a conscious self-recognition, self-definition and self-evaluation, based on which an individual forms a relationship to himself. It is a process with a dual character – an individual is the subject, as well as the object of his own recognition. The content of self-reflection is on one hand a self-recognition and self-understanding, but on the other hand there is also a self-experience and own behavior. All the aspects of self-reflection are included in the term self-system. Professional self-reflection of a teacher is, according to V. Švec (1996, p. 77) "being aware of one's own (meaning a teacher's) knowledge and experience from professional praxis, mainly from solving pedagogical situations. What occurs during self-reflection is a description, analysis, evaluation, sorting and generalizing of own pedagogical knowledge and experience."

Self-reflection is an important process from the teacher's self-regulation point of view in both the cognitive, as well as the affective areas. It is an internal dialogue induced by self-reflecting questions. It creates an active approach to life and it is an

important indicator of personality development. Thinking of oneself, of own procedures, work, decision-making, thought processes etc. helps to develop strategies for doing one's work as well as he can. "Purposeful self-reflection, an effort to perform self-recognition and self-evaluation are crucial for a teacher's overall development - on personal, moral, as well as professional levels. It is proven that self-reflecting teachers are more open to new ideas and changes" (Hupková – Petlák, 2004, p.15).

The importance of a systematic self-reflection lies in the fulfillment of the following basic tasks:

- It eliminates routine in a teacher's work, because the teacher constantly evaluates his work, searches for new methods, forms of his work etc.;
- It enables him to confirm new methods, the teacher compares the previous results, as well as the results acquired by different methods;
- It teaches the teacher to predict possible outcomes of his activity;
- It contributes to an informal and systematic self-education, the teacher looks for support in literature, for justification of his methods, forms of his work etc. (Petlák 2000, p.98).

The quality and the content of reflection are tied to its type. They vary by focus, resource, content and quality. D. Nezvalová (2000, p. 26-28, In. Kožuchová and co. 2011) describes following types of reflection:

Technical reflection – has two meanings. The first one has its base in the focus on the area of teaching techniques, skills. The second meaning corresponds to the quality of reflection, to regulating an activity by directly applying research into teaching.

Reflection in activity and after activity – the content rises from own unique situation, the quality of reflection is judged according to the ability to make the right decisions.

Advisory reflection – it emphasizes a decision for reflection stemming from various sources: research, experience, advice of other teachers, personal values etc. A teacher reflects on his own teaching, relationships with pupils, curriculum, organization, culture and the climate of the school.

Personal reflection – a teacher's personal growth is in the centre. In their own way teachers reflect on the relationship between their personal and professional lives. They think not only about their own lives, but about the lives of their pupils as well, they reflect on how to be creative. The quality of their reflection is determined by their ability to empathize, to understand themselves, as well as to appreciate the problems of their pupils.

Critical reflection – the task is not only to understand, but also to improve the life quality of disadvantaged groups (for example socially or racially). This reflection helps teachers to change the teaching and the structure of the school, which could even out the inequality. The quality of reflection should be determined by the ability of a teacher to apply moral and ethical criteria for evaluating his own activity.

By reflecting on his own activity a teacher can evaluate the course of the teaching process, his teaching technique, as well as his approach to pupils, which enables him to plan the methods and possibilities of correcting his future educational activity. However, in the course of self-reflection very important role is attributed to a teacher's willingness to pay attention to himself, to amend his own attitude, procedures, thinking, behavior etc. Self-reflection makes sense only when a teacher is ready to modify his activity, procedures, as well as his behaviour. Unquestionably, a teacher is most likely to contemplate his work if he finds himself in a problematic or substandard situation, for instance: when he is forced to solve a problematic situation, when students seem to have a problem with mastering and remembering a certain subject or if he notices a sudden deterioration of pupils' school results compared to another teacher-colleague, if they are asked to evaluate themselves etc. Self-reflection, however, should be an integral part of a teacher's everyday work. In this context, M. Hupková (2004, p. 84) states that "intentional and systematic self-reflection in which a teacher purposefully and systematically focuses on planning, realization and evaluation of his own work while utilizing various self-reflecting methods, helps a teacher to improve the quality of his work, enables him to penetrate deeper into various pedagogical situations, to understand relationships between several occurrences and activities." Hupková also adds that in this situation educational procedures are not accidental, but corrected by analysis and evaluation.

The importance of reflection and self-reflection is also supported by the fact that they have become an integral part of teachers' competencies. The reason for this is that these skills contribute to the overall success of teaching. J. Řezáč (1997) defines the self-reflecting skill as a qualified view of personal characteristics and features demonstrated in experience and behaviour, in relation to the consequences of activities oriented towards other people, to the product of social activity and to consequences of mutual contacts with others with an aim of optimizing these activities and relationships.

A teacher as a professional should be an expert at reflecting his own activity and at self-reflection. This is a reason why it is important to pay attention to the development of reflecting and self-reflecting skills in the higher education of teachers. The process of conscious intentional development of self-reflecting skills is according to E. Urbanovská (2000) based on:

- the willingness of an individual to deal with oneself as an object of knowledge,
- the willingness and readiness to correct own attitudes, opinions, thoughts, behaviour etc.,
- the ability to master self-reflecting techniques,
- the nature of one's own "ME", the character of individual self-concept,
- the level of the ideal "ME" and the required "ME" (or unwanted "ME"),
- the overall level of observation and distinguishing skills,

- the specifics of personal characteristics and causal attributions,
- the adequate number and character of self-reflection stimuli,
- the adequate amount and character of feedback.

Feedback and communication also play an important role in this process and they enable a teacher to uncover new opinions of certain matters, discuss them with others, confront them with reality, but to compare them as well. Supervised practice teaching therefore plays an important role in the higher education of future teachers.

The content analysis of textual self-reflecting statements of students about the course of their supervised practice teaching

One of the suitable methods of analyzing students' statements is the content analysis of text documents. A content analysis of self-reflecting evaluations made by students-trainees has been carried out at the Department of Pedagogy FF UCM in Trnava. The target of this analysis was on one hand to find out what students think about the course of their supervised practice teaching, and on the other hand we wanted to understand how they perceive the teaching profession itself, especially from the perspective of their own future employment. The content analysis as a research method is a procedure aiming to collect objective, systematic and quantitative description of the obvious content of communication (Švec, 1998).

The most common quantification procedure is the detection of occurrence frequency of an analytical category in a text. This quantitative procedure seemed as the most suitable for processing the written statements of our students. In the first phase we set the analytical categories of the content that formed a system of firmly set markers, which we used for sorting out the record units. Record units are significant elements of the content and they can be represented by:

- an individual word fixating a concept or a term,
- a phrase fixating a (general, typical or unique) link of terms,
- a sentence expressing a statement with a certain informative value,
- a sentence structure,
- the whole text of a document.

Record units in our analysis of the students' written statements were represented by the most frequently occurring thoughts in a form of sentence structures. These sentence structures were not expressed in the same words, but their informative values, their meanings, were equal. These were then assigned to the analytical categories, which had been set during the preliminary reading of the texts. The number of record units thus demonstrates a consensus of students' opinions on the course of their supervised practice teaching carried out during their higher education. The research sample consisted of 87 students of the teaching study programs (History, Slovak Language and Literature, English Language and Literature, Russian Language and Literature, German Language and Literature). When differentiating the research samples according to the year of their

studies, we found out that 39 students took part in two types of supervised practice teaching during their first year of the master's studies. During the winter semester the students participated in an interim supervised practice teaching at an elementary school and during the summer semester they took part in an interim supervised practice teaching at a high school. Another subgroup of the research samples consisted of the second year students of master's studies. Apart from the interim supervised practice teaching the students also took part in the continual supervised practice teaching. Supervised practice teaching carried out within the master's studies maintains two logical successions. The first succession means that the interim supervised practice teaching precedes the continual supervised practice teaching. The interim supervised practice teaching is carried out during the planned semester and year and is a part of the regular timetable of seminars or lectures. During the week a student has a set time (a day or an hour) for visitations or supervised practice teaching. The continual supervised practice teaching is carried out during a pre-determined semester and year, but it succeeds the other types of praxis. It is the climax of any teaching studies and it represents the synthesis of all the theoretical knowledge acquired until that moment, as well as of all the practical experience. The second basic succession means that the visitations precede the supervised practice teaching. Visitation is an active observation of a real lesson lead by a teacher-trainer at a training school. The task of the student is to observe the activities of both the teacher and the pupils, to write down his observations onto a visitation sheet and to perform a follow-up analysis of the lesson with the teacher-trainer. Supervised practice teaching differs from the visitation, the trainee carries out the teaching directly (for the prescribed number of lessons) under a supervision of the teacher-trainer and in accordance with the regular timetable of the training school. Visitation-style supervised practice teaching is carried out also on the bachelor's level. Both of the above mentioned successions of supervised practice teaching are strictly followed at the FF UCM in Trnava.

Gender differentiation of the research samples confirms a strong feminization of the teaching profession. Women represented 73% of the research samples, while men only 27%. This apparent disproportion made it difficult for us to come up with general conclusions concerning students' supervised practice teaching based on the trainee's gender. The submitted comparison is only informative.

As a basis for our evaluation we used students' self-reflecting statements from their supervised practice teaching portfolios. Students work on these portfolios and fill them in over the course of their studies. Based on initial reading of these portfolios we set the following analytical categories. In each category we offer a few examples of the assigned record units:

1. A student considers supervised practice teaching to be a positive and important part of his preparation for the teaching profession:

"*Supervised practice teaching helped me to acquire new experiences. It is a significant asset…"*

"I can´t imagine a university education for teachers without supervised practice teaching. Without it I would not obtain a realistic picture of the current teaching process at an elementary school…in my view its role is irreplaceable…"

2. A student considers the scope of supervised practice teaching to be adequate for the development of his practical experience:

   "Taking into account the difficulty of the teaching profession I think supervised practice teaching was a bit short…I would welcome more hours…"

   "I consider supervised practice teaching to be adequate for the acquisition of practical experience…the development of competencies that we learn so much about is possible only during the course of real teaching anyway…"

3. A student considers the form and the succession of supervised practice teaching during individual semesters of his studies to be logical and adequate:

   "I am happy that I participated in the visitation praxis in the third year of my studies…I learned what to expect when I start teaching one day…"

   "The ability to compare and experience both the elementary school and the high school teaching enabled me to decide where I want to teach after finishing my studies…it was nice to be able to teach first the younger children and then the teenagers…"

4. A student perceives his teacher-trainer positively and considers him to be a professional who guides the development of his professional competencies:

   "My teacher-trainer was very kind and willing to help me with any issues…"

   "The judgement of my teacher-trainer after my lesson was not very positive. Despite that I appreciate her criticism, because I consider her to be a professional…"

5. Carrying out the supervised practice teaching helped to increase the student's motivation to perform on his future job:

   "During the course of supervised practice teaching I found my true calling. I realized that this is the exact job I want to do in the future…"

   "Supervised practice teaching confirmed my choice of future work…"

After setting the analytical categories an independent analysis of the students' self-reflective written statements was carried out. Three faculty members of the Department of Pedagogy FF UCM in Trnava performed the identification and allocation of the

statements to relevant analytical categories. During the final discussion inconclusive record units were allocated to their relevant analytical categories. In the analytical category no. 1 we assumed that students perceived supervised practice teaching positively and considered it to be an important part of their preparation for future teaching profession. In bipolar comparison, the majority of students (98%) consider supervised practice teaching to be positive and important for their future profession. Qualitative analysis attempting to find the correlation between the internal motivation of a student towards the teaching profession and his perception of supervised practice teaching itself should be performed in the future. The relationship of a trainee to supervised practice teaching is also strongly influenced by his motivation towards the university studies themselves.

In the analytical category no. 2 we were searching for students' opinions on the scope of supervised practice teaching. 47% of the students thought that the scope of supervised practice teaching was not adequate for the development of practical experience and would have welcomed more of supervised practice teaching at training schools during the semester.

Similar findings were recorded in the analytical category no. 3. Although students (61%) considered the succession of the forms of supervised practice teaching to be logical, they would have welcomed some visitations before they progressed to supervised practice teaching in the winter semester at the beginning of their interim praxis. Students who stated that there was a need for an increased scope of supervised practice teaching, suggested to not only increase the amount of supervised practice teaching, but also the need for realization of visitations before the supervised practice teaching.

The analytical category no. 4 represents the trainees' perception of the teachers-trainers. 87% of students reacted positively and identified their teacher-trainer as a professional who positively influenced the development of students' professional competencies. Students also appreciated the critical comments and evaluations collected within the feedback phase of their supervised practice teaching. Positive evaluations, naturally, increased their motivation towards the studies themselves, but also towards their future profession. In the analysis of record units, we observed a linear occurrence of positive comments on the personality of the teacher-trainer, satisfaction with the evaluation received from the teacher-trainer and an increase in the motivation towards their future profession.

Conclusion

We need to conclude that via the content analysis of written self-reflecting statements of students we collected not only the students' opinions on the course of their supervised practice teaching, but at the same time their perception of the teaching profession itself in the context of their own future employment. Surveying the students'

opinions, opinions of the teachers-trainers, as well as opinions of the teaching graduates, who work as teachers-beginners, it is necessary for the higher education of future teachers, mainly its practical part, to be improved. Based on the comparison of these opinions we can alter the content, the scope, as well as the forms of supervised practice teaching in the higher education. The most relevant information obtained from our survey is the need for increasing the scope of supervised practice teaching and for introducing visitations even on the master's studies level. Students expressed satisfaction with the succession of the different forms of supervised practice teaching and appreciated the possibility of carrying out supervised practice teaching in the area of their residence. The praxis, thus, helped them to get to know the educational specifics of the environment they are going to work in after they graduate.

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