MODERN TRENDS IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING AND APPLIED LINGUISTICS

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The present volume publishes the proceedings of the international academic conference held on 11 April, 2014 at the Ferenc Rákóczi II Transcarpathian Hungarian Institute. During the event, the participants worked in two sections. In the first one, presentations on language pedagogy could be heard, while in the second one participants discussed applied linguistic issues. The internationally known and acknowledged plenary speakers and presenters spoke about the most modern trends of their research areas. The written-up version of the presentations has been collected and published in one volume so that they could reach a wider audience.

Jelen kötet a 2014. április 11-én a II. Rákóczi Ferenc Kárpátaljai Magyar Főiskolán megtartott nemzetközi tudományos konferencia írott anyagait tartalmazza. Az eseményen két szekcióban folyt a munka. Az egyikben nyelvpedagógiai, a másikban alkalmazott nyelvészeti kutatásokról hangzottak el előadások. A nemzetközileg ismert és elismert előadók kutatási területeik legmodernebb irányzatairól értekeztek. Az előadások szerkesztett változatát egy kötetbe gyűjtöttük össze, hogy minél szélesebb szakmai közönséghez jusson el.

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PREFACE

The first conference on foreign language teaching at the Rákóczi Institute took place in 2002. Twelve years have passed since that time. Much has also changed in our profession in Ukraine. At that time the main focus was on the launch of a foreign language as a compulsory school subject in Class 2 of the lower primary school, while twelve years later the primary attention shifted to the introduction of the Independent Testing in foreign languages for school leavers.

In between, language pedagogy and applied linguistics as a closely related discipline have been continuously developing and producing new fields for research. Therefore, the Department of Philology (English Language and Literature Group) at the Ferenc Rákóczi II Transcarpathian Hungarian Institute has decided to organize an international forum with the aim of providing opportunities for researchers to introduce their findings about the latest trends in language pedagogy and applied linguistics and share their results with those interested.

Experts from Hungary, the UK, the USA, the Sultanate of Oman and Ukraine presented at the conference on various topics ranging from teaching young learners to teacher education. We were pleased to have Prof. Péter Medgyes, Prof. Marianne Nikolov, Edit Kontra, PhD and Jerry Frank among our plenary speakers. The more than 100 registered participants could listen to presentations in two sections: one on language pedagogy, the other on applied linguistics.

In the first one, the audience could hear about e-books and video-text versus audio-text in the instruction of English. In addition, they could learn about the power and role of poetry in foreign language teaching, among other topics such as content-based language teaching, learner self-assessment, learning strategies of young learners of EFL in Transcarpathian Hungarian schools, or the role of mentors in trainee teachers' teaching practicum.

In the second section on applied linguistics, the participants obtained information on research going on in related fields of study like pragmatics or cognitive linguistics. Also, socio-linguistic themes such as multilingualism were discussed.

The present volume containing the written-up versions of the presentations at the conference has been published with the aim to reach a wider audience.

On 15 August, 2015 in Beregszász

The Editors

WHY WON'T THE LITTLE BEASTS BEHAVE?

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Motto: "It is a war out there, and we need to use every single weapon we have at our disposal." (Sue Cowley)

Prelude

Before I begin, I'd like to announce that this lecture addresses only those colleagues in the audience who often have discipline problems. So may I ask the lucky ones who have never experienced the humiliation caused by rowdy pupils to stand up please and leave the lecture room? I'm sorry, but you've come to the wrong place…

I can't see anybody leaving. Am I right in thinking then that you're fellow-sufferers? Super! Welcome to the club – and thanks for your honesty.

In my view, pupils are legions of spoilt brats or complete idiots – or a combination of the two. I trust you'll all agree. Have you ever felt like quitting your privileged job as an English teacher? Have you ever toyed with the idea of spending the rest of your life talking to your plants in the garden, instead of the little devils? Hmm? Be that as it may, the story I'd like to share with you is a sad one.

So sad in fact that it took me a long time to put pen to paper. When I said goodbye to my group of 17-year-olds, with a deep sigh of relief, I was emotionally too close to the experience to describe it. I was busy doing other things anyway. Thus I locked in my filing cabinet the diary I had kept during my prolonged agony, and thought I'd go back to it when things had settled down a bit. Ten years have passed since then, so it's high time to reminisce and take stock.

(Extracts from my diary)

September 2000

Wow! Seven boys and seven girls. Who could ask for a better ratio?

Their eyes are sparkling, they're drinking in my words. I wonder how long the honeymoon will last.

It looks as if the boys are looking for my weak spots. The girls, on the other hand, are angels.

How it all began

A few words about how it all began. I was doing my teaching practice at Radnóti, a teacher training school, in 1967/68. Legend has it that during a coffee break in the staffroom my mentor teacher occasioned to mention that this Medgyes was wonderful. Overhearing the remark but not the context, a colleague chipped in, "Give me the recipe". (To understand the joke, you need to know that my name in Hungarian means sour cherry.)

With all due modesty, I proved to be a bloody good teacher during my stint of 15 years at Radnóti. I was so sure of my God-given talent as a teacher that I unabashedly admitted to the only weakness I felt I suffered from. "I'm hopeless at maintaining discipline," I kept telling the world of billions, who couldn't care less about my personal and professional traits.

Unfortunately, my words echoed in my headmaster's ears when I volunteered to be the form-teacher of a new intake of teenagers. He peremptorily cooled my eagerness, reminding me that a teacher who was incapable of controlling pupils shouldn't be burdened with the onerous duty of shepherding a class. My self-confidence shattered, I learnt the lesson, once and for all, that one had better be quiet about one's perceived virtues and vices.

October 2000

The girls keep giggling while the boys are gawking and doodling. As yet I just gently warn them, but I can already see that I'll have to keep a firm rein on them.

Greenhorns

In my experience, things haven't changed all that much in the classroom. Inexperienced teachers today are just as vulnerable as *I* was forty years ago. If I were to interview greenhorns and ask them to rank the difficulties they faced during their teaching practice, the item on misbehaviour would probably feature somewhere near the top. At the now defunct Centre for English Teacher Training, scores of trainee teachers wrote their theses on the topic of discipline – and the experiences they described were harrowing. In fact, for many the happiest moment of their teaching practice came when it was all over.

To give you a taste of their feelings, let me quote just three trainees:

Trainee #1:

"One of the students told my teaching partner that the group has conspired against us: they want to see which one of us gives up first and leaves. They've even made bets. The aim of the game is to misbehave as much as possible, find out what incidents irritate us most and focus on those to make them more efficient."

Trainee #2:
"My only weapon is punishment. I can't make them work unless I threaten them with a test they'll have to do in the next class. I want them to feel that they hurt me a lot. I'm considering giving up. My teaching partner has already given up."

Trainee #3:
"To be honest, during these months I decided to throw in the towel at least three times, because I felt so disappointed. Nevertheless, I decided to stay because I thought giving up would mean that I was ill-suited for this job."

Have I become a better teacher?

When I decided to go back to the classroom in 2000, I asked myself a similar question: "Am I suited for this job? With all the experience that I've accumulated over the years, am I any more suited *today* than I was 30 years ago?

With these unsettling thoughts on my mind, I offered my services to the same school where I'd worked at the beginning of my career. The headmistress, a colleague of mine from years back, welcomed me with open arms and assigned me a group of 15-year-olds. She said I could expect a lot of visitors, including the colleagues at Radnóti, "who would also like to learn from you."

The ordeal was soon to begin.

November 2000

There are more and more absences. I announced that if anyone cuts the last class of the day, they'll get loads of homework.

When I gave Zoli punitive homework, he shouted out, "Hurray! The longer the homework, the more I can learn."

I'm going to murder Kristóf if he doesn't stop fooling around. But first I'll tell him what for.

Discipline in the dictionaries

This lecture, then, is about *discipline*. But what on earth does this word mean?

Discipline comes from the Latin *disciplina*, which means instruction and knowledge. *Non scholae, sed vitae discimus!* – I hear the proverb my father used to rub in. *We are not learning for school, but for life! Discimus* is a plural form of the infinitive *discere – we learn*. The derivative *disciple*, *discipulus* in Latin, denotes *the learner*. In the Bible, Jesus has twelve disciples or apostles.

In Middle English, *discipline* was used in the sense of "mortification by scourging oneself". Self-inflicted pain by the use of a whip. Masochism.

Discipline in the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary is defined as "the practice of training people to obey rules and orders and punishing them if they do not" (2005, p. 433). For example, "Mr Rooney keeps discipline in class." Accordingly, the equation may look like this: train → disobey → punish → obey. (Incidentally, this reminds me of the four-step drill, which looked like this: stimulus → wrong response → correction → correct response.)

However, discipline has another meaning too: "an area of knowledge; a subject that people study or are taught, especially in a university" (Oxford Advanced Learners' Dictionary, 2005, p. 433). This indicates that over the centuries discipline has retained the double meaning of the original Latin: instruction and knowledge. Note also the cause-and-effect relationship between them, namely that instruction, ideally, is conducive to knowledge.

January 2001

Blanka is getting on my nerves. She not only keeps yawning in my face, but today she asked loud and clear if she could go out to pee.

Zoli fell off his chair with a crash.

What is classroom discipline?

After this digression, let me narrow down my focus to discipline as it's manifested in the classroom. What is *classroom* discipline?

Well, it's an obvious concept, isn't it? Ágnes Enyedi, a colleague of mine, wouldn't agree. She believes that discipline is an umbrella term, which conceals rather than reveals the concept. She likens it to babies' tummy pain; when the doctor hasn't a clue about the problem, she will say, "It's his tummy."

To be sure, classroom interaction takes place between the teacher and the pupils. Both have pretty clearcut jobs to do: the teacher does the teaching while the pupils do the learning. The trouble is that this division of labour doesn't always play out as smoothly as one would wish. From among the host of obstacles, let me single out just one: lack of discipline.

February 2001

Dani hit Kristóf on the head with his pencil-case. When I told him off, he said, "But he keeps f…ing me about."

My experience shows that the *sine qua non* for learning to take place is the presence of firm discipline in the classroom. To reverse the equation, lack of discipline, alternately called misbehaviour or disruption, tends to hinder the learning process.

At this point, let me go back to the "train → disobey → punish → obey" paradigm. In the context of the classroom, teaching may be regarded as a tool for training pupils how to obey and, if necessary, for punishing them should they disobey. Learning, on the other hand, denotes the acquisition of the skill of obedience.

Why do authors shut their eyes?

"Goodness me! How can anyone adopt such a draconian attitude in the 21st century?" – I hear you whisper under your breath. "Spare the rod, spoil the child?! Ridiculous! Is it possible that this Medgyes has never heard about the communicative classroom, humanistic and learner-centred language teaching? What has caused him to develop such an intense hatred of children? Thank God, he's no longer in the classroom! Good riddance!"

I believe, ladies and gentlemen, that your anger is largely fomented by contemporary ELT literature, which gives classroom discipline short shrift, if it cares to bring up this issue at all.

March 2001

How is it that today I can calmly put up with misbehaviour, and tomorrow I'll crack up? Teacher, you should be more consistent!

We were practising the *I wish* structure. Laci produced this example: *I wish you were my father*. It made my day.

In an attempt to confirm the validity of my assumption, I checked the back issues of ELT Journal between 1981 and 2011. Thirty-one years in toto. During this period, only one paper dealt with classroom discipline (Wadden & McGovern, 1991). One – out of more than 900 papers.

I also perused the annual conference proceedings of IATEFL between 1998 and 2009. From the zillions of presentations, the topic of discipline was worth a mention by only one speaker. Well, two actually, because that presentation was given in tandem (Prowse & Garton-Springer, 2005).

Why this lack of interest, I wondered? Here's the answer. Authors and lecturers neglect this topic, because the mere mention of discipline breaks taboos. It's a no-go area in ELT. It's considered to be politically incorrect, non-PC, by the revered methodologists. But who the heck are these fellows?

Professional amateurs

In my opinion, ELT methodology books and journal articles get written by non-experts, as a rule. They may well be experts in some other field of study, but not in classroom teaching. They don't have chalk on their face – we do. Generally, they're native speakers of English – which we are not. The few of them who happen to be non-natives have lived in native English-speaking countries for a long time – unlike us.

These guys fall into three fairly distinct categories. To one category belong those who are located at universities and colleges. They never visit schools except when their research project prods them to do so. As such they're outsiders – we're insiders.

The second category comprises teachers who are employed in the private sector and teach fee-paying adult students. In contrast, we work in the state sector and teach children along the age continuum. Our priorities are completely different from theirs. They're a minority – we're mainstream.

The third category is constituted of free-lancers who write ELT materials for a living, and have long lost touch with classroom teaching, if they ever tried their hand at it. They receive royalties – we earn a salary.

April 2001

I got tough today. I said that if they opened their mouths again they'd have to copy out the whole text of the unit. And if they went on talking, I said, they'd copy the workbook text as well. My words sank in – they worked in complete silence.

Today Viktor talked off topic – I gave him the penalty at once. I hope I won't forget to check it next time.

The individuals in these three groups have a few features in common: (1) they have nothing to do with public or state education, (2) they live hundreds of miles away from their target audience scattered around the world, and (3) they haven't a clue about the nuts and bolts of the ELT classroom.

In this regard, let me quote Norman Whitney, the former editor of ELT Journal, who reported on an international conference like this:

> "At the final round table, the panel of well-known experts, all with extensive lists of publications in our field, was asked by a teacher how they would handle a particular 'discipline' problem. The questioner described her problem carefully and sensitively. The panel was all but stunned into silence" (quoted in Appel, 1995, p. 21).

Oddly enough, it's these professional amateurs who preach about how to do things right in the ELT classroom. Believe me, ladies and gentlemen, these guys are bigoted missionaries, pompous eggheads, cynical bastards and wanted criminals. One or the other. My apologies to the small number of exceptions.

May 2001

On my way to the school, Zsuzsi and Blanka cried after me, "Hi, Uncle Peti!" I replied, "Hurry up! You'd better be in by the time the bell rings." Lo and behold, they were there.

As I'd left my marker in the staffroom Levente lent me his. After I'd filled up the board I couldn't wipe it off. At this point Levente stepped up to me and meticulously washed the board clean with his saliva. The class roared with laughter. I didn't.

Control and security

One notable exception is Earl Stevick, possibly the most influential advocate of humanistic language teaching. He admitted that

> "If we, in our zeal to be 'humanistic', become too 'learner-centered' with regard to 'control', we undermine the learner's most basic need, which is for security. We may find that we have imposed our own half-naked anarchy on the class" (1980, p. 33).

The two key words in this quote are control and security. Here the word *control* implies that the teacher should be the sole authority in the classroom. Only if she is a strong person, a source of stability, can she engender a feeling of security in the pupils too. For, if she happens to be a weakling, the pupils' deepest need at the level of security will remain unfulfilled. As Dry noted,

> "A sure recipe for low learner performance is to set up a situation where the learner pities the teacher, and then pities himself for being saddled with a pitiable teacher" (1977, p. 200).

A vicious circle, isn't it?

Indeed, the teacher's psyche is far more sensitive than her pupils'. While ideally pupils enjoy a certain degree of stability ensured by the teacher, the teacher has to create her own psychological equilibrium with no external assistance. She has to pull herself out of the water by the hair, as it were.

In short, my sympathy lies with the teacher rather than the pupils. And I feel desperately sorry – for myself.

July 2001

(from a picture postcard sent by Blanka and Zsuzsi) "It's us again, dear Uncle Peti. Why haven't you replied to Blanka's e-mail? Maybe you've forgotten to write in English?"

Why keep mum about discipline problems?

Next question. Why do classroom teachers keep quiet about their discipline problems? Why don't they cry for help before they collapse sobbing in a staffroom corner? Because they know all too well that admitting to disruption is paramount to admitting that they're bad teachers (Dunham, 1992). After they've lost face with their pupils, they'll become the laughing stock of their colleagues as well.

When, as a young teacher, I admitted publicly that my classes were often a mess, I unwittingly declared that I was a failure. My headmaster, quite rightly, denied me the opportunity to become a form-teacher, because he couldn't afford to risk the reputation of his school on account of a shlemiel. He knew all too well that, as Eric Hoyle said, "A teacher who cannot maintain control is regarded as a threat to the good order of the school" (1969, p. 43). Or to quote Comenius from the 17th century: "A school without discipline is like a mill without water" (1896, p. 401).

There're two kinds of teachers. Those who *can* enforce discipline, and those who *can't*. Those who can, need no advice. Those who can't, had better keep mum about their ineptitude.

August 2001

I began to worry as I usually do at the end of the summer. Why the heck am I torturing myself drilling good-for-nothing kids?

Features of the disciplined classroom

Another exception who hasn't swept the dust under the carpet is Penny Ur. In fact, she devoted a whole chapter to classroom discipline in her outstanding book, *A course in language teaching* (1996). However, instead of bemoaning the misbehaved class, she described the characteristics of the well-behaved class. What are they?

Possible characteristics of the disciplined classroom:

1 Learning is taking place.
2 It is quiet.
3 Teacher is in control.
4 Teacher and students are cooperating smoothly.
5 Students are motivated.
6 Lesson is proceeding according to plan.
7 Teacher and students are aiming for the same objective.
8 Teacher has natural charismatic 'authority'.

Penny assumed that each of these features fosters classroom discipline. In varying degrees, though.

September 2001
This year I'll try to impose iron discipline and keep smiling at the same time.

Main categories of teachers

So far I've examined the main features of the disciplined classroom. Next I'll talk about teachers who are capable of imposing order. Who are these wizards?

In her book, *Getting the buggers to behave*, Sue Cowley (2001) conducted a survey among school pupils. Pupils said that teachers who are able to control the class fall into two categories.

One category is that of the *strict and scary teacher*. Her attributes may be summarised like this:

The strict and scary teacher:

- She demands perfect behaviour at all times.
- There is a high level of control over the pupils.
- She tends to shout at pupils when applying a sanction.
- She makes frequent use of sanctions to control her classes.
- She imposes a sanction at the first sign of misbehaviour.

To the other category belongs the so-called *firm but fun teacher*. She may be described like this:

The firm but fun teacher:

- She tells the class what she expects in terms of behaviour right from the start, and sticks to these rules consistently.
- She will shout if necessary, but normally does not need to.
- She makes the work interesting, and sets her pupils hard but achievable targets.
- She does use sanctions, but will give a series of warnings first.
- She gets to know her pupils on a personal level.

At the other end of the scale – and this third category is my invention –, there's the *soft and shaky teacher*, who is unable to control the class. And like predators sensing a weakness in their prey, pupils regard this type of teacher as fair game (Denscombe, 1985). They're there to get her.

For illustration, here's a typical story a colleague of mine told me:

"As form-mistress of a class of teenagers, I discovered that they couldn't get on with their chemistry teacher. I was puzzled, because this young teacher not only looked like a film-star, but she was nice, helpful and knowledgeable too. When I asked the pupils, what the matter was, they just shrugged their shoulders. In the end, one of them blurted out: 'Look, the moment a teacher enters the classroom, we know whether we can eat her for breakfast or not. We just know, that's all.'"

November 2001

They're becoming more and more unruly. I gave several kids a penalty assignment with this title: "Why is discipline important in the English lesson?"

Dani gave a short presentation for the group. The title was: "A historical overview of instruments of torture".

Laci and Zoli have become far more disciplined since I seated them with Flóra and Zsófi. Hm.

Now here's a question I'd like to test you on. As a school pupil, which kind of teacher did you prefer? Who votes for the strict and scary teacher? Hands up! The firm but fun teacher? Hands up! The soft and shaky teacher? Hands up! It appears that the votes for the firm but fun teacher are in overwhelming majority.

Now allow me to ask you a personal question. A very personal question. In your perception, which category of teacher do you yourself belong to? The strict and scary teacher? Hands up! The firm but fun teacher? Hands up! The soft and shaky teacher? Hands up!

Dear soft and shaky colleagues, thanks for not letting *me* stick out like a sore thumb…

Those were the days, my friend!

Mind you, this was not always the case. For many centuries, teachers were respected for what they were. Serious discipline problems were few and far between, and in case they did occur, the teacher had the necessary tools to deal with them.

What exactly were those disciplinary tools? Let me show you. Noisy children would be hushed by the slapstick (1) or the rattle (2). For drawing attention, the whistle (3) was always to hand. I still shudder at the memory of the bunch of keys (4) that my P.E. teacher would throw at hell kids. Once he targeted the nose of a boy so accurately that it had to be sutured with five stitches at the nearby hospital. Then there was the ruler (5) for rapping on our fingers held together like this – the *körmös*, a Hungaricum, as far as I know. On the other hand, British teachers often resorted to the cane (6) and the rubber-soled slipper (7) to mete out a good spanking. The use of these tools of corporal punishment, let alone the whip (8), are but wishful thinking in our anything-goes age.

December 2001

Margit keeps sulking. When I asked her why she said it helped her get what she wanted.

Zsuzsi spent the whole lesson with a scarf round her mouth after I told her that she'd get extra homework if she uttered one more word.

By the way, Kelly in his book, *25 centuries of language teaching* (1969), relates that monks would chasten wayward pupils in the Middle Ages in a very sophisticated manner. The cane was wielded by men especially hired for this purpose. They would use the pupil's mother tongue during the spanking. Why? Because it was thought that this way the target language would not be associated with the punishment.

Those were the days, my friend!

Forms of disruption

Back to the present. While I keep talking about misbehaviour, I haven't yet provided examples of disruptive acts.

At the far end of the scale, there's violence. Physical abuse, such as jabbing the neighbour in the bottom with compasses, and verbal abuse, such as telling the teacher to buzz off.

Far more often, though, the teacher's authority is challenged by less extreme incidents. These include:

> doodling, yawning, daydreaming, staring out of window, reading under desk, phoning, text-messaging, arriving late, cutting classes, failing to complete homework, leaving supplies at home, sabotaging work, constantly arguing, refusing to cooperate, cheating, swinging on chairs defiantly, passing notes, getting out of seat, packing up early as if to leave, playing an imaginary harmonica, grimacing, playing idiot, asking to go to toilet repeatedly, eating, sticking out tongue, lip-reading, mumbling, giggling, screeching desks, banging down books, tapping on desk, snapping chewing gum, imitating animal sounds, crumpling paper, whistling, uttering obnoxious shouts, guffawing, belching, farting, stretching, cursing, making rude remarks under the breath, calling others names, sticking out a foot to trip others, pushing neighbour off desk, throwing objects at peers, snoozing…
> and of course the most frequent and irritating of all: speaking out of turn.

I realise my list is far from being exhaustive. It includes only those instances of misbehaviour which occurred to *me* during my wretched two years at Radnóti, as testified by my diary. By the way, ask any kid and they'll make this list three times as long.

Causes of disruption

As you've seen there's a wide range of disruptive acts, small and big. But what leads to misbehaviour? The causes are manifold. Let me set up three groups of causes: external, pupil-specific and teacher-specific.

January 2002

The first lesson after the break was dead boring. Nobody was interested in anybody else's Christmas accounts.

Zoli and Laci tried to slip a pencil-case into my trouser pocket without my noticing. I pushed the object out of their hands without batting an eyelid.

External causes include late classes, an exhaustive maths test before the English lesson, a painter working on the scaffolding whistling the most corny operetta song, etc. To supply a few examples of *pupil-specific causes*, overcrowded classes, an unbalanced proportion of boys and girls, huge differences in terms of ability, language proficiency, motivational level, etc. As regards *teacher-specific causes*, teachers don't always plan classes carefully enough, they may be using inappropriate methodology, set boring tasks, give hazy instructions, etc.

Finally, let me draw your attention to an aspect that's often overlooked. In vain do we delude ourselves into thinking that children go to school because they're hungry for knowledge. They are not. They go to school, because they *must* go to school. This is the bottom line.

In a large-scale survey conducted by Carl Rogers (1983), one of the founders of humanistic psychology, American pupils almost unanimously stated that school is a bore. I doubt that Hungarian kids would disagree. On the contrary, they're bored out of their mind. The fact of the matter is that kids want to get classroom work done with a minimum of energy and effort, and often look for opportunities to goof off. Basically, their motivation isn't fuelled by their teachers, but by their peers, with whom they share the most exciting years of their lives. The knowledge and skills they pick up along the way is merely a by-product.

February 2002

I found out that many kids copy their homework from the Internet.

When I gave Laci two fails today, he nearly jumped on me. What shall I do?

How come that one day they behave well, only to turn nasty the next day? Today they happened to have their good day.

But the worst is yet to come. School subjects which encourage social interaction are particularly prone to disruption (Doyle, 1986). Since the foreign language classroom is a place *par excellence* for urging genuine communication, the danger of losing control is grave. And the more communicative the classroom, the bigger the risk. This, I'm afraid, is a central paradox of communicative language teaching.

The reflective teacher

If there's one idea which permeates contemporary educational thinking, it's the idea of the *reflective teacher*. As I'm inclined to swim with the tide, here's a bit of vivisection.

"Peter, lie down on the couch and tell me: What do you think went wrong during those devastating two years at Radnóti?"

Well, first of all, I couldn't resolve the involvement/detachment dilemma. As I wasn't able to keep my distance, I lost respect and authority. From angels my kids gradually turned into monsters. Obviously I ought to have been less outgoing and more aloof.

March 2002

I believe Zoli should be seen by a psychologist: he's unmanageable, diffuse, aggressive and silly.

I'm unable to prevent disruption. Kristóf and Eszter have the cheek to throw paper pellets at each other and burst out laughing at every successful hit.

The second snag was that I loved my pupils with all my heart and made no bones about my tender feelings. A boy's confession about his parents' divorce brought tears to my eyes. A girl smiled at me affectionately and I was on cloud nine. With hindsight, I realise that I should have concealed my emotions.

Finally, I wasn't able to restrain my yen to guffaw. Someone pulled a silly face – and I burst out laughing. There're two situations in which you're ill-advised to laugh: when you teach and when you make love. Clearly, I should have left my grin in the staffroom – or rather at home.

So the three lessons to learn are: Don't get too close! Don't show your affection! Don't laugh!

In other words, behave like a teacher. Be strict and scary. Alternatively, be firm but fun. But for God's sake, don't be soft and shaky!

Point taken. But what if proper teacherly behaviour isn't my default mode? I can't help getting close to my pupils, I can't hide my affection and I love laughing. What then?

April 2002

Yes, that's why it's good to teach children: they radiate love. Whenever I'm on the verge of giving up, they pull me back from the edge at the last minute.

Half the group was missing. I lost my temper, but mainly because even the ones who were there wouldn't stop chattering.

Carpe diem!

Well, in that case come to terms with it. And stop whimpering about rambunctious teenagers, because that's what teenagers are like.

Look, barbers don't grumble about all the hair that falls on the floor, either. They dutifully sweep it up, only to have another shower of hair shed by the next client. And so it goes until sunset.

Likewise, seldom does the traumatologist complain that he had to chop off the foot of a driver injured in an accident. He had no time to whine anyway, because in they pushed another patient, eagerly waiting for her arm to be amputated below the elbow, owing to blood poisoning caused by a rose thorn.

Cutting off hair and limbs are part and parcel of the job of, respectively, the barber and the traumatologist. Ideally, they consider their job a challenge rather than a chore. Would it be going too far to suggest that they actually relish the beauty of their vocation? (However, the analogy ends here, because while the hair grows back, the lost limb seldom does.)

May 2002

Kristóf called Mark a brown-nose, because he not only worked hard, he said, but put his hand up too.

Now that I'd learnt I was not going to teach the group next year I gave up altogether. What's the point of being strict any more? It's better to leave them with relatively pleasant memories of me, isn't it?

Not exactly giant steps, but they still have made a bit of progress in the past two years…

So there's the teacher busy dealing with a discipline problem. However, no sooner has she moved it out of the way than another one crops up. And then another, and yet another. In spite of all her efforts, problems don't get scarcer – they multiply. If you cut off the ugly head of the dragon, ten new heads pop up in its place.

Let's face it: there's no such thing as stamping out discipline problems once and for all. The job of forking all the manure out of this Augean stable verges on the impossible. This being the case, there are three alternatives before the teacher. Alternative A is that she quits. Alternative B is that she persists, but keeps whimpering. Alternative C is that she accepts pupil misbehaviour matter-of-factly, takes up the challenge and derives pleasure out of this perennial struggle. In nine cases out of ten, she is defeated. No big deal. Each time she gets up on her feet again, smiling, waiting for her knockout punch.

Coda

Wait! You haven't heard the coda yet.

As I was saying goodbye to my group in 2002, I confessed that I should have done a better job. The main thing in which I turned out to be a disaster was my inability to keep a firm grip. At this point, the kids gave me a puzzled look. Then the naughtiest boy broke the silence and said: "What?! But we were at our best in your class. If you'd seen us in other classes. Phew!" So it's all relative.

Then they gave me a goodbye present. It was a tile they'd chiselled out of a wall of the school building. The inscription said: "I love my teacher!" Signed by all fourteen of them. And the building is still standing.

> "[Yes, my friends, you're fools, if you] sacrifice the flaring briefness of [your] lives in hopes of paradise or fears of hell. No one transcends. There's no future and no past. There's no remedy for death – or birth – except to hug the spaces in between. Live loud, live wide, live tall" (Crace, 2000, p. 171).

Carpe diem!!!

Thank you.

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POSSIBILITIES OF HUNGARIAN LANGUAGE EDUCATION IN TRANSCARPATHIA IN THE LIGHT OF A DISRESPECTED LANGUAGE LAW*

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> **"Laws have never ever knocked down walls, my son; we have to do that ourselves."**
>
> Elek Benedek: "Testament and six letters", 1895

So what has the Language Law promised us? On the one hand, it has promised that every man can freely define their mother tongue and can choose the language of communication. However, these nice principles are impossible to realize in practice because the Constitution adopted in 1996 clearly states that Ukraine is a monolithic state. From this derives that the Ukrainian language is the mother tongue for everyone. But if one is allowed to choose which is one's mother tongue then one will choose the language into which they were born. That way the language would be one's first language.

On the other hand, it has promised to define the concept of 'regional languages' which is extremely crucial in a country that is monolithic only by the Constitution, otherwise numerous minorities live in it. In addition, these are not immigrant but autochthonous minorities which were formed in various centuries as a result of historical, political, and economic processes. Because of this, they live in a block, and consider themselves native; therefore the law about the regional languages is essential for them.

The regional languages according to the law are: Russian, Belarusian, Bulgarian, Armenian, Gagauz, Yiddish, Crimean Tatar, Moldavian, German, Modern Greek, Polish, Romani, Romanian, Slovakian, Hungarian, Ruthenian, Karaim, Krymchak. In terms of the law, the use of regional and minority languages is possible where the percentage of representatives of national minorities reaches or exceeds 10% of the total population of the given geographical area. The law has promised declared rights for the regional languages, namely that the abuse of the state language and the regional languages, as well as their purposeful distortion in official documents shall be punishable. The law has promised the protection of names of settlements and proper personal names, too, as distortion of the latter ones violates human rights.

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The law has also promised that it realizes the natural bilingualism, which has existed for centuries in Transcarpathia, in a written form. It refers to the essential need of minorities to issue official documents, e.g. general certificates of secondary education, in two languages. In addition, the law promised us to teach Ukrainian indispensable for integrating into the Ukrainian society. But it failed to define the measures. Unfortunately, there is a deep abyss here between the declaration of the law and the required measures. The fact is that nowadays nobody is expected the acquire the state language at a level necessary for their own needs and career, but everybody is expected to speak the state language at the mother tongue level irrespective of what community the person was born into or where they live. This appears to be a discriminative influence, especially in the sphere of tertiary education or further education because our school-leavers applying for any speciality must take and pass an examination in Ukrainian language and literature which is tailored according to the system of requirements of native Ukrainian speakers leaving Ukrainian schools. Thus, here is the discrimination.

It is even worse that the Ukrainian language, as it is dealt with as a political question, cannot be a second language because this is the official language of a monolithic nation state. Thus, no elaborated system of requirements exists for this language (like for instance, the description of levels A, B, and C in the Common European Framework for Languages[**]). There is only one level of language knowledge of Ukrainian which is tailored to meet the capabilities and possibilities of native Ukrainians. Hence it derives logically from the viewpoint of the state that this language cannot be taught as a second language then, because there is only one level that everybody has to achieve, namely the level of the native user.

The issue of language teaching should be dealt with methodologically rather than politically in the future. Also, one should admit that it is not an assimilating tool, but rather an integrating one. As such, it should mean that everyone has to achieve a level necessary for their own well-being. Therefore, it would be necessary to develop a differentiated evaluation system, which could also be a pre-requisite for further education. Unfortunately, the fact that Ukraine entered the Bologna process has not resulted in a breakthrough, either.

Now let us examine how a European law can be interpreted in two different ways. According to European norms, the Bologna system claims that everyone can enter the system, and it is decided only later who can step forward to the next level in education and who will quit. In Ukraine it is vice versa because the system of education is closed from the very beginning: only those can enter who pass the school-leaving examination in Ukrainian language and literature. Other languages in Ukraine did not have this advanced level school-leaving examination system; therefore, one can see that a double standard is applied in the country. While school-leavers could take such an advanced level examination in Russian, they were not allowed to do it in Hungarian,

[**] Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment. (2001). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press and Council of Europe.

Romanian, or Slovakian. Consequently, when a student wanted to study Hungarian language and literature, or Romanian language and literature, or Slovakian language and literature in tertiary education, their knowledge of these languages was not measured. They were tested on whether they knew Ukrainian at the native level, and their knowledge of English was also measured.

The erroneous idea that everyone in Ukraine speaks Ukrainian at the L1 level creates further problems. For instance, teachers of Ukrainian as a foreign language are not trained in the country. The unprepared teachers recognize and face the fact in a minority context that their speech is completely incomprehensible for learners. This can lead to serious conflicts, for example to the learners becoming estranged from the teacher, and also from the language.

Ukraine has realized the fact that in the complicated world we are living in monolinguals cannot succeed, and the law supports the launch of teaching a second foreign language in schools.

In our context where we live, at least one language of the environment or a regional language and a universal language or a foreign language should be acquired in order for somebody to succeed in various spheres of life. For instance, for a Ukrainian person from Aknaszlatina Romanian could be the regional language, while for a Ukrainian in the Ungvár/Uzhhorod district the regional language could be Hungarian because he lives in such circumstances. For Hungarians, the regional language would be Ukrainian as it is spoken in their context. However, politics interferes and officials state that Ukrainian cannot be a regional language for us, Hungarians as this is the state language. At the same time Romanian and Hungarian cannot be the second language, only English, German, French, Spanish and perhaps Russian. Although teaching the regional language would be compulsory in schools in theory, but based on experiment and experience Hungarian has not been allowed to be taught as a regional language in schools in the Ungvár and the Nagyszőlős districts in a totally Ukrainian context.

It is done despite the fact that other orders were also issued concerning it, for instance, Order 409 which clearly stated that hours can be diverted to other disciplines within the language competence block when teaching the compulsory second foreign language from Form 5. This order does not use the term 'regional language,' it only mentions the Ukrainian language, foreign language, the Russian language, and the languages of other nationalities. We have initiated the introduction of those languages starting from Form 5 in Hungarian schools which are official in Transcarpathia. However, the ministry insisted on the one enumerated by them. Therefore, most of the Hungarian schools introduced Russian as a second foreign language. This confuses the pupils completely.

Despite the fact that the law states that state language and regional language or minority language education is allowed at all levels, one has to request it officially, and the requests are either accepted or refuted. If they are accepted, then authorities should take into consideration at entrance examinations and later on at higher educational establishments that students learn special disciplines in the language in which they can proceed most easily.

The law also details that the regional language can be chosen by non-state-supported or private institutions except for Ukrainian language and literature. This proves that the Ukrainian language and literature deserves a peculiar status, which is not tailored to the given context, but is supported by a political power.

Well, every law is worth as much as one can realize from it. So far nothing has been done because it had been cancelled by the time any measures could be taken. Now a new law is promised, the first draft of which is even more disadvantageous than the previous one was because it defines the regional language status and forming the regional language competences in 30%. Moreover, this could only be reached if 30% of the population would request it with personal signature. Simply put, it means that an officially ratified law, for example tax law, comes into force only in case 30% of the population claims they agree with this law, although it is declared to be universal.

Therefore, we local people living here have to decide how to go on. I believe the first and the most important issue is that whatever the new law brings for us, it should be accepted as a national minimum that we demand keeping the former norms as much as possible. And no party policy or other questions should be involved in this issue.

Our urgent task is now to develop with educational experts the short-, mid- and long-term conception of mother tongue education which could also include the question of language teaching in Transcarpathia.

We would err if we waited for only ready instructions from Kyiv. We should claim that the rights guaranteed by the law remain in all spheres. Now it is an interim period, and if we speak about constitutional state – and Ukraine is striving to be one – then no one should deal with the limitation of the guaranteed rights, and one should be perseverant enough to wait for the state's declaration that the rights guaranteed by the law before should be followed. However, for this declaration it is crucial that we do not renounce our rights voluntarily because of any fears. We should give preference to our children's rights and should not be afraid to announce that for our children three languages are as enough as for the Ukrainian children: the mother tongue, a world language and a regional language. The hours allocated for teaching the three languages should be divided among them and nobody should try to persuade us to learn another language.

What else can we do? We can enjoy and benefit from the opportunities that the law ensures. We do not renounce our rights, i.e. we can demand in first place at every level – thus in those villages where Hungarian schools were closed (Tekeháza, Mátyfalva, Fancsika, and Csepe) – that Hungarian education be restored with the condition that Ukrainian is also taught. However, the basis of this is that the Ukrainian language is taught as a second language to us, Hungarians, and not as the mother tongue, starting from Class 1 when the children do not speak it yet.

A second possibility that the Upper-Tisza region can make use of – Rahó and Kőrösmező, where we lost Hungarian education 40 years ago; the children now cannot speak Hungarian properly and we have to admit Ukrainian became their first language – is that they can ask for Hungarian as a foreign language to be taught as a compulsory school subject because there is a worked out syllabus and a possibility provided by the law for it, but it must be asked for. Again, our courage is needed in this case because we should not only claim Hungarian citizenship when applying for a visa, but also we should assert our rights by the Ukrainian authorities.

The third phase is that we ask for Hungarian as a first foreign language in those sporadic settlements where the parent wants very much that their child get schooling support from Hungary[***], but actually it is not possible because the child cannot learn Hungarian language and literature as compulsory school subjects as there are not enough applicants for this. But communities can also ask for Hungarian as a second foreign language, in those sporadic settlements, especially in towns, where other educational establishments are not available for them.

An even weaker version than this is teaching Hungarian as an optional school subject. The local authorities can order that there should be a curriculum accepted by the ministry for this school subject. The Hungarian state helps us in designing the necessary textbooks for the curriculum, and while we do not have this all, the Balassi Institute (Budapest, Hungary) can provide us with teaching aids for teaching a foreign language. Furthermore, I hope it can provide retraining and further training for those Hungarian teachers who were not qualified for this task, either.

Naturally, we are facing up with challenges. The first one is that we achieve that the question of language learning be dealt with as a methodological, rather than a political issue. Concerning further education, the Ukrainian language competence should be measured and not the knowledge of Ukrainian language and literature at the mother tongue level.

We should also widen the scope of our mother tongue usage because a language cannot survive on its own, but only in case it is needed and we use it in other professions. This is also needed so that our feeling of comfort be reserved in the territory where we were born as autochthonous inhabitants.

I wish we overcome the political publicity and propaganda and we could handle them in a way that the peace present so far in Transcarpathia will remain.

Finally, another crucial question: every solution about which a decision has been made will function effectively only in the case there are devoted people locally, who will fight for a cause with perseverant work till the end. Otherwise, we can only have a desire over which we will lament.

[***] The Hungarian state aims to support the Hungarian education beyond its borders; therefore a schooling support is paid annually to all those children who can prove that they study Hungarian language and literature in schools with Hungarian language of instruction. With this financial help parents are motivated to let their children attend Hungarian schools. As a consequence, these schools will not be closed and Hungarian education will survive. (Editors)

CONTEXTS CHALLENGED BY POETRY

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Abstract:
The presentation will provide practical methods for the creative reading of poetry, and argues that literary texts, not only prose but also poetry, have their function in developing foreign language skills and contribute significantly to understanding a less straightforward and more subtle type of communication. As meanings are only potentially encoded in the texts, their interpretation is a matter of recovering them through the readers´ active contribution. The notion of contexts, so important in pragmatics and stylistics, provides the common theoretic ground from which not only everyday communication, but also poetic communication, can successfully be approached.
Keywords: context, intertextuality, creative reading, poetic communication, the process of thinking

The title of the present paper could be easily continued to form a chiasm: and poetry challenged by contexts. Context seems to be a general frame of human understanding and creation of sense.

Context is a broad term signalling that nothing in nature similarly to the man-made world can be viewed, treated, interpreted and understood in isolation. Context is a frame of reference, a background and foreground in the broadest sense in the middle, in which the process of understanding takes place.

The basic term of the word goes back to the Latin *contextus*, from the past participle of *contextere* meaning to join together, to put together or to interweave (Collins English Dictionary, 2003).

Another definition approaches context as discourse that surrounds a language unit and helps to determine its interpretation, or as a set of facts, conditions or circumstances that surround a situation or event.

The notion of context is widely used in the new trends of linguistics, by discourse analysists and pragmaticians. J. R. Firth back in 1935 declared that all meaning was the function of a context, namely, meaning depended on a context. His famous quotation “You shall know a word by the company it keeps” (Firth, 1957, p. 11) referred to the importance of the context. His theory was developed further by his colleague M. K. Halliday who set forward those criteria based on which the context of situation can be described, these being the participants, the verbal and non-verbal actions of the participants, the surrounding objects and events and the effects of the verbal actions. Halliday and Hasan, for example, use context as a starting point when talking about text noting that “the situation always precedes texts” and “reminds us that context and text put together like this, serve as a reminder that these are the two aspects of the same process” (Halliday and Hasan, 1991, p. 28), thus it is context that engenders texts and not the other way round. He also makes the distinction between the verbal or written environment of the text and the context of situations, which according to him, is characterized with three aspects: the field of discourse, referring to the nature of the social action, the tenor of discourse, referring to the participants of the discourse and finally the mode of discourse which expresses the function the text is expected to perform in the given situation. The famous Hungarian text-linguist Petőfi S. János also marks the difference between written and non-written environment of the text by applying two terms: context for the situation in which the text unfolds, and co-text for the textual environment of the text under focus (Petőfi, 1982). The context-meaning relationship is explored by a fairly independent area of linguistics: that of pragmatics. Katz (1972), for example, states that utterances change their meaning depending on the context in which they are uttered. This means that shift from the context prior to an utterance to the context post utterance itself constitutes the communicational content of the utterance. This suggests that the basis of the pragmatic theory is constituted by the notion of context change. Levinson, when discussing Carnap's definitions of context makes the following comment:

> …the term context is understood to cover the identities of participants, the temporal and special parameters of the speech event, and (…) the beliefs, knowledge and intentions of the participants in that speech event and no doubt, much besides. (Levinson, 2000, p. 5)

The same textual environment, perhaps in the broadest sense is referred to as intertextuality by Beaugrande and Dressler and also by literary historians. The aforementioned authors set forward the seven standards of textuality, among which cohesion, coherence, intentionality, acceptability, informativity, situationality intertextuality are also included (Beaugrande and Dressler, 1981, p. 15). Intertextuality is such an interface area where linguistic approach and literary approach peacefully meet, arising beyond the controversies and debates between linguists and literary critiques. After all, literature is also a special type of communication and it is also about constructing meanings where the process of understanding can hardly be achieved without taking into consideration the realities outside the text. The only difference may be perhaps in the 'intensity' and complexity of the context. While the implicatures and inferences of an utterance in an everyday communication can be understood by applying common-sense knowledge, literary texts, especially poems, would require – beyond everyday life experience, cultural knowledge, in the broadest sense, which is traditionally transmitted by other texts via institutionalized studies or special private motivation.

By the analysis of the following poem, I would like to demonstrate to what extent cultural knowledge is activated by the body of language belonging to the genre (text type) of the poem entitle *Roman Wall Blues* by Wystan Hugh Auden (1907-1973), an Anglo-American poet, and how language and culture rely on each other during the process of understanding of the poem in question.

When proceeding with the exploring the text: a challenging intellectual endeavour, after having quoted linguists it would seem quite fair to quote a literary critic and a stylistician, all the more as we have implicitly stated before that linguistic approach and literary approach are not each other's adversary, on the contrary, they are mutually depend on each other in achieving meanings.

Roman Wall Blues
Over the heather the wet wind blows,
I've lice in my tunic and a cold in my nose.

The rain comes pattering out of the sky,
I'm a Wall soldier, I don't know why.

The mist creeps over the hard grey stone,
My gir's in Tungria; I sleep alone.

Aulus goes hanging around her place,
I don't like his manners, I don't like his face.

Piso's a Christian, he worships a fish;
There'd be no kissing if he had his wish.

She gave me a ring but I diced it away;
I want my girl and I want my pay.

When I'm a veteran with only one eye
I shall do nothing but look at the sky.

Contexts provide an indispensable framework when constructing meanings in poetry as well. Literary stylist and critic Widdowson states the following about the hermeneutics of poetry:

"Meanings are residing within the text and interpretation is a matter of recovering them. Meanings are inherent properties of texts. The process is a centripetal one: the reader is drawn into the text by poetic forces. Meaning is not a matter of recognition but of realization, not a matter of what a text means but of what a text means to the reader. The process of interpretation is in this respect a centrifugal one: the poetic force throws out all manners of possible meanings" (Widdowson, 1992, p. 55).

In the previous quotation, I would highlight the idea of *recognizing meanings* based on the contexts that the reader can associate to the text. The poem remains a pool of meaning potentials until the reader can challenge these meanings through creative reading. How creatively the reader can approach text depends on the complexities of his cultural and every-day experiences.

"Interpretaion is the art of reconstructing. Interpreters do not decode poems; they make them" – states Fish (1980). Or, an older association from Ralph Waldo Emerson's *The American Scholar* gravitating towards the same meaning:

There is then creative reading as well as creative writing. When the mind is braced by labor invention, the page of whatever book we read becomes luminous with manifold allusions. Every sentence is doubly significant, and the sense of our author is as broad as the world (Concise Anthology of American Literature, 1985, p. 581).

Bearing in mind all what has been quoted above, let us approach the title of Wystan Hugh Auden's poem: *Roman Wall Blues.* Grammatically the title is a noun phrase consisting of adjectives and a noun, both referring to cultural notions. Roman Walls were built around the first century AD by the Roman authorities in order to protect the border of the Roman Empire against the migratory peoples. They were meant to be a physical protection against the invaders and were patrolled by mercenary Roman Soldiers. One such borders, whose remains can be still seen is called Hadrian's Wall in Northern England which was built between 118-122 AD to keep 'the Empire intact'. Hadrian's Wall had a length of 117.5 km and besides housing garrisons also performed economic control as well.

The notion of Roman Wall in the grammatical form of an adjective precedes the noun *blues* which is a popular genre of the African-American literature lamenting on some sad condition of the individual. Anyone who is familiar with European and American history will soon realize that the two denotations are far away from each other, both in their reference to geographic position and also time. The existence of the Roman walls can be located about two thousand years ago in Europe while blues is an Afro-American genre which became known in the second decade of the 20th century, after the first world war in Europe. So there is a cognitive gap, both in space and in time, between the associations produced in the mind of the reader. When catching sight of the title the mind jumps from the associations generated by one notion to the associations generated by the other and finds the two incompatible, as they both, according to his knowledge, can be anchored to different times and places in history. This cognitive incompatibility needs to be settled and definitely will be settled through the course of the poem. The title, by producing this tension proves to be an excellent start, arousing the readers interest in what comes next in the poem. At this point it proves helpful to quote another relevant idea by Widdowson, relating to the nature of poetic understanding:

> One should not expect that poems should be interpretable by applying the conventions of rationality. These are, after all, based essentially on the principle of combination. Their very parallel patterning precludes poems being arguments in the normal sense. („,) What a poem expresses is not the end

> product of thinking but rather the process of thinking itself, the experience of exploring ideas beyond the chartered limits of logic and common sense” (Widdowson, 1992, p. 50).

Though lines unfold chronologically as we read through the poem, our brain categorizes, systemizes and classifies simultaneously the information gleaned from the poem and matches against all the information mapped in the reader’s mental landscape. Thus, besides the knowledge regarding the Roman walls, we soon process the information referring to the weather condition described in the poem, which functions to identify the whereabouts of the walls. The unpleasant weather conditions (wet wind, cold, rain, mist) specify that the wall must have been somewhere far from the sunny Italy, marking the northern border of the Roman Empire. Because the poem is in English, written by an English author, the reader may identify Hadrian’s Wall as the wall the poet had in mind, the wall which marked the most northern border of the empire.

The unpleasant climacteric and weather conditions influence the plight of the soldier on duty, but can also be regarded as a projection of his discomforts as well. Thus the psychological mood of the soldier and the weather conditions mutually contribute to the strengthening of the idea of discomfort. The persona identifies himself: “am a wall soldier” and instantly adds “I don’t know why”. This remark enlarges the possible reasons of the soldier’s uneasiness. Human activities are generally, or ideally purposeful, but this soldier does not know why he is a soldier. He is compelled to perform military duty far away from his country, but he has no idea how his duties integrate in the larger historical, social and political context of the age.

Soon the reader is also provided with some ideas that occur in the mind of this home-sick soldier: “My girl’s in Tungria; I sleep alone. I want my girl and I want my pay”. His mind is about the basic and natural feelings of a young man: love and eating, and immediately enlarged by the feeling of jealousy: “Aulus goes hanging around her place, I don’t like his manners, I don’t like his face.” And soon another character is remembered who might be another possible young man “hanging around the girl”, or just a friend “Piso” who is a Christian and worships a fish”, and a very small, seemingly unimportant remark revealing his moral values: “there would be no kissing if he had his wish.”

The proper name Tungria, seems to be a Latin name, which indeed it is, referring however to a place which is far away from Italy, by the river Meuse on the territory of today’s Belgium. Piso is also a popular Latin name. Calpurnius Piso was a famous member of an early Christian, Roman family who conspired against Nero and when the conspiracy was revealed, along with Seneca, was compelled to commit suicide. The same Piso family is also known to have The New Testament written.

The sentence "he worships a fish" also bears significance. In case the meanings are not recognized by the students, it provides good opportunities for the instructor to enlarge the students' knowledge with regard to history in general and the Christian history in particular.

The symbol of the fish goes back to the Greek word "ichthys" with the meaning of fish, which was also considered as an acronym form for words Iesos Christos Theou Yios Soter, i.e. Jesus Christ, Son of God, Saviour. The fish appears several times in the Bible again being associated with Christ's wonders. Christ, for example is known to have fed several thousand people with two fishes and five loaves. Baptism, water and fish also create a strong parallel which can be linked to the practise of baptism through immersion practised by the early Christians. The fish seemed to be a perfect symbol to hide the new believers of Christianity, as it was widely used in Pagan times as well by the Greeks and Romans. When Christians being persecuted by the Romans used the sign as a secret symbol to identify each other, so the fish soon became a community building and identifying symbol. At this point we can bring Henryk Sinkiewicz's novel *Quo Vadis* (1895) into discussion as an intertextual link. Students these days seldom read novels, but they may have seen one of the novel's movie adaptations. The symbol is well exploited by the Polish Sinkiewicz, where Christians indentified each other by drawing a fish or half a fish in the air in order to make sure they both belong to the same religious sect. There is evidence in history that Christians indeed used this kind of identification practice, furthermore we can still come across fish stickers on the bumpers of cars or business cards conveying the same dependence. After bringing all these scholarly associations into discussion, the students may finally find an explanation for the experience of eating fish as a traditional Christmas meal.

Coming back to the text of the poem in the maze of associations, we gather further information with regard to the relationship of the wall soldier and his girlfriend "She gave me a ring, but I diced it away". The ring is a symbolic gift exchanged between lovers, expressing the seriousness of the relationship, furthermore it is often a sign of engaging the other person. But, the persona of this poem dices the ring away, does not attach so great an importance to it as would normally be expected. The practice of dicing, at the same time, is an ancient and still persisting practice among soldiers who always have too much spare time and too little attachment to more serious pastimes.

The fairly precise picture describing the present condition of the soldier, characterized by lack of identity and aimlessness, is in line with his hopes regarding his future, which is equally lacking purpose and value:

When I am a veteran, with only one eye
I shall do nothing, but look at the sky.

The poem abounds in words denoting lack of value either as content words signalling value-deprived activities: *I don't know, hanging around, I don't like, diced away, do nothing, look at the sky* or pronouns: *nothing.*

As far as the vocabulary is concerned, we can note the consistency of the scholarly words linked to the semantic field of the ancient Roman history: Roman Wall, tunic, Tungria, Piso, Aulus, veteran. It may happen that even words like *tunic* and *veteran* want explanations.

So within relatively few words the poet achieves to create a consistent outside picture with distinct place and time markers, and also the inner one, the psychological picture of the soldier.

And finally, there is only one question that requires an answer. How is the reader to bridge the gap between the context of the Roman times and the 20th century marked by mentioning the genre of blues?

Readers here may very well rely on their past and present experiences regarding soldiering as a career. It is quite obvious that an American soldier performing military missions in Korea, Vietnam, Iraq, or Afghanistan is also ignorant about the purpose of his being on duty, and his only preoccupation is of material and sexual kind. Settings, context, time may change, but the condition of mercenary soldiers remain unchanged. Thus, the semantic gap, or tension existing in the title of the poem supports its main message: namely the condition and preoccupations and system of values of mercenary soldiers are universal and eternal. Based on the experience the last two millennia we have the grounds to predict fairly well the eternal validity of this message..

One important, indispensible quality of literature and poetry is its capacity to transfigure everyday experiences, to raise the particular and accidental to the level of general and universal.

And last, but not least, this idea of generality is also emphasized by the rhyme and rhythm of the poem, which imitates the verse forms traditionally used by the genre of blues.

With the analysis of *Roman Wall Blues* it is quite obvious to realize how many associations are triggered and how much human interaction is required in order to construct and recover meanings potentially existent in poems.

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APPENDIX

1.

Wystan Hugh Auden (1907 –1973) ranks among one of the most notable poets of the 20th who was an Anglo-American poet born in England who later became an American citizen. His themes covered love, politics, moral issues and the relationship between individuals and society individuals and nature. His work is noted for its high stylistic and technical achievement. He was also a prolific writer of prose essays and reviews on literary, political, psychological and religious subjects, and he worked at various times on documentary films, poetic plays and librettos.

In the mid-1960s Auden was considered T.S Eliot's successor. British critics usually consider his early work as his best, while American critics tended to favour his middle and later work. Unlike other modern poets, his reputation did not decline after his death.

2.

Blues is a musical form and a genre that originated in African American communities in the "Deep South" of the United States around the 19th century.

The term may have come from the term "blue devils", meaning melancholy and sadness. The earliest occurrence of the term is found in George Colman's one-act farce *Blue Devils* (1798). The use of the phrase must be older, however it is attested only since 1912. According to another explanation, "blues" is derived from the adjective blue, this being the colour of mourning in West African cultures, on which occasions the garment of the mourners would be dyed blue to indicate suffering. The colour used for dying came from the indigo plant which was grown on the slave plantations in the South of the United States. The hardships of the plantation work and the colour of mourning mutually strengthened the meaning of blues as an expression of troubled experiences.

The first publication of blues music was in 1908, and the first recording was in 1920, however the origins of blues probably date back to the last decade of the 19th century. Papers began to report in Southern Texas and Deep South at the beginning of the 20th century. By this time the traditionally collective blues music became more individualized and the newly acquired freedom of the slaves gave the genre new lines of development.

METHODOLOGICAL QUESTIONS OF THE ACQUISITION OF UKRAINIAN AS A SECOND LANGUAGE (USL) IN TRANSCARPATHIAN HUNGARIAN SCHOOLS: PROBLEMS AND SOLUTIONS

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Abstract:
Ukrainian as the state language has been taught in the Hungarian schools of Transcarpathia since 1991. Curriculum designers and textbook writers for Hungarian schools neglect the individual needs of the target group, i.e. Hungarian children (most of the Transcarpathian Hungarians live in one block, they get into contact with representatives of the dominant nation very rarely or not at all, most Hungarian children encounter the Ukrainian language for the first time only in the school). The lack of appropriate school methodological preparedness is also one of the reasons why Hungarian children in Transcarpathian schools are still at a disadvantage compared to their Ukrainian fellows. The school curriculum in Ukrainian language for nationality schools starting from the elementary classes focuses on developing the learners' grammatical competence, while developing their speaking skills is totally pushed into the background. The literature textbooks contain pieces of literary works in an unabridged form. Also, the explanation of archaic words and collocations is presented in Ukrainian. The advanced level school leaving examination in Ukrainian language and literature has the same requirements for school leavers of both Ukrainian and Hungarian schools. Representatives of the Transcarpathian Hungarian community, linguists and language pedagogues among them, are trying to find solutions to the problems that have emerged.
Keywords: Ukrainian as a Second Language (USL), acquisition of USL, Transcarpathian Hungarian children

1 Introduction

Ukrainian as the state language has been taught in the Hungarian schools of Transcarpathia since 1991. The Ukrainian state has made essential language policy decisions by making the Ukrainian language the official one in the country and introducing it into the school curriculum as a compulsory discipline, however, the state has not ensured the language planning background for these deeds, and has not made the necessary decisions for the realization of the above, either (Csernicskó, 2012).

The state was not prepared for the changes concerning Ukrainian education. This is defined by the following deficiencies: lack of appropriately qualified teachers; lack of syllabus compiled specifically for Hungarian schools; lack of proper textbooks; lack of teachers' books and methodological guidelines for teachers; lack of bilingual school dictionaries. As a consequence of all these, several problems related to the teaching of Ukrainian emerged within a short period of time (Milován, 2002; Koljadzsin, 2003; Csernicskó, 2004; Beregszászi & Csernicskó, 2005) The content of the Ukrainian language and literature syllabus now in use also proves it, as well as the function of the textbooks does not focus on the development of the learners' communicative competence. So far the state 'did not support deliberately that teaching the state language in schools with minority languages of instruction was successful and effective' (Csernicskó, 2010, p. 74).

2 The Ukrainian Curriculum

The editors of the Ukrainian curriculum in use at present are familiar with the linguistic peculiarities of the target population (i.e. Hungarian schoolchildren) concerning the acquisition of the state language: first, the majority of the learners do not know the language at the start of its learning; second, the Ukrainian language and the Hungarian language belong to different genealogical groups with differing phoneme-letter systems, spelling, pronunciation, syntax, etc. (Danysh, Chuchka, Hertsog, *et al*., 2005a). The authors define the main aims of learning Ukrainian for primary schoolchildren as follows:

- continuous feeling of motivation towards learning Ukrainian and forming the learners' respect towards the Ukrainian language;
- enriching, developing and activating learners' vocabulary;
- introducing the grammatical system, and based on this, forming the essential lexical, grammatical, stylistic, correct pronouncing skills and knowledge;
- the development of language skills in all types of activities - listening, reading, speaking, writing - and regarding a variety of communication areas;
- forming and developing the communicative competence;
- shaping the students' humanist world view, spiritual world, moral and ethical values, as well as the peculiarities of Ukrainian citizens through the language.

According to the curriculum, the most crucial tasks of Ukrainian language education in the secondary school are as follows:

- enriching the spiritual world of the students, shaping their ideas of the world, their orientation towards universal human values;
- perfecting the orientation of the students in Ukrainian language information, and enhancing the use of the acquired knowledge in practice;
- developing free communications skills appropriate for different speech situations and venues;
- summarizing and deepening the students' knowledge regarding the interpretation of speech and language as social phenomena;
- perfecting the learners' ability to do individual learning and developing their intellectual creative talent.

From the criteria above it is not clear what level of knowledge the children have to achieve by the end of the elementary school (Class 4), the primary school (Form 9) and the secondary (Form 11). In contrast, this requirement is clearly defined in the foreign language curriculum: according to the common European framework of reference, pupils have to achieve level A1 by the end of Class 4, level B1 by the end of Form 9, and level B1+ by the end of Form 11 (Csernicskó, 2012, p. 105).

The authors of Ukrainian language and literature textbooks currently in use and editors of the Ukrainian curricula ignore the individual needs of the target population (most of the Transcarpathian Hungarians live in one block, they rarely or never contact the members of the dominant nation, Hungarian children come across the Ukrainian language in the school for the first time). In addition, the Transcarpathian Hungarian pupils are still at a linguistic disadvantage compared to their Ukrainian peers because of the absence of adequate school methodological readiness. The school curriculum in Ukrainian language focuses on the development of grammar competences, while speaking skills development is completely neglected. Literary works are presented in non-adapted form in the textbooks, the explanation of archaic words and collocations appears in Ukrainian. The advanced level Ukrainian language and literature examination sets equal requirements for both Ukrainian and Hungarian school-leavers. Representatives of the Transcarpathian Hungarian community, including linguists and language teachers, are trying to find a solution to the problem encountered.

In 2006 we started the first phase of our longitudinal study with my colleagues Ilona Huszti and Márta Fábián, the main aim of which was to gain insight into the way of teaching English and Ukrainian in the Beregszász Hungarian schools in order to determine the differences between the two processes and explain the reasons of them. The teachers were asked, inter alia, whether the existing curriculum gives due consideration to the development of the students' ability to speak. The English teachers are of the opinion that the English curriculum is communication-oriented and it pays sufficient attention to developing the students' ability to speak. All the Ukrainian teachers expressed their dissatisfaction that the Ukrainian curriculum does not contain any instructions that would facilitate the teaching of language functions (for example, asking for help, giving information, providing instructions, comments and opinions, etc). Teachers believed that those pupils who studied Ukrainian in accordance with this curriculum could achieve good results in learning only in case they lived in a bilingual family or in a community where they heard the Ukrainian language every day. We asked the teachers if they taught the above mentioned language functions in their lessons. Most teachers replied they had taught them if their lesson time had permitted, or would teach if they had time for that in the lesson (Bárányné, Huszti & Fábián, 2007).

It is important to note that no Ukrainian teachers were trained in our region until 2003 (i.e. for twelve years of Ukrainian independence) for teaching the Ukrainian language in nationality schools. This kind of training was started in 2003 with altogether fourteen students by the Uzhgorod National University. However, the professional nature f their training is questioned by the fact that since the start they have been studying together with the rest of the Ukrainian major students. In 2004, the training of Ukrainian-Hungarian major students started at the Ferenc Rákóczi II Transcarpathian Hungarian Institute. This can provide a long-term supply of Ukrainian teachers in Hungarian schools.

Currently, Ukrainian is taught in two or three lessons in general in Hungarian schools. Table 1 shows that out of the 105 annual Ukrainian lessons in Forms 5 and 6 only 23 and 20 lessons, respectively, can be devoted to speaking skills development (including listening, speaking, reading, and writing). The number of such lessons in Forms 7, 8 and 9 are 18, 20 and 18. Accordingly, the rest of the time is spent on developing the students' grammatical competence.

Table 1
The number of compulsory weekly hours spent on teaching Ukrainian in Hungarian schools (Forms 5-9) (Academic year 2013/2014) Source: Danysh, Chuchka, & Hertsog, 2005b

Form	Hours in an academic year	Weekly hours	Hours in reserve	Time devoted to speaking skills development (listening, speaking, reading, and writing)
5.	105	3	5	23
6.	105	3	5	20
7.	70	2	3	18
8.	70	2	2	20
9.	70	2	3	18

Ukrainian literature is taught in two hours per week in the Hungarian schools (see Table 2). The language of the textbooks is not relevant for the Hungarian learners' proficiency level in Ukrainian because the terminology is given exclusively in Ukrainian. In addition, the dialectal, regional or archaic words or phrases are also provided only with Ukrainian explanations and their amount sometimes exceeds the learners' receiving capacity.

The textbooks are simultaneously used as readers. The explanation of terms, writers' bibliographic data, and explanation of words and phrases are given only in Ukrainian, so children read Ukrainian literature in the target language. The often incomprehensible or only partially understandable reading poses difficulties to the students; they are not very encouraging and they do not raise their interest in the successful pursuit of learning. The textbooks are not suitable for differentiated teaching of children having different learning paces.

Table 2
The number of compulsory weekly hours spent on teaching Ukrainian literature in Hungarian schools (Forms 5-9) (Academic year 2013/2014) Source: Danysh, Chuchka, & Hertsog, 2005b

Form	Hours in an academic year	Weekly hours	Hours in reserve
5.	70	2	7
6.	70	2	7
7.	70	2	7
8.	70	2	7
9.	70	2	7

There are two Ukrainian language lessons a week in Form 10, while in Form 11, which is the year of preparation for the advanced level Ukrainian school-leaving examination, this number is only 1 per week. Most of the Hungarian schools introduce more Ukrainian lessons in Form 11 at the expense of other disciplines. The advanced level Ukrainian school-leaving examination is the same for everybody irrespective of the nationality of the school-leavers. Statistical data prove that learners of Ukrainian schools learn Ukrainian in 44.5 weekly hours during 11 years of their studies, while for children in Hungarian schools this number is only 30 (Bárány & Csernicskó, 2013).

Table 3
The number of compulsory weekly hours spent on teaching the Ukrainian language in Hungarian schools (Forms 10-11) (Academic year 2013/2014)

Form	Hours in an academic year	Weekly hours	Time devoted to speaking skills development (listening , speaking, reading, and writing)
10.	70	2	28
11.	35	1	20

The requirements of the school subject ‘Ukrainian literature’ are similar for both the Ukrainian and the Hungarian schools. It means that the learners in Hungarian schools are also expected to read all the compulsory novels and other literary works in the original and analyse them likewise. Most of the Hungarian secondary school learners cannot meet this requirement.

Table 4
The number of compulsory weekly hours spent on teaching the Ukrainian literature in Hungarian schools (Forms 10-11) (Academic year 2013/2014) Source: Ukrainian literature curriculum

Form	Hours in an academic year	Weekly hours
10.	70	2
11.	70	2

3 Steps towards the successful mastering of the state language

The representatives of the Hungarian minority try to do everything they can so that learners of the Hungarian schools acquire the state language of Ukraine, integrate into the Ukrainian society, and cope with the labour market.

The successful language acquisition is helped by a number of new dictionaries, mostly published with Hungarian support (e.g. Lizanec, 2001, 2008, 2009; Margitics, Hires & Hires, 2006). In 2009, the group of experts was formed on the initiative of the self-government of the town of Beregszász, whose aim was to develop curricula and syllabi, textbooks, methodological aids, teacher’s manuals, and visual aids, which would all help improve the effectiveness of teaching Ukrainian as the state language in the Transcarpathian Hungarian teaching and educational establishments. The diligent work of the experts has resulted in 25 publications which are meant to serve the work of both the teachers and the learners. The financial resources necessary for the works to be published were partially provided by the self-government of the town of Beregszász, and partially the fund *Szülőföld Alap* (i.e. by the Hungarian state and not the Ukrainian one). Unfortunately, so far these publications can only be used by the children of the Beregszász Hungarian schools.

To help the successful acquisition of Ukrainian literature, Hungarian children have anthologies at their disposal which contain the Hungarian translation of Ukrainian literary works (Kordonets, 2010a, 2010b). The staff of the Philology Department of the Ferenc Rákóczi II Transcarpathian Hungarian Institute are currently working on a literary anthology, which will provide help for school-leavers in preparing for the Ukrainian advanced level school-leaving examination.

In addition, the Ferenc Rákóczi II Transcarpathian Hungarian Institute runs preparatory courses in Ukrainian language and literature for the advanced level school-leaving examination annually which are attended by most of the Transcarpathian Hungarian school-leavers.

Experts try to suggest solutions for the successful acquisition of Ukrainian language and literature, which is the condition of success of all the speakers of Hungarian in the Ukrainian state (Csernicskó, 2012).

4 Conclusions

On the basis of the above issues, the following conclusions can be drawn: the teaching of Ukrainian as a second language in the case of the Transcarpathian Hungarian minority does not always have positive results. When compiling Ukrainian language textbooks and teaching materials, one should take into account the fact that the Hungarian and the Ukrainian are unrelated languages. Also, the vast majority of the Hungarian minority students first familiarize themselves with the Ukrainian language only in Class 1. In the initial phase of the educational process, the biggest emphasis should be placed on the development of students' communicative competence rather than the acquisition of grammatical material, because it will lead to the development of language barriers. In the teaching of literature, the Ukrainian literary works should be tailored to the Ukrainian language skill levels of Hungarian-speaking pupils. The number of lessons spent on developing the pupils' speaking skills in the Ukrainian literature curriculum for the Hungarian schools should be increased. Special methodological teacher's manuals should be worked out for the teachers, whereas contemporary multimedia visual materials should be developed for the students. We believe that considering these factors will contribute to making teaching the Ukrainian language more successful.

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THE PROBLEMS OF TEACHING UKRAINIAN AS A STATE LANGUAGE IN TRANSCARPATHIA

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The efficiency of state language (Ukrainian) teaching is poor and unbalanced in the Transcarpathian Hungarian schools for several reasons.[1]

1 The status of modern-day Transcarpathia over the last 150 years

The territory of the administration unit that we call Transcarpathia today existed neither as a geographical, nor as a geopolitical entity. Throughout the 20th century it belonged to several countries (Csernicskó & Ferenc, 2014). The state language has changed six times during the 20th century and accordingly changed the compulsory language taught in the schools of the region. The compulsory state language role was fulfilled by the Hungarian, 'Czechoslovakian', Russian and Ukrainian.

There were always generations left out from compulsory language education during the state- and state language-changes. The 'Czechoslovakian' language, for example, was introduced as a compulsory subject in every Transcarpathian school, but those who graduated before this year had never come across the language at school. After the power shift in 1938/39, a generation was, again, excluded from Hungarian language teaching. Although, after WWII, the teaching of Russian was emphasised by the Soviet authorities, those who left school earlier had no chance to learn Russian at school in an instructed way. Then, when suddenly compulsory Russian language teaching was replaced by Ukrainian, many people did not study Ukrainian because of the above mentioned reasons, not to mention those who attended school during the transitional periods. Students, for example, who were in the 5th form in the academic year of 1990/1991 in a Transcarpathian Hungarian school learned Russian for the first 5 years, then commencing on 1 September 1991 they were taught in Ukrainian.

The efficient teaching of Ukrainian is hindered by many factors.

[1] This problem has been widely researched and discussed (cf. Csernicskó 1998a (pp. 164-173), 1998b, 1998c, 1999, 2001, 2004, 2009a, 2009b, 2011, 2012, Orosz & Csernicskó, 1999 (pp. 70-83)).

2 The lack of qualified teachers

In the academic year of 1997/1998, 60% of teachers teaching Ukrainian in minority schools of Transcarpathia had no qualification in Ukrainian language teaching (Beregszászi, Csernicskó & Orosz 2001), while in the academic year of 2008/2009, 40% had (Motilchak, 2009). In the summer of 2009, Viktor Juschenko called it shameful that in some schools with a minority language as the language of instruction, there are no qualified Ukrainian language teachers[2]. The president instructed the leaders of the county state administrations to assess how many Ukrainian language teachers were needed in the schools of the county and to ensure that by 1 September, 2009 every school had qualified Ukrainian teachers[3]. The presidential order could not be executed fully. In 2011 in the Hungarian schools of the town of Beregszász, 22 teachers taught the Ukrainian language, 10 of whom had a Russian language teaching qualification, 6 were elementary teachers and only 6 had a degree in Ukrainian language and literature (Bárány, Huszti & Fábián, 2011).

Until the academic year of 2003/2004, teachers in Ukraine were not trained to teach Ukrainian as a second language (state language) for non-Ukrainian students, instead it was taught as a mother tongue. In those schools where the language of instruction is the minority language, the state language is taught by teachers who were trained to teach the Ukrainian language to students whose mother tongue is Ukrainian, or teachers with other specializations who participated in a short retraining course. In many small villages the state language is taught by persons who have no qualification in pedagogy but have a good level of language proficiency. Some teachers do not even know the language and culture of those nationalities to whom they teach the Ukrainian language (Gulpa, 2000; Póhán, 1999, 2003; Milován, 2002). However, according to *The Hague Recommendations Regarding the Education Rights of National Minorities* and language rights experts (e.g. Skutnabb-Kangas, 1990) the state language should be taught by bilingual teachers.

3 The lack of appropriate coursebooks

For many years after the introduction of the Ukrainian language as a mandatory subject in schools, the necessary curriculum and coursebooks were not provided by the state. When finally they became available in the minority schools, teachers heavily criticised them (Gulpa, 2000; Koljadzsin, 2003; Póhán, 1999, 2003). The reason of the critics in the first place was that the textbooks were composed by teachers and scholars who did not know the minorities, their language or culture (Gulpa 2000, Koljadzsin 2003, Póhán 1999, 2003). The other rightful critique in

[2] http://oktatas.origo.hu/20090807/nincs_eleg_ukran_nyelvtanar_karpataljan; http://www.nyest.hu/hirek/nincs-eleg-ukran-nyelvtanar-karpataljan

[3] http://tsn.ua/ukrayina/yushchenko-vimagaye-znaiti-po-vchitelyu-ukrayinskoyi-movi-dlya-kozhnoyi-shkoli.html

connection with the coursebooks was that they were too grammar-centred, focusing on the theoretical teaching of grammar, and they did not include any communication perspectives (Bárány, Huszti & Fábián, 2011).

The curriculum and the coursebooks do not take into consideration the language background of the students: expectations exceed possibilities. The Ukrainian language curriculum does not build on the knowledge already gained in the mother tongue and foreign language classes: it requires the acquisition of grammatical categories that have already been learnt in mother tongue classes. For instance, students already know the parts of speech (in Hungarian lessons they have learnt about verbs, nouns, adjectives, numerals, pronouns, etc.), but they have to learn them again in elementary classes in Ukrainian with their definitions, instead of focusing on speaking skills. The necessity of grammar teaching has long been debated in the language teaching literature, and recently Singleton and Cook (2014) have shown that it plays an important role in second language acquisition, though vocabulary and phonology may seem more obvious. However, grammar is overemphasized in the Ukrainian language coursebooks and one may have the impression that the leaders of education do not expect the acquisition of the Ukrainian language rather the knowledge of the Ukrainian grammar system.

Though the Ukrainian language has been a compulsory subject in the Hungarian schools since 1991, methodological aids have not been composed yet: there are no teachers' guidebooks, school dictionaries, and video- or audio-visual aids. The Ukrainian state budget does not provide methodological aids.

4 The lack of appropriate perspectives and methods

The Ukrainian language as a subject has the same name in the timetable of both, Ukrainian and minority schools, but means something different. In the former case, students come to school with native language proficiency, so the Ukrainian language (mother tongue) teaching, besides writing and reading, means developing knowledge and literacy in the mother tongue, awareness of the norms of the standard language variation and a grounding in foreign language learning/teaching. In the latter case, the main goal is the acquisition of the state language by non-Ukrainian students and the development of communicative skills in that language. If our starting point is the difference between these two aims, it becomes clear that we cannot use the same methods when teaching the Ukrainian language in Ukrainian and in minority schools. Baugh (1999), an American linguist, argues that the teaching of the state language (second language) according to the methodology of mother tongue teaching is a pedagogical mistake.

The need to distinguish between the two types of schools in connection with the goals and methods of teaching Ukrainian is also necessary when we look at the difference between the number of classes per week, curricula and coursebooks.

In the 11th form students of the Ukrainian schools learn the Ukrainian language subject in 44.5 classes, while students attending Hungarian schools learn the same subject in 30 classes per week (Csernicskó, 2012).

As the aims of the teaching of the Ukrainian language and other conditions and circumstances are different in the two types of schools, it is logical that the learning requirements should also be different. Nevertheless, the same requirements apply to everyone in the Ukrainian language and literature subjects. The same knowledge of Ukrainian is required from those who studied in schools with Ukrainian as a language of instruction and from those who studied in Russian, Hungarian or Romanian minority schools (Csernicskó & Ferenc 2010).

5 The lack of clear-cut objectives

Clear goals and tasks are not set in connection with the academic expectations of students in Ukrainian language as a school subject.

State requirements with regard to foreign languages (English, German, French and Spanish) are fixed in writing: by the end of elementary school (Form 4) students are required to reach A1 level, by the end of primary school (Form 9) A2+ level, and by the time they leave school (Form 11) B1+ level according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR, 2001). The normative documents of education do not define the required levels non-Ukrainian students have to reach during their Ukrainian language studies.

In practice, this means that the Ministry of Education in Kyiv expects native-like proficiency from school-leaving minority teenagers. This is impossible from linguistic, psychological and pedagogical points of view.

6 The homogenization: universal curricula, coursebooks and methods

The Ukrainian education policy homogenizes language learners. It approves universal curricula and coursebooks, even though the linguistic and language ecological situations of Ukrainian language acquisition are different for students living in cities in residential areas compared to those living in small villages. In the teaching of foreign languages it is normal to create small groups of beginners, advanced students, etc. and they proceed according to their level and are provided with teaching materials. In the case of state language teaching in Ukraine, decree No 461 issued by the Ministry of Education on 26 May 2008 permits small groups in the Ukrainian classes of the minority schools. The decree does not say anything about the principles according to which the groups should be divided or about supporting schools with regard to books and curricula for different language proficiency groups. The language proficiency level of students is not measured at all when students start school.

7 Demographic features

Ukrainian language acquisition is not facilitated by the fact that the language background of students is not considered either when they start school or during schooling. According to census data, Transcarpathian nationalities live in relatively compact settlement areas. Almost half of the Hungarians (46 %) live in settlements where they have a majority of 80 % and 62 % live in settlements where they make up the absolute majority (Molnár & Molnár, 2010). Most of the Romanians also live in a relatively homogeneous block close to the Ukrainian-Romanian border. Members of the majority nation (Ukrainians) dominate the area in terms of numbers where they are settled.

8 Language preferences

The Hungarian language is dominant in those settlements where Hungarians make up the majority. The main (or exclusive) language of families, the private sphere, publications and the media (TV, radio, the press) is Hungarian (see Csernicskó, 1998a, 2005, 2010).

In spite of all this, the prerequisite of those who plan Ukrainian language teaching is that all children starting school already have some level of Ukrainian language competence and it is assumed that they also have daily opportunities to practise Ukrainian outside school. This is true for some children, but for many this is not the case.

9 The deficiencies of language education in kindergartens

State language acquisition should be grounded in kindergartens. There is no central curriculum or syllabus for teaching the Ukrainian language in the Hungarian kindergartens. Kindergarten teachers are not trained to teach Ukrainian to kindergarten children through different activities.

Proper language training and preparation for Ukrainian language teaching is hindered by other factors in kindergartens. For example, in most of the Transcarpathian Hungarian kindergartens the groups are mixed: children from 2.5 to 6 years of age can be found in these groups, and the number of children in one group varies from 12 to 30. In almost every kindergarten there are two activities per week in the Ukrainian language, but due to the size of the groups it is difficult to organise intensive training sessions. In practice, it is impossible to make an activity plan for mixed-age groups that considers both the linguistic background and the age of the children.

10 Conclusions

According to international linguistic human rights experts (Skutnabb-Kangas, 1990; Phillipson, Rannut & Skutnabb-Kangas, 1994), the right to learn the state language is an essential right of every minority citizen. *The Hague Recommendations Regarding the Education Rights of National Minorities* clearly states that official state language acquisition is needed for the successful societal integration of minorities. If we accept the fact that everybody has a mother tongue and we acknowledge the right to learn (a) the mother tongue and (b) the state language as a school subject, then we have to realize that: in the case of Ukrainian students the *Ukrainian language* subject covers the right of (a) and (b), however in the case of minority students point (a) means the *mother tongue* and point (b) means the *Ukrainian language* subject. So, the workload of Ukrainian and non-Ukrainian students is different: while the Ukrainian student is relaxing, playing games or preparing for the university entrance exam, their minority peers are learning the state language. It is a big luxury to invest time, energy and money in the children's state language acquisition when, due to the present conditions and circumstances, they master it to the required level.

If a Transcarpathian Hungarian student learns the Ukrainian language as a subject for 11 years (from 1st form to the 11th) and they cannot speak it at the required level, then we can be sure that the educational system does not work in the right way. The solution is not to study in the majority language but to find those possibilities within the frame of the present minority language school system, that lead to good language proficiency and additive bilingualism.

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IMPACT OF MONOLINGUAL AND BILINGUAL ENVIRONMENT ON THE RECEPTIVE SKILLS AND LEARNING STRATEGIES OF YOUNG LEARNERS OF EFL IN TRANSCARPATHIAN HUNGARIAN SCHOOLS

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Abstract:
The aim of the research was to examine the receptive skills and the cognitive language learning strategies of 11 and 12 year-old language learners living in a monolingual (Hungarian dominant) and a bilingual (Hungarian-Ukrainian) environment. The learners from the second group belong to balanced bilinguals, while those from the first group use only their native language in everyday communication. To compare FL and native language skills a short test of reading comprehension was administered as literacy in the mother tongue is considered to be one of the main factors influencing FL reading skills. The results show that FL receptive skills of functional bilingual learners are better developed than those of the monolingual ones and they performed significantly better on more complex tasks. Bilinguals proved to use more cognitive strategies than monolinguals. From the examined strategies 11 strategies are used more frequently by bilingual learners, two strategies by monolingual learners and in two strategies no difference was found. Thus, the two groups in all areas examined show differences and learners from bilingual environment outscored their fellow-students living in a monolingual environment.
Keywords: learning strategies, receptive skills, monolingual and bilingual environment

1 Introduction

At the turn of the millennium almost half of the population of the Earth lives in a bilingual or multilingual environment and bilingualism is more and more widespread and natural. In other areas, however, the natural environment is still the monolingual one and members of such communities do not need in their everyday life more than one language to communicate. Due to its geographical position, historical events of the last centuries, and political decisions taken in the present, the area nowadays called Transcarpathia is populated by different nationalities living side by side; mono-, bi- as well as multilingual communities can be found in a relatively small area providing opportunity for research in a natural environment. Members of these communities strive to meet the demands of the changing times and realize the necessity of being able to communicate in at least one foreign language beside the languages spoken in the area. The ability to learn a FL is influenced by a number of cognitive, affective and social factors. Young learners exposed to more than one language and having contact with people of other nationalities from their early childhood find it natural to use two or more languages in everyday life. Can the language environment be considered as one of the social factors influencing foreign language learning?

2 Background to the study

Birdsong (1989) considers two variables - exposure to other languages and participation in meaning-oriented activities - to be effective in the development of children's metalinguistic skills and metalinguistic awareness. He describes metalinguistic skills as "a reflection of the growth of the two skill components involved in language processing - the analysis of linguistic knowledge into structured categories and the control of attentional procedures to select and process specific linguistic information" (Birdsong, 1989, p. 498). By metalinguistic awareness, Kassai (2001) understands the ability of a person to perform operations with a language. Bilingualism is considered to contribute to the development of linguistic control. However, results of research carried out during the last decades about bilingualism show its positive as well as negative effects. Some studies (Diaz & Klinger, 1991, Rabec, 2004, Lanstyák, 1998) claim that people living in bilingual communities are exposed to the danger of language loss and can speak none of the languages on the same level as monolingual speakers. Other studies prove that bilingual education can result in balanced bilingualism at an early age (Grafe-Bentnzien, 2002). The level of skills in the mother tongue to a certain extent determines foreign language skills. Learners with poor skills in the mother tongue will have poor FL skills but developed skills in the native language do not necessarily mean that FL skills will also be developed. Göncz considers that bilingualism can be a source of a number of cognitive, affective and social benefits if the social environment is additive" (Göncz, 2004).

3 The study

3.1 Aim of the research

The purpose of the present study is to investigate the impact of the language environment on young learners studying a foreign (third) language, i.e. to find out the role language environment or exposure to one or more than one language plays in the way young learners learn a third language. The languages concerned are genetically and typologically different and belong to the Finno-Ugrian, Slavonic and Germanic language families. The study focuses on the receptive FL skills, reading skills in Hungarian, aptitude for learning languages and cognitive language-learning strategies. The participants are young learners aged 11-12 studying in the 6th grade of Hungarian schools. The sample is divided according to the language environment the participants live in. The first group lives in a homogeneous Hungarian-dominant environment called monolingual while the second group lives in a heterogeneous (Hungarian-Ukrainian) or bilingual mostly second-language-dominant environment where Hungarians are a minority. On the bilingual continuum the first group is situated closer to the monolinguals and studies the second (state) language only as a school subject but is not exposed to it in everyday life. The second group studies the second language at school and in addition uses it in everyday life, so on the bilingual continuum they are situated closer to balanced bilinguals. In this group second language acquisition and second language learning are parallel processes. They belong to functional bilinguals who can use their second language in everyday situations. Taking into account the position of the two groups on the bilingual continuum they will be called hereinafter monolingual and bilingual learners.

The settlements have been chosen according to the percentage of the Hungarian population living there. The Hungarian-dominant monolingual villages with a high percentage of Hungarian population are: Tiszapéterfalva (Petrovo) – 96.1%; Szőlősgyula (Gyula) – 95.7%; Nevetlenfalu (Nevetlenfolu) – 85.8%; and Vári (Varievo) – 81.1%. The bilingual towns and villages are: Nagyszőlős (Vinohradiv) – 14.3%; Beregszász (Berehovo) – 49.1%; Beregrákos (Rakoshyno) – 45.5%; and Feketeardó (Chornotysiv) – 32.0% (Molnár & Molnár 2005).

3.2 Hypotheses

1. Learners living in a bilingual environment have more developed receptive skills and cognitive language-learning strategies than learners living in a monolingual environment.
2. Language learners living in a heterogeneous environment and having contact in their everyday life with more than one language learn foreign languages more easily.

3.3 Method

3.3.1 Participants

The average number of participants is about 120. The sample consisted of 57 male and 66 female students but as the three tests were too long to be administered within one day and on different days different students were absent this proportion might be slightly different. The number of bilingual and monolingual participants is approximately equal but for the same reason it is not exactly the same: the language aptitude test was written by 57 bilingual and 63 monolingual learners while the English test was written by an equal number of learners (60 -60). The participants were chosen from rural areas or provincial towns so that no other social factor except for the language environment would influence the results.

3.3.2 Instruments and procedures

The proficiency tests measuring the FL receptive skills were worked out at the request of the National Centre for Educational Assessment and Examinations (Országos Közoktatási Értékelési és Vizsgaközpont), Hungary (Nikolov, 2005). Due to the fact that the English curricula in Hungary and in Ukraine (both based on the CEF) are slightly different and the number of lessons per week is not equal, either, some simplifications to the reading test had to be made as some key words were not introduced by the Ukrainian curriculum till the end of grade six. To compare FL and native-language skills a short test of reading comprehension was administered as literacy in the mother tongue is considered to be one of the main factors influencing FL reading skills (Alderson, 2000; Cameron, 2001; McKay 2006). The test was compiled from texts available online at www.educatio.hu for grade 6. The language-aptitude test, INYÉT 6 (Nyelvelsajátítási Képesség Mérő Teszt), was designed for 12-year-old (grade 6) learners by Kiss (2005) on the basis of the language aptitude test (MENYÉT) worked out by Ottó (2002) which is considered to be the Hungarian version of MLAT. The questionnaire on cognitive language learning strategies is a 15-item questionnaire in Hungarian based on Oxford's SILL (Oxford, 1990) whose aim is to find out differences in the use of strategies by the two groups. A short cover questionnaire containing learner-related data and questions concerning language use was designed in order to find out whether the learners use their second language in everyday life or not and if so who they use it with in bilingual areas.

The data were collected between December 2009 and April 2010; the quantitative analysis was made in January and June 2010.

For the analysis of raw data Microsoft Excel 2002 was used. Descriptive statistics of the tests and the t-values were counted. The t-value and the means were counted separately for each task tested.The quartiles and means for overall strategy use for the two groups and means for individual strategy use were counted.

3.3 Results and discussion

3.3.1 Tests on FL receptive skills

The results of both tests show that FL receptive skills of functional bilingual learners are better developed than those of the monolingual ones. Table 1 shows the statistical data of the tests.

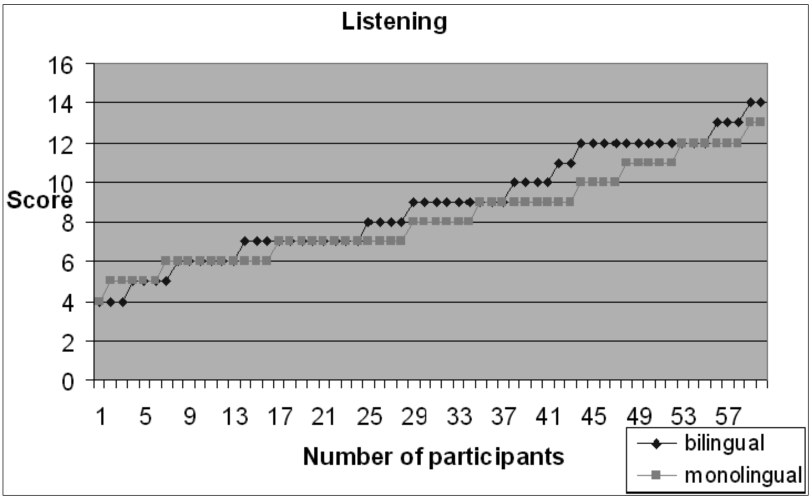
Table 1
Descriptive statistics of the tests on FL receptive skills (N=120)

	Reading (max. score:30)		Listening (max. score: 16)	
	Monolingual	Bilingual	Monolingual	Bilingual
Mean	16.5 (55%)	18.5 (62%)	8.25 (51.5%)	8.85 (55%)
Standard Deviation (SD)	6.4	6.8	1.98	2.36
Mode	8	20	7	12
Median	16	20	8	9
	p>0.05		p>0.05	
	t=0.150891(n.s.)		t=0.204514(n.s.)	

The data prove that the bilingual group performed better on both tests but the differences between the two groups are not significant. As the maximum score of the two tests was different the means calculated as percentages show that from the two skills learners have better results in reading. The modes show that the most frequently occurring scores were 20 and 12 in the bilingual groups while in the monolingual one these scores were much lower: 8 and 7. The SD is lower in the monolingual group.

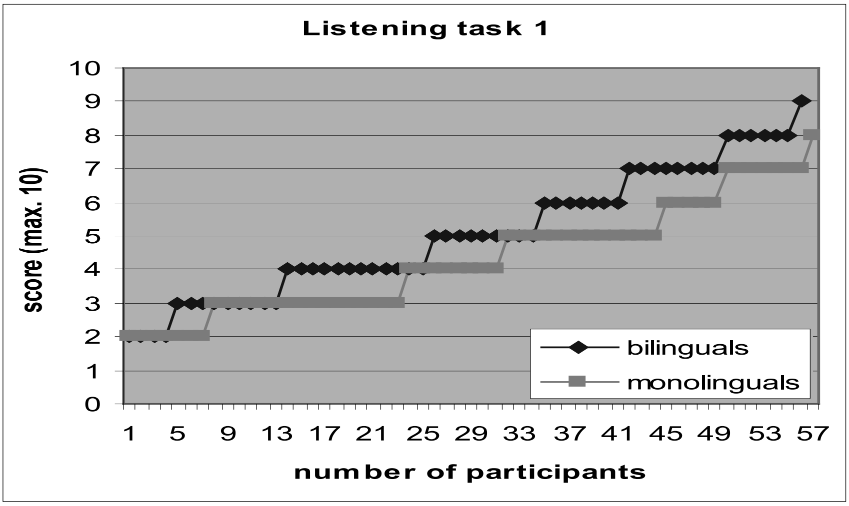
The result of the listening test of each participant is shown in Figure 1. We can see that the general tendency is that the scores in the bilingual group are somewhat higher.

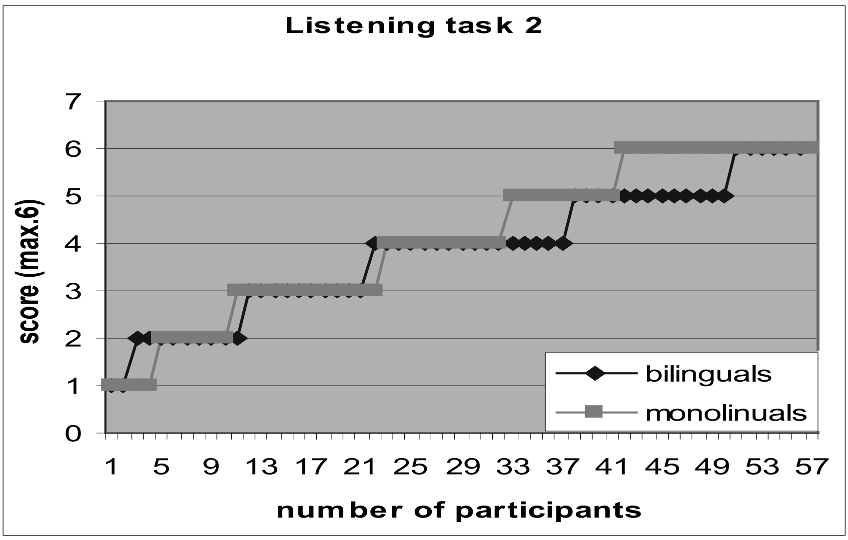
Figure 1
Results of the FL listening test (N=120)



By analyzing the results of each task we get more information. The figure (Figure 2) and the group statistics of the results of each task in the listening test provide us with an explanation as well as guidelines for further research. From the two tasks we can see that bilinguals performed significantly better on the first task (t=0.0138; mean: 5.05 – bilinguals; 4.25 - monolinguals). This has to do with the task type and the complexity of the task. The second task was based on monologues supported by pictures, so reading was not required at all. It was relatively easy to find the right answer by understanding some key words and matching them to the pictures. In learning and assessing knowledge in FL pictures play a great role as besides connecting new knowledge to the concept already existing in the mind (Poór, 2001) they also help to retrieve information quickly from the mind. The second task was more complex as it was based on a dialogue and learners had to identify the place where the dialogue took place or understand what the speakers agreed about. Learners had to understand the whole situation and activate their schematic knowledge. It required more background knowledge. No pictures were provided; the task was connected with reading on a phrase level.

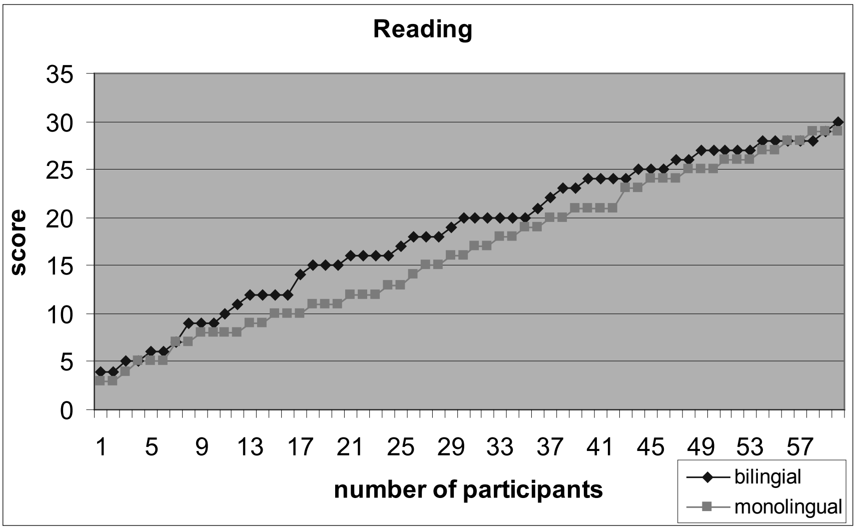
Figure 2
Results of the tasks on the listening test (N=120)





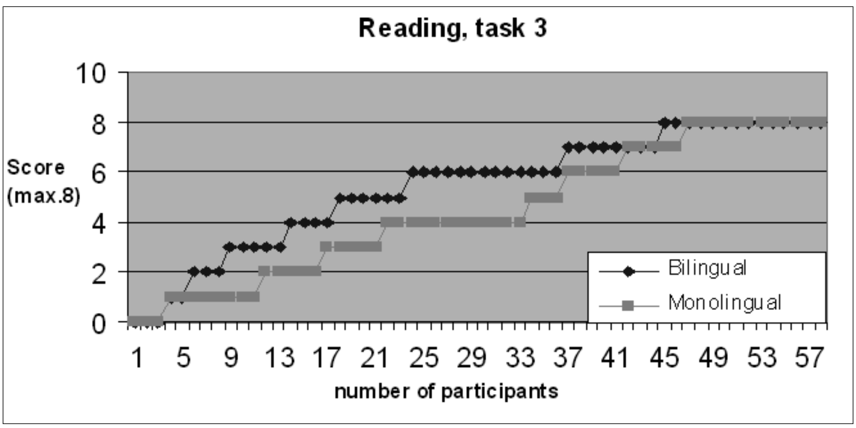
On the reading test the difference between the two groups is bigger than on the listening test but it is not significant in either test.

Figure 3
Results of the FL reading test (N=120)



Significant difference was found in the results of the third and fourth tasks of the reading test: t= 0.045409.

Figure 4
Results of the tasks on the listening test (N=120)



The reason is that the first two tasks could be done on a word and phrase level where words had to be matched with their definitions (task 1) and signs with the places where they can be found (task 2). The third and the fourth tasks were on a sentence (task 3) and text (task 4) level: matching questions with the right answers. Taking Wallace`s (1992) model of reading for the basis (we see a significant difference between the two groups on the third level: understanding the meaning by connecting linguistic elements and lexical meaning. On the first two levels (decoding and understanding the meaning of words) the difference is not significant. So, we see the same tendency as in the listening skills: bilingual learners perform significantly better on more complex tasks requiring better developed linguistic and cognitive skills.

3.3.2. Cognitive language learning strategies

The questionnaires on language-learning strategies were filled in by 114 learners: 62 monolingual and 52 bilingual. In case no sign (X or √) was put against a strategy the learner was given a score of 0, in other cases they received scores between 1 and 5 depending on the answer: 1 for 'never or always never true of me'; 2 -'usually not true of me'; 3 -'somewhat true of me'; 4 – 'usually true of me'; and 5 - 'always or almost always true of me'. The results are shown in Figure 5 and in Table 2.

Figure 5
Means of cognitive strategies used by monolingual and bilingual learners (N=120)

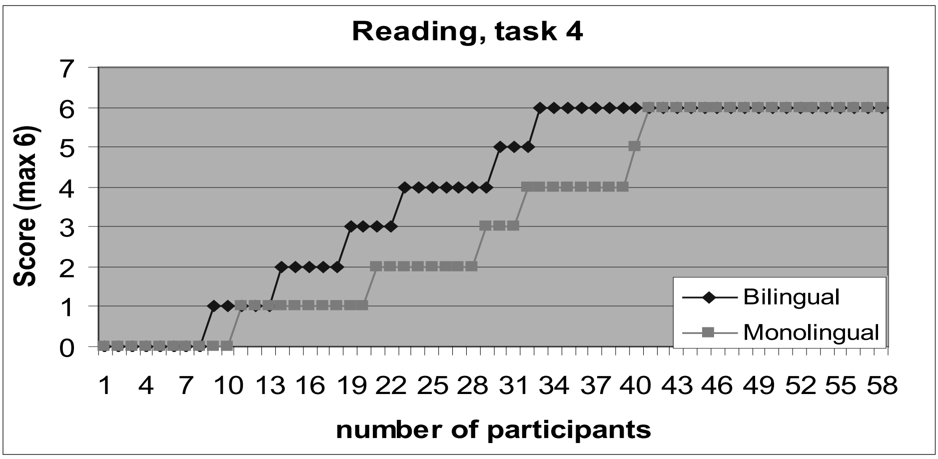


Figure 5 shows that in almost all strategies except for strategies nos. 2 &13 the mean is higher in the bilingual group or it is the same for both groups (strategies number 4 & 8).

Table 2.
Quartiles and means of overall and individual strategy use (N=114)

	Monolingual		**Bilingual**	
Lowest mean	0.73		**1.6**	
Highest mean	4.46		**4.86**	
Means between:	N	%	N	%
1-3	47	**76**	33	64
3.1-5	15	24	19	**36**
Q1	2.55		2.67	
Q2 or median	2.83		3.01	
Q3	3.04		3.24	

From Table 2 we can see that bilinguals use more cognitive strategies than monolinguals. The means for individual strategy use showing the lowest and the highest means in the monolingual group are lower than in the bilingual group. The number of strategies used by 76% of the monolinguals is between one and three while only 64% of the bilinguals use three or fewer strategies. 36% of the bilinguals and 24% of monolinguals use more than three cognitive strategies. One quarter of the lowest scores of the cases can be found below 2.55 in the monolingual group and below 2.67 in the bilingual group while one quarter of the highest scores is above 3.04 in the first and 3.24 in the second group. The median is also higher in the case of bilinguals. The difference is not significant ($t= 0.313$, $p>0.05$).

The strategy that bilinguals use much more frequently than monolinguals is str. no 15: “I try to find patterns in English, not only single words”. The difference is not significant ($t=0.152$). Further differences in the strategy use were found in strategies no. 1 (‘I say new English words several times’), 3 (‘I try to talk like native English speakers’), 5 (‘I use the English words I know in different ways’), 6 (‘I start conversations in English’), 7 (‘I watch English TV channels’), 9 (‘I write notes, messages or letters in English’), 10 (‘I first skim the English passage then go back and read carefully’), 11 (‘I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English’), 12 (‘I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand’), and 14 (‘I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English’). Bilinguals use these strategies more frequently than monolinguals. Two strategies are used more often by monolinguals: no. 2 (‘I write new English words several times’) and no. 13 (‘I try not to translate word for word’). Both groups have the same mean in two strategies: no. 4 (‘I practice the sounds of English’ – mean: 2.8) and no. 8 (‘I read for pleasure in English’ – mean: 2.3). Thus, 11 strategies are used more frequently by bilingual learners, two strategies by monolingual learners and in two strategies no difference was found.

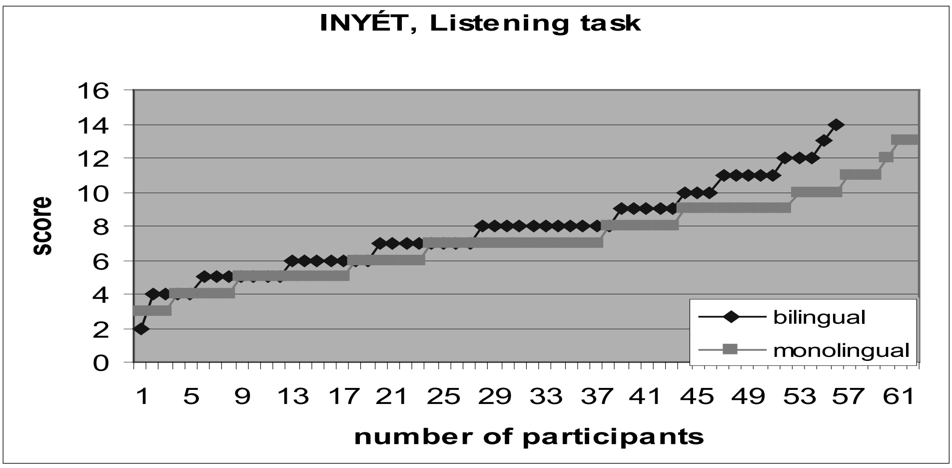
3.3.3. Language aptitude test for young learners (INYÉT)
The descriptive statistics of the test show that on this test the monolingual group performed better. The mode and the median are the same for both groups: 31 and 29.

Table 3.
Descriptive statistics of the LAT

	Monolingual	**Bilingual**
Mean	**29.4**	27.4
SD	4.95	5.97
t=	0.407	

Having analyzed the results task by task we see that on the first task the bilingual group has higher scores (mean: 7.6, SD: 2.1, mode and median: 8) than the monolingual one (mean: 7.1, SD: 1.9, mode and median: 7). It measured the listening skills of the learners. Figure 6 shows the difference in scores, which is not significant.

Figure 6
Listening task results



Based on the result we can state that the second hypothesis was partly refuted as the bilinguals did not learn a new language more easily than the monolinguals though their listening skills proved to be better developed.

3.3.4 Test of the reading skills in the mother tongue
Bilinguals performed better on this test with a mean 8.4 (max score: 14), against monolinguals' 7.5 showing the same tendency as the reading test in FL.

4 Summary and conclusions

The first hypothesis was confirmed as the receptive skills of the bilinguals proved to be better developed. Significant differences were found in three cases: listening task 1 and reading tasks 2 and 3. The results of the listening task of the LAT also support this hypothesis. We can conclude that on more complex tasks requiring higher-level cognitive and linguistic skills bilinguals perform significantly better. They also use more cognitive language learning strategies. Hypothesis 2 was refuted as bilinguals did not learn a new language more quickly.

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LANGUAGE SITUATION IN UKRAINE AND POSSIBILITIES OF TEACHING THE TRANSCARPATHIAN GEOGRAPHICAL HERITAGE THROUGH ENGLISH

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Abstract:
The abundance and richness of the local Transcarpathian geographical heritage is unquestionable, in terms of natural and social science as well. Natural conditions and resources of the region play a crucial part in the quality of life of the local society and are very important from the point of view of the growing tourist industry, one of the potential leading branches of the county's economy. That makes substantial to properly teach about this heritage in English (as presently the most popular foreign language in the region) to the local, mainly Hungarian-speaking teenagers. Though, to fulfill this task is not easy, among others owing to the sometimes inappropriate traditional Soviet and partly post-Soviet approach to foreign language teaching, which is not always based on functionality and usability. We believe that teaching correct geographical technical language will serve as a step on the way of reforming this outdated approach in general.
Keywords: Transcarpathia, geographical heritage, lingua-ethnic groups, non-native language, cultural focus

1 What Is Geographical Heritage?

According to the United Nations Group of Experts on Geographical Names, the geographical heritage of a nation or a certain region is made up of the specific cultural background and the totality of the local geographical objects, processes and names which are all serious means of cohesion within the definite ethnic group or territory. This heritage is always the legacy of the past and the entirety of what is transferred to the following generations, thus being a tool of upbringing them in nation-conscious and patriotic way. It means that culture and heritage are both very important aspects of one's ethno-cultural identity. In turn, the geographical names are a source of inspiration for local, regional and national conscience of different ethnic groups.

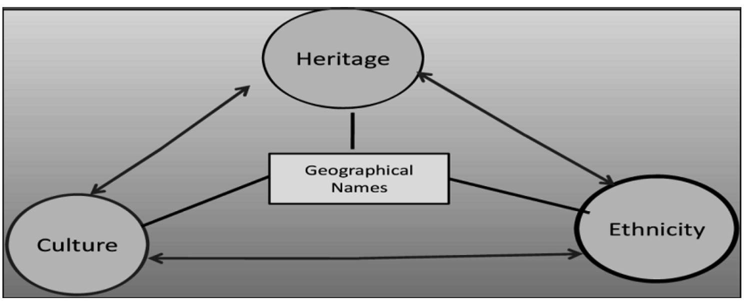

Figure 1.
Relation between the heritage, culture, ethnicity and geographical names
Source: United Nations Group of Experts on Geographical Names, Working Paper No. 29, 2011

2 Ethnic and Linguistic Diversity in Ukraine

Some experts consider that Ukraine's population is made up of 3 lingua-ethnic groups (Arel & Khmelko, 1996; Khmelko, 2004):

– Ukrainian speaking Ukrainians (about 40–45% of the country's population);

– Russian speaking Ukrainians (about 30–34% of the country's population);

– Russian speaking Russians (about 20%).

However, according to the 2001 national census (which focused not only on Ukrainian and Russian speakers, but also on other smaller linguistic groups) the population of Ukraine can be divided into the following groups on the basis of people's native language (see Figure 2):

a) people who speak Ukrainian as their native language, including:

– Ukrainians (by nationality) whose native language is Ukrainian (85% of those who claimed to be Ukrainians);

– Russians whose native language is Ukrainian (4% of those who claimed to be Russians);

– national minorities whose native language is Ukrainian (e.g. 71% of the Poles and 42% of the Slovaks who live in Ukraine);

b) people who speak Russian as their native language, including:

– Russians whose native language is Russian (96% of those who claimed to be Russians);

– Ukrainians whose native language is Russian (15% of those who claimed to be Ukrainians);

– national minorities whose native language is Russian (e.g. 62% of the Byelorussians);

c) national minorities whose ethnicity and native language coincide (e.g. 95% of the Hungarians, 92% of the Romanians);

d) national minorities who speak the native language of another minority group; e.g. 62% of the Romas in Transcarpathia consider Hungarian to be their native language, this group constituting 18% of all Romas in Ukraine (Braun, Csernicskó & Molnár, 2010).

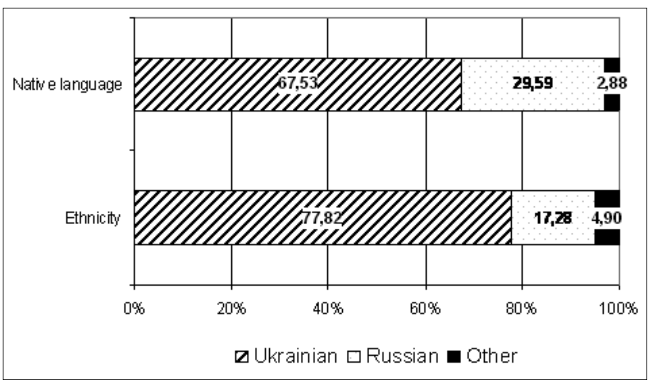

Figure 2.
The coincidence of the native language and ethnicity in Ukraine (%)
Source: Braun, Csernicskó, & Molnár, 2010

On the base of the above division and the examination of the census data shown in Figure 2, we can state the following:

– the ratio of people whose ethnicity is Ukrainian is higher than the ratio of people who speak Ukrainian language;

– the ratio of people who speak Russian is higher than the ratio of people who has Russian ethnicity;

– the Linguistic variety is not so vivid than the ethnic variety, because a lot of minority groups have begun to speak Russian or (less frequently) Ukrainian.

Near half of the country's population use the Russian language in everyday practice (Besters-Dilger, 2009), 30% of them having Ukrainian as their mother tongue (Mayboroda, Shulha, Gorbatenko, Azhniuk, Nagorna *et al.*, 2008).

Based on sociolinguistic research (Zalizniak & Masenko, 2001) it is also evident, that both Ukrainian and Russian languages are widely used in Ukraine. A significant part of the society uses both languages every day (Alekseev, 2008).

On the other hand, it is commonly thought that the census results over-simplify the real linguistic landscape of the country. If we take into account not only the census data, but also the data of a sociolinguistic survey based on a national representative sample, the language make-up of the population will show a very different picture. The sociolinguistic research took place between 1991 and 2003 and examined continuously the usage of languages among the adult population of Ukraine, based on a representative sample from approximately 173 thousand interviews, which were conducted to yield comparable data (Khmelko, 2004). This study revealed, that from the point of view of ethnicity and native language, we can find different language situations in the different regions of Ukraine. In the five large regions, identified by the author the percentage of those who speak Ukrainian or Russian as their native language, or use a contact variety of the two languages (the so called "surzhyk") is very high (see Figure 3).

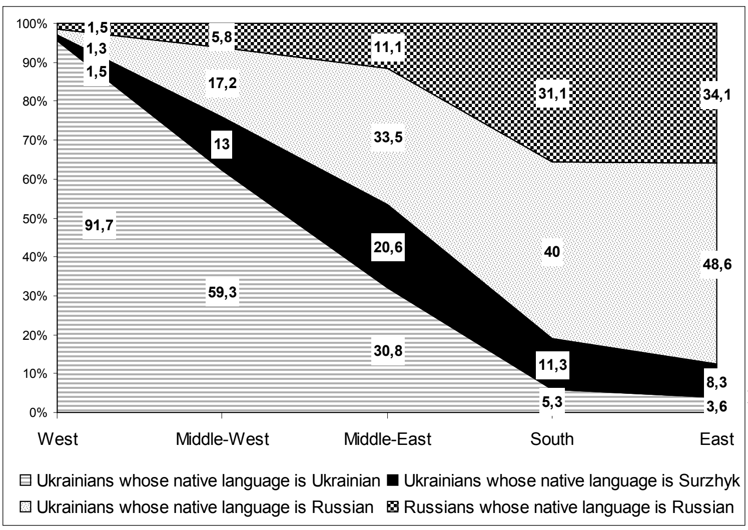

Figure 3. The distribution of the adult population of Ukraine according to their ethnicity and native language in different regions in 2003 (%)

Source: Khmelko, 2004

"Surzhyk" (Ukr.: «*суржик*», originally meaning 'flour or bread made from mixed grains', e.g., wheat with rye) is currently the mixed language or sociolect. It is a mixture of Ukrainian substratum with Russian superstratum.

Basically there are two visions of language policy in the country:

a) Ukraine could have only one official and state language, the Ukrainian; the positions of the Ukrainian language are threatened by the Russian;

b) Russian language should get the status of state language (or at least the status of official language).

Behind the two language policy conceptions we can find almost the same extent of political and social power. So, from linguistic and political points of view the country has been torn into two parts.

On the basis of this it is evident, that Ukrainian language policy almost exclusively focuses on the Ukrainian–Russian dimension of jockeying for ethnic, linguistic, social and economic positions. The problems of other minorities appear in public discussion only shallowly. The linguistic question has become so strongly politicized, that it makes impossible to adopt the new version of the out-of-date minority and language law, and to carry out the expert and conformable settling of the situation of ethnic and linguistic minorities.

The Ukrainian political elite is interested in maintaining the social order by preserving the linguistic status quo (Fodor & Csernicskó, 2013).

3 Ethnic and linguistic otherness in Transcarpathia

The population of the Transcarpathian region is made up of the representatives of more than 100 nationalities, though only the ratio of 8 of them reaches as high as 0.1 per cent of the total population. Nevertheless, the region is characterised by a great ethnic and linguistic variety (see Figure 4). In the conflict between Russian and Ukrainian the Hungarians and other minor nationalities do not wish to take any side, instead English is becoming much more popular for them. In these circumstances teaching proper English (also technical) is a crucial task of (public) education.

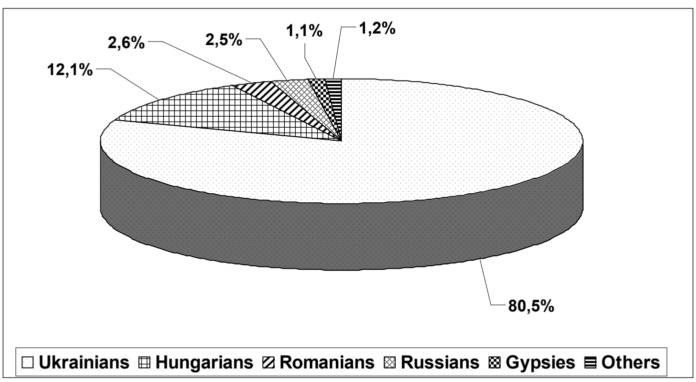

Figure 4.
Ethnic structure of the population of Transcarpathia
Source: Census data, 2001

4 Teaching About the Local Geographical Heritage in English

The old-school Soviet and early post-Soviet approaches to foreign language teaching and teaching the geographical names and heritage in particular were not always based on usability and functionality. Instead, they have contained a huge share of political and (Soviet) patriotic training which was not too attractive and motivating for the pupils, especially for the representatives of national minorities. As a result, the level and efficiency of English teaching both in Ukrainian language and national minority schools of the country were not high enough in comparison with the standards of other post-Socialist states.

Being aware of that we suggest to start using new methods of English teaching instead of those old-fashioned approaches. As one of the appropriate methods, the so called CLIL approach can serve to reach our goal. The abbreviation stands for Content and Language Integrated Learning. That means, it is an approach of teaching the contents of curricular subjects by means of a non-native language. By this learners will acquire knowledge and understanding of the subject while simultaneously learning and using the target language.

The most important word in CLIL is 'content', as the language learning is determined by the curricular content. Learning about geography involves developing knowledge and understanding of where the learners live, of other people and places, of how people and places are interrelated, of physical and human environments, of causes and consequences of geographical processes, etc. (Teaching Geography Through English, 2011)

By this approach learners are expected to build up the ability of proper asking and answering geographical questions. Therefore, teachers have to know the specific academic language that learners need in order to question and explain, to analyse and make conclusions. Teachers have to present the language of geography, the key grammatical patterns and the key content vocabulary. By this learners will be able to effectively communicate their knowledge of geographical issues.

According to Coyle, the CLIL approach contains four questions (the 4 C's):

1) content: what is the geography topic? (e. g. rivers, natural resources, population, economy);
2) communication: what geography language will learners communicate during the lesson? (e. g. the language of cause and effect to talk about the connection between overgrazing and desertification);
3) cognition: which thinking skills are demanded of the learners in geography lessons? (e. g. identifying locations, comparing maps, giving reasons for changes in the environment);
4) culture: is there a cultural focus in the lesson? (e. g. similarities and differences between people and places) (Coyle, 1999).

CLIL learners need to develop an academic geography register. They also need to know both content-obligatory and content-compatible languages (Snow, Met & Genesee, 1992). The first one means the subject-specific vocabulary, grammatical structures and functional expressions learners need to learn about a curricular subject, to communicate the appropriate knowledge and to take part in interactive classroom tasks. The second is the non-subject specific language which learners may have learned in their English classes. They can use it to communicate more fully about the curricular subject (Teaching Geography Through English, 2011).

For example, when learning about the rivers of Transcarpathia (the Tisa, the Uzh, the Latorytsia, the Borzhava etc.) teachers could identify the following language and vocabulary contents (see Table 1), though they do not need to technically define the two language types. In general, content-obligatory language is described as subject-specific or specialist language.

Content-obligatory language	**Content-compatible language**
source ↔ mouth	small ↔ large, short ↔ long
delta	the start of a river
estuary	the sides of a river
meander	rain
tributary	water
(explaining geographical processes): It is the process of dropping sediment.	*(defining):* It is the place, where river Tisa starts.

Table 1
Types of geographical vocabulary connected with the rivers
(Source: Teaching Geography Through English, 2011)

There are several peculiarities teachers have to take into consideration when planning a geography lesson by the CLIL approach:

a) activating prior knowledge: at the beginning of the lesson it is helpful to find out what learners already know about the given geographical topic. They may know much about it in their native tongue, but may have difficulties to express all that in English. That's why it can be useful to let the learners use their native language during the introduction of the new topic (brainstorming phase) and then translate the issues into English;

b) the input and the output: the input is the totality of the information that is being presented during the lesson. Teachers need to decide whether it will be delivered in oral, written or electronic form, drawing in the whole class or by the method of group (pair) work etc. The output means, how are learners going to produce and communicate the content and vocabulary of the lesson (orally, in written form or by using practical skills etc.) Teachers are also to determine, at what output level can the lesson be considered as successful;

c) waiting time: it means the time teachers should wait between asking questions and learners answering them. When geography is taught on a non-native language this time needs to be longer than usual so that all students are encouraged to take part in classroom interaction;

d) collaborative tasks: these kinds of tasks involve learners in producing key subject-specific vocabulary and structures in pair or group work activities (tasks at word level, information gaps, making conversations about local rivers, presenting and describing the main geographical features of them etc.);

e) cognitive challenge: this means supporting learners to develop their thinking skills in English, i. e. to communicate not only the functional everyday language but the cognitive, academic language of geography too. Thus it is very important to provide the students with content and language supporting strategies. E.g., writing a substitution table on the board to support skills of explaining cause and effect (see Table 2). Teachers have to arrange these types of activities targeting the maximum level of effectiveness, as learners usually vary in the amount of support they need and also in the length of time the support is needed. All the more, learners might need more support and for longer period of time in one subject than in another;

f) developing thinking skills: thinking skills are divided into two groups – lower order thinking skills and higher order thinking skills. The former ones give a hand in answering the *what, when, where* and *which* questions, while by the help of the latter ones learners can answer the *why* and *how* questions. In CLIL issues students often need to use higher order thinking skills at early stages of learning curricular content.

The cause of	the erosion	is that river water wears away	the rocks.
Erosion is	caused by the water wearing away		the rocks. the sides of the valley.

Table 2
Example of tasks for explaining cause and effect
(Source: Teaching Geography Through English, 2011)

It is believed that introducing new approaches to foreign language teaching (like CLIL and others) and proper usage of them will result in higher level of efficiency, functionality and learners' knowledge of technical English and English language in general. The training of future English teachers in Ukraine and Transcarpathia should (also) focus on including these methods and strategies in the relevant curricula.

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WHAT IS A GOOD ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHER? (Summary)

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What is a good English teacher? The presentation focused on the traits or qualities of "good" English language teachers. When we consider "good" teaching, there are four areas to consider: affective characteristics, skills, classroom management, and academic knowledge. A survey of the literature identified 10 major traits commonly associated with "good" language teaching.

A Good Language Teacher is:

1. Contagiously Enthusiastic
2. Creative
3. Has a Good Sense of Humor
4. Challenges Students
5. Encouraging and Patient
6. Takes a Personal Interest in the Lives of Students
7. An Expert in the Subject
8. Takes Time to Answer Questions Outside of Class
9. Treats all Students Equally
10. Understands that teaching is about students not teachers

How can we "know" that we are good teachers and how can we continue to "grow" as teachers? Basically we can collect data from three main sources: self-reflection, peer-feedback and student feedback. How can you be a reflective teacher? Keep a journal to include reflections on your teaching that include entries like, "what works, what didn't, how do you feel, etc." Many teachers keep portfolios. What kind of things do you keep in them? Successful (and not successful) lesson plans, samples of student work, photos, videos, internet resources, your many certificates, etc. On the most basic level we should always reflect when we plan our lessons. A good lesson planning checklist can include the following prompts:

1. I plan my lessons in detail.
2. Goals and Objectives are clearly defined.
3. Students understand the goals and objectives of the lesson.
4. Instructional plans meet the needs of diverse learners.
5. A warm-up lesson is used at the start of class.
6. There is a variety of techniques/activities in each lesson.
7. Activities are of an appropriate length (10-15 minutes).

8. Lessons contain a mixture of new and familiar materials.
9. Several skills are worked on in each lesson.
10. Culture is included in the lesson.
11. An overview is given at the start of the lesson.
12. An overview is given for each activity.
13. Flexibility is built in to anticipate potential problems
14. Assessment opportunities are diverse and defined.

It is good to identify a lesson planning template (or design one of your own) that takes into account these items that you can share with other teachers, keep them in your portfolio, and show them to your supervisor and parents.

Another tool that is useful for reflection is Dörnyei an Csizér's (1998) ten commandments for motivating language learners.

1. Make the language classes interesting by selecting varied and engaging topics, materials and activities.
2. Have humor, fun, and games in class.
3. Create a pleasant and fun atmosphere.
4. Promote learner autonomy by allowing freedom in the classroom and sharing as much responsibility with the learners as you can.
5. Make the course relevant by doing a needs analysis and adjusting the syllabus accordingly.
6. Set a personal example in being motivated and committed yourself.
7. Develop the learners' confidence by encouraging them, giving them positive feedback, and making sure they regularly have a feeling of success.
8. Make the foreign language "real" by introducing its culture, using authentic materials, inviting native speakers, and arranging native speaker interactions with your students.
9. Develop a good and trustful relationship with the learners.
10. Emphasize the usefulness of the knowledge of the foreign language.

Self-reflection is an important tool but if we are serious about "knowing" and "growing" as teachers we also need information from other sources. As mentioned previously, peer-feedback is another good source of data. You and your colleagues might put together your own observation checklists similar to the one below used to monitor Speaking classes. It should be remembered these are tools for growth and not criticism. Ideally, classes should be videotaped so teachers under observation can sit down with the observer and discuss what was going on in the lesson.

1. Directions are clear and include examples where appropriate.
2. Students do the talking during the class period.
3. In oral activities, students move from rote responses toward communication.
4. Oral activities include choral, small-group, pair work, and individual responses.

5. Small-group activities are included in the lesson.
6. Visuals are used effectively.
7. The target language throughout the class period.
8. Students use the target language during class.
9. The materials and activities are personalized to the needs of the students.
10. There are learning checks for every activity.

Another checklist used to look at what is going on "Affectively" in the classroom follows below.

1. Rewards are varied and appropriate.
2. Errors are corrected without embarrassment to students.
3. Students are encouraged to self-correct.
4. There is a student-to-student interaction.
5. Students are active during the class period.
6. All students are called on during the period.

These are good tools that can serve as a starting point in developing a system to gather peer-feedback.

Probably the most important data to give us information to "know" we are good teachers and help us to continue to "grow" comes from our students. The questionnaire that follows can be a useful tool to collect data from students. The questionnaire works best accompanied by a five point Likert scale.

1. The teacher seems interested in teaching the class.
2. The teacher is courteous, considerate and friendly.
3. The teacher encourages the students to express their thoughts and feelings.
4. The teacher wants the student to do well in English.
5. The teacher pays attention to everyone in class.
6. The teacher gets the subject across in a lively and interesting way. The teacher has a good sense of humor.
7. The teacher repeats the material the students don't understand.
8. The teacher helps students to correct errors without embarrassing them.
9. The teacher takes time and is willing to help students individually.
10. The teacher has a good knowledge of English and culture.
11. The teacher has a good relationship with students.
12. Each class is well planned and organized.
13. Each class has a variety of activities.
14. The teacher teaches from materials other than the textbook.
15. The teacher speaks English in a way students can understand.
16. The directions and expectations are clear.
17. Homework assignments are worthwhile and help students learn.
18. The amount of work required for the class is appropriate.
19. The students know and understand how they are graded.

20. The teacher is fair in grading students.
21. The teacher returns tests, quizzes, and homework promptly.
22. What did you like best about the class? Least?
23. What could the teacher do to improve the class?
24. What could YOU and other students do

In conclusion, this presentation offered some practical tips to keep teachers on the right path in order to continue to "Know and Grow" as a teacher through reflection and feedback from colleagues and students.

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THE HOW AND WHY OF MINORITY LEARNERS' LANGUAGE MOTIVATION

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Abstract:
The present paper discusses underlying dimensions in the motivational self system of language learners. Self-system and specifically the role of self in language learning has become one of the central topics in the field of motivation since Dörnyei's (2005) Motivational Self System theory has been published. It embraces language motivation with the help of three dimensions. Out of them two are situated at the level of the individual whereas the third one offers a platform for the inclusion of all elements present in the learning environment. Both individual-related dimensions were found to be present in the motivation construct of the examined school-leavers studying Ukrainian and English. As far as language motivation is concerned this finding might reveal the consistency of the core elements of the construct in various contexts. The study explores how some of these elements, namely the ideal and ought selves, attitude and significant others, are embedded in the motivational self system of language minority learners. It also tries to provide some clues for navigation among the complex correlations of these variables in a special ethnic context in the developing country of Ukraine. Finally, practical implications of the research findings for language teachers are also included.
Keywords: motivation, minority learners, Ukraine, English, self-system

1 Background to the research

Interestingly enough, the geographical location named Transcarpathia and Subcarpathia basically refer to the same region in Ukraine. It represents how the region is viewed from the eastern and the western perspective. Transcarpathia is a name derived from the point of view of Ukraine, Russia and other eastern countries as an area that is beyond the Carpathian mountains whereas, the origin of the word Subcarpathia is supposed to show the western perspective by claiming that it is a territory beneath the named mountain range. This clash in viewpoints well demonstrates the Subcarpathian region's location at the border of East and West.

According to its geographical location the region borders three countries, namely, Slovakia, Hungary and Romania, all of them being members of the European Union since 2003, 2004 and 2007 respectively. Besides, there is a dominant Hungarian minority group living on both sides of those borderlines. In 2001 the national census reported 151,500 Hungarians in the region (Molnár & Molnár, 2005). They form a rather cohesive indigenous minority group living in the southern and north-western part of the region that is along the actual borderline.

There are altogether 102 schools and a college that belong to the Hungarian group (Csernicskó & Orosz, 1999). All schools where Hungarian is the medium of instruction have obligatory Ukrainian language and literature classes for students since the 1990 and 1991 academic year (Csernicskó, 1998). The number of classes per week ranges between four and nine. On the other hand, English is the only foreign language offered in the overwhelming majority of the schools. In spite of the global importance of the language learners have altogether two to four classes a week. Both languages are taught in schools and at college and are considered to be obligatory subjects throughout the academic years.

English and Ukrainian are two languages that have hardly anything in common. They have a different status whereas one is the official state language and the other remains to be a language mainly used within the constraints of the instructional environment in the country. In terms of language teaching, mastering the state language is heavily promoted and demanded by the state despite the huge hiatus in appropriate and well-designed educational resources prepared for non-native speakers of Ukrainian (e.g.: dictionaries, course books, work books, etc.). Teaching English on the other hand, due to its global nature has a strongly developed methodology and offers free access to a huge variety of educational materials online.

The existing differences between the two languages at the same time offered an opportunity to explore the reasons why language learners still extend effort to learn them. Thus, the main aim of the research was to find out the common variables in two language motivation constructs and interpret their role in the given education context. To serve this aim the following research question was formulated:

What do the common elements in the English and Ukrainian motivational self systems among Hungarian minority learners in Subcarpathia represent?

After the research focus had been finalized, a motivation questionnaire was developed and distributed among ethnic Hungarian school-leavers studying in the region. The quantitative data gained were analyzed with the help of various statistical procedures. Besides, within a small-scale interview study conducted with educational specialists the findings were further discussed from which new interpretations emerged.

2 Literature review

Approaching motivation from the self perspective provides a focused way of looking at language motivation placing the individual self and his/her identity in the centre of the investigation. It also lets the social and environmental factors shape personal motives and the self. Besides, a self-driven approach also allows space for the dynamic interplay between the learner and his/her environment. Identity, personal motivation, and the influence of the environment are of central importance if talking about minority members. These variables were taken into consideration when the Motivational Self System theory was selected as the theoretical guideline for the present study.

The Self System theory (Dörnyei, 2005) has been applied in quite a few research studies in the recent half decade. Dörnyei and Ushioda (2009) compiled a number of studies in their recently published book that contain both quantitative (Csizér & Kormos, 2009; Ryan, 2009; Taguchi *et al.*, 2009) and qualitative studies (Kim, 2009) and found it to be a valid framework that can assist in interpreting data gathered in various foreign language learning contexts, including Japan, Korea, Iran, and Hungary. Furthermore, some of the studies experimenting with this theory used the same research instrument (Ryan, 2005) to gather data (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005a, 2005b) and thus established the reliability of this current motivation theory.

According to Dörnyei the model incorporates two main psychological constructs, namely, the idea of possible selves offered by Markus and Nurius (1986) and Higgins' (1987) self-discrepancy theory. Higgins claims that there is a discrepancy between our actual self and future possible self and in turn motivation is the power that helps to reduce the discrepancy between the two selves. Applying the self-discrepancy theory to create possible ideal selves bearing language learning reference, Dörnyei created two self dimensions, i.e. the Ideal Second Language (L2) Self and the Ought-to L2 Self.

The Ideal L2 Self comprises the vision the language learner has of him/herself as a successful user of the language. It includes all ambitions, plans and desires that knowing that certain language might give. To some extent the notion has grown out from integrativeness a concept mainly linked to Gardner's (1985) socio-psychological theory but was relabelled in order to "explain the motivational set-up in diverse learning contexts, even if they offer little or no contact with L2 speakers" (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2005, p. 30). All the empirical studies included in the volume compiled by Dörnyei and Ushioda (2009) confirm the presence and significance of the ideal self in explaining language motivation.

Apart from being a significant dimension in motivation constructs the ideal self was proved to have strong relations with attitudes and instrumental motives, too. Csizér and Dörnyei (2005) argue that they are two complementary aspects of the ideal self that show "its general agreeableness and its achievement related effectiveness/competence" (p. 30). English language motivation of university students in Japan (Ryan, 2009) and in Chile (Kormos, *et al.*, 2011) also shows a significant relation between attitudes and the ideal self. In her interview study with two Korean students of English, Kim (2009) concluded that career-related purposes can also be attached to the concept of the Ideal L2 Self. Thus, this powerful dimension involves achievement-related features in addition to having strong ties with attitudes and internalized instrumental reasons.

Attitude has strong ties with other variables too. For instance, attitude towards learning English and perceived importance of contact with English speakers were two latent dimensions underlying language motivation of 232 Hungarian learners exhibiting the highest levels of inter-ethnic contact (Csizér & Kormos, 2008). Thus, having regular contact experiences with members of other ethnic communities affects attitude that in turn forms part in learners' motivation construct. Ndura (2004) emphasized that "the content of instructional materials significantly affects students' attitudes and dispositions towards themselves, other people and society" (p. 143). Thus, attitude towards the language course, towards language learning in general and towards content materials of the course might all be considered as aspects of the attitude component that in the above-described studies significantly contributed to language motivation.

Compared to the strength of the Ideal L2 Self, its counterpart, the Ought-to L2 Self in Dörnyei's theory has received only partial or weak support as a significant element in motivational constructs. According to Higgins (1987) the ought-to self is the "representation of the attributes that someone believes one ought-to possess. The distance between the actual and the ought-to self in this case is a type of discrepancy when "the current state of his or her [i.e. one's] actual attributes, from the person's own standpoint, does not match the state that, the person believes some significant other person considers to be his or her duty or obligation to attain" (p. 323). The ought-to self is then activated to reduce this discrepancy between one's actual state and a desired end-state to meet the perceived or real expectations of others.

This dimension represents "the more extrinsic (i.e. less internalised) types of instrumental motives" (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 29). Dörnyei, *et al.* (2006) in their book reporting on the results of nationwide surveys concluded that "depending on the extent of internalisation of the extrinsic motives that make up instrumentality, the instrumentality can be either the ideal L2 self or the ought-to L2 self" (p. 93). Kim (2009) arrives at a similar conclusion by claiming that it is the degree of internalisation of the global English discourse which can possibly distinguish between the ideal and ought selves. Thus, the ought-to self is the factor that Kyriacou and Benmansour (1997) called 'short-term instrumental motivation' because of its focus on short-term goals, e.g. getting good grades.

The third dimension in the tripartite model refers to the "immediate learning environment and experience" (Dörnyei 2005, p. 29). Csizér and Kormos (2009) referred to the Ideal L2 Self and Learning Experience as the immediate antecedents of motivated behaviour among Hungarian learners of English. In another study involving dyslexic learners they claimed that the instructional setting, teachers' behaviour and learning experience affect learners' enthusiasm towards language learning in an indirect way with the mediation of language learning attitudes (see Kormos & Csizér, 2010). Similarly to their empirical studies in the present study learning experience will be confined to cover language class experiences only.

Not only language classes belong to the immediate learning environment of students, but the opinion, expectation and attitude of parents and peers, too.

Kormos, *et al.* (2011) found that past puberty, "students' milieu plays a role in shaping students' internalized self-concept indirectly with the mediation of the Ought-to L2 self" (p. 20). Csizér and Kormos (2009) also identified a strong relationship between parental encouragement and the ought-to self among 13-14 year old Hungarian secondary school learners. This finding also supported their claim that "the ought-to L2 self is entirely socially constructed, that is students' views of what attributes they should possess to meet the expectations of their environment are formed by the attitudes of their immediate learning environment" (p. 107).

There is a link between attitudes and parental support, too. Bartram (2006), for instance, when carrying out an interview study with 411 15-16 year old language learners from Germany, England and the Netherlands found that positively perceived parental influence was very often connected with utilitarian benefits of language knowledge. Perceptions of parental support and parents' attitudes towards the language and the target language speaking community were the two most influential factors predicting motivation of 692 learners of Arabic in a study conducted by Donitsa-Schmidt, *et al.* (2004).

Parental support differentially affects motivation depending on parents' belongingness to the ethnic minority or majority groups (Phalet, Andriessen, & Lens, 2004). Phalet, *et al.* (2004) referred to the findings of Nijsten (1998) and Pels' (1998) study when claiming that "comparative studies on Turkish, Moroccan, and native Dutch families report higher academic aspirations among ethnic minority parents than among native parents with a similar social background" (p. 63). Kao and Tienda (1995) connected this finding with their "immigrant optimism hypothesis". This hypothesis "attributes educational progress in minority youth to parental expectations of upward intergenerational mobility through education" (p. 64). Findings of these two studies suggest that minority parents' expectations are strongly connected with learners' prospective academic achievement.

The opinion of friends and peers as other significant people affecting motivation of learners is especially valued during adolescence when it is even valued over parents' standpoints. The classic example of this turning point, is the shift from parents to peers that can occur during adolescence" (p. 1072). Nelson and DeBacker (2008) provided a detailed review of the available literature on the role of friends and peer climate for early adolescents. They state that being valued and respected by classmates, or having a best friend who values academics can both contribute to motivation. The researchers even claimed that the opinion and attitude of a best friend explained motivation above peer climate in classroom environments.

As it can be seen from the literature review above there is a complicated network of relations among the variables listed. Out of all the factors the ideal self stands out in terms of its significant explanatory power which has been reported to have correlations with the ought self, language learning attitudes and milieu, as well. In what follows an attempt will be made to map the terrain of these interrelated variables in light of the motivational self system construct.

3 Methods

3.1 Research instrument

In the present project two research instruments were applied, i.e. a motivation questionnaire and an interview schedule. The initial version of the questionnaire contained sixteen scales that were created on the basis of Kormos and Csizér's (2008) and Ryan's (2005) motivation questionnaire. With the help of think-aloud protocols, professional insights and a pilot study the instrument was refined, its items were altered, deleted. Besides, new items and completely new scales were also added during the development phase. The final version of the questionnaire contained eleven original and four newly added scales that added up to fifteen scales.

Altogether, the scales involved 75 items which formed the main body of the questionnaire. Besides, altogether 16 items asked about the bio data and language learning history of the participants. The following scales were included in the questionnaire: *Ideal L2 Self* (six items), *Ought-to L2 Self (own)* (four items), *Ought-to L2 Self (other)* (four items), *Learning Experience* (five items), *Motivated Learning Behaviour* (five items), *Written Language Use* (three items), *Language Contact* (five items), *Parental Encouragement* (four items), *Attitude towards Learning Ukrainian/English* (four items), *Language Class Anxiety* (four items), *Language Use Anxiety* (three items), *Direct Contact with English Speakers* (four items), *Direct Contact with Ukrainian Speakers* (six items), *Cultural Interest* (four items), *Friends* (five items), *English as an International Language* (five items), *Local Relevance of Ukrainian* (four items).

The interview schedule was developed on the basis of the findings of the questionnaire study. It was divided into four parts, including a section on bio data (age, work, experience, job description, etc.) another one inquiring about students' general interest towards languages, and a third one that contained guiding questions referring to Ukrainian language motivation and the final one that focuses on English language motivation. Items in the third and the fourth sections were created on the basis of the findings of the regression analysis of the questionnaire data.

Therefore the Ukrainian part of the interview schedule asked about the role of parents, attitudes towards language learning as perceived by the respondents. The English section, on the other hand, included items inquiring about the perceived importance of friends, written language use and attitude towards language learning. There were some items in both the Ukrainian and English sections asking the respondents their interpretation of the ideal and the ought-to self, and the language competence of the learners.

The original interview schedule was designed in Hungarian. But as some of the interviews were conducted in Ukrainian, the schedule was translated into Ukrainian. Parallel to the interview sessions, the schedule was continuously improved. Some of the questions were altered to make it more feasible for the respondents. Due to its continuous improvement the research instrument got its final form only after the last interview.

3.2 Participants

Altogether there were 219 school leavers took part in the questionnaire survey. But only secondary school-leavers studying in Hungarian educational establishments were asked to participate. They were between 16 and 18 studying in the 11th form of their school. The selection of respondents was conducted with the help of a multi-stage sampling procedure so as to provide a representative sample of learners of this age cohort. Thus, three groups of learners were created on the basis of the proportion of Hungarians as compared to the ratio of Ukrainians in the area where they study. Learners belonging to the first group were studying in an area where the proportion of Hungarians is 25% and above (N=183). There were less learners in the second and third group because they represented areas where the proportion of Hungarians is between 10 and 25% (N=17) and less than 10% (N=19) only.

There were seven respondents involved in the interview study. They were the ones who agreed to take part in the study, and allowed publishing the findings alongside with the promised privacy issues. Altogether three (two teachers and the methodologist) of the seven respondents were asked the questions referring to bio data, general interest towards language learning, and items specific for English language learning motivation of secondary school learners. Another three were asked the same questions and items specific for Ukrainian language learning motivation. There was only one respondent to whom all the questions present in the schedule were asked. He was a former official of the regional department of education. As peer debriefing was present in each phase of the research, the interview study was developed and carried out by two researchers.

4 Data collection

The process of questionnaire data collection followed three steps. First, the headmasters of the selected educational establishments were approached with an official letter. Then, the date was approved and necessary arrangements with a teacher at the given school were made. As questionnaires were filled during one 45 minute lesson, there was a need to agree with the teacher having the class to allow the distribution and fill-in process to take place.

In the interview study, after prospective participants were selected, contact was established with them in person. As the present piece of research was carried out by two researchers, the respondents were approached with that researcher, whom they have already been in good terms with. First of all appointments were arranged, the interview schedule, if requested, was sent prior to the actual interview session. The interviews and possible follow-up discussions were recorded by Olympus WS-331M digital voice recorder. Before the interview the researcher and the respondent agreed upon the language of the interview (Hungarian or Ukrainian). The interviews were precisely transcribed, and checked with the interviewees had the analysis meet-ups started. Between two interviews, though, the researchers met, so as to discuss problematic points, practicalities, and conduct necessary changes in the actual schedule.

Both data and investigator triangulation were applied to enhance the transferability of the present study. Research data were triangulated, as naturally two sources of data were available for analysis, i.e. the questionnaire and the interview data. The interview data were analyzed by two researchers working independently from each other.

5 Data analysis

Questionnaire data were computed and analysed with the help of SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) 13.0. First, the descriptive statistical measures were calculated, namely the mean and standard deviation of each of the scales. Second, the internal reliability coefficients, i.e. Cronbach α-s were established. Third, significant correlations were identified between the scales. Fourth, regression analyses were carried out to identify the underlying components of motivational dispositions of learners of Ukrainian and English. In the present study to stay focused only the results referring to the four main dimensions will be discussed as they are the variables significantly related to the criterion measure (which in our case was language motivation).

Analysis of the interview data as the technical literature suggests, it had started previously at the very beginning of the research period. Maykut and Morehouse (1994) qualitative data analysis principle guided the analyzing procedure. Therefore, meaning units were highlighted in the interviews. Each meaning unit received identification codes and were then gathered under various headings (categories). Later on they were further analyzed and some of them were merged. The final and the most difficult part of the analysing process, was to infer main categories and to find a logical way of arranging the huge pile of data. If questions appeared, the respondents were contacted for clarification or explanation.

6 Results and discussion

6.1 Findings of the questionnaire survey

In the present study the focus is on exploring the latent dimensions of language motivation and their network of relations that is why only the results of the regression analyses will be presented here (for detailed discussion of the findings see Henkel, 2012). Results of the regression analysis with reference to the Ukrainian self system uncovered four latent dimensions explaining 71% of the variance (see Table 1). Altogether three of the four dimensions turned out to be significant predictors of motivation at the .001 level. They were the *Ideal L2 Self*, the *Ought-to L2 Self*, and *Attitude towards Learning Ukrainian* scales. The correlation calculations also showed that motivation had the highest correlation with these three scales. Additionally, the *Parental Encouragement* scale was included in the construct, which scale, however, has higher correlation with the *Ideal L2 Self* than with the *Motivated Language Learning Behaviour* scale.

Table 1.
Results of the Regression Analysis Regarding Motivated Ukrainian Language Learning Behaviour (N=219)

Variable	B	SE B	β
Ideal L2 Self	.52	.06	.48**
Ought-to L2 Self	.22	.05	.20**
AttitudeTowards Learning Ukrainian	.19	.04	.22**
Parental Encouragement	.14	.06	.11*
R^2	.71		
F for change in R^2	5.21*		

Legend:

B - regression coefficient. *p<.05; **p<.001.

SE B – standard error associated with the coefficient

R^2 – the proportion of variance in the dependent variable explained by the independent variables

b - standardized coefficient

Regression analysis showed that English language motivation is affected by five latent dimensions (see Table 2). The most dominant ones were the *Ideal L2 Self* and *Attitude towards Learning English*. Besides, the scale of *Friends*, *Written Language Use*, and the *Ought-to L2 Self* were also included in the constructed model of motivation; however, they were not as significant as the first two scales mentioned.

Table 2.
Results of the Regression Analysis Regarding Motivated English Language Learning Behaviour (N=219)

Variable	B	SE B	β
Ideal L2 Self	.57	.14	.58**
Attitude towards Learning English	.17	.05	.17**
Friends	.12	.04	.10*
Written Language Use	.13	.05	.09*
Ought-to L2 Self	.11	.05	.11*
R^2	.80		
F for change in R^2	5.16*		

Legend:
B - regression coefficient. *p<.05; **p<..001.
SE B – standard error associated with the coefficient
R^2 – stands for the proportion of variance in the dependent variable explained by the independent variables
b - standardized coefficient

To sum up, it can be said that four elements were parts of the models explaining Ukrainian and English language motivation. The first and most dominant among them was the *Ideal L2 Self*. It seems that regardless of the language to be studied Ideal L2 Self plays an important role in language motivation. However, the *Ought-to L2 Self* also appeared as a separate and significant predictor of both Ukrainian and English language motivation. Consequently, the presence of instrumental goals in connection with language learning was reinforced. Dörnyei (2005) associated the Ideal L2 Self with more internalized instrumental motives, whereas he connected more external instrumental reasons to the Ought-to L2 Self. Accordingly, the predictive power of both the ideal and the ought self in the motivation models point to the presence and affective role of more and less internalized instrumental motives in the constructs of Ukrainian and English motivation. The third common variable was the *Attitude towards Learning the L2* scale, which is a frequent factor in language motivation models (Dörnyei, *et al.*, 2006; Gardner, 2006; Gorham & Millette, 1997). Together with the ought self it was found to be one of the two complementary aspects of the ideal self which in turn was found to be a significant predictor of motivation (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei, *et al.*, 2006). It also had explanatory power alongside with parental support in the motivation of Arabic learners (Donitsa-Schmidt, *et al.*, 2004). Milieu, another common dimension appeared in the form of *Parental Encouragement* in the Ukrainian language motivation model, whereas in the English the influence and attitude of *Friends* played a significantly dominant role. Thus, both the ideal and ought selves, language learning attitude of learners and milieu are significant regarding the state and foreign language motivation of Hungarian minority learners.

The emerging *Written Language Use* scale showed a slight difference between the two models. It was included in the English construct, but it did not affect the interest towards studying the official language of a developing country. It was hypothesized that the main channel of communication providing worldwide access for language practice and opportunities for written language use is the internet, which mostly benefits English language users.

In sum, two dimensions of Motivational Self System Theory seemed to be present in both motivation models explaining Ukrainian and English language motivation, respectively. Both the Ideal L2 Self and the Ought-to L2 Self turned out to be significant predictors of motivation. Although, the third dimension, i.e. Learning Experience did not gain sufficient support in the examined systems.

6.2 Findings of the interview study

There are two points that coincided in the data obtained from two different sources. The first is the presence of instrumental reasons for language learning in both datasets. Confirming the findings of the questionnaire study, respondents of the interview project also listed several instrumental reasons that affect learners' motivation to learn two different languages. They associated English with better job opportunities, good marks and other pragmatic values (e.g.: understanding lyrics, computer games, manuals), whereas they named environment-specific instrumental (e.g.: passing the entrance exam, get understood in offices, obtain a driving license) values regarding Ukrainian.

Another point of interest (that appeared only in connection with Ukrainian) might be that respondents referred to the concept of 'awareness'. Respondents emphasized the need to raise awareness of the pragmatic values knowledge of Ukrainian offers among teachers, parents, learners. The presence of the ought self as a representation of meeting expectations might point to the presence of such an awareness in both data sources.

Respondents of the interview study attributed huge roles to language teachers. They claimed that language teachers affect the learners' future visions to a great extent by communicating perspectives, opportunities that language knowledge offers to the learners. They also highlighted teachers' role in collecting and sharing success stories to keep their learners' ideal self as a vivid image (Dörnyei, 2009).

The deficiencies present in the Ukrainian language teaching syllabus was another frequently mentioned topic among the specialists. They frequently attributed learners' low level of language knowledge to the lack of language education management. Both Ukrainian and English educational specialists argued for fundamental changes in the language teaching process in Ukraine.

Absence of direct reference to and numerous misunderstanding of the concept of the ideal and ought selves might suggest that even the participants themselves do not have a well-developed vision of possible future selves even though they can already name some benefits knowing the state language offers. In the case of English language motivation the situation is less promising. Besides, some generalizations, participants could not come up with valid examples for demonstrating the real benefits of English knowledge in the long run. One of the respondents even admitted that she is not aware of the advantage that English knowledge might give to Transcarpathian Hungarian learners.

7 Conclusions

The present study is aimed at exploring the common elements in two language motivation constructs of ethnic minority learners in Ukraine. To achieve this aim a mixed-method research design was constructed including a questionnaire and a qualitative small-scale interview study. Regression analyses pointed out that basically four factors affect Ukrainian and English language learning motivation of Hungarian school-leavers. Their envisioned possible future self that has its achievement and career related side as well as its duty focused other side explained the large part of the motivation constructs. Language learning attitudes having strong links with both aspects turned out to be the second most relevant factor. Finally, milieu that is the influence and attitude of significant others hugely affects the reasons why learners pursue language studies. As far as motivation to learn Ukrainian is concerned milieu referred to the role of parents, whereas the opinion and support of friends was found to inspire English studies to a great extent.

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"TWO WORLDS AND US" ORIGINALITY IN UNIVERSITY STUDENTS' E-BOOKS IN ENGLISH

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Abstract:
In this paper I will present the results of the most recent phase of a longitudinal research project on originality in university students' writing in English as a foreign language (EFL). After introducing some of the most relevant and controversial writing pedagogy and corpus linguistic tenets, the paper will discuss the results of a mixed-method study that aimed to investigate three qualities or aspects of text originality with techniques of corpus linguistics and content analysis: voice, personal narrative, and role-play. Data included ten fiction and non-fiction e-book anthologies written, edited, and published by forty-seven students who took my Creative writing, Reading and writing skills and Print and electronic media courses in the past six years at the University of Pécs. The results indicate that originality is a quality of student writing that is worth encouraging and developing, even though it is clear that what may be regarded as original in terms of text organization and topic treatment, among other things, does not necessarily guarantee high-quality language use. Two Worlds and Us is the title of one of the best student e-books analyzed here, and it was chosen as the main title of this paper as it captures an essential feature of how students discover and negotiate their originality.
Keywords: digital literacy, learner autonomy, learner corpus

1 Introduction

The quest for originality in a second or foreign language is fraught with dilemmas and confusion – but also rewarded with a special experience we can hardly find elsewhere. In terms of the dilemmas: how can we find and express an original idea in a language that for all intents and purposes originates outside of our own culture and linguistic capabilities? In terms of the rewards: what can be more satisfying than achieving something we deemed nigh impossible at the outset? In this paper, I will show how students I have taught at the University of Pécs have been trying to reap the rewards by facing and tackling those dilemmas. To provide a meaningful and potentially useful task for this purpose, they were offered a free option of contributing to and publishing non-fiction or fiction collections in English, in e-book format so as to widen the scope of the reach of their work as well as to enhance the impact of their collaborative efforts. All of this took shape in various BA and MA courses I have taught recently, mainly those that focused on developing advanced writing skills in EFL, employing the process approach of writing pedagogy.

2 Dilemmas of writing pedagogy and corpus linguistics

The process approach of writing pedagogy represents the theoretical framework of the study. As discussed by several experts in the field (see, for example, Hyland, 2002; Zinsser, 1998), this approach puts a premium on exploiting opportunities of working with multiple drafts, as well as the benefits of revision, peer feedback, with the text development process characterized by collaboration. Witnessing how ideas originate in others is certainly among the highlights of this approach, an aspect that has been characteristic in the current study as well.

> The stages of this process, among others, are brainstorming, the mapping of the components of a theme, free writing, drafting, revising, and editing.... These are not necessarily linear — often, they overlap and appear cyclically. It often happens, too, that for some writers in some tasks the phase of brainstorming is completely missing as the motivation for writing is inspiration that cannot be controlled — either because of its spiritual nature or because it comes as an assignment on the job. These processes can also take various forms depending on whether it is a lone individual performing them or a team. Their order is also flexible: free writing, for example, may well precede jotting down ideas in a brainstorming or outlining session. Of course, these stages and the process orientation of writing pedagogy serve the ultimate purpose of creating texts. (Horváth, 2012, p. 50)

When such considerations are set as goals, it stands to reason that questions of learner autonomy are discussed as well. In fact, when one does a close reading of the most important findings and theories within the process approach domain (Flower & Hayes, 1981; Silva, 1993; Zinsser, 1998), one will see that issues of autonomy are often seen as the primary reason for deciding on making the process approach the guiding principles of writing pedagogy. In other words, the quest for autonomy, in an optimal case at least, is not so much a result of the endeavor as its primary motivating drive.

That may well be the state of affairs, and yet we should not lose sight of the need to further analyze just how this autonomy is developed in being part of a discourse community (DC). The first dilemma I would like to highlight is concerned with the way in which a DC is perceived in academic skills development. The effort is mostly seen as uni-directional: the novice writer needs to become increasingly familiar with the DC targeted. Little or no attention is paid to the DC of the students themselves. In my view, optimal development of learner autonomy and, ultimately, of communicative competence, can only take place when this process is multi-directional: when teachers, too, discover how students’ familiarity with and practice in existing DCs can enhance the validity of their syllabus goals and the efficacy of their teaching techniques. The employment of the e-book projects partly served the purpose of achieving this goal.

Closely linked to the previous dilemma is the one that we can witness in the domain of corpus linguistics, that is, its educationally motivated segment, learner corpus linguistics. As far as the corpus linguistic relevance of the issue is concerned, we can find that whereas in the overwhelming majority of L1 corpus studies the main focus is the description of the language use as found in those corpora, there seems to be a controversial shift in focus to a largely prescriptive approach when dealing with learner corpora (Granger, 1998). That is to say, the aim in the latter is often to compare and contrast L1 and learner corpus data to be able to operate with terms such as *underuse* and *overuse*, as opposed to what is found in L1 corpus studies. Although such an approach certainly holds potential for a number linguistic and language educational purposes, it is seen as less than optimal when the aim is the support and discussion of original approaches to and in EFL writing. The reason for this statement is that it seems that the ways in which a student's writing differs from the L1 norm is interpreted as a shortcoming rather than a feature of interlanguage, which may even be intentional as well as original. That is why in the current study the descriptive approach is favored as is the focus on the positive. This is not to say, of course, that all EFL student writing is portrayed as creative, high-quality, and original. Rather, the different approach is emphasized here to provide a counter-balance to the currently prevailing research agenda and practice.

3 Educational and research context

The current study is embedded in a longitudinal project that was launched in 2007 to investigate coherence and originality in Croatian and Hungarian EFL university students' writing (for a detailed discussion of the findings so far, see Zergollern-Miltetić & Horváth, 2009; Horváth & Zergollern-Miltetić, 2013). Moreover, the study is intended to serve as a representative work that deals with originality from a positive perspective. Rather than analyzing and discussing, as some of the current literature in the field has, the negative aspects, that is, the forms and ways in which originality is lacking, the aim here is to document and interpret valuable samples of student writing. (As discussed in some of the previous studies informed by the same principles, much of what currently tends to be researched in terms of originality is actually concerned with plagiarism. See, for example, Pecorari, 2003.) Granted, issues of academic dishonesty need to be analyzed and its causes explained. However, when the educational aim is to nurture students' expressive powers in EFL, it can be argues that the current approach is potentially is at least as effective.

The three courses where the texts analyzed in this paper were written were BA and MA courses. The syllabus for each of them offered the opportunity of choice in terms of individual or group work, in an attempt to guarantee that the principles of the process approach were in place. In addition, students could elect to choose fiction or non-fiction or a combination of the two.

4 Research question

As discussed earlier in Horváth (2012, p. 51),

> Digital literacy skills can be enhanced, and, while doing so, a new type of academic socialization may take place: one involving both the students as they become more familiar with applying an intimately familiar mode of communication to academic context and the teachers as they are introduced to these alternative modes of communication. It was with these aims that ... I started to investigate the values of writing, editing and publishing e-books.

Specifically, students in the current project collaborated on deciding on the synopsis of their works, allocating authoring, revising, and editing tasks. As the e-book projects were just one of the many options students were offered in my BA and MA courses, the way they cooperated on the texts and in the final publishing stages was largely based on their own time and task management effort. In this regard, it was satisfying to monitor and support the development of their learner autonomy, which in many cases translated to writer autonomy and, eventually, an increased interest in exploring original ways of expression, as we will see in the second part of this paper when we interpret representative samples of the e-book corpus. (See also Godwin-Jones, 2003, for a study on similar forms of online collaboration).

Based on these considerations and building on the previous phases of the study, the main aim of the research was to collect and analyze quantitative and qualitative data as part of the longitudinal project focusing on originality in students’ writing in EFL. Specifically, I undertook to answer the following question: What forms of originality can be detected in the students’ writing? The question seems a valid one as it has educational implications in that the results may be channeled back to future writing pedagogy practice, which represents potentially valuable added value in terms of the internal and external validity of the undertaking.

Originality is defined here as a positive quality of writing that the author aims for in order to communicate a central notion in a way that is meant to be innovative.

5 Method

In answering the research question, in the qualitative segment of the analysis I followed the framework designed and implemented in the previous phases of the longitudinal study, focusing on the three aspects of originality identified: voice, role play, and personal narrative (Zergollern-Miltetić & Horváth, 2009). To be able to reveal a more finely tuned picture, however, that was complemented by a quantitative analysis, in the form of corpus linguistics. For this reason, a corpus was compiled of all the texts appearing in the ten collections. Together, the two approaches may bring us closer to an accurate description of the student texts in these e-books.

6 Participants and their e-books

Between 2007 and 2013, 47 students participated in the e-book projects, as authors or editors or as both. The students were enrolled in my BA and MA courses, Reading and Writing Skills, Creative Writing, and Print and Electronic Media, respectively. The texts that they have written over the six years have appeared in ten collections on two web sites: the first one published on Smashwords, with the rest on Feedbooks, both of which allow for editing and distributing such collections in a variety of electronic formats, including EPUB, PDF and Kindle. The ten e-books are made up of 118 texts, both fiction and non-fiction. (Figure 1 shows the covers of the e-books.)

Figure 1:
The covers of the e-books

7 Results and discussion

7.1 Insights from the corpus

The word count of the full corpus of the ten collections is 64,012 tokens, a relatively small corpus, which can still be regarded as a sizable specialized learner corpus (Horváth, 2001). In terms of types, the corpus has 7,296, resulting in a type / token ratio of 0.11. In the following, descriptive statistics are provided for the ten e-books. (See Table 1.)

Table 1:
Descriptive statistics of the ten e-books

Title of e-book	Number of texts	Student authors /editors	Tokens	Types
Take off	22	20	9,113	2,319
I can't be 16 again	17	10	7,059	1,781
Two worlds and us	10	2	5,301	1,344
Being an average girl	10	2	3,399	1,003
On Earth	10	2	3,373	1,151
The immortal mobile enemy	10	2	4,856	1,589
Signs	4	2	8,590	1,662
Distorted minds	8	2	4,247	1,237
Splintering	22	4	13,244	2,008
We are all alike	7	1	4,841	1,187

As the e-book writing projects were voluntary, perhaps what is most important to note is the apparent willingness of these forty-seven students to work on the planning, composing, revising, and editing tasks involved, which can be detected in the length of their pieces, an indication of their motivation as well as their fluency in writing. Obviously, the actual content and style of these pieces are more relevant from the point of view of originality than raw corpus data. In the next section, we will consider those qualitative aspects of the e-books.

7.2 Insights from the content analysis

Employing the frames established in previous stages of this study, I set up three categories of the student texts that in one way or another reflected off of the authors' intention to produce original pieces. These categories were voice, role-play, and personal narrative (see also Zergollern-Miltetić & Horváth, 2009). In the following, we will see an introduction to and discussion of each of the three types, with representative examples reprinted. (The full texts can be found on the Smashwords and Feedbooks web sites.)

7.2.1 Voice

When reading a text, of whatever genre, we will hear the author speaking. Depending on the DC targeted, as well as on the aim and the theme, among other aspects, the origin of this voice can show a great degree of variation. In the classes where I taught these students, we always tried to make an effort to experiment with a variety of styles and voices. One of the three representative qualities that research has revealed is how student writing can appear as original in terms of this auditory aspect that can be captured in creative ways of using and inventing vocabulary as well as juxtaposing seemingly irreconcilable genres and content elements. When done effectively, such writing enables readers to hear a real voice speaking in the text, often reflecting on the person, one whose individuality cannot be easily mistaken for anyone else. We can see one such example below by Éliás (2012):

> Should I lie? I'll just get into a bigger mess… either way I already did enough damage to be at a cross-road. I don't regret what I've done. Why should I? I've done what I've done, I made my life a bit more difficult than I intended. The phases I went through to get here, it made it all worthwhile.

In another piece, the author experiments with various forms of speaking as well as expresses the almost uncontrollable desire to shout. Describing an interesting topic related to being original, in her personal essay Váldi (in Álló & Váldi, 2012) discusses what makes people wish to be unique:

> Sometimes I just want to shout 'STOP' at everyone. I want them to stop; stop worrying, stop complaining, stop what they are doing to not only to themselves but to those whom are around them. I know, our world became a rushing pile of ants. Everyone wants to do something.
> They just want to be unique; but how do you want to be unique if you don't even stop for a second and look around yourself? This makes me feel like I would stand on a busy airport. Everybody is rushing to catch their flight, or to get the last one of the most delicious donut that they have ever eaten. And I'm just standing there and looking at them.

7.2.2 Role play

The content analysis of the scripts has brought to the surface a second group made up of writings whose authors designed one or multiple roles and these fictional narratives, often first-person, invite the reader to explore the inner thoughts and streams of consciousness of one or more characters. Several such texts can be found in the e-book corpus. The most noteworthy is probably the series of stories told from four perspectives in the e-book *Splintering,* the longest e-book, by Auth, Cser, Csüdör and Renczes (2013). The four students tell the incident in question in the form of diary entries. One representative sample of this work reads as follows:

> I had a blackout... again. I can't take this anymore. When I realized, I was lying on the cold ground, in the garden of my house. I got up and I felt wet and then I went inside, had a hot shower and had a snack. I'm inside now. I'm trying to call my memories back but it's not working, don't bother. I have better things to do. My phone is ringing. My assistant just said that I'm late from work. Come on Jess, hurry up! (Renczes, 2013)

7.2.3 Personal narrative

The third group of mostly non-fiction texts is made up of stories that appear to be based on a fresh way of looking at a personal experience. This is probably the hardest feat to achieve as part of a university course as authors may have second thoughts about just how personal they can or wish to be in such narratives. In terms of the specific demands that such framing sets on the authors, or rather, what they set on themselves, we can see that although this type can be regarded as the hardest, it also seems to be the most exciting to produce and enjoy. The reason is that when a personal memory becomes the core of a non-fiction text, where we can hear a narrator who is the main character of the story, we have an opportunity to really appreciate the willingness of the author to share an original piece of writing where this decision to provide a narrative from a distinct and concrete point of view becomes a meaningful challenge to both writer and reader. Over the years, I have had the pleasure of appreciating many such texts, but probably the most original of all is the one written by Takács in the *Take Off* collection (2010). Here is a paragraph from the middle of the essay. (See the full text reprinted at the end in the Appendix.)

> All this happened in June 2006, and The World Cup was in full swing – too bad it had always left me cold. The song Come on England was blaring from every shop and every pub. Had I been a fan, I would have bought an England Home or an England Away World Cup shirt. But I was only window-shopping, with CCTV cameras following my steps wherever I went: I was watched in the shopping mall, on the alley, even on a path in the park.

It is with pieces like this that one may feel justified in stating that a mere sample does not do justice to the effort that went into the writing and the resulting high quality of the text: one really needs to have access to the full work to appreciate the way the author manages to make sense of an important, memorable personal experience, narrate it in a foreign language with a style that is distinctly his, and in so doing also be able to elevate the text to a level where the reader can identify the abstract notions in the description of concrete events and the author's reflections on them.

8 Conclusion

This paper has presented further evidence that in EFL writing skills development we have an opportunity to assist students become more autonomous in the way they manage their work so that they can discover both the origins of their ideas and the originality of those ideas. There is no doubt at all that such an approach can work in many different educational contexts and tasks. The results of the study indicate that originality is a quality of student writing that is worth encouraging and developing, even though it is clear that what is original in terms of text organization and topic treatment, for example, does not necessarily guarantee high-quality language use. In reading and re-reading the e-books, we can identify varying levels in students' skills of text organization, focus, punctuation, diction, and syntax. What appears as original cannot always be regarded as good or good enough. One of the limitations of the study is the complete disregard of mistakes and errors in the texts. For the purposes at hand, their analysis did not seem to be as relevant as the positive features of the collections of these student essays and stories. However, as these are electronic publications, there is a chance that students will come back to their work and add the final revision and editing touch that is not always in evidence in some of the scripts.

What is certainly a future step to take is the further analysis of these essays and stories as well as the continued use of them as reading materials in forthcoming courses, so that the process approach can be extended across semesters and groups.

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APPENDIX

Still There by Dániel Takács

I could hardly lug my suitcase by the time I arrived in Cambridge. A stranger shoved it into the overhead compartment on the train.

Another series of dragging and I arrived at the house. When I reached the landing at the top of the staircase and looked left, heartache washed over me: The glass of water she had drunk from four days before still lingered on the shelf above her bed, half-empty; but she was elsewhere, 1200 miles away. I went downstairs to the kitchen, where I found the spaghetti we had left in a saucepan still on the counter – but moldy.

Ten minutes’ walk away from the half-empty glass and the moldy spaghetti loomed the residential home for the homeless. Its door had a combination lock (the residents could have lost their keys while hammered or stoned). When I entered, I smelled a mixture of stale air, the stench of stir-fry, and all sorts of other fries. Years of baking and frying had blackened the oven on the inside, and the deposit of pies had made the baking sheets greasy. On my single try to bake a ready-to-bake steak and kidney pie, the smoke billowing out of the oven set off the fire alarm – a resident silenced it with the end of a broomstick.

All this happened in June 2006, and The World Cup was in full swing – too bad it had always left me cold. The song Come on England was blaring from every shop and every pub. Had I been a fan, I would have bought an England Home or an England Away World Cup shirt. But I was only window-shopping, with CCTV cameras following my steps wherever I went: I was watched in the shopping mall, on the alley, even on a path in the park.

However, I was watching, too: TV. After a few doses of BBC, Channel 4, and ITV, I learned that most daytime TV programs covered interior design: how to do up your home quick and cheap. The host dropped in on a lady and brought along Mr. Fixit – and surprise, surprise, the viewers witnessed stunning makeovers in seconds.

The rest of the programs were talk shows – one about a pre-teen boy who had been drinking booze, smoking pot, and terrorizing his mother for the previous couple of years. There, in the studio, his mother lost it and started sobbing when he called her a whore.

I left the TV to take a walk. Roaming down a street, I stared into basement kitchens. Farther down, as I was meandering through Jesus Green, I glared at the heaps of garbage from previous night's picnics propped to garbage cans, thrown-away sausages and chicken breasts on disposable grill pans, and empty Carlsberg beer cans scattered on the lawn.

After passing the bollards and entering the car-free zone, I heard a drunk yelling at his invisible mate. On the next street, two hotties strolled into one of the posh restaurants past a bum lying at the entrance.

Terraced houses had looked awesome in *Project English*. In reality, they looked drab. The bare grey brick walls were dotted only by black bin liners bulging with trash.

I'm still walking there.

DO MENTORS AND TRAINEES AGREE? INSIGHTS INTO THE PROCESSES OF BECOMING A TEACHER

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Abstract:
The paper focuses on the results of a piece of research carried out in Transcarpathia among school mentors and pre-service teachers on the process of becoming competent teachers. An attempt has been made to clash the various opinions and to clarify what type of help trainee teachers require from the mentors and what kind of support the mentors give to will-be teachers during their teaching practice at the school. The study also points out that mentors' support may positively influence the process in question. The participants of the present study were 45 graduate students of the Ferenc Rákóczi II. Transcarpathian Hungarian Institute majoring in various subjects (Year 4 and Year 5 students studying for their bachelor and specialist degrees). In addition, fourteen mentors were also surveyed about the main topic of this research, so that it could be analyzed from the mentors' point of view, as well. Two different questionnaires were applied in the survey: one for the trainees and another one for the mentors. One of the most crucial conclusions of the survey was that the mentors applied the so-called developmental model of mentoring, i.e. they pointed out the fundamental aspects, but they mainly allowed the trainees to unfold as individuals while unnoticeably directing them on the right track.
Keywords: mentor, trainee teacher / practising teacher, teaching practice

1 Mentoring in Transcarpathia

Hungarian pre-service teachers studying at universities or colleges in Transcarpathia can pass their compulsory teaching practice in 104 schools with Hungarian language of instruction in the region. This compulsory teaching practice is one of the most crucial elements in the process of becoming a competent teacher of any discipline. During the practice the trainees observe real pupils, teachers and syllabi in their natural context. Richards and Crookes (1988) point out that the teaching practice provides opportunities for trainees to gain classroom teaching experiences, as well as acquire skills of choosing, adapting and developing teaching materials.

During their practicum, trainees have to get familiarised with all the aspects of the teacher profession (both inside and outside the classroom), for which they need a great deal of assistance and guidance. The main sources of this help and support are the 'cooperating teachers' or 'mentors' (Farrell, 2008). They have or may have a great impact on trainee teachers during their practice because they are in the closest contact with them during the teaching practicum. Therefore it is of utmost importance that trainee teachers work together with competent mentors while doing their teaching practice.

In general, the 'cooperating teachers' in Transcarpathia are those teachers who have the longest in-service teaching practice and the most teaching experiences. However, this does not automatically mean that they are the best mentors. In most cases these teachers are not trained to be mentors who know how to 'deal' with mentees: what professional support and assistance they need.

Johnson (1996) believes that the English teaching community does not know enough about how English-major pre-service students perceive their own teaching experiences at the starting phase, and what influences they have on the trainee teachers' professional development and their processes of becoming competent teachers. This was the basic motivation to carry out the research detailed in this paper.

2 Brief review of the literature

Various authors explain the concept of 'mentor' in a number of ways. The accepted definition in this study is that of M. Nádasi's (2010), according to which 'the mentor who is leading the teaching practice is a teacher with appropriate pedagogical experience, who is able to provide practising teachers participating in teacher training programs with adequate professional support' (p. 11). In Transcarpathia (the context of the present research), the mentor's responsibilities also include tasks like familiarizing practising teachers with the design and conducting of lessons, introducing them to ways of self-reflection, while observing the will-be teachers' growing independence. (M. Nádasi, 2010).

Major (2010) interprets the essence of mentoring activity in the following way: "it is an individual form of teaching activity provided by an experienced in-service teacher to a novice or a less experienced teacher, the primary aim of which is to support the professional development of the mentored teacher and make his or her adaptation to the teaching profession in general and the special local context (in our case the school) in particular, smoother…" (p. 33.) Falus (2004, p. 362.) believes that "in the process of becoming a teacher, it is necessary to develop the trainee teacher's views, knowledge, abilities, practical skills, commitment, and attitudes in order for them to fulfil their functions as teachers". The mentor plays an enormous role in all this development.

Walkington (2005) claims that when playing the role of a mentor, experienced teachers help trainee teachers in developing the functional teacher role in them. Mentors encourage practice teachers to reflect on the work done in the light of their newly obtained experiences. How the trainee teacher perceives their new experiences is usually influenced by the mentor's professional identity (Galbraith & Cohan, 1995). Farrell (2008) believes that cooperating teachers are the main source of support needed by trainee teachers because they have the greatest professional impact on them during their teaching practice.

Several advantages and disadvantages were identified by Hobson et al. (2009) when examining the impacts the mentoring activity has on trainee teachers. The authors point out that it is positive that trainee teachers' anxiety decreases with the help of mentors, while their self-confidence increases and they also develop professionally. As a negative factor, they mention that certain practice teachers may feel their mentors prevent them from trying out their own ideas in teaching. However, this can also be true vice versa when the mentor feels 'endangered' by the trainee teacher in the case when the latter applies a technique in the lesson that the mentor is not familiar with. (Hobson et al., 2009) Nevertheless, the most significant problem for trainee teachers is meant by improper mentoring, when they do not obtain sufficient support and independence from the mentors (*ibid.*). The findings of a study conducted in 2011 in Transcarpathia (Huszti, 2011) prove that trainee teachers would like to get more help and support from their mentors. The study also points out that mentors' support may positively influence the process of becoming competent teachers.

3 Methods of the research

3.1 Research participants

The participants of the present study were 45 graduate students of the II. Rákóczi Ferenc Transcarpathian Hungarian Institute majoring in various subjects (Year 4 and Year 5 students studying for their bachelor and specialist degrees). These students were selected because they had already done their compulsory six-week long teaching practice in a number of Transcarpathian schools with Hungarian language of instruction. They were believed to have clear views on problematic issues emerging in connection with the teaching practice, to have formed their own opinions about the issues in question, as well as to have taken their position about the quality and characteristics of the support they had obtained in the school during their practice. Table 1 presents the details about the student participants of the research.

Table 1
Major subjects and training programs of participants (n=45)

Major subject	Bachelor (Year IV.)	Specialist (Year V.)	Total
English	6	-	**6**
Biology	6	7	**13**
Geography	3	-	**3**
Hungarian	-	5	**5**
Mathematics	7	4	**11**
History	-	7	**7**
Total	**22**	**23**	**45**

In addition, fourteen mentors were also surveyed about the main topic of this research, so that it could be analyzed from the mentors' point of view, as well. All the mentors teach and do mentoring activities in the two base schools of the Rákóczi Institute in Beregszász. Mentor teachers of different disciplines were asked about their work, and about students doing their teaching practice (see Table 2). There were twelve female and two male mentors. Their average age was 40 years; the average length of their teaching practice was 18 years, while the average length of their mentoring activity was 10 years. Regarding their qualifications, five mentors had teacher training institute degrees, whereas nine mentors had university degrees. Five mentors have participated in mentor training courses so far, while one mentor also indicated that she had finished a Language Pedagogy Doctoral School.

Table 2
Subject teachers participating in the research

Subject	Number of mentors
English	4
Biology	2
Geography	1
Mathematics	1
Hungarian	3
History	3
Total	**14**

3.2 Research instruments

Two different questionnaires were applied in the survey (see Appendices 1 and 2). The student questionnaire consisted of four parts and contained eleven questions. With its help, insights into the will-be teachers' views on planning the teaching process were obtained. The data also revealed whether trainee teachers got help from their mentors during their teaching practice and of what kind and in what form. This instrument also asked the respondents to describe the type of professional relationship between them and their mentors. The second questionnaire was used among the selected mentors. It enquired about the processes going on between mentors and trainee teachers, what kind of support trainees need from their mentors, how mentors help them, etc.

4 Research findings

4.1 Trainee teachers' questionnaires

With the help of the questionnaire the trainee teachers' opinions were surveyed about what role the mentors played in the process of their becoming competent teachers. The questions were organized into four big categories:

a) issues concerning the observation of the mentor's work;

b) issues related to lesson planning;

c) questions concerning the analysis and evaluation of the trainee teachers' teaching;

d) professional and personal relationship between the mentor and the practising teacher.

Most of the times students designed their lessons on their own (32 respondents), though thirteen trainee teachers indicated that they had worked together with the mentors in the planning process. However, it might not be so negative because those who admitted having planned their lessons on their own also added that they had discussed the lessons in general with their mentors orally, then prepared the detailed lesson plans and outlined the procedures of the lessons for themselves.

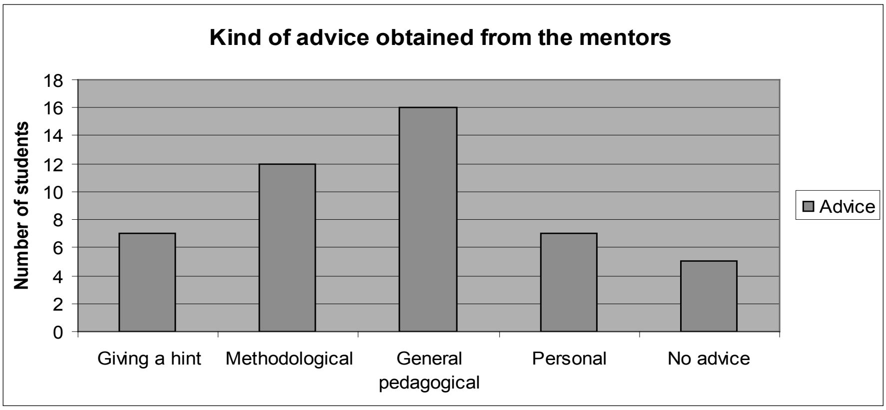
To help the trainee teacher during their teaching practice in all possible ways is one of the most crucial tasks of a mentor. However, one can see that the number of students declaring having not obtained any help from their mentors is rather high (thirteen respondents). Nevertheless, a great majority of the trainee teachers (32 respondents) emphasized that they had obtained useful pieces of advice and suggestions from their mentors that all helped them in preparing for their lessons successfully.

> I mainly got useful information from my mentor about the level of knowledge of a class, about the behaviour of certain pupils, and about the habits that characterized a given community. (E1)[*]

The trainee teachers were asked to define what kind of advice they had obtained from their mentors during their teaching practice. The replies have been categorised and they are presented in Figure 1.

[*] The practising teachers were assigned codes containing a combination of a letter and a number. The letters refer to the major subjects of the trainee teachers: B – biology, E – English, G – geography, H – History, HUN – Hungarian, M – mathematics.

Figure 1



It is clear from Figure 1 that the mentors gave general pedagogical pieces of advice to the will-be teachers in most cases (16) (e.g. 'My mentor emphasized the importance of constant revision of the material at the very beginning of every lesson' (B16); 'I should pay appropriate attention to every pupil.' (M32)). The second most frequent kind of advice was of methodological character (e.g. 'In the lower primary classes I should try to explain everything in a playful way.' (E2), 'My mentor helped me a lot in selecting the appropriate visual aids.' (HUN25)). The respondents admitted that they got personal advice and some other hints about teaching in seven cases each. (E.g. personal: 'Don't worry.' (B13), 'Always speak clearly and understandably'. (M34); giving a hint: 'What I should pay more attention to, that is, my mentor made me realize in an indirect way that I should prepare the pupils for the tasks of the Independent Testing[**].' (B14)) Five trainee teachers admitted that they had obtained no advice or help from their mentors.

Trainee teachers were asked to give responses to the question whether their mentors warned them about the various pitfalls of teaching, and whether the mentors called the practising teachers' attention to their probable mistakes. Fourteen trainees replied that their mentors had not done anything mentioned above, while 31 will-be teachers reported on the fact that their mentors had not missed to do all those things referred to above. Certain trainees even added that their mentors provided extra information about the given class and the learners, concerning their activity and discipline, who were stronger and weaker learners, and who needed special attention from the teacher.

It becomes evident from previous research results (e.g. Numrich, 1996; Huszti, 2004) that the greatest and most difficult problem for trainee teachers, as well as novice teachers, is the defining of lesson objectives. This was also referred to by some mentors in the present study. For this reason, it was decided that the trainee

[**] This is the Ukrainian advanced level school-leaving examination.

teachers be asked about this problem, namely, whether they had obtained any help in identifying their lesson aims. Most of the trainees answered negatively to this question (e.g. ‘No, my mentor didn’t help me in defining the aims. She completely left this task to me. E1), while eighteen trainees gave positive answers (e.g. ‘My mentor gave me examples, based on which I could define my own objectives.’ B10).

The evaluation and assessment of the teaching practice of trainee teachers can greatly influence the process of becoming a competent teacher. Therefore, the practising teachers were asked to describe how the evaluation was carried out. Twenty-nine trainees mentioned that their mentors first indicated the positive features of the trainees’ work and only later pointed out the deficiencies. Eleven trainees reported on the fact that their mentors started the evaluation with some criticism, i.e. negative features. Five practising teachers chose the ‘other’ option in the questionnaire, e.g. ‘First, my mentor told me her impressions about my lesson, and then she analyzed it in detail.’ (M35)

The impact of the mentor’s evaluation on the trainee teacher became clear from the data. It can be stated that the mentors influenced the will-be teachers positively (39 cases), in one questionnaire there was missing data about this question. Only five trainee teachers believed that they had been negatively influenced by their mentors’ evaluation (e.g. ‘Though it was praising, it disappointed me. B7). The positive impact is illustrated by the following excerpts:

> I became braver and more confident. (E5)
>
> My mentor’s evaluation encouraged me because when it was positive I tried to do everything in the same way next time. When it was negative I had to correct all my mistakes and deficiencies. (M36)
>
> My mentor’s evaluation had a motivating effect on me. (M30)

Mentors are also expected to advise students on how to improve the quality of the trainees’ teaching practice by providing helpful suggestions. Most often the surveyed trainee teachers admitted that their mentors gave them advice on what to improve in the future. Mentors often recommended trainees to read methodology books and academic articles published on their major subjects in order to improve the quality of their teaching. However, three history major trainee teachers stated that their mentors had not provided any help of this kind.

Knowing the advantages of reflective teaching, the mentors drew the trainee teachers’ attention to them (nineteen trainees mentioned it). However, eighteen will-be teachers pointed out that they were not informed about this technique by their mentors. Eight trainees did not provide any replies concerning reflective teaching, thus these are regarded as missing data.

Finally, trainee teachers were expected to characterize their relationship with their mentors during the teaching practice. The descriptions were grouped into two types: professional and personal. Table 3 shows what attributes trainee teachers used to characterize the relationship between themselves and their mentors.

Table 3
The relationship between the mentors and the trainee teachers

Professional	Number of students	Personal	Number of students
Supporting in all respects, helpful	6	Positive, good	8
Considered me a colleague, treated me as an equal	4	Friendly	3
Good, excellent	3	Based on mutual respect and esteem	2
Disparaging, biting teacher-student relationship	1	Understanding, could cooperate well	2
		Supported me constructively, not in a derisive way	1
		Informal, relaxed	1
		Indifferent	1

It is evident from Table 3 that students mentioned rather positive than negative features.

> There was a good professional relationship between us; my mentor always helped me realize all my ideas. (B17)

> There was mutual understanding between us and we are still in positive professional contact. (M34)

> My former maths teacher became my mentor, and in this way the relationship between us was very good; she was ready to help me any time. (M28)

4.2 Mentor questionnaires

The questionnaire contained eighteen questions, half of which enquired about the mentors' personal data (gender, age, length of teaching experience, length of mentoring experience, qualifications, major subjects, etc.). These data were introduced in Section 3.1 of the present study in detail.

Questions 10, 11, 12 and 16 related to the kind of help provided by the mentor to the trainee teacher. A basic question is whether the mentor should interfere in the trainee's teaching process or should leave everything to be done by the trainee alone. Only one mentor indicated that she did not participate in the trainee's lesson planning process. All the other mentors described the planning process. Most of them discuss the lesson topic, the techniques to be used, and the structure and procedures of the lesson together with the trainee teachers.

> We discuss the main issues together, but it is always the trainee teacher's task to prepare a detailed lesson plan. It is important that the trainee get accustomed to how to structure a lesson logically, choose the appropriate techniques and time the lesson, develop their own creativity and bravely use their own ideas. Then we look through and analyse the prepared lesson plan and if there is need, we add or include things. Thus, I mainly play the role of a leader and evaluator. (English teacher, 45 years old)[***]

Mentors have been asked about how they provide feedback to trainee teachers. Most of them claimed that they gave feedback to trainees during the discussion sessions when they analysed the trainee's teaching. This was the time for the mentors to point out the strengths and deficiencies of the teaching process, to call the trainee's attention to the mistakes to be corrected, to provide trainees with good advice, to encourage and motivate them. A thirty-five-year-old biology teacher-mentor noted that she prepared a detailed written analysis of the trainee's lesson during the time she was observing it. She discussed this analysis with the trainee after the lesson, and then this written account was given to the trainee for further reference.

All the mentors indicate trainees' faults in this or that way (in private or in the presence of group mates; directly or indirectly). Except for one, the mentors all spoke about how they called the trainee teachers' attention to the mistakes committed during the lesson taught by the trainees. However, one mentor claimed that she did this already in the planning process:

> If I see some deficiencies in the planning of a lesson, I point it out to the trainee teacher and also suggest ways for correcting it. For example, if the trainee teacher plans to ask two pupils for a longer period of time, I ask them: 'What are the other twenty-five children in the classroom going to do meanwhile?' Through this discourse the trainee teacher realises that the lesson must be planned in more detail: one cannot expect twenty-five children to be polite and quiet for a longer period of time. The trainee teacher must face the fact that each and every pupil must have a task to work on in every minute of a lesson. (Hungarian teacher, 41 years old)

Praise is a factor needed by everyone to develop self-confidence and to carry out the tasks with more enthusiasm, be it language learning or teaching. Trainee teachers during their teaching practice also need such praise from their mentors, who mentioned a wide variety of ways of praising trainee teachers. They mainly

[***] The excerpts are taken from the filled in questionnaires and are translated into English by the author.

praise the trainees when they carry out a task successfully, or react creatively to an unexpected situation, or when they dare to take decisions bravely and flexibly, if their activity is beyond average. Mentors usually praise trainees while giving feedback on and analysing the practice teaching of the trainee. It is also common that mentors praise the trainees meta-communicatively with a smile or a nod during the lesson that the trainee teaches. In addition, a mentor mentioned that

> I give my trainee a document prepared by me in which I praise them for a significant action during their practice. (History teacher, 41 years old)

The mentors' opinions were also asked about what causes the greatest problem to the trainee teachers during their teaching practice. Table 4 summarises these viewpoints.

Table 4
Mentors' views on what causes the most serious problem to trainee teachers during the teaching practice

Opinion	Number of mentors having this opinion
The level of the taught material is not in accordance with the level of the learners' knowledge	8
Engaging the learners' attention	5
"Inadequate familiarity" with the school curriculum and syllabus	4
Sensible timing in the lesson	3
Proportionate development of skills in the lesson	1
Logical structure of the explanation	1
Insufficient use of pair and group work	1
Keeping discipline	1

Most of the surveyed mentors believe that the trainees on their teaching practice are not aware of the level of the learners' knowledge; therefore, it is quite frequent that the trainees prepare task sheets that do not correspond to the learners' level of knowledge; i.e. they are either too difficult or too easy to solve. Will-be teachers are not familiar with the learners' needs in the school; therefore they cannot apply differentiated teaching appropriately in their lessons. Trainee teachers have to do classroom observations before starting their teaching practice with the purpose to familiarise themselves with the learners, their learning habits and needs.

> Therefore I do everything possible so that the trainee teacher spend as much time as possible with the learners before starting the practice, get to know and love the learners, observe and note what the learners' needs are and in what they need development. (Hungarian teacher, 41 years old)

Certain mentors indicated that for some trainees to engage the learners' attention was a real trial, 'to hold the whole class captive for 45 minutes was really difficult' (Hungarian teacher, 61 years old). This kind of incapacity on the teacher's side then may lead to prolonged lesson procedures which in no way can be considered common or normal.

Some mentors believe that for a few trainees it is a big problem that they are not familiar in an adequate way with the school curriculum in their discipline. 'They do not know the sequence of topics: what we have already learnt and what comes next.' (Geography teacher, 35 years old) This can be improved by intensive lesson observation by trainees done before the teaching practice starts. An opinion relates here that trainees can only view a given lesson separately, not the teaching process as a whole. This might result from the trainee teachers' lack of practice and experience.

Only one mentor thought that keeping discipline in the classroom caused serious problems for trainees.

Further, mentors were asked about their beliefs concerning the kind of help trainee teachers needed during their practice. The answers were categorised into two groups: 1. factors related to lesson planning; 2. factors related to the teaching process. Table 5 summarises the data from which it is evident that trainee teachers need more help and support from the mentor connected to lesson planning than to the teaching process.

Table 5
The kind of help needed by the trainee teachers from their mentors

	The needed help	Number of mentors
Lesson planning	Choosing the methods and selecting the appropriate extra materials to be used in the lessons	6
	Preparing lesson plans, setting the aims	5
	Identifying the amount of material to be taught in a lesson	3
	Practising the proper timing of the lessons	2
	Evaluating learners' knowledge	2
	Making the lesson more interesting to get the learners' attention	1
The teaching process	Classroom management	2
	Issues concerning the learners' age peculiarities	2
	Keeping discipline	2
	Making contact with learners	1

The mentors were asked about how they enhanced the improvement of the quality of trainees' teaching. In general, they referred to the numerous pieces of advice that they had given the trainees concerning quality improvement. Five mentors emphasized that they underlined the importance of getting to know the academic literature on English language teaching. A few mentors also mentioned that they tried their best to improve the teaching quality of the trainees through their own experience and personal examples. One of the mentors even added that:

> I encourage my trainee to apply creatively all the knowledge that they acquired at the institute. (Hungarian teacher, 41 years old)

Quality improvement can also be realised with the help of the reflective method of teaching. To reflect on one's own ideas and experiences is an equally essential activity for both novice and experienced school teachers or university professors (Walkington, 2005). Mentors were asked if they had indicated the significance of reflective teaching to trainees. Twelve of them answered positively, which means that they found it crucial to indicate the usefulness of this method. Two mentors did not provide any data on this issue, while another one claimed:

> Yes, I point out this technique, but after classroom observation sessions — when they themselves realize its advantages — there is little need for encouragement to apply it. (Hungarian teacher, 47 years old)

The mentors' opinions about their relationship with trainees were also surveyed with the help of the questionnaire. Bullogh (2005) concluded in connection with the issue that it is the most useful when the mentor plays the role of a 'mother', i.e. likes, defends and supports the trainee like a mother does with her child. Table 6 contains all the characteristic features that mentors used to describe their relationship with the trainee teachers. The numbers in the second column show how many mentors mentioned a given feature.

Table 6
The character of the relationship between mentors and trainee teachers

Characteristic feature	Number of mentors
Good	4
Friendly	3
Fraternal	3
Helpful	2
Sincere	1
Humane	1
Harmonious	1
Controlling	1
Developing creativity	1
Based on common confidence	1
Informal, relaxed	1

Some opinions from the mentors:

It depends on the trainee teacher. If they are open and interested, I help with pleasure in the solution of any problem. But if I see that the trainee's attitude is inappropriate and they only want to fulfil the requirements of the teaching practice, I do not force the good relationship, either. (English teacher, 33 years old)

My relationship with the trainees is usually harmonious. They also contact me for help later, when they are qualified teachers. (History teacher, 40 years old)

First of all, human personal relationship is formed between my trainee and me. I think this helps the formation of professional relationship between the mentor and the trainee teacher. If the trainees feel the proper trust on the mentor's part, then they will be more courageous in front of a class, they will sooner overcome their anxiety and stress. This will result in a successful lesson. (Hungarian teacher, 61 years old)

5 Summary

The survey revealed that one of the essential questions in the process of becoming a teacher is lesson planning, as well as the quality of teaching the lessons. The requirements of the teaching practice demand that mentors should help and support trainees in every possible way. The findings of the present survey prove that the mentors participated in planning the teaching process either directly or indirectly, though more than half of the trainee teachers claimed that they had done the planning on their own. There could well be a kind of contradiction at this point; however, from the comments provided by trainees it becomes clear that they mainly worked alone when preparing the written lesson plans. It implies that the planning process itself was fulfilled together with the mentors. As a conclusion, it can be stated that the mentors applied the so-called developmental model of mentoring, i.e. they pointed out the crucial aspects, but they mainly allowed the trainees to unfold as individuals while unnoticeably directing them on the right track.

Defining lesson objectives frequently causes serious problems for trainees. However, the findings suggested that the greatest problem in the mentors' view is the level of trainees' explanation in the lessons. Mentors consider that trainees use language structures that are too complicated for schoolchildren, i.e. mentors often had the feeling as if trainees had been presenting at a professional conference and not teaching in school.

It must be particularly emphasized that in order to improve the quality of the trainees' teaching process, the mentors provided them with useful suggestions and academic literature, and also shared their own examples with them. One of the excellent ways of quality improvement is reflecting teaching. Mentors drew trainees' attention to this technique. Moreover, they shared their own examples.

The positive professional and personal relationship is a precondition of successful cooperation between the mentor and the trainee. Concerning the professional aspect of this relationship, the mentor should be helpful and supportive and view the trainee as a colleague and treat him or her as an equal. At least, such is the ideal professional relationship between the mentor and the trainee teacher in the view of the will-be teachers who participated in this survey. What concerns the personal relationship, also the positive features prevail: good, friendly, positive, based on mutual respect and esteem, understanding, and relaxed. Mentors were on the same opinion adding some further features like helpful, honest, humane, harmonious and developing creativity.

6 Useful implications from the research

1) Only a few mentors out of the questioned ones participated in a mentor training course, therefore it is essential in the future to organize such courses within teacher training institutions, thus offering the possibility for mentors to better their skills.
2) It would be highly effective to follow the British practice and hold so-called mentoring days (Major, 2010). At these meetings mentors can exchange their views about professional questions. In addition, they can also discuss their own experiences and learn from each other. Such meetings could also be held at the training institutions.
3) Trainers in teacher training courses have to pay more attention to the trainees' academic language use. They have to make trainees aware of the fact that different language levels and styles must be used in various situations, e.g. teacher talk should be less complicated in a school lesson than in a presentation at an academic conference.
4) Teacher trainers should familiarize trainees with the benefits and possible deficiencies of reflective teaching. As it is a most useful technique, it is of utmost importance that trainees know about it and be able to utilize it in their teaching.
5) Trainers should pay special attention to the trainees' need in properly formulating lesson objectives. During the methodology practical classes more time should be devoted to practising the skill of formulating lesson objectives, because this causes serious problems for trainee teachers.

6) The relationship between the mentors and the trainees can be effective in case mentors view trainees as their colleagues and not as subordinated people, help them in everything, and they are friendly with each other.
7) It would be well worth repeating this study with different students and mentors in different schools in Transcarpathia whether these results are generalisable to the whole process.

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Appendix 1

Mentor questionnaire
(English version)

Dear Colleague,

With this questionnaire, I am collecting data for a study which aims to survey the role mentors play in teacher training college students' process of becoming competent teachers. The survey is anonymous; your data will be dealt with confidentially. Thank you for your help!

Huszti Ilona

1. Gender: Female Male
2. Age: …..
3. When did you obtain your degree? …….
4. What did you major in? ………………………………….……….
5. Your teaching experience: …….. years
6. What subject(s) do you teach? ………………………….
7. How many lesson do you teach a week in the school? ..…. lessons
8. Your qualifications (please indicate the appropriate answer(s))

Primary teacher's college degree
College degree
University degree
Mentor training course
PhD degree in the major subject
PhD degree in pedagogy
Other qualifications, please specify:

9. Your mentoring experience: ………… years
10. How do you provide feedback to the trainee teacher about their teaching?
11. How do you call their attention to mistakes in their teaching?
12. When do you praise the trainee teacher's work? In what way?
13. Which part of the process of planning teaching do you think causes the greatest problem to the trainee teachers?
14. What aspects does the trainee teacher need your help most of the times in?
15. How do you try to achieve the improvement of teaching of the practising teacher?
16. Do you participate in planning the trainee teacher's lesson? How? What role do you play?
17. Do you encourage the trainee teacher to apply the reflective teaching method?
18. What kind of human and personal relationship was formed between you and the trainee teacher? How? Why?

Appendix 2

Questionnaire
about the role of mentors
(English version)

Dear Trainee teacher,

I would like to survey with the help of this questionnaire what our college students think about their mentors during the teaching practice. By a mentor in this survey I mean the school teacher who is responsible for your teaching practice and whose lessons you observe in the school. The survey is anonymous; your data will be dealt with confidentially. Thank you for your help.

Huszti Ilona

Gender: male ……..   female ……..

Age: …………

Year, major subject: ………………………………..

A. Observation of the mentor's work

1. Did you get enough guidance from your mentor as to what to observe in his or her lessons? How did it help you in the observation?

B. Lesson planning

2. How did you plan your lessons?

a) together with your mentor

b) you planned them on your own, later your mentor confirmed it

c) other, please specify: ………………………..

3. What kind of advice did your mentor give you before planning the lessons?

4. Did your mentor call your attention to the possible pitfalls related to planning a vertain sequence of exercises?

5. Did your mentor help you in formulating the objectives of a lesson?

C. Analysis and evaluation of the trainee teacher's teaching

6. How did your mentor analyse your teaching process?

a) first my mentor underlined the positive issues

b) my mentor started with criticising, pinpointing the negative features

c) other, please specify: ………………………..

7. How did you mentor's feedback and analysis influence you in general?

8. How did your mentor make suggestions concerning the improvement of the quality of your teaching?

9. Did your mentor draw your attention to your strengths and weaknesses in teaching?

10. How was the mentor's feedback given to you?
a) my mentor supported me in everything
b) my mentor only criticized me
c) my mentor only praised me
d) my mentor was not critical enough
e) other, please specify:……………………………………………………………
11. Did your mentor encourage you to use reflective teaching?

D. Relationship between the mentor and the practising teacher

12. How would you characterize the relationship between you and your mentor?
a)professional……………………………………………………...………
b) personal……………………………………………………………………

ENGLISH AS A LINGUA FRANCA IN LANGUAGE PEDAGOGY

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Abstract:
The widespread use of English as a lingua franca (ELF) necessitates changes in the way English is taught nowadays. In language pedagogy this implies a shift from predetermined monolingual contexts of use featuring idealised native speakers to the reality of online negotiation of meaning between non-native speakers of English from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds. Preparing learners for ELF interactions therefore entails a process- rather than product-oriented view of communication and the definition of competence in reference to the ability to handle the diversity, fluidity and unpredictability of ELF contexts. The task of ELT is then to create conditions where learning and using the language take place simultaneously through the learners' engagement on their own terms. It is suggested that a use-in-order-to-learn methodology can, among other things, be realised through the reintroduction of two outcasts of communicative language teaching, literature and translation.
Key words: English as a lingua franca, communicative competence, product/process of language learning

1 Introduction

The unprecedented speed of the global spread of English has resulted in fundamental changes in the way English is used around the world. One of the consequences of the rapid global expansion is that English often functions as a lingua franca (ELF) in the communication of non-native speakers who come from a wide variety of linguistic and cultural backgrounds. In fact, nowadays speakers whose first language is other than English constitute the majority of English language users and most non-native speakers communicate in English with other non-native speakers (Graddol, 1997; Llurda, 2004). According to a 1991 estimate, non-native speakers are involved in 80% of the exchanges conducted in English (Beneke as cited in Seidlhofer, 2004). Over the past 20 years this ratio must have risen considerably, and now English must be used even more widely by those whose mother tongue is not English.

If English language teaching (ELT) intends to keep up with the current developments in the use of English, it has to follow suit and implement changes in the way the language is taught. Given the fact that non-native speakers outnumber native speakers, when preparing learners for ELF communication, the target interlocutors should be those with whom learners are most likely to speak English outside the classroom, i.e., other non-native speakers. This then implies contexts of use where less shared knowledge (both linguistic and cultural) can be assumed between the interlocutors, and therefore it is more difficult to predict what kind of English other ELF speakers will be using and how. As a consequence, in ELF situations there is an increased need for flexibility and awareness of diversity as well as for the ability to adjust to the changing circumstances of online negotiation of meaning. Since current ELT approaches aim to enable learners to function efficiently in acts of communication with native speakers, a shift of focus is necessary for ELT to meet the demands of the widespread international use of English.

In this paper I highlight why past and current approaches to ELT fail to provide conditions for an ELF-oriented language pedagogy and propose the reconsideration of some of the basic tenets of communicative language teaching. I will also argue for the reintroduction of two outlaws of communicative language teaching, literature and translation, by demonstrating how they can create conditions where learners have cope with challenges similar to the ones they face when they act as ELF users outside the classroom.

2 ELT approaches and methods: past and present

Approaches preceding communicative language teaching (CLT) aimed to develop learners' competence, which entailed the knowledge of grammar. The target students were supposed to achieve was the grammatical knowledge of an idealised native speaker. This view of the notion of competence stemmed from Chomsky's (1965) definition:

> Linguistic theory is concerned primarily with an ideal speaker-listener, in a completely homogeneous speech community, who knows its language perfectly and is unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions as memory limitations, distractions, shifts of attention and interest, and errors (random or characteristic) in applying his knowledge of the language in actual performance. (p. 3)

Grammatical correctness was therefore the main criterion against which learner performance in the foreign language was judged in pre-communicative approaches. What counted as correct or incorrect usage was determined in reference to the knowledge of grammar of Chomsky's ideal native speaker-listener.

Dissatisfaction with the limitations of Chomsky's notion of competence has given rise to an amended definition which has expanded the concept and included the "rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless" (Hymes, 1972, p. 60). The thus developed notion of communicative competence (Hymes, 1972) served as one of the basic tenets of communicative language teaching (Richards & Rodgers, 1986). Of the four components of communicative competence (see Appendix A), the one related to the context of use, i.e., appropriateness is the most relevant to CLT whose overall aim has been appropriate target language behaviour, including the knowledge of "when to speak, when not, and as to what to talk about with whom, when, where, in what manner" (Hymes, 1972, p. 60). As in the case of previous ELT approaches and methods, in CLT, too, native speaker norms serve as the yardstick against which the appropriateness of the learners' use of English is measured. In other words, "communicative target behaviour refers to the target language of the native speaker community in contexts of language use" (Seidlhofer, 1999, p. 237).

Evidence of the fact that learners of English are expected to conform to native speaker norms of appropriateness can be found in the literature. For example, in reference to reading, Ur (1996) observes that "ultimately we want our learners to be able to cope with the same kinds of reading that are encountered by native speakers of the target language" (p. 150). In addition and perhaps more importantly, the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (Council of Europe, 2001), which provides guidelines for the assessment of foreign language proficiency, often judges foreign language learners' ability to use the language appropriately in reference to the demands and norms of interaction with native speakers (see, for example, Appendix B).

Although Hymes's (1972) intention was to replace Chomsky's concept of the ideal native speaker-listener with real native-speaker language users and situate language "in the flux and pattern of communicative events" (Hymes, 1994, p. 12), the notion of communicative competence in CLT has retained the abstract and idealised nature of Chomsky's construct (Illés, 2011; Widdowson, 2012). Even though priority is given to appropriateness rather than correctness, when using the foreign language appropriately, learners are still supposed to "emulate the idealized monolingual native speaker" (Kramsch, 1997). As a result, in CLT, students have to aim particularly high by trying to achieve the standards set by a non-existent native speaker "who knows its language perfectly" (Chomsky, 1965, p. 3). As a consequence, according to Alptekin (2002), the notion of communicative competence "*with its standardized native speaker norms, is as utopian as the notion of the idealized native speaker-listener*" (p. 59, italics in original).

Dubin (1989) sums up what happened during the transfer of the notion of communicative competence from research to language teaching as follows:

> … it is apparent that over time there has been a shift away from an agenda for finding out what is happening in a community regarding language use to a set of statements about what an idealized curriculum for L2 learning/acquisition should entail . . . [The concept of communicative competence] has moved away from being a societally-grounded theory in terms of describing and dealing with actual events and practices of communication which take place within particular cultures. (p. 174)

What is then required of students in terms of appropriateness in foreign language use in CLT is a top-of-the-range product, similar to a Ferrari among cars, which can be approximated but never really obtained by a non-native speaker. Yet, the task of ELT professionals, who are predominantly non-native speakers themselves, is to prepare their students for communication with imagined native-speakers to whose idealised norms L2 speakers of English are expected to conform unilaterally.

The validity of a pedagogic model which is based on native speaker competence in abstracted target language settings, representing idealised rules of use (Alptekin, 2002) has been questioned by ELT educationalists recently. Their main argument is that such a model fails to reflect the sociolinguistic reality of the international use of English, and the lingua franca status of English in particular (Alptekin, 2002). Critics of the status quo point out that ELT has to take notice of the sociocultural and language changes that have taken place over the past couple of decades and should apply the insights gained by ELF research to the practice of English language teaching in a pedagogically appropriate manner. Such an endeavour then necessarily implies the re-examination and possibly the recast of the notion of communicative competence (Leung, 2005). The new definition of communicative competence has to include the concern with ELF contexts of use and the bi- or multilingual non-native speakers who use English as “as a convenient means for communicative interactions that cannot be conducted in their mother tongues” (VOICE, 2013).

3 Implications of ELF for English language teaching

As has been outlined above, the predominant use of English comprises exchanges where English functions as a lingua franca, which includes “any use of English among speakers of different first languages for whom English is the communicative medium of choice, and often the only option” (Seidlhofer, 2011, p. 7). The overwhelming majority of these speakers of English are non-native speakers who often use the language in settings where there is no native-speaker present (Beneke as cited in Seidlhofer, 2004). As a consequence of this, native speaker norms of correctness and appropriateness do not pertain to ELF contexts. In Alptekin’s (2007) words:

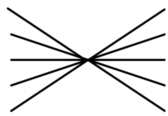
> But ELF is not a local language with a local culture. It is an international language with the world as its culture. As a case in point, conventions of British politeness, both in cultural and linguistic terms, are chiefly irrelevant in the ELF world. (p. 268)

The contradiction in ELT stems from the gap between what is happening to and in English outside the classroom and the fact that English is still taught as a foreign language with native speakers as the model and target. While ELF communication involves the interaction of mainly non-native speakers representing a wide range of languages and a multiplicity of cultures, the classroom reflects a native-speaker oriented communication. The difference may be expressed as follows:

3.1 ELF communication

Non-native speakers + **Native and non-native speakers**

Variety of languages and cultures

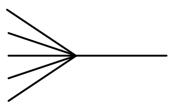


Variety of languages and cultures

3.2 Native speaker oriented communication in ELT

Non-native speakers + **Idealised native speaker**

Variety of languages and cultures



target language; stereotypical target language culture

Figure 1:
The difference between ELF communication and native-speaker oriented communication in ELT (based on Illés, 2011).

The task for ELT therefore is to bring the two realities – international and classroom use of English – into alignment by designing methods that create conditions which allow learners to prepare for the diversity, fluidity and unpredictability of ELF communication. This implies a change of perspective in at least two respects. One such shift should be regarding the local/global aspect of English language use and teaching. Widdowson (2003) points out that the kind of English which is taught globally is, in fact, the language of a small group of educated native speakers who use it locally in their speech communities. If, however, the concern is English as an international means of communication, the reverse should hold, and English "which is global in its use" (p. 159) should be "local in its learning" (p. 159). This means that English should be taught in a way that meets the particular requirements of specific local teaching contexts rather than accepting the current one-size-fits-all methodology.

Another change should involve moving the attention from the desired product of language teaching (i.e., appropriate native speaker behaviour) to the process of how meaning is created online in various contexts of use. In other words, ELT should focus on the assembly line and not the finished car. This then necessarily entails giving up the unrealistic target of producing native speaker clones who know the language perfectly.

A process-oriented approach can be implemented in the classroom if the classroom provides conditions where learners can acquire English through using the language, i.e., through being engaged in online negotiation of meaning on their own terms both linguistically and schematically. Applying a "use-in-order-to-learn" methodology (Grundy, 2007, p. 244) can ensure that learners do not need to adopt an idealised native speaker's language and worldview but are encouraged to develop their own ELF speaker schemata and their own idiolect (which will necessarily display the influence of their first language). The language class should not, therefore, be the venue of rehearsing future exchanges with native speakers but, rather, the location where genuine communication takes place which bears a close resemblance to exchanges conducted in English outside the classroom. In other words, there should be a shift from the practice of teaching language *for* communication to teaching language *as* communication (Widdowson, 1978). Seidlhofer (2011) summarises this as follows:

> What really matters is that the language should *engage learners' reality and activate the learning process*. Any kind of language that is taught in order to achieve this effect is appropriate, and this will always be a matter of local decision. So what is crucial is not so much what language is presented as input but what learners make of it, and how they make use of it to develop the capability for languaging. (p.198, my emphasis)

The focus on the learning process and the learners instead of native speakers raises the question of whose norms should serve as the yardstick against which appropriateness in contexts where English functions as a lingua franca should be judged. Who provides the rules of correctness or of language use? Since the interlocutors come from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds, they bring with themselves different perceptions of what is considered correct or appropriate, and the rules emerge as a result of negotiation between the participants. In such contexts, the rules are not given in advance but are worked out by the interlocutors in relation to the characteristics and specific requirements of particular situations. This implies that interlocutors do not have to adopt predefined native speaker norms but have to learn to adapt new patterns of behaviour instead.

The linguistic forms and pragmatic norms created online as a result of ELF users' cooperative effort involve "both common ground and local variation" (Jenkins, 2009, p. 201). The common ground is comprised of the norms that are shared as a result of the commonalities that prevail in ELT internationally, including the choice of a native speaker variety. This common ground also contains forms and norms that have emerged through the lingua franca use of English (see, for example, the VOICE corpus (2013) which provides data about how English is used by mainly non-native speakers) and through the influence of ELF speakers' first and additional languages (Jenkins, 2009). Local variation, on the other hand, comes about as ELF users "adjust their speech in order to make it more intelligible and appropriate for their specific interlocutor(s)" (Jenkins, 2009, p. 201). Adjustment strategies include code-switching, paraphrasing and repetition as well as the avoidance of idioms (Jenkins, 2009). It must be noted, however, that these characteristics feature in all types of communication, not only ELF. What distinguishes ELF interactions in this regard is not the nature but the size of the area and the constituents of the common ground (i.e., shared knowledge) and the greater extent to which the lingua franca use of English requires accommodation and communicative strategies. Since participants in ELF interactions represent a wider variety of linguistic and cultural backgrounds, communication between them necessitates more overt negotiation of meaning and "an enhanced awareness of the contextual and interactional dimensions of language use" (Canagarajah, 2007, p. 924).

4 ELF in the practice of ELT

In order for an ELF-oriented pedagogy to be implemented, the task is to find ways which pose the challenges that ELF users encounter when they speak English with other non-native speakers. The difficulties of the implementation of such practice stem partly from the composition of the foreign language class where learners of English not only speak the same first language but share the same or similar cultural backgrounds as well. Methods aiming to replicate ELF language use, on the other hand, have to include the experience of otherness and diversity that ELF interactions entail. It seems that two outcasts of CLT can fit the bill in that they can offer alternative and often very different worldviews together with a bi- or multilingual context.

One of the two outlaws is literature, which, by its very nature, promotes individual engagement by presenting a new reality:

> What is distinctive about literary texts […], is that they provoke diversity by their very generic design in that they do not directly *refer* to social and institutionalized versions of reality but *represent* an alternative order that

> can only be individually apprehended. They focus […] not on the social contours but on personal meanings. (Widdowson, 2003, p. 135; original emphasis)

Because of its unconventional nature, literature poses problems which require the exploitation of many of the resources available to the reader. As a consequence, when trying to interpret literary texts, students, too, have to make more effort and activate not only their linguistic and schematic knowledge but various meaning-making strategies as well. It must be noted, however, that encouraging learner participation requires a kind of approach to literature teaching which does not impose the writer's assumed or the teacher's or other authorities' interpretation but allows the students to actively authenticate the text in reference to their own experiences. As can be seen from Doris Lessing's (1972) observation, allowing only one interpretation, in fact, defeats the object in the case of literature:

> And from this kind of thought has emerged a new conclusion: which is that it is not only childish of a writer to want readers to see what he sees, to understand the shape and aim of a novel as he sees it – his wanting this means that he has not understood a most fundamental point. Which is that the book is alive and potent and fructifying and able to promote thought and discussion *only* when its plan and shape and intention are not understood, because that moment of seeing the shape and the plan and intention is also the moment when there isn't anything more to get out of it (p. xx).

The teaching of literature not only allows for individual involvement and interpretations but can offer opportunities for local decision-making and a reversal of the current 'local language, global teaching' practice (Widdowson, 2003). In order to motivate learners to engage with a text both linguistically and schematically, teachers need to find pieces of literature which arouse their students' interest and suit their immediate learning needs as well. What the teacher and students make of a text on a particular occasion should, too, be a matter of local decisions by the participants in a specific language classroom.

Literary texts used in the classroom do not have to be long or complicated. Even relatively simple ones, such as the poem in Appendix C, can serve as a starting point for discussion or the writing poetry by the students themselves. In addition, the linguistic creativity inherent in text messages can also be exploited for pedagogical purposes, and students can be encouraged to write their own pieces with deliberate flouting of the rules of spelling. Although the example in Appendix D was one of the entries in a competition for 5- to 12-year-olds in Tasmania (Crystal, 2008), learners of English, too, must be able to exploit the regularities (or irregularities in relation to Standard English norms) in the formation of text messages in English.

Even though the currently dominant monolingual language pedagogy (Widdowson, 2003) has banished the use of the learners' mother tongue and with it translation, there are several reasons why translation should feature in an ELF-oriented language teaching practice. First of all, both ELF and translation form a link between languages and cultures, and necessarily imply bi- and multilingualism. Both ELF and translation studies reflect a shift of attention from an idealised product to the process of online making meaning (N.B. This feature is less markedly present in translation theory). As Cook (2012) observes:

> The implications of translation studies for translation practice are mirrored by those arising from ELF for language teaching and testing. Reflecting the rejection of abstract models of good translation by translation studies, ELF too is less concerned with any disembodied idealisations of English than with what works for actual speakers in specific circumstances. (p. 246)

As a result of a change in perspective, both ELF and translation studies have done away with static rule-based models featuring one-to-one correspondences and have adopted dynamic models which are concerned with immanent use and the actual discourse of real rather than idealised participants (Cook, 2012). Throughout, the emphasis is on the choices ELF users and translators have and the decisions they make rather than the pursuit of perfect ideals.

Translation, especially covert translation which is geared towards the needs of the target language audience (House, 2006), necessitates a careful consideration of the target audience's background knowledge so that the translation can fulfil the function of the original text. Rendering a tourist brochure written for Hungarians in English, for instance, includes the task of gauging how much and what kind of shared knowledge can be assumed with the future readers of the brochure who come from all over the world and the majority of whom are non-native ELF speakers. Learners need to take the perspective of the target audience and modify the source text accordingly. For example, they have to make decisions about what to include and what not, what they think is relevant for an international audience, what needs to be omitted because of being too culture-specific, etc. In so doing, learners need to be made aware of the fact that the process of translation consists of a series of decisions regarding many different levels of equivalence, including both semantics and pragmatics (Cook, 2010).

5 Conclusions

The main aim of the present paper was to investigate what changes have become necessary in ELT as a result of the widespread use of English as a lingua franca.

The findings suggest that some of the basic tenets of ELT, including key notions such as communicative competence, have to be reconsidered in order to enable learners to cope with the challenges interaction with speakers from a variety of linguistic and cultural backgrounds presents.

First of all, in an ELF-oriented teaching of English the target has to be redefined and as a consequence, native speaker competence has to be replaced with the competence of a bi- or multilingual user who can successfully cope with the demands of ELF communication. In addition, the attention should focus on real language users with the diversity and individual needs that they represent rather than on idealised speakers who are assumed to be able to speak the language perfectly. Second, learners of English have to be prepared for communication with speakers of English who, very much like themselves, are users of English as a lingua franca. Since the parameters of future contexts of language use cannot be determined in advance as in the case of interaction with idealised native speakers, the teaching of English has to focus on the process of communication rather than the product, i.e., what is seen as correct and appropriate native speaker language use. Third, it follows from the previous point that the rule-governed approach currently applied in ELT has to be replaced with a problem-focused practice where learners work out what is correct and appropriate in relation to the requirements of particular situations.

It has been suggested that in order to adopt an ELF-oriented approach, two outcasts of mainstream communicative language teaching should be reinstated as they, with some updating and adaptation, can create conditions which provide the kind of challenges that learners of English are likely to face in ELF exchanges. It must be borne in mind, however, that my intention in this paper has been to put forward proposals, knowing all too well that the final decisions always lie with those who work at the chalkface.

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APPENDIX A

Hymes (1972) Communicative competence

I would suggest, then, that for language and for other forms of communication (culture), four questions arise:

1. Whether (and to what degree) something is formally *possible*;
2. Whether (and to what degree) something is *feasible* in virtue of the means of implementation available;
3. Whether (and to what degree) something is *appropriate* (adequate, happy, successful) in relation to a context in which it is used and evaluated;
4. Whether (and to what degree) something is in fact done, actually *performed*, and what its doing entails. (p. 63)

APPENDIX B

Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment

1 Common Reference Levels
1.1 Global scale

B2 Independent user

Can understand the main ideas of complex text on both concrete and abstract topics, including technical discussions in his/her field of specialisation. Can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible without strain for either party. Can produce clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects and explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and disadvantages of various options.

(Council of Europe, 2001, p. 5)

APPENDIX C

London Airport

Last night in London Airport
I saw a wooden bin
Labelled UNWANTED LITERATURE
IS TO BE PLACED HEREIN.
So I wrote a poem
and popped it in.
(Christopher Logue; http://www.poemhunter.com/poem/london-airport/)

APPENDIX D

Quik hurry-up & txt me
Tell me u luv me
Tell me how much u want me
Tell me im da 1
Oops wrong person
i sent it 2 my mum

(Crystal, 2008, p. 75)

A CASE STUDY OF A JAPANESE-HUNGARIAN SECONDARY-SCHOOL EFL STUDENT: THE INTERACTION OF SOCIOCULTURAL IDENTITY, LANGUAGES AND WILLINGNESS TO COMMUNICATE

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Abstract:
In the present study a Japanese-Hungarian secondary-school student's identity, language learning and cultural experiences were explored in order to detect the possible barriers concerning her willingness to communicate in English. Data collection consisted of two parts: first, McCroskey's (1992) three modified questionnaires were filled in by my participant; then, four interviews were conducted with three stakeholders and my participant. Questionnaires measured the student's willingness to communicate (WTC), self-perceived communication competence (SPCC) and communication apprehension (CA), while the interviews focused on identity, languages and acculturation. Low level WTC, SPCC and average CA in English were found in the questionnaire data, whereas the interviews identified high acculturation and strong identity related to L2 which caused her rapid progress in Hungarian. Environment change played a major role in her identity construction which seems to weaken her preference towards the Japanese language and self, despite her struggle with formal language in Hungarian due to cultural conflict.
Keywords: multilingualism, identity, acculturation, willingness to communicate

1 Introduction

It is commonly held in the existing literature concerning bilingualism (Baker, 2006; Franceschini, 2009; Marian, 2008) that highly proficient bilinguals tend to have cognitive advantages which enable them to learn other languages more easily, in contrast with their monolingual peers. Also it is believed by scholars that those multilinguals who acquired two or more languages in childhood, are able to master languages without further difficulty. However, the present study deals with the case of a Japanese-Hungarian secondary school EFL student who learnt Hungarian and English later in life, in the adolescent period, in a Hungarian context. My aim was to reveal my participant's level of acculturation in Hungary and her L2, L3 learning and use, referring to becoming multilingual later in life.

In this research my participant's willingness to communicate in English is elaborated on and the influencing aspects which derive from her rich linguistic and cultural background. Having considered these aspects, my research aims to answer questions such as how my participant as a trilingual reconstructs her sense of selves, and how these selves influence her language learning. I intended to reveal how acculturation affects Hungarian (L2) and English (L3) learning, and what those barriers are which cause her difficulties in speaking L3. My participant acquired first Japanese then learnt Hungarian; however, her L3 learning seemed to be less successful. Moreover, Japanese-Hungarian is a rare combination, especially if we consider the bilingual literature; therefore, I decided to investigate this issue further.

2 Theoretical background

2.1 Bilingualism and multilingualism

According to earlier definitions, bilingualism required the full proficiency of two languages at the same level. However, meanwhile the meaning of this term changed, it allowed a broader diversity in competence. In other words, those who are conversationally fluent in more than one language, will be called bilinguals (Edwards, 2010). In contrast, Diebold (1964; cited in Baker, 2006, p. 8) has a minimalist perspective which perceives everybody with minimal competence as bilingual. According to Baker (2006), if someone gets into a new situation where he or she has to acquire a new language in order to function in that environment, can be named as 'circumstantial bilingual' (p. 4).

Aronin and Hufeisen (2009) suggested that individuals who can interact in two languages are bilinguals and those who use three or more languages belong under the concept of 'multilinguals' (p. 4). If the two or more languages are not equally balanced, the person is referred to as 'an unbalanced multilingual' (Meuter, 2005, p. 349). Quay (2001) applied the term 'trilingualism' also for a person who is learning a third language at school later in life, which is the most frequent phenomenon (p. 149). Baker (2006) also referred to passive, developing trilingualism which means that the third language is less active for either contextual reasons or because the language is not developed enough. Referring to the minimalist view and relying on Baker's (2006) and Quay's (2001) theory, I am going to refer to my participant as an unbalanced developing trilingual.

2.2 Identity as a sociocultural construct and its relation to L2 and L3 learning

Norton (2006) investigated the relationship between identity and language learning. According to the new concept, identity is seen as a sociocultural construct in which both institutional and community practices are important to see the circumstances in which language learners communicate in the target language. This sociocultural approach suggests that identity is intense and constantly developing, depending on time and place. Norton (1995) also suggested that identity incorporates the language learner and the setting of language learning. While speaking, language learners are continuously organizing and re-organizing their sense of self and their relation to the social world. Nevertheless, communication and social interaction are included in the language learners' social identity (Norton, 1995). The identity of my research participant needs to be reconstructed in order to elaborate on her language acquisition and learning. The complexity of her life history made me rely on Norton's (2006) and Baker's (2006) theory to explain how her identities are connected to her languages.

2.3 The relationship between acculturation, L2, L3 learning and social distance

Schumann's (1986; cited in Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991), approach of acculturation means that the extent to which a language learner acculturates to the native speaker community, will regulate his or her second language acquisition. One can distinguish two types of acculturation: first, "learners are both socially integrated into the target-language group and psychologically open to the target language". Second, learners could integrate in the society and they are intellectually open, but also intentionally or unintentionally hope to follow the linguistic behaviour and values of the target language group (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991, pp. 257-258).

Mastering the target language standards relies on the social distance between the language learner and native speakers of the target language (Towell & Hawkins, 1994). In the sense of acculturation, social distance represents the distance between those groups of the society which possess a different culture. Schumann's (1986; cited in Brown, 1986, p. 40) hypothesis indicates that the extent of social distance between two cultures has an influence on second language learning, more specifically, if an individual has a high level of social distance, then second language acquisition is supposed to be more difficult for that person.

2.4 Willingness to communicate, communication apprehension and self-perceived communication competence

Willingness to communicate (WTC) in L1 is defined as the feasibility of engagement in communication when one is free to do so, as stated by McCroskey (1997) and MacIntyre and his colleagues (1998) established further a model which explains WTC behaviour in L2. Research has shown that other factors, like perceived communication competence, communication anxiety and age also influence WTC in L2 (Matsuoka & Evans, 2005). There is a distinction between trait, situational and state WTC. MacIntyre (2007) indicated that at the trait level, variables are relatively constant, situational variables are highly changeable and at the state level variables are concerned with experience in a specific moment in time. Yashima (2002) investigated further WTC behaviour in Japan and created an additional factor which is called international posture. This factor contains curiosity about foreign or international affairs, willingness to travel outside Japan, eagerness to communicate with intercultural partners, and openness toward other cultures. Those students who have international posture are said to be more confident in L2 and are more open to speak up in the English classroom.

One main contributor of willingness to communicate is called communication apprehension, as reported by McCroskey and his colleagues (1985). It is one's anxiety about communication with another person in his or her own native language or in the case of this research in his or her target language, in a real or hypothetical situation. Self-perceived communication competence (SPCC) is the other factor which influences willingness to communicate. McCroskey (1982; cited in Nagy, 2005, p. 3) claimed that SPCC refers to an individual's self-esteem in connection with his or her communicative ability. In my research this term relates to foreign language competencies.

3 Methods

3.1 The educational and cultural context

The differences and similarities between the Hungarian and Japanese educational system are important in the light of this research as well as cultural differences and similarities. In Japan, elementary school education lasts for six years in which students must enrol at the age of six. After that they must attend junior high school until the age of fifteen, which is the national duty. Education at junior high school is followed by high school, which takes three years to complete. In contrast to this system in Hungary education at elementary school lasts for eight years, while at high school students have to study for four years. However, there are high school institutions in which students can enrol after completing four or six years at elementary school and as a consequence, they have to study eight or six years more at high school which is similar to the stages of the Japanese system. Students in Hungary are obligated to attend school until the age of sixteen.

Most public schools in Japan follow the traditional, national curriculum, which is about frontal, grammar-translation based education. The main reason behind this teaching method is the teacher's duty to prepare the students for the high school entrance examination. However, this way of teaching fails to provide students with functional use of language. As a result, students may know the rules of language usage very well, but are unable to use it. The Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT, 2011) introduced recently a new proposal, which stresses the significance of developing students' English language proficiency in public elementary and secondary education. *The New Courses of Study* intends to improve all the language skills with special focus on oral communication through communicative teaching methods. On the other hand, research about the actual situation proved that teachers are facing difficulties to apply these new methods because the cultural context and the teaching environment are not adequate for the revised purpose

(Butler, 2011). Japan's exam culture and deeply rooted traditional values do not correspond with MEXT's regulations which give pressure to both students and teachers as reported by Butler who suggested that new teaching methods should be formulated in accordance with the Japanese context.

In Hungary, the National Core Curriculum (Ministry of National Resources, 2012) emphasizes cooperative teaching methods and communicative language teaching in public schools. The aim of the new curriculum is to develop students' communicative competence, cultural sensitivity in order to interact successfully with speakers of the target language. Theoretically, all the institutions should follow this curriculum, however at most schools it is not implemented because teachers are still completely dependent on the textbook exercises and grammar drills. At the end of high school, every student has to pass the school leaving examination in the subject of the first language (English or German) and this examination does not only focus on grammar accuracy but on all the skills. It is also worth mentioning that in Hungary students start learning the first foreign language (English or German) at elementary school at fourth grade, the latest, which is similar to Japan. In case the Hungarian elementary school can afford to provide foreign language education from the first grade, then it is possible for the students to learn English from the age of six or at any grade (Ministry of National Resources, 2012). My research participant studied English for three years at a public junior high school in Japan. After graduation she enrolled in a high school in Hungary where she continued her English language studies.

It is also important to note that Japanese and Hungarian cultures differ and share some similarities as well; hence these cultures have to be carefully interpreted as possible influences on identity and language learning. One of the significant differences between Hungarian and Japanese schools derives strongly from culture and this is the so called "keigo" (honorific language). Respect towards seniors at school is very strict in Japan. Junior students have to use honorific Japanese when they speak with their seniors and also they have to use humble language when juniors talk about themselves in front of their senior. In Hungarian formal language is present as well but it is only used at school when students address teachers, not their peers; therefore, the Hungarian language might seem less strict than Japanese. Moreover, while the Hungarian language is direct in nature, Japanese is indirect which means that Japanese people tend to express themselves in a more ambiguous way in order to maintain respect and avoid conflict.

3.2 Research questions

1. How does Mina reconstruct her sense of selves?
2. How do her mother and her teachers perceive her identity?

3. How does the community environment and acculturation influence her language learning and use?
4. How do Mina and other people perceive Mina's L1, L2 and L3?
5. What are those barriers which cause her difficulties in communicating in English?

3.3 Participants

The main participant of this case study, under the pseudonym of Mina, is a Japanese-Hungarian secondary-school student, whose mother is Hungarian and father is Japanese. She was born in Japan but at the age of fifteen moved to Hungary where she is currently studying her subjects in Hungarian. While Mina was in Japan, she gained some input in Hungarian from her mother but at the same time she did not acquire productive skills in that language, only receptive skills. My participant was socialized in Japan; therefore, I was interested in the interaction of her identity, acculturation and language learning and use, considering the significant cultural gap between Hungary and Japan. English is also essential in her case because she is on the path to become an artist and this field of study requires communicative foreign language skills, because artists need to make their artwork well-known all over the world in order to be successful.

Three other stakeholders took part in this research. One of them was Mina's mother who answered questions in connection with her daughter and her own life. Similarly to her daughter she is an artist who has been living in Japan for twenty years by now with her Japanese husband. She can speak three languages: Hungarian, English and Japanese; however, she is not able to read and write in Japanese which caused her difficulties to integrate into the Japanese society. Her husband speaks only Japanese; therefore, they mostly communicated with Mina in Japanese. I conducted an interview with Mina's Hungarian language tutor as well who has taught her for three years now. Mina attends her sessions once a week for two hours. Mina's English and homeroom teacher at high school was my third stakeholder who talked about my participant. She has taught Mina for two years and a half.

3.4 Data collection procedure and instruments

This research was carried out in September, 2012, and lasted until April, 2013. The instruments applied in this study included questionnaires about my participant's WTC, communication apprehension and self-perceived communication competence in L3; moreover, four interviews conducted in Hungarian, with four participants: Mina, her mother, her Hungarian language tutor and her English language teacher.

The WTC questionnaire is adapted from Nagy (2005), who modified McCroskey's (1992) assessment scale, designed for native speakers, to concern Hungarian students' L2. Mina had filled in the questionnaire in English but she received assistance when she did not know the vocabulary. With this instrument I assessed my participant's WTC in English and she evaluated herself by giving a percentage for her WTC in different situations and with different circumstances connected to everyday life (Nagy, 2005). The second questionnaire, in which 24 statements were included, tested communication apprehension. The original test, created by McCroskey (1992) was modified by Nagy to concern English language learners. Self-perceived communication competence was measured with the third questionnaire which also originated from McCroskey and Richmond (1987), and this questionnaire went through the same modifications as the previous tests by Nagy (2005). Further, four semi-structured interviews were carried out with four different participants. The interviews touched upon the following themes: identity, life history, acculturation, language learning, WTC, CA, SPCC. The interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed.

Triangulation is a relevant principle in qualitative research which "increases the internal validity of the study" by combining both insider, and outsider aspects of phenomena (Duff, 2008, p. 143). This research used methodological triangulation because it operated with both quantitative and qualitative methods. Data triangulation was fulfilled by the different sources of information and multiple perspectives possessed by the interview participants. Thick description (Mackey & Gass, 2005) helps the audience to see whether the findings can be transferred to their research setting based on the similarity of context. This study provided thick description in the form of interpretive commentary.

3.5 Findings and discussion

3.5.1 Reconstruction of Mina's identity and its impact on language learning and use

Based on the interview responses, Mina was not clearly aware of her multiple selves; however it revealed itself in the interviews. Her Japanese identity seemed to be the most moderate and shy where she met completely the requirements of the Japanese society. While talking in Japanese, she was using appropriately the honorific speech and behaved accordingly, but she did not favor the strict and indirect nature of Japanese language and culture. On the other hand, Mina developed relatively quickly a clear and dominant Hungarian self. While speaking in Hungarian she demonstrated a more open personality and showed strong preference towards Hungarian, as illustrated by the following excerpt:

> I prefer to speak in Hungarian because I can express one thing in various ways.

Edwards (2010) suggested that bilingual people had double identities and it depended on the actual language use which identity became dominant in a particular situation. It can be concluded that Mina had two distinct clear selves which were partly dependent on her actual language use. Mina's Hungarian language tutor claimed that she was a very obedient student and this behaviour, obedience and discipline can be related to a Japanese self. As a consequence I drew the conclusion that Mina seemed to show her Japanese self while using Hungarian language in formal situation, such as in a classroom situation, talking to a teacher. However, she seemed to expose a Hungarian self when she interacted with friends and classmates in Hungarian.

Environment change shaped her identity in a way that she became more independent which was her first step towards adulthood; however, in the beginning of her residence in Hungary, she had to face language barriers and problems with formal language use in Hungarian, such as addressing her teachers or her grandmother in a formal, polite way. Mina's mother commented on the issue in the following excerpt:

> In a Hungarian environment, in a formal situation, she should speak with somebody in a very polite way, but she doesn't even realize it … and I think it causes her some difficulties.

Even though she had hardships, she felt comfortable with her Hungarian identity in contrast with the Japanese one where she had to follow strict conditions. My participant's Hungarian language learning was facilitated by her Hungarian identity to be able to integrate fully into the society.

3.5.2 The influence of community environment and acculturation on Mina's language learning and use

Mina had to learn Hungarian in order to function in the Hungarian society; therefore, she was motivated to learn the language and it enhanced her high acculturation. Mina could adapt to the new school successfully and even though she experienced some language barriers in Hungarian, she managed to handle them through building friendships with Hungarian peers which indicates low social distance. Due to cultural gap, she experienced culture shock as well; but achieved a high level of acculturation in a short period of time and eventually started to favour Hungarian culture and traditions in contrast to the Japanese.

My participant showed a very positive attitude towards Hungarian school and Hungarian culture as well. Mina seemed to favour something new to her, for example the lack of dress code at school, and also her age, being fifteen, contributed to her high acculturation. The other reason for her high acculturation, which may be the most important of all, is that she is Japanese-Hungarian.

> I think I look younger than other Japanese, and my face is a bit different.

Her appearance has got dominant Hungarian features which contributed to her successful adjustment and high acculturation. Successful integration into the Hungarian environment enhanced her Hungarian language learning and use and vice versa which confirmed Schumann's acculturation theory. She has reached an almost native level in Hungarian because she not only speaks but thinks and behaves in Hungarian by now.

3.5.3 Mina's language proficiency

In the interview Mina evaluated her Japanese skills as completely proficient, which was confirmed by other stakeholders. However, even though she had native proficiency in Japanese, she stated that in the future Japanese might be the language she would like to speak the least. She felt that Japanese language kept distance between people. Based on my observation, Mina was fully proficient in Japanese; however, she mainly used honorific language because she interacted in Hungary mostly with Japanese seniors, such as university students.

Mina evaluated her Hungarian listening and speaking skills very positively but she admitted her difficulties concerning reading speed and spelling. At first, her Hungarian language tutor perceived her Hungarian proficiency level as lower intermediate and that was the time when Mina's school started. As a child, her mother talked to her in Hungarian occasionally, and even though she was not willing to communicate in her mother's language in Japan, she gained some receptive skills. One teaching strategy of the mother is shown below:

> I labelled the whole house with words such as stairs, mirror, door, window… for her to get used to Hungarian and even visualize the words…

Now, that Mina is in Hungary, they only speak in Hungarian with each other. Reasons behind her rapid progress can be attributed to her Hungarian surrounding, age, high acculturation, clearly developed Hungarian self, motivation and good relationship and frequent contact with her mother.

Her English language proficiency was self-assessed by a questionnaire which focused on self-perceived communication competence.

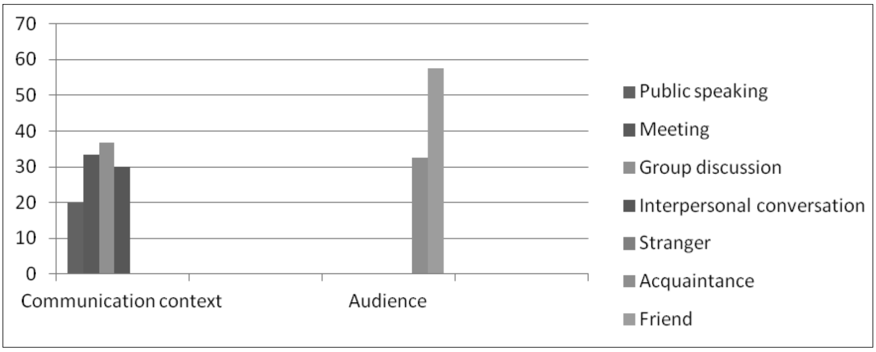

Figure 1:
Mina's self-perceived communication competence in English

Figure 1 demonstrates to what extent my participant felt that she was capable of communicating in English in four different situations with different people. The results indicated that she had a very low SPCC, compared to McCroskey's (1992) scoring system. According to the chart, she felt that she was unable to communicate with strangers and she gained highest scores in communicating with friends. Among the situations, public speaking was the least favourable for her while she perceived her communication competence highest in group discussion. The interview data shed further light on her receptive skills in English, which were more developed and she also acknowledged that she was anxious to speak up in English in the class because of her strong Japanese accent in English pronunciation. Referring to the theory in which proficient bilinguals tend to learn other languages more easily (Baker, 2006; Cenoz & Jessner, 2009; Franceschini, 2009; Marian, 2008) was not confirmed by the present findings, as Mina had difficulties with English language, in contrast with her high proficiency in Japanese and Hungarian. However the different research contexts need to be considered as a potential reason. Moreover, acquiring more languages in childhood leads to further success in language learning but in the case of adolescence, this case study demonstrated a different outcome.

3.5.4 Interference with Mina's WTC in English

3.5.4.1 Mina's WTC in L3

Mina's WTC could be related to Yashima's (2002) additional factor, called international posture. As a Japanese-Hungarian EFL student, Mina, by all means obtained international posture because she was willing to go abroad and adopt to new culture, get to know the target language community which had a postive impact on her WTC in Hungarian; however, this did not seem to facilitate her WTC in English. Mina's willingness to communicate in English was measured by a questionnaire, adopted from Nagy (2005).

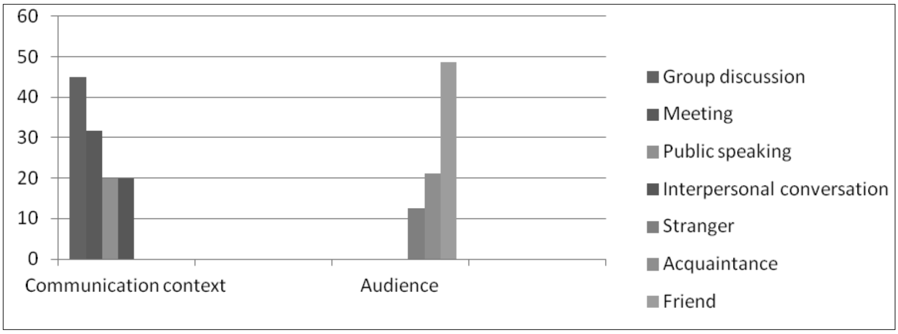

Figure 2:
Mina's WTC in English

Figure 2. shows my participant's willingness to communicate in her L3, in particular situations (communication context) with particular people (audience). As one can see from the bar chart, Mina was most willing to communicate in English when she was in a group with her friends. On the other hand, she was least willing to communicate in L3 when she had to talk to strangers in the form of interpersonal conversation, for example talking to strangers while lining up at the supermarket. This result indicated that my participant's generally low WTC in English differed greatly from her WTC in her L1 and L2; therefore, I listed the reasons behind her low WTC.

3.5.4.2 Communication apprehension and SPCC in L3

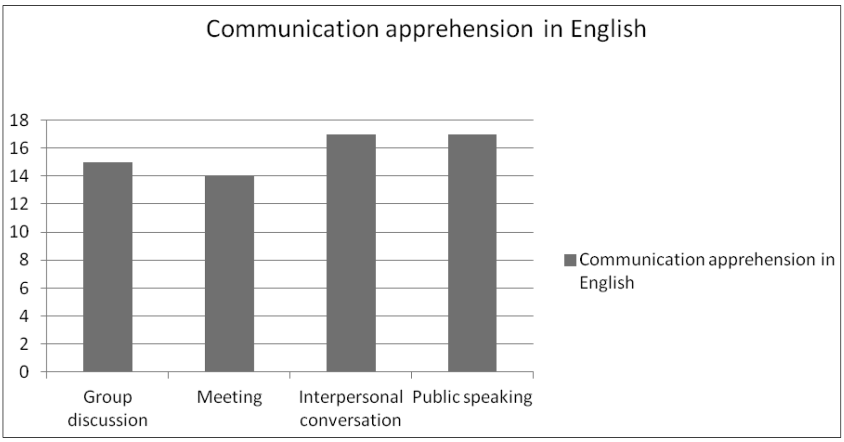

Figure 3.
Mina's CA in English

Figure 3 reveals that to what extent Mina was anxious about English language use in four given contexts. Her scores demonstrate that there was no significant deviation between the given situations. Her communication apprehension turned out to be the highest during interpersonal communication and public speaking and she felt least anxious about English during meetings. Her CA scores belonged to the average category but the interviews pointed at a slightly different outcome. Both Mina and her mother attributed her WTC due to her anxiety especially in connection with pronunciation. Moreover she was not provided with anxiety-free classroom environment. In addition, Mina's low self-perceived communication competence influenced her WTC as well (see Figure 1.).

3.5.4.3 Identity and community environment
Based on the results of the first two research questions, there is no obvious indication of a clear L3 self because of the lack of exposure and her English skills were not developed enough. As a consequence, her Japanese identity was the most dominant while using L3 which was a result of low SPCC and average CA. Her community environment was also determining because in Hungary she did not have much opportunity to use English. Even though she was seeking opportunities to talk to foreigners in English, she had a cultural conflict within herself as well as low SPCC and anxiety, derived from her Japanese self, which prevented her from communicating in English.

3.5.4.4 English classroom experiences
Mina's English teacher could not provide meaning focused tasks in the classroom and group discussions to reduce anxiety; therefore she was unable to meet her needs, probably because of the washback effect of the school leaving exams and lack of supportive materials to deal with multilingual students in the classroom. However, Mina has positive attitudes towards English and she stated that once she becomes more proficient in English, it will be more preferred than Japanese. Due to this change, her L1 will become her least likely spoken language because of its strict and indirect nature. As a consequence I can claim that Mina is able to overcome her low WTC; however she needs time and appropriate learning conditions to enhance her motivation.

4 Conclusions

This study has shown a case of a Japanese-Hungarian unbalanced trilingual student who demonstrated a rapid Hungarian language improvement due to her environment change, high acculturation in Hungary, low social distance, mother's influence and high motivation. The environment change shaped her identity in a positive way and she developed a clear L2 self. However, in the case of English, rapid improvement did not occur. She did not develop a clear L3 self. Mina earned low scores on WTC in English and it can be attributed to the lack of exposure, English classroom experiences, dominant Japanese self when using English, anxiety and low SPCC. A surprising outcome indicated a change in her attitude towards languages. Her Japanese seems to recess by the dominance of Hungarian due to her new life situation and her mother's influence. Moreover, English might become more favourable for my participant, than Japanese because of the latter's indirect nature. The limitations of this case study were shown in a sense that it examined only one participant; therefore, the results cannot be generalized. Further research about multilingualism and the interaction of identity and willingness to communicate could be conducted with more Japanese-Hungarian participants in different contexts.

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APPENDIX

Interview questions for Mina

I. Questions about her identity (L1, L2, L3)

1. Could you please introduce yourself in a few sentences in Japanese, Hungarian and English?
2. If you are asked who you are what is your typical answer?
3. How did people first react to your name in Japan and in Hungary?

II. Life history and L1 identity

4. How long did you live in Japan?
5. How did you feel in Japan?
6. How did people accept you in Japan? How do you think people felt about you?
7. Who were your friends in Japan?
8. How do you keep in touch with them?
9. How is your relationship with your parents? How has it changed over time?
10. How do you keep in touch with them often? Could you visit them?

III. Life history, L2 identity and acculturation

11. When did you come to Hungary and for what reason?
12. How do people accept you in Hungary? Why do you think is that?
13. How do you feel now in Hungary?

14. Please give examples for your experience of culture shock!
15. Can you tell me about your friends in here?
16. What problems did you have with integration?

IV. L2, L3 learning history and WTC
17. How did you learn the Hungarian language?
18. Did you have trouble with making yourself understood in Hungarian?
19. What are your main strengths in all three languages?
20. What are your weaknesses in all three languages?
21. How long have you learnt English?
22. How often do you use spoken English?
23. Why do you learning English?
24. What do you think about your speaking skills in English? Why do you think is that?
25. When you like to speak English?
26. Do you speak English outside of class? Why or why not?
27. What do you think about your speaking skills in Hungarian?
28. What do you think about your speaking skills in Japanese?
29. Which language do you like to speak the most and why?
30. Which language do you like to speak the least and why?

Interview questions for Mina's mother
I. Introductory questions about her life history
1. How would you characterize your daughter?
2. How long have you lived in Japan?
3. Why did you move to Japan?
4. Did you have any difficulties when integrating into the Japanese society?
5. How often do you visit Hungary?

II. Mina's identity and background
6. Could you please talk about your daughter? What kind of person is she?
7. Why did you decide to send Mina to a Hungarian high school?
8. What do you think about that decision now?
9. How do you think this decision affected Mina's life?

III. Mina's language acquisition, trilingualism and WTC in L1, L2
10. What languages can you speak?
11. What language do you usually use when you talk with your husband?
12. What language did you use with your daughter when she was little? Why?
13. What language do you use to your daughter now? Why?

14. What is Mina's attitude towards speaking in Japanese? Why do you think is that?

15. What do you think about Mina's speaking skills in Hungarian?

16. What is Mina's attitude towards speaking in Hungarian? Why do you think this is the case?

17. What do you know about Mina's English language skills?

18. Do you try to help her with English? If yes, how? For example do you talk to her in English sometimes?

Interview questions for Mina's English teacher

I. Mina's English language learning background

1. How long have you taught English?
2. What is your philosophy about English teaching?
3. What strategies do you use to make English meaningful to your students?
4. How do you help students experience success?
5. What methods do you use to develop English speaking skills?
6. Why do you think students from diverse cultural and educational backgrounds do not excel in school in contrast with traditional Hungarian students?

II. Mina's identity (L3) and WTC in English

7. How long have you taught Mina?
8. How would you describe Mina? What kind of student is she?
9. How does she behave in your English class?
10. How often does she speak up in class often?
11. What do you think about her English skills in general?
12. What do you think about her English speaking skills?
13. How do her peers accept her in the class? Did she succeed in integrating?

Interview questions for Mina's Hungarian language tutor

I. Mina's identity (L2) and L2 learning history

1. How long have you taught Mina?
2. How would you characterize Mina?
3. What language did you use as a language of instruction?
4. Did she have difficulties in understanding your Hungarian?
5. Did she have difficulties in making herself understood?
6. How was her Hungarian language skills when you first met her?
7. How was her speaking skills in Hungarian?
8. What strategies did you use to improve her speaking skills?
9. How did she develop her Hungarian?
10. What was her attitude towards speaking Hungarian? Why do you think is that?

IDIOMS BASED ON METAPHORS IN THE FLA PROCESS FROM A COGNITIVE LINGUISTIC PERSPECTIVE

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Abstract:
The present study deals with methods of teaching idioms, comparing the cognitive linguistic and the traditional perspectives, their advantages and drawbacks. It briefly drafts the main theses of conceptual metaphor theory together with their expediency in applied linguistics and language pedagogy. It also discusses modes of defining idiomatic expressions, their cognitive motivation and the problems occurring during their acquisition. It presents representative research confirming that by enhancing the cognitive consciousness of learners we facilitate the memorization of figurative meanings.
Keywords: conceptual metaphor (CM) theory, foreign language acquisition, idioms, figurative meaning

1 Introduction: reasons for choosing the topic

In the process of foreign language acquisition learners face numerous hindrances. For the various age-groups the acquisition of different skills means a problem. While young learners normally succeed in vocabulary building, their elder companions acquire grammar structures within a shorter period of time. The greatest difficulty, however, lies in the acquisition of expressions and word-combinations the meaning of which is not equal to the complex meaning of their counterparts. The acquisition of idiomatic expressions bearing figurative meaning, their pragmatically correct application, in case of a lack of appropriate teaching methods takes up a huge amount of time. Naturally, it is not only the learner, but the language teacher too, who has to face problematic idioms, however, teaching of them to L2 learners is a necessary element in the field of FL teaching. Idioms, idiomatic expressions are often difficult for learners, as they seem to be so random and arbitrary.

Although idiomatic expressions appear on a higher level of language application, in order to produce communication of high standard it is inevitable to learn their meaning, since idiomatic expressions are used so widely and commonly in spoken and written language that L2 learners have to prepare themselves to meet the challenge of learning and understanding them (Boers, Lindstromberg, 2008).

The present study demonstrates the educational possibilities of idiomatic expressions from a cognitive linguistic point of view, comparing them to the traditional approach. In the first part the basic concepts will be clarified relying on the literature published concerning the topic, then, the second part will deal with research which proves that idioms based on metaphors are more successfully and faster acquired by learners, provided that preference is given to methods represented by cognitive linguistics over the traditional way of learning by heart.

2 Defining idioms

To be able to see what the reason is that causes our hindrances during the memorisation and proper application of idioms, let us define what linguistic expressions we are dealing with. The linguistic categorisation and definition of idioms is problematic, since a great number of linguistic expressions can belong to the group. Proverbs, idiomatic turns, sayings, locutions etc. can be mentioned here.

2.1 The Traditional View

The traditional linguistic typology is based on semantic, lexical, syntactic, functional and lexicographic approaches (Moon, 1998). According to this an idiom, or idiomatic expression is a group of words the meaning of which cannot be deduced from the individual words that form it. In other words, idioms are considered as fixed chunks with arbitrary and thus unpredictable meanings. This arbitrariness refers to the link between an idiom and its figurative meaning. Within the traditional approach idioms are handled as an exclusively linguistic phenomenon, a part of the mental vocabulary, which are independent of our system of concepts. Idiomatic expressions are also independent of each other, and thus can only be both syntactically and semantically characterised individually. There are only connections of meaning existing between idioms (Kövecses, 2010).

2.2 The Cognitive Linguistic View

The linguistic investigations of the last thirty years have been striving to confirm the opposite of the statements mentioned above, or at least to question their pertinence. Concerning the classification of idioms Gibbs (1994) represents a perspective substantially more flexible than the traditional aspect. To his mind, “it is suggested that a conceptual syllabus should contain idioms, which beyond any doubt appear to be linguistic expressions of conceptual metaphors/metonymies, that is imageable idioms or metaphorical idioms or more general figurative idioms” (Andreou, Galamantos, 2008, p. 74).

Kövecses (2010) studies the semantics of idioms in detail and summarises the position of cognitive linguistics on the topic. The main theses are the following:

- The meanings of idioms are not completely predictable, but it is suggested that a large part of an idiom’s meaning is motivated.
- Idioms have psychological reality. Most of the idioms are not merely part of the mental lexicon, but also a product of our conceptual system. It is

a phenomenon originating in the conceptual system based on our knowledge of the world.
- There are at least three cognitive mechanisms that make the meanings of idioms motivated: a) metaphor, b) metonymy, and c) conventional knowledge.

These cognitive processes connect given elements of a domain of knowledge with the idiomatic meaning. Figure 1 demonstrates the conceptual motivation:

Figure 1. (Kövecses, 2010, p. 234)
Idiomatic meaning:
the overall special meaning of an idiom
Cognitive mechanism:
metaphor, metonymy, conventional knowledge (=domain(s) of knowledge)
Conceptual domain(s):
one or more domain(s) of knowledge
Linguistic forms and their meanings:
the words that comprise an idiom, their syntactic properties, together with their meanings

In the following part conceptual metaphors will be discussed in detail together with idiomatic linguistic expressions founded on them.

3 About the conceptual metaphor (CM) theory

Metaphors are traditionally rated to poetic pictures considering their interpretation to be the task of litterateurs. According to this, the function of metaphors is the reaching of some kind of artistic or rhetorical effect.

The cognitive linguistic theory of conceptual metaphors was explained by Lakoff and Johnson (1980) in their book entitled Metaphors We Live By. It became the basic literature cognitive linguists built upon during their further research. In the phrasing of Kövecses (2005), the conceptual metaphor from a cognitive linguistic perspective is the comprehension of a conceptual domain through the terms of another conceptual domain. He states that “metaphors are applied by ordinary people without the least of efforts (without being aware of that), it is not the privilege of exceptionally talented people” (Kövecses, 2005, p. 14). The linguistic exhibition of conceptual metaphors is metaphoric linguistic expressions.

Conceptual metaphors consist of two parts, a source domain and a target domain. With the help of the factual concepts of the source domain, through them we understand the abstract concepts of the target domain. The process is always unidirectional, we advance from the concrete towards the abstract. Love as an abstract concept, for instance, can be perceived as fire, business, bond, journey, war and we could go on listing source domains (Kövecses, 2010).

Between the two domains there are correspondences, so called mappings, conceptual metaphors can be imagined as a system of mappings. To see clearly, let us take an example. We often hear such expressions from couples as ‘We’ve made a lot of headway’, ‘We’re at a crossroads’, ‘The relationship is foundering’, ‘It’s been a bumpy road’, etc. These idiomatic expressions are built on the cognitive metaphor: LOVE IS A JOURNEY, which has the following mapping system (Kövecses, 2010, p. 9):

Source: JOURNEY		*Target:* LOVE
the travellers	→	the lovers
the vehicle	→	the love relationship itself
the journey	→	events in the relationship
the distance covered	→	the progress made
the obstacles encountered	→	the difficulties experienced
decisions about which way to go	→	choices about what to do
the destination of the journey	→	the goal(s) of the relationship

Seeing the mappings pictured above we could assume that it is too complicated, only linguists are able to produce such analysis, the ordinary language user is not. To be able to apply and comprehend metaphoric linguistic expressions, idioms in our everyday communication, there is no need for such a detailed analysis. A great deal of the cognitive process is not conscious. We apply metaphoric linguistic expressions in accordance with the requirements of the cultural and social circumstances of a given language community, choosing those source domains during the cognitive processing, which are common in the given community (Kövecses, 2005).

4 How is the theory related to idiomatic expressions?

A mutual connection is demonstrable between conceptual metaphors and idiomatic expressions, though not every expression based on a conceptual metaphor is an idiom, and not all idioms are founded on conceptual metaphors.

However, based on the discussions above we can state that idioms are compositional and motivated, since their occurrence in the language can be retraced to certain cognitive mechanisms, for instance to metaphors, metonymies and to conventional knowledge. Cognitive methodology reveals hidden cognitive connections in idioms (Andreou, Galamantos, 2008).

Psycholinguistic studies have investigated the metaphorical motivation for idiomatic meaning empirically. One way to discover the speakers’ tacit knowledge of the metaphorical basis for idioms is through a detailed examination of speakers’ mental images of idioms.

The consistency of the idiom images is due to the “constraining influence of conceptual metaphors” according to which the underlying nature of our thought process is metaphorical; this means that we use metaphor to make sense of our experience. Consequently, when we come across a verbal metaphor, the corresponding conceptual metaphor will be automatically activated (Carrol, 2008, p. 147).

5 Methods of teaching idioms

5.1 The traditional view

The fact, that idioms are considered to be lexical units independent of our system of concepts, unconnected with each other, makes their acquiring significantly more difficult. Traditional methodology gives preference to direct and explicit methods. Translation has been regarded as the most direct way of understanding idiomatic expressions.

Idiomatic expressions rated to phraseological units can be taught by a didactic method divided into four steps. The first step is recognition, followed by decipherment and recording and in the end by application (Gündoğdu, 2007). This process, however, is time- and effort-consuming, as well as impractical. The largest drawback of traditional methods is that idioms thus remain in the memory for a shorter period of time, as they are conceptually connected to nothing.

5.2 The Cognitive Linguistic View

To seek logical arrangements of idioms and put them in a more meaningful learning context for L2 learners, researchers (Kövecses & Szabó 1996) have devoted themselves to looking for certain systematicity in idioms.

Kispál (2011) in his research features a multiple-stage teaching process. As the first step the teacher chooses a target domain, for example ANGER, JOY, HAPPINESS, LOVE, to which idioms are connected. In the following stage, we focus on a concrete source domain connected to the target domain that is on a certain conceptual metaphor, which is easy to trace back for the students. Then the teacher collects idiomatic expressions related to the conceptual metaphor given, which can possibly be found in authentic texts as well.

The recognition of metaphoric motivation of idioms is of especially great help in the learning process, if the idiom has no or just partly adequate form in the mother tongue.

Nevertheless, certain conditions must be provided to be able to perform a concept-oriented activity.

1) Not only the teacher, but the foreign language learner too, has to be aware of the essence of conceptual metaphor theory. We will face a hindrance if learners fail to recognize the underlying structure, not being able to recognize the conceptual metaphors.

2) The teacher has to develop teaching materials, tasks which make use of the possibilities offered by cognitive linguistics.

It is crucial to emphasise that a conceptual syllabus has to be seen as a complementary means of metaphor and idiom instruction and not as the only one (Andreou, Galamantos, 2008).

Empirical researches confirm that if we draw the students' attention to the metaphoric motivation of the idiom, it remains in their memory for a longer time. Beréndi, Csábi, Kövecses (2008) conducted a research involving Hungarian students with an upper-intermediate level of English dividing them into a control group and an experimental group. The hypothesis was that students' awareness of underlying CMs facilitates comprehension and retention of idioms.

The materials of the investigation were idioms based on ANGER-metaphors. As a result they came to the conclusion that explicitly relating idioms to their underlying CMs helps learners to comprehend and remember them.

Seyyed, A. K., Seyyed, M. A., Masoumeh, B. (2013) conducted a research with a questionnaire containing 20 Persian idioms, with the participation of 40 native speakers of Farsi. The research included the following parts:

1) asking about the causes of actions in their mental images;
2) the regularity in people's conventional images for idioms is solely due to their figurative meaning (control group)
3) 20 non-idiomatic expressions were also presented.

During the research it turned out that there has been a significant similarity among the participants' mental images for idioms. The results suggest that the conceptual metaphor underlies the comprehension of idioms.

The study of Yi-chen Chen & Huei-ling Lai (2013) presents an investigation of the potential pedagogical implements of using metaphoric mappings in teaching English idioms to L2 learners. Participants were 19 university students in Taiwan, their English proficiency was from intermediate to high-intermediate level. The materials of the investigation were descriptive and narrative essays. As the first step of the research participants were asked to write a three- to four-paragraph essay describing an experience of being extremely angry. In the next step the students were introduced to the concept of metaphors and conceptual metaphor, then, finally, the students were told to revise their first draft at home, and were encouraged to integrate as many idiomatic expressions as possible. It turned out, that there are differences in the use of metaphors. The differences regarding frequencies of uses may have resulted from the differences between Chinese and English cultures.

5.3 Metaphorical competence /awareness

In the theory described in the previous chapter metaphor awareness/competence, a concept introduced to the literature by Danesi (1986), plays a central part.

Metaphoric awareness refers to language learners' enhanced awareness of metaphor and its function in the language. A language learner with metaphor awareness is the one who can identify a metaphor in various forms, such as nominal metaphor, verbal metaphor and adverbial metaphor, after realizing the fact that metaphors exist in all languages and gaining a knowledge of the formation of metaphors.

Metaphoric competence is considered to be an essential component of communicative competence (Danesi, 1986, p. 3).

In his later work he explained the connection between metaphoric competence and foreign language teaching as follows: "programming of discourse in metaphorical ways is a basic feature of native-speakers' competence. It underlies what I have designated conceptual fluency as a „competence", it can be thought about pedagogically in ways that are parallel to the other competences that SLT has traditionally focused on (grammatical and communicative)" (Danesi, 1993, p. 493).

6 Summary

Summarising the problem described it can be stated that traditional methods of teaching English idioms focus on rote learning and memorization. Such a rigid learning process might be time- and effort-consuming, as learners pick up idioms discretely without associations between forms and meanings.

With the advanced development in research of cognitive linguistics, ways of teaching idiomatic expressions have shifted to the idea of raising learners' awareness of conceptual metaphor, the underlying motivation behind idioms. The one who knows how certain conceptual metaphors (CMs) and metonymies structure the meanings of idioms will comprehend and remember these words and idioms better than learners who do not have such knowledge.

The central interest of a foreign language teacher is the integration of raising metaphor awareness of learners in foreign language teaching and the developing the ability of the learners to comprehend idioms that is needed for increasing their foreign language proficiency.

When using metaphoric mappings in understanding two conceptual metaphors, the participants may easily relate them together due to their dialectical nature. For FL learners who have less exposure to the target-language environment, a possible learning difficulty may occur due to their unfamiliarity of cultural conventions which are embedded in conceptual metaphors. To bridge the methodological and pedagogical gaps, an alternative method which integrates metaphoric mappings in the learning process is proposed.

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Yi-chen Chen & Huei-ling Lai (2013). Teaching English Idioms as Metaphors through Cognitive-Oriented Methods: A Case in an EFL Writing Class. *English Language Teaching*; Vol. 6, No. 6; pp. 13-20.

RESEARCHING THE INTERNET LANGUAGE USE AS A MODERN TREND IN APPLIED LINGUISTICS[1]

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Systematically researching internet language use is a relatively new trend in linguistics. It is one of the emerging fields of applied linguistics, sociolinguistics and communication studies that raises many problems and is just recently being formulated, especially the researching of the specifics of the internet language use of bilingual communities of practice.

In this paper we would like to give a short overview about internet linguistics as a new trend of applied linguistics, and about the principles and objectives of the postdoctoral research project.

This project began in September 2013, as a postdoctoral research program (Postdoctoral Researcher Dr. Anita Márku) in the Research Institute of Linguistics, Hungarian Academy of Science, Research Center for Multilingualism under the leadership of Dr. habil Csilla Bartha, Research Professor, Head of RCM. The project is going to end in 2015.

1 What is computer mediated discourse?

As the electronic communication first appeared in English speaking countries, so did the first pieces of literature dealing with it, which were connected to the English language (Murray, 1990; Runkehl, Schlobinski & Sierer, 1998; Crystal, 2001/2004; Herring, 2007, 2011; Bergs, 2005; Androutsopoulos, 2006; Siebenhaar, 2008; Georgakopoulou, 2011; etc.). It became one of the emerging fields of applied linguistics, sociolinguistics and communication studies that raised many questions focusing on computer-mediated conversation, digital media from conversational analytic, discourse and sociolinguistic perspectives. Researchers' attention increasingly turned to different (contact, pragmatic, social, etc.) aspects

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of the internet-based linguistic practices of multilingual communities (Callahan, 2004; Paolillo, 2011; Goldbarg, 2009; Vincze & Harwood, 2011, 2012). Central concepts of multi-disciplinary approaches examining the relationship between migrations, language, and identity in the era of globalisation in hyperdiverse environments are mobility, multiplicity and super-diversity (Vertovec, 2007; Blommaert & Rampton, 2011).

Various attempts have been made by linguists to classify computer mediated discourse (CMD), starting in the 1980s and early 1990s (Herring, 2007). Is it a type of writing, because it is produced by typing on a keyboard and is read as a text on a computer screen? Is it "written speech" (Maynor, 1994), as it exhibits features of orality, including rapid message exchange, informality, and representations of prosody? Or is it a third type, intermediate between speech and writing, characterized by unique production and reception constraints (Ferrara, Brunner & Whittemore, 1991; Murray, 1990)?

As Androutsopoulos (2006, p. 419) claims: the "'language of the Internet' as 'a series of abbreviations and symbols' poses a 'big problem' to Internet novices. Labels such as *Internet-Slang*, *Netzslang*, *Webslang*, and *Chattisch* (chat speak) create a myth that the language of the Internet is a non-standard register of language; they exoticize this register through qualifications such as *weird language*, *crazy mixture* or a jumble of digits and letters; and they categorize Internet users according to their experience as 'novices' and 'advanced users', as those who have been using the Internet for a longer period of time are more versed in using the computer mediated discourse than those who have just joined the community.

Veszelszki, a Hungarian expert, introduced the term 'digilektus' (digilect) to describe the CMC (computer mediated communication) (Veszelszki, 2011).

While preparing the research, we formulated the questions: What is computer mediated discourse? Is it the unique combination of written and spoken discourse that is a kind of intermediary state? Or is it a completely self-contained communication genre with well-defined properties?

Studying of the literature, however, we have come to the conclusion that there is no consensus yet to determine the identity of CMC. In order to come closer to understanding it, we need to comprehend what phenomena are typical of it. In addition to understanding features of CMC, an even more important question is: how do we use it and how can we *creatively* use this 'new communication code'?

1.1 The first step in the research program was to answer questions related to the use of language/languages:

- What phenomena (abbreviations, lexical borrowings, interference) and communicative strategies, pragmatic characteristics (code switching, conversational-organizational, discourse strategies) occur?
- When, by whom and why the different modes (internet, written, oral) of communication are used?

David Crystal (2001/2004) in his book *Language and the Internet* investigates the nature of the impact which the Internet is making on language. There is already a widespread popular mythology that the Internet is going to be bad for the future of language – that technospeak will rule, standards will be lost, and creativity diminished as globalization imposes sameness. The argument of this book is the reverse: that the Internet is in fact enabling a dramatic expansion to take place in the range and variety of language(s?), and is providing unprecedented opportunities for personal creativity.

1.2 Scientifically researching internet language use already has its wide scope of literature on monolingual communities in Hungary (see Bódi, 2004a, 2004b; Horányi, 1997; Kis, 1997; Szépe, 1997; Nyíri, 1996; Veszelszki, 2011). Contrary to traditional written texts, internet texts are less characterized by higher levels of regularities, normative and edited structures (Bódi, 2004a, 2004b). International studies dealing with English have also pointed out that messages forwarded with the help of the internet take place between spoken and written discourse, as the partners do not hear or see each other thus communication also becomes less personal, however, the users clearly construct their texts on the world wide web similarly to their spontaneous spoken language (Bódi, 2004b; Herring, 1996; Collott-Bellmore, 1996). In this vein, the discourse becomes spontaneous enough to give a picture of the vernacular language use of the speakers.

1.3 Although using the Internet is very wide-spread all over the world, the dictionaries and lay wordlists that mystify the language of the Internet, isolate and create the perception that it is homogenous and distinct and cannot be interpreted by outsiders (see Thurlow, Lengel & Tomic, 2004; Androutsopoulos, 2006).

In Hungary, Agnes Veszelszki edited an IT dictionary in 2012 (Netszótár, @-tól zukbergnetig), which is designed not to create a new IT professional dictionary, but to document the vocabulary of private digital communication (especially chatting, using social networking sites and through those conversations, blogs, forums, and computer games) (Veszelszki, 2012). The dictionary contains 2000 entries, mostly lexical borrowings from English. But this dictionary does not take into account the bilingual phenomena of the language variants of Hungarian minorities abroad. This is a dictionary of IT vocabulary of Hungarian speakers in Hungary. Transcarpathian Hungarians use two or three languages during their everyday interactions (in CMC, too) (Hungarian which is in minority status, Ukrainian that is the state language and Russian, the non-official state language of the former Soviet Union, *de iure* another minority language). A Transcarpathian Hungarian individual often gets into a situation where they have to choose between two or more languages as their means of communication and sometimes has to switch between these languages (Márku, 2011, 2013, 2014; Csernicskó, 2010). So words are missing from the dictionary that are common in the everyday language of Transcarpathian Hungarians. For example in the 'Termini' on-line dictionary[2] we can find the entry '*fles, fleska'* instead of the Hungarian word *usb-kulcs, pendrive* (English *USB key, pendrive, USB flash*).

fles [fless] (flash) (fn) ~ek, ~t, ~e

(Inf) **Ka** *(ált) (közh) (köz)* öngyújtóhoz hasonló alakú és méretű, USB-csatlakozós memóriakártya; [a memory card with a USB connection of the size of a lighter]

pendrive ♥▫ Ka *Hozok egy flest, amire felmásolhatod nekem a pályázati anyagot. [I'll get a „fles", on which you can copy the grant stuff over.]*

[or/ukr флеш-драйв, флешка szleng ‚USB-csatlakozós memóriakártya' < ang flash drive < ‚ua'

(→fleska) slang [memory card with a USB connection]

fleska (fn) ~k, ~t, ~ja

(Inf) **Ka** *(ált) (közh) (kissé biz)* öngyújtóhoz hasonló alakú és méretű, USB-csatlakozós memóriakártya; pendrive ♥▫ Ka *Add ide a fleskád, hogy rámentsem az adatokat. [Pass me your fleska so that I can save the data on it.]* [or/ukr флешка szleng ‚USB-csatlakozós memóriakártya' < ang flash drive < ‚ua'] (→fles)

Here are a few more examples of loan words that fit in the IT dictionary:

bál – бал: mobiltelefonon; sim kártyával működő mobilinternet hordozóján a (pénz)egység; [mobile phone; money unit on mobile internet device]

perevirka – перевiрка: egyenleg ellenőrzés; [balance check]

odnoklásznyik – odnoklassniki.ru orosz internetes közösségi oldal neve; [name of a Russian community site]

kontakt – **vkontaktye** – vk – **véká**: http://vk.com vkontakte ukrán/orosz internetes közösségi oldal neve; [name of a Ukrainian/Russian community site]

kontakt: mobileszközök közötti kapcsolat, jel; [signal between mobile devices]

eszemeszka: sms, rövid szöveges üzenet; [text message]

emtéesz/mts, emtécé/mtc: MTC/MTS ukrán mobilszolgáltató; [Ukrainian mobile provider]

perezvonyity: visszahívós sms. *„Küldj egy perezvonyitot/perezvonyt, s visszahívlak". [Send me a 'perezvony' and I'll call you back].*

Such lexical borrowings are used in other cross-border regions too, for example in Transylvania *fácse*=facebook.com. Therefore, it is important to collect, and to document these lexical items.

The (vernacular) language of Transcarpathian Hungarians can be defined as the *"po zakarpatski"* contact variety, called so by the community of locals themselves, identified as the Transcarpathian dialect of Hungarian. Contact phenomena

[2] 'Termini' Hungarian-Hungarian on-line dictionary is the most important project of Termini Hungarian Language Research Network (see http://ht.nytud.hu/htonline/htlista.php?action=firstpage and Márku, 2014).

as lexical borrowings, interference in translation and code switching are integral parts of this language variant (see Bartha, 1992, 2005), however, in the everyday interactions of individual speakers, they appear with varied frequency (Márku, 2011).

An example for lexical borrowing kvász (*кваc*) on facebook.com

Examples for code switching and borrowing

B1: ezzigen) **geroj**** [*hős*, itt inkább *vagány*] [tough guy]

B2: nem **gerojobb** [eredeti jelentésben *hősiesebb*, de itt inkább *vagányabb*] a tiédnél :Dtejányka [not tougher than yours, you, gal]

B3: **peremen, mö zsdjom peremen** [*változást, változást várunk*-szállóigévé vált dalrészlet] [We are expecting, expecting a change]

●

B1: Mindenhol bekerestem a pendrive-om, a fene tudta, hogy már benne van a gépbe :DDD [I'm looking for my pendrive all over the place. I had no idea that it was plugged in.]

B2: Az semmi.a nyomtatom betepte a papirt allandoan,a szerelö elvitte megnezni. kiderult h a ***flessem*** beleesett es megakadt:DDDD [That's nothing. my printer was tearing the paper, the repair-man had a look, and it turned out that my fles had fallen into it and it got stuck.]

B1: :DDDDDDD

B2: A pasinak is ez volt a reakcioja xD [This was how the man reacted.]

●

S1: *Mission completed! [A misszió teljesítve]*

S2: **kakoj**? *[Melyik?] [Which one?]*

S1: munkanap volt estig… [it was a working day until the evening]

To be able to describe the regularities and sociolinguistic patterns of this computer mediated discourse and bilingual (multilingual) contact variant, we needed plenty of language data gained carefully, applying different methods. In the last decade, numerous research studies have been done in this respect, profound analyses were made, summarized in monographs, handbooks (Csernicskó, 2003, 2010; Márku, 2008, 2013, etc.) and in a PhD theses *"Po zákárpátszki" The Socio- and Psycholinguistic aspects of Bilingualism, effects of Bilingualism and bilingual communicational strategies (language choice, code switching) in the Hungarian community of Transcarpathia* (Márku, 2011). However, to date, studies CMC, new internet-based activities, the impact of the internet on the native language, bi-/multilingual competence and repertoire, language ideologies, ethnicity, social identities, and language vitality have been completely missing.

Apart from a few sporadic systematic analyses of internet language within bilingual (especially Slavonic-Hungarian) communities, it is still a disregarded research area in the Carpathian Basin. Up to now, bilingualism and contact phenomena that represent Transcarpathian Hungarians have mainly been examined via spoken and written discourse samples. In contrast, the empirical basis of the present research will be an electronic corpus of different computer mediated language genres and social activities. Internet language (see also computer-mediated communication – CMC, internet-based communication, digital media) is understood here as different types and genres of communicative activity supported by a heterogeneous collection of technologies.

In addition, the proposed project is innovative in terms of its theoretical framework and methods: the Transcarpathian Hungarian community (a bilingual speech community) will be approached from a bottom-up, dynamic perspective of communities of practice, where besides the phenomena of language use, the questions of identity construction, language change and preservation, and educational issues could also be put into focus.

The spread of internet-based communication and other forms of technology-mediated linguistic practices have had a significant impact not only on formerly preferred modes of interaction within the Transcarpathian Hungarian community but also on the concepts of private and public communication. "Through the internet one can engage in a range of communicative practices which provide privacy for the interlocutors, but which take place in public virtual spaces reaching a large number of people. Such communicative environments may constitute 'safe' places for young bilinguals in which to experiment with, use, or enhance their bilingual practices" (Pauwels, 2012, p. 1).

2 Communities of practice

The Transcarpathian Hungarian community is a bilingual speech community in which two or three languages are used during everyday communication (Hungarian which is in minority status, Ukrainian that is the language of the majority (the state language) and the non-official state language of the former Soviet Union, *de* *iure* another minority language, Russian). A Transcarpathian Hungarian often gets into a situation where they have to choose two or more languages for communication and sometimes has to switch between languages (Csernicskó, 2010; Márku, 2011, 2013).

The concept of speech community was formed by William Labov. According to him, a group of people becomes a speech community, if all members apply the same language rules. This does not mean, though, that the members of a speech community speak in the same way, but it does mean that the variations in their language use show a kind of system of rules and can be organized into a unified pattern (Labov, 1972; Szabó, 2012c).

A speech community, though, is often alive in *communities of practice*. Communities of practice are voluntarily organized groups. People of similar interests and of similar experiences tend to join together and learn from each other – either by talking about a given topic, or by performing some activity together, ensuring the mutually constitutive nature of individual, group, activity, and meaning: "The value of the notion *communities of practice* (Lave & Wenger, 1991) to Sociolinguistics and Linguistic Anthropology lies in the fact that it identifies a social grouping not in virtue of shared abstract characteristics (e.g. class, gender) or simple co-presence (e.g. neighbourhood, workplace), but in virtue of shared practice. In the course of regular joint activity, a community of practice develops ways of doing things, views, values, power relations, ways of talking. And the participants engage with these practices in virtue of their place in the community of practice, and of the place of the community of practice in the larger social order. The community of practice is thus a rich locus for the study of situated language use, of language change, and of the very process of conventionalization that underlies both." (Eckert, 2006, p. 1)

The model of communities of practice supposes that the type of activity one takes part in might be in close relation to his interests, his set of values – these factors correlating with his application of language. A group of users of community forums can also form such a community of practice.

Susan Gal (1987) researched the appearance of a special language application in an Italian – German bilingual community in Constance. She found a group of youngsters constantly switching between German and Italian: within a conversation, they used both languages. The community expressed its own identity with this practice: they did not want to turn their backs on their Italian roots; however, they also refused to totally assimilate into the German society. By continuously practicing of this language mode developed by them and different from the language use of other groups, their own identity and the language use mutually strengthened each other. The members of the community of practice thus strengthened reinforced in their own identity. The concept of the community of practice can be applied not only for the study of physical activities, but also for the study, passing on and strengthening of some communicational practices (Szabó, 2012b).

In this way, the present research project aims to examine bilingual linguistic practices of Transcarpathian Hungarians from a new perspective.

During the research process, the following concepts, theoretical questions will hopefully be clarified, thoroughly discussed and analysed:

- How communities of practice get formed (linguistically) within the internet media, the community websites.
- How the Internet may affect linguistic change in a well-defined community: the language use of speakers by age, education level, background of language socialisation, ethnicity, as well as the structure of language per se.
- What role the internet, digital media may have in language preservation and the reinforcement of identity.
- How internet-based new technologies and non-traditional learning environments can support mother tongue education (in a minority context)
- How digital media influence ideologies and attitudes about vernacular language variable.

3 Instead of summary: the research directions, steps

The aim of the proposed research is to obtain a deep insight into the nature and functions of internet-based language activities of Hungarians in Transcarpathia. Besides focusing on the peculiarities of language use and the presence of contact phenomena in the electronic discourse of the communities of practice of Transcarpathian Hungarians, the project is aimed at exploring 'digital' language and communicative practices and the actual as well as potential impact these have on Hungarian language maintenance, the increase of language vitality, identity reinforcement and stabilizing and balancing bilingualism. As Vincze and Harwood argued, the "new spaces of media require for language planners to understand media as an integral part of all social activities rather than just one domain or a separate instance, measurable on its own right. Narrowing down media influence on linguistic vitality to output hours or audience numbers would not provide the whole picture of the linguistic situation in the media. The new relationship with media requires a new way to measure linguistic vitality, conscious that it permeates all spheres of social interaction. Increased space for multilingualism and support for linguistic variety across the media has to be part of any type of public broadcasting remit." (Vincze & Harwood, 2011, p. 26)

As internet linguistics and language use of mobile communication is a quite novel, dynamically developing research direction, its research methods and corpus building procedures and the balance between quantitative and qualitative ways of analysis are far from being elaborated (Siebenhaar, 2008; Márku, 2011). In addition, it needs a locally designed application of the methods and tools of linguistics, communication theory, computer science, sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, discourse analysis and network study. Social network theory provides an important point of departure in approaching existing or newly formed communities of practice (Milroy & Milroy, 1985; Barabási, 2011; Szabó, 2012a) Based on the tools of network analysis, strong and weak connections between members of the group can be revealed. There are members of communities who are loosely connected to a certain group and are also loosely connected to other communities. They are the ones who tend to bring in innovations in the language use and are able to function as 'bridges'. Since superficial connections can have language consequences, identification of these network ties is of particular relevance.

3.1 As *Fieldwork techniques* continuous participant observation, permanent on-line and off-line data collection, interviews, on-line and tape-recorded questionnaires will be applied. Digital corpus will be analysed with tools of quantitative and qualitative sociolinguistics, discourse analysis, CDA and contact linguistics. Special attention will be paid to internet discourse of Transcarpathian speakers (narrative, dialogic and contact linguistic data can come from chat-room conversations, public message boards of community forums, etc.). A multidisciplinary theoretical and methodological framework as an innovative approach will inevitably lead to a holistic, dynamic and applicable interpretation of 'languaging' in cyberspace. Results may contribute to the existing knowledge in the fields of linguistics, minority studies, sociology, education research, as well as language policy. Expectedly, the current research will also add to the clarification of methodological principles and ethical concerns (Márku, 2012).

3.2 The current research will be built into the research and policy agenda of the Mercator Network of Language Diversity Centres where Research Centres for Multilingualism of the host institution is the only partner from the Eastern-Central European region. Based on its Annual report of 2010[3], the following goals can be formulated:

Research recommendations

- Linguistic preference studies in a variety of languages and language situations may provide extra information about how this decision-making process takes place.
- Use of internet peer-to-peer and social media still requires lengthier and more elaborated studies, which allow for models to be developed and linguistic situations to be evaluated and compared.
- Innovative ways of measuring linguistic impact of media output are deeply needed to understand in which ways these new tools can provide spaces for language maintenance and development.
- The corpus built via systematic occasions of data collection might also be useful for linguistic analyses with different foci. Besides, it can also be incorporated into the Termini Transborder Database, especially the lexical borrowing section of the corpus. In this way, it might also contribute to

[3] http://www.ciemen.org/mercator/pdf/Mercator%20Network_Annual%20Report%202010.pdf

strengthening the Hungarian-Hungarian relations, and to ‘deconstructing’ borders as far as language is concerned.

Policy recommendations

- The new spaces of media require for language planners to understand media as an integral part of all social activities rather than just one domain or a separate instance, measurable in its own right.
- The results of the research might well be used in prospective steps taken in the process of educational planning. Those children who learn to understand language, to think and develop visual conceptualization, to read and to write and to socialize with the help of a computer, might be helped better by the introduction of education reforms that are more effective using the findings of research on the above-mentioned children (Gonda, 2011).
- The new relationship with media requires a new way to measure linguistic vitality, while being aware that it permeates all spheres of social interaction.
- Increased space for multilingualism and support for linguistic variety across the media has to be part of any type of public broadcasting remit.
- The results of the present research might help in understanding everyday interactions better, as the internet affects our life, community forums affect our relationships, in a similar vein, electronic discourse, i.e. internet communication affects our everyday language use and our spoken language, too.

The combination of micro- and macro-level analyses of internet-based communication within a multidisciplinary theoretical and methodological framework as an innovative approach will inevitably lead to a holistic, dynamic and applicable interpretation of ‘language’ in cyberspace. Therefore, results may contribute to the existing knowledge in the fields of linguistics, minority studies, sociology, education research, as well as to language policy.

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THE INFLUENCE OF MULTILINGUALISM ON LEARNING THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

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Abstract:
Multilingualism is the ability to speak two or more languages. It is a worldwide phenomenon currently receiving an increasing amount of attention in linguistics. The rationale for choosing the topic is based on future considerations, personal experience and interest. The significance of the research lies in its being timely and useful for its contribution to the field of linguistics and pedagogy. The main aim was to define the influence of multilingualism on the English language learning process. A multi-method approach underpinned the study by enabling the phenomena to be looked at from different perspectives. This approach involved theoretical consideration, interviews, observations and questionnaires, which provided an overview about the general characteristics and consequences of multilingualism, emerging interference and the influence of the state language and L1 in the groups of young teenagers, school-leavers and adults. The results of the study contribute to an understanding of the advantages and disadvantages of multilingualism in Aknaszlatina.
Keywords: multilingualism, Aknaszlatina, students, adults

1 Introduction

It is widely known that languages have influence over one's mother tongue. Being a bi- or multilingual, means that more languages influence one's native language usage. Someone may ask whether it is a normal phenomenon. The proverb says: "*The number of languages you know is the number of times you are human*". Many people say their life would have been much different if they had not known many languages. It is significant to know the language of the country one lives in or visits. Knowing the certain language makes them able to interact with the local people. Interacting, it is not the same when someone asks the way to the city centre or the price of a drink. Knowing more languages is like having more windows in one's house or having more books on one's shelf. Generally it said that being multilingual is easier to learn a new language. But some learners have difficulties in their mother tongue because of the influence of other languages they know.

The source of bilingualism is the ethnical heterogeneity of the society, such as the existence of two ethnical groups in one state that use different languages (Crystal, 1997). Thus Transcarpathia is an ideal place for carrying out research in the sphere of both applied linguistics and pedagogy. This area is interesting from the point of language usage and language interference. If one from Transcarpathia it is more than obvious that the person is multilingual: the region is situates in Ukraine, while the nationality may differ (Hungarian, Romanian, Russian, Slovakian, etc). Concerning my previous research, one cannot speak about monolingualism in this area (Nyegre, 2013); people are made to use the state language. Even those who pretend to be monolingual 'unconsciously' are not, because they at least understand or use it rarely. Crystal (1997) argues that there are different types of bi- and multilinguals, people who are not perfect in the target language but have enough knowledge to express themselves, fall into the following categories: (a) people who make irregular use of a certain language; (b) "dorman" multilinguals – those who have not used a particular language for a particular period of time; (c) speakers who developed a considerable skill in comprehending a foreign language, but do not speak it; (d) individuals who developed good reading skill, but not speak or write (Crystal, 1997).

One may ask what the difference between mono-, bi- and multilingualism is. Monolingual is the individual who can speak just one language. Bi- and multilingual is the person who can speak more languages (Trudgill, 2003) Some linguist refer to bilingualism as the phenomenon of speaking more than two languages, while sometimes the term multilingualism is used to refer to speakers of two languages. Being able to speak five languages, I do see difference between the two terms; that is why referring to speakers of Aknaszlatina the expression 'multilingualism' is more proper. It is now recognized that a bilingual or multilingual speaker uses different languages for different purposes, in different contexts, in communication with variety of partners and does not necessarily possess the same level or type of proficiency in each language.

1.1 Reasons of Becoming Multilinguals

There several reason one becomes multilingual, for instance: (a) mixed families/marriage; (b) national minority, (c) migration; (d) work and (e) education, etc. When learning a new language, learners use everything they have: their culture, first language, educational background, personal experiences and new environment. However, most researchers name only the following three factors that affect SL learning: age, intelligence and environment. It is believed that the age influences the learners' understanding and producing, intelligence together with the environment affects the learner's IQ and thus the motivation for language learning. Mastering a second language depends on a number of biological, social, and educational factors, like aptitude for languages, attitude, cognitive style, learning strategies, neurological factors, personality, previous experience with language learning, proficiency in the native language, sense modality preference, sex, etc. (Kingler, 2002).

The ability of speaking more languages has its impact on language configuration: the speaker's syntax, chosen word order and of course vocabulary. Due to the correlation between the spoken languages, the process of codeswitching appears as a natural phenomenon in a multilingual sphere. *Code-switching* is the process where bilingual speakers switch back and forth between one language and another within the same conversation (Trudgill, 2003). Switching between languages is not only extremely common among multilingual individuals, but also takes many forms. A sentence may begin in one language and end in another.

Phrases from other languages may succeed each other in apparently random order (Crystal, 1997; Belikov & Krysin, 2001). The process depends on the communicative sphere. Actually, there may be several reasons of code-switching. Crystal (1997) indicates the following reasons:

- the speaker is not able to express himself in one language, thus he "switches" to another language which is the most convenient.
- the speaker "switches" from a major language to a minor one to express solidity towards a social group

Code-switching is a typical phenomenon in our region. Among the many researchers Palágyi (2011) is one of those, who proves that, in multinational and multicultural areas such as the Transcarpathian Aknaszlatina and Moldova the lingua franca (which is proved to be Russian language) exists in order to communicate with each other on a regular bases. Thus, the phenomenon of code-switching appears to be a usual one in the daily life of national minorities like Hungarians, Romanians, etc. The ability of "switching codes" indicates speaker's high knowledge level; a certain communicative and general culture. Also there are situations when the individual switches because of solidarity, easier expression, and environment as well as while recalling certain common memory, action, conversation which lasted in another language (Gort, 2007).

1.2 Advantages and Disadvantages of Multilingualism

The phenomenon of multilingualism has both positive and negative side. The following section on advantages is based on Gort's (2007) work. He distinguishes between three major advantageous categories: communicative, cultural and cognitive. Let us look them in more details.

● **Communicative** advantages is divided into several subcategories:

Parental Relationships. It has an great impact on language usage from an early age. Children may communicate with their parents in one language and with members of their community in another one. Moreover, within one family members may use different languages, for instance the child uses one language to talk to his father, another one to address his mother and a LF exist on which the parents interact.

Extended Family Relationships. Moving to new country multilinguals have the advantage of carrying forward the family's heritage language.

Community Relationships. This factor allows multilingual individuals for a wider range of communication across people, communities, and beyond it.

Translational Relationships. Although language may be a barrier during communication, but the ability of speaking two or even more languages serves as a link, which helps to develop proper relations between speakers of various languages and exclude misunderstandings.

Language Sensitivity. Speakers must be attuned to the communicative needs. They are able to decide what language is proper to use depending on circumstances.

● **Cultural advantages**

Being multilingual exposes the individual to diverse customs, ideas, and perspectives from different cultures, making them culturally more sensitive than monolingual speakers. Bilingualism can also develop family relations by allowing younger generations to communicate with older generations in their family's native tongue. Gort (2007) believes the multilinguals to be more tolerant and less racist. However, one should not forget, that multilingualism does not necessarily means multiculturalism (Csernicskó, 2010).

Bicultural Experience (cultural experience, stories, histories, ways of greeting, ways of thinking, etc.)

Economic/Employment Opportunities. Speakers of more languages may be in a relatively strong position in the race for employment. More and more people believe bi- and multilingualism to be the solution of better future (Gort, 2007; Graddol, 2010).

● **Cognitive advantages**

Bi-/multilinguals have more words for many objects and ideas, the link between word and its concept is usually looser for multilinguals than monolinguals. Multilinguals have the possibility of developing more advanced language awareness and more fluency, flexibility, elaboration in thinking as well as they are more willing to communicate and develop than their monolingual fellows (Gort, 2007; Szilágyi, 2009).

Defining cognitive flexibility is difficult, given the wide variety of ways in which this term is used across different research studies. In general, cognitive flexibility has been used to describe bilingual individuals' ability to switch between different tasks and to perform well in tasks that include conflicting or misleading cues. The study of bilingual children shows that learning and using two languages may affect basic aspects of cognitive development that influence the knowledge acquiring and usage. The positive effects of bilingualism can be mostly seen in what are known as executive function The author explores how the findings about cognitive flexibility among bilinguals are critical issues for classroom learning (Yoshida, 2008).

Cross Linguistic Interaction (CLIN) is as other positive factor of multilingualism. We are often focused on the problems certain situations create. In most writings the term 'Cross Linguistic Interference' (CLI) is used to describe the negative influence of a learner's other languages on the target language. However, 'Cross Linguistic Interaction' (CLIN) takes the positive effects into account as well. Multilingual learners often have better metalinguistic awareness which can help them internalise new grammatical structures more easily. Learning vocabulary might also be easier at times because of the word roots shared across typologically similar languages. (Reijmers, 2010)

Interference (the negative transfer – using vocabulary or grammatical structures from L1/L2 in L3) does happen (Trudgill, 2003). For example, Dutch learners learning English as their L2 might produce sentences such as "I go tomorrow to the store" which shows us that they either do not yet know the correct English alternative. Interference does not have to be more common for L3 learners, but it might be. It is good to be aware of the fact that interference can originate in both the learner's L1 and L2. Some researchers believe L1 has a big influence on a learner's L3 and that L2 is rarely the source for interference. Others have found that L2 interference can actually be a bigger problem. I think it probably depends on several things: the learner, the languages involved (and how similar they are) and how proficient a learner is in both their L1 and L2. (Reijmers 2010)

According to Szilágyi (2009), multilingual learners are better learners, have better test scores, are culturally and linguistically motivated, and the multidimensional willingness to communicate is present, which actually make the teaching-learning process easier.

Concerning disadvantages it is interesting that Grosjean (1982) believes code-switching in the weaker language to be a negative phenomenon as well as the process of interference and code-switching in the context. Moreover, he is sure that multilinguals have translation difficulties. However, the majority of linguists and pedagogues state that the ability to speak more languages is an extremely positive phenomenon and the individuals must be proud of such talent.

1.3 Teaching Multilingual Learners

Multilingual learners have the advantage of an already established first language as a base from which to acquire and learn an additional language. According to Kingler (2002):

- They already know how to learn a language.
- They know what language is about.
- They know and understand a range of culturally specific purposes of language.

Multilingual learners require *ESL teaching approaches* that build on the knowledge they already have as first language users and the knowledge they need as additional language learners (Kingler, 2002):

- Learning English - the content of English (text, sentence, vocabulary and word level knowledge)
- Learning about English - the intercultural knowledge required to learn an additional language for purposeful use in Australian/school contexts; how English is structured linguistically

- Learning through English - the specific language of Learning Areas across the curriculum and how to use English for learning

According to Xhaferi and Xhaferi's (2012) research, most of the teachers working with multilingual classes think that multilingualism will help their students with their future career. And similarly, most of them strongly believe that different cultural backgrounds and also language usages should be taken into consideration when teaching. The mostly used techniques with multilinguals were Q&A, because all students can be involved to the particular task; while the teachers were note taking.

The research on multilingual students experience across the curriculum clearly demonstrate the situation when students are given multiple, meaningful opportunities to write, they can make sense of their texts, generate ideas and interpretations, make connections, experiment with the unfamiliar language and construct new knowledge. Precisely because writing gives students the safety and time to deliberate and reflect on their thoughts and interpretations, it can lead to insights and understandings that students might otherwise not have had (Zamel & Spack, 2006). The research proves (Silva, 1993; Zamel & Spack, 2006) learners indicated that writing and reading helped them to develop their English speaking skills. However, the researchers pointed out that multilinguals might have more mistakes than monolinguals; their knowledge might have been incomplete, but they may have significant background knowledge in other spheres. ESOL's texts are simpler, less accused and less effective and their memorizing skills are also less effective than monolinguals' (Silva, 1993; Szilágyi, 2009). When a multilingual plans a composition in L1, he/she focuses basically on the topic and style, in order to express the main idea very well. Nevertheless, planning in English, he/she translates from L1 to English, and cares much about choosing the appropriate words, phrases, prepositions and expressions. Some learners feel that teachers should emphasize the main differences in linguistic structures between English and L1 (Silva, 1993).

Szilágyi (2009) claims that while memorising, bilingual learners prefer to think of a relationship between what they already know and new things they learn in English. Monolingual students usually use new phrases in a sentence to remember them. These students say that they often practise the sounds of English and they use the learned words they know in different ways. They prefer to start conversation in English and they also read for pleasure in English. However, bilinguals do not like to start conversations. From their answers it becomes clear that they try to talk like native English speakers by speaking and writing new English words several times. When reading, bilingual learners first skim an English passage then go back and read carefully. The strongest point of the bilinguals is making up new words if they do not know the right one in the target language. The weakest point of monolingual students is describing a word properly. Replacing the word with a phrase or another word is not as easy as it seems to be. It is also obvious that bilingual learners are braver than the other group. They ask for correction if they make mistakes while speaking and asking in the target language, whereas the monolingual ones do not (Szilágyi, 2009)

2 Research in Aknaszlatina

2.1 Main Aims and Methods

The main aims of the research were the following: (a) to compare multilinguals of different age groups and (b) to define the influence of multilingualism on learning foreign languages (grammar, vocabulary, etc.) The research had been carried out in my native town, Aknaszlatina with the help of questionnaires, interviews and observations. The questionnaires consisted of two parts: general question, aiming to get acquainted with the individuals, learning about the languages they speak, language skills they possess, their relation towards languages, mainly the English language; practical tasks – including translation of "provocative" words and sentence translation, according which one can learn about the interference and assimilation made by multilingual individuals.

The 90 examined multilinguals were divided into three categories: young teenagers (n=30), school-leavers (n=30) and adults (n=30). Analyzing the data some of the gotten results could be foreshadowed, however others were quite surprising.

2.2 Results

2.2.1 Language Usage Among Multilinguals of Aknaszlatina

The peculiarities of Transcarpathia are multilingualism, colourful culture and the variety of religion. It is obligatory to learn and to know the state language for all minorities.

The language policy influences the teaching and usage of one or another language in education. This process greatly influences the citizen's language knowledge.

In the situation of bi- or multilingual language usage the norm is not when everyone speak his own language. In such multicultural sphere, the minority or the majority know and speaks the language of the other group. The spread of Transcarpathian multilingualism among the Hungarian minority is a one-sided situation, because the Hungarians more or less acquire the language of the majority groups. However, the members of the mentioned majority groups are less familiar with other languages of their region (Csernicskó, 2010).

The village now known as Aknaszlatina had many names before, namely: Zalatina, Zlathina, Zlathyna Pathaka, Szlatina, Slatinsky-Doly, Szolotvino, etc. It is mentioned even in Great Lajos King's decree, in 1360. Aknaszlatina is the South-Eastern part of Transcarpathia. The village lies on the right bank of the River Tisa, between the Salavan and the Magura. The river is the border between Ukraine and Romania. That is one of the main reasons why the village is multicultural. It encounters more than 10 000 inhabitants: among them are Hungarians, Ukrainians, Russians, Romanians, Jewish, etc. (Kovách, 2000).

The village was famous for its salt-mines, which in the present they are not in working conditions, and salt-lakes which are visited by many tourists from the whole world every year: Hungary, Russia, Slovakia, Moldova, Czech Republic, France, Germany, etc. It is well-known that the allergological hospital and the salt-mines help people suffering from allergy and bronchial-asthma.

The first school was opened in 1778, which was a Hungarian one (Kovách, 2000). Till nowadays a Hungarian school does exist, and in addition there are four other schools as well: Romanian, Ukrainian-Russian, a boarding school and the school of Art. In Transcarpathia, many families are mixed and Aknaszlatina is not an exception. Usually every person speaks more languages, such as Hungarian, Romanian or/and Russian. Thus parents or children can choose the language they prefer speaking.

The results proved that citizens of Aknaszlatina are multilinguals, due to the variety of languages spoken on daily bases: majority of Hungarians are able to speak Romanian, Russian, Ukrainian; Romanians are good mostly in Ukrainian and Russian (because of education), but a number of them do speak Hungarian as well; Ukrainians are definitely speak Russian and a high number is good in Hungarian and/or Romanian too.

According to the results, Ukrainian and/or Russian languages, by none-native speakers, are mainly used at school, at work, offices, among friends and for hobbies (e.g.: social media, reading, etc.). Hungarian and Romanian languages are mostly used among friends by none-native speakers. Due to the fact that English is a compulsory language at schools, the majority of students in Aknaszlatina use this language only in the sphere of education; although there is a small number of those who use the English language for hobbies, for instance watching films, surfing the internet, etc.

Lingua Franca was already mentioned as the language which serves as a bridge between people who has no language in common. In Aknaszlatina Russian language still survives as LF among none-native speakers (Palágyi, 2011). Interestingly, the young generation, which does not study the language, have high Russian language skills: while some of multilinguals mixes it with the Ukrainian and only the listening skill is developed enough, others have good speaking, writing and reading skills. The following figures illustrate the usage of Russian in certain circumstances:

1. HU+RO=RU – when a Hungarian communicates with a Romanian
2. RU+RO= RU – when a Russian communicates with a Romanian
3. RU+UA= RU/UA – when a Russian communicates with a Ukrainian person, Russian, Ukrainian or both languages are used at the same time.

2.2.2 Relation Towards the English Language

One of the questions related to the English language aimed to define speakers' relation towards the foreign language. Young teenagers and school-leavers might be in an easier situation, because they learn English since primary classes and have English lessons at least three times a week, while the majority of adults had never learnt English. This fact makes the research more interesting. The current part of the research focuses on the influence of other languages on acquiring the English. It was hypothesized that speakers who had never learnt this language or do not have high language proficiency might be either influenced positively and translate the words correctly, or negatively – being confused by the 'provocative' words and make wrong associations. All in all, summarizing the answers concerning the English language usage, it becomes obvious that none of the groups uses the language on a daily bases. The majority of young teenagers faces the English language only at school and believes it to be a difficult one to be learnt. School-leavers states that they do understand, but use it very rarely. One would have thought that teenagers are deeply in the usage of foreign languages because of the trends modern life with different technological equipments and social media, but unfortunately English is not yet popular among youngsters of this area. Interestingly, a high number of adults claimed to understand the language and know some words, however not using them at all. This result may be the consequence of not being brave enough because neither having a basic educated background nor practice.

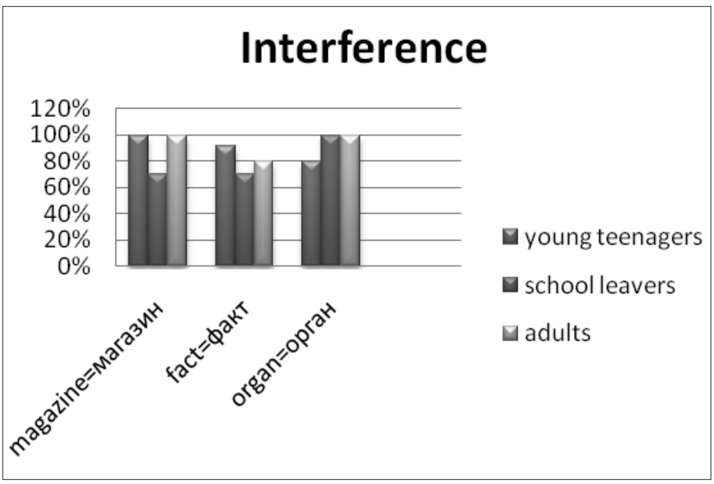
English language is a dominant one in the whole world. It is common knowledge that it has a ruling power and EFL is transforming into ESL. Many people feel this language to be important enough so as to learn or acquire. For instance, Indians (Graddol, 2010) believe that the successful future of the new generation and the country in general lies in acquiring the English language. I was interested how our people felt toward this language, which is apart from many countries it is still a foreign one in our country.

The results are not what the majority would expect. Unfortunately, young teenagers do not like learning English and do it as a must; school-leavers pretend English not being important and do not want to understand its necessity. According to the given answers, a number of respondents claimed that they use English, but rarely. This are cases when the language is not compulsory and they can use it freely for listening to music, reading information of the internet and playing computer games. It is a common knowledge that students do not enjoy and even do not like what "compulsory". English could be made fun to learn. Numerous online games (learning vocabulary, grammar, etc), English films, songs, board games and BBC tasks could be given to learners of different. Interestingly, adults would be willing to learn the language, but the majority believes to be too old to start learning a new one. Sharing and spreading the information of job opportunities requiring English could motivate elderly multilinguals too. Organizing language courses, conversation clubs, film clubs and advertising online courses could be good solutions to change people's relation towards language learning.

2.2.3 Translation

The same list of words was given to the three groups of speakers. All the words can be associated to particular words in other languages, such as Romanian, Ukrainian, Russian; but not all of them would be correct if translating with method of association. Due to the influence of the Ukrainian/Russian language both the majority of young teenagers and adults faced interference by translating the English word *'magazine'* as 'shop' into their mother tongue. One must understand the reason: both in Ukrainian and Russian the word "магазин" (shop) has the similar pronunciation as the English 'magazine', the given answers can be explained by the influence of the state language or the current LF. In addition, a high number of school-leavers caused the same mistake. The process of translating another English word 'fact' was also influenced by the Ukrainian/Russian. More than half of the participants in all the three groups could not find the appropriate word in their mother tongue (Hungarian and Romanian), thus they simply adapted the particular words, such as fact=fakt, pirate=pirate, etc. This result can be also explained by the influence of the state language and LF. The reason is that the same pronunciation of these words in Ukrainian/Russian has the same meaning. By the way, multilinguals of Aknaszlatina do not use a number words in their mother tongue, but rather adapt them during codeswitching, thus the word 'fact' is natural for them as it is in English (maybe with some little spelling changes). Such English words, as for instance 'organ' or 'attention' were mainly correctly translated into L1, due to the influence of Ukrainian and Romanian languages.

Diagram 1



3 Conclusion

Summarizing the theoretical consideration, there are different opinions about the characteristics of a bi-/multilingual speakers, because different factors can be taken into consideration. Thus, Crystal (1997) indicates specific individuals: those who make irregular use of one or other language, those who have not used the particular language for years, people who have developed a considerable skill in comprehending a foreign language, but who do not speak it and those who had developed good reading skill in another language, but not speak or write it. According to Gort (2007) there are several advantages of bi- and multilingualism, among them are communicative, cultural and cognitive advantages. An interesting, but at the same time common phenomenon among multilingual individuals is the code-switching. Many researchers and linguists, for example Crystal (1997), Belikov and Krysin (2001), Csernicskó (2010), Palágyi (2011) and many others focus on this process, the reason of which may be various (easier expression, solidarity, etc). Speaking about multilingualism, we must not forget to mention Transcarpathia, the region where multilingualism is a natural phenomenon for the most of the inhabitants. The "sign" of multilingualism can be noticed everywhere: on advertisements, posts, in shops, banks, etc. It is also a territory where the Russian language still remained the lingua franca, which influences the daily life of national minorities (Palágyi, 2011).

All in all, it can be stated that students are not motivated, feel the English language too difficult and not willing to develop their language skills. Unfortunately the majority are not aware of the advantages of the English language knowledge as well as different opportunities due to the certain knowledge level of the target language, for instance international programs. Young teenagers and adults are more enthusiastic than school-leavers, but still it is not enough to be able to make the usage of this certain foreign language a commonplace. Interference of different forms appeared in all given translations. Due to the results, the 'provocative' words can be divided into three categories: (a) words which lead to interference (e.g. magazine), (b) words of which the L1 equivalent is to find (e.g. fact) and (c) those which due to multilingualism are translated correctly (e.g. attention).

All in all, the research draws the picture of multilinguals' world view in Aknaszlatina. Not being aware of many advantages, youth programs as well as job opportunities, people of this area are not interested in learning the English language. It might be the fault of the wrong language introduction at schools. Students should be taught to love studying languages and be shown the many opportunities and options. Probably other motivation methods are required. Living in the 21th century not only school children, but adults can also be motivated. Languages courses could be organized, information about international programs should be spread as well as individuals' attention should be attracted to the language learning side of social networks.

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‘COURSEBOOKS ARE NEEDED MUCH MORE BY PUPILS THAN BY TEACHERS’: THE ANALYSES OF ENGLISH TEXTBOOKS FOR FORMS 5 AND 6 TO BE USED IN TRANSCARPATHIAN HUNGARIAN SCHOOLS

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Abstract:
Coursebooks play an important role in education, as they can facilitate teachers’ work if they provide appropriate exercises in great number. However, textbooks are needed much more by pupils than by teachers, because coursebooks provide safety and regularity for language learners. When teachers are looking for proper coursebooks to select they have to take into consideration various criteria like pupils’ age and interest, and the size of the language learning group. Teachers are often influenced by the first impression about the book, its grammar, and the methods included, what language skills are improved and how, and other important factors. Evaluation checklists facilitate teachers’ and researchers’ work, because they may help in selecting the best textbook for the learners. The following study will provide a methodological evaluation of English coursebooks published in Ukraine for Forms 5 and 6 to be used in Transcarpathian Hungarian Schools. The aim of this paper is to reveal how these coursebooks will be able to comply with the expectations of foreign language teaching.
Keywords: coursebooks, evaluation checklists, coursebook evaluation

1 Introduction

As it was proven by various experts (Dálnokiné Pécsi, 2005; Fischerné Dárdai, 1997; 2002; Fritzsche, 1992; Zalánné Szablyár& Petneki, 1997; Weinbrenner, 1995) coursebooks play an important role in education. However, the importance of coursebooks in foreign language teaching was highlighted by Cunningsworth, 1995; Dálnokiné Pécsi, 2005; Matthews, 1985; Medgyes, 1997; Zalánné Szablyár & Petneki, 1997. Textbooks are important for every society, and were public affairs long time ago. Besides demonstrating common knowledge, they also showed a world view, ideology, methods, etc. (Fischerné Dárdai, 1997). Coursebooks, which are made by the society, are also the mirror of the community, and they can be the object of different research (Weinbrenner, 1995, cited in Fischerné Dárdai, 1997).

Since the end of the 19th century experts paid great attention to deletion of every failure which caused negative presuppositions, preconceptions and stereotypes about races, nation, and religion. Methodological and pedagogical aspects have also widened the range of coursebook evaluation since the 1980s (Fischerné Dárdai, 2002). Conferences were held in Braunschweig (1989) and in Brisbane (1991), these were landmarks in the history of coursebook evaluation. The earlier one resulted in the ‘consensual minimum’ of coursebook assessment (Fritzsche, 1992, cited in Fischerné Dárdai, 1997). These points are the following:

- Scientific adequacy – the aim is to give not only knowledge but the opportunities to gain knowledge.
- Methodological standards – coursebooks should be complying with learners' needs, age, intellectual and emotional level. Other important factors are real life situations.
- Lack of prejudice – coursebooks cannot contain prejudice which may result in false presumption.
- Transparency – authors should clearly emphasize their own characteristics when they write a book. Moreover, coursebooks cannot be the tool of manipulation.
- Proper demonstration – coursebooks should contain appropriate illustrations and pictures which should help pupils during learning, so the visuals in the book used have to be an integral part of teaching.

2 The importance of coursebooks in the foreign language classroom

According to Dálnokiné Pécsi (2005), pupils gain knowledge through explorations in what coursebooks play an important role. Teachers pass on information from the language books, but they do not simply hand that knowledge to the pupils but give wider material, for example, about the culture, and the literature of the country where the target language is used (Dálnokiné Pécsi, 2005). Anna Zalánné Szablyár and Katalin Petneki highlight the following issues about the importance of language books in education:

- give a particular view of language and methodological theory
- establish the further study of foreign languages
- provide a constant guideline to the education
- may control the rhythm of study
- help the teachers if they provide appropriate exercises in great number
- help pupils' work (Zalánné Szablyár & Petneki, 1997, p. 17).

Cunningsworth (1995) claims that coursebooks have multiple roles in English language classes, like serving as a syllabus, or presenting the written and spoken material. They may also serve such as vocabulary and grammar. A textbook can also provide a wide variety of activities, promote interaction, act as a source for classroom activities, and offer self-access work or self-directed learning.

According to Medgyes (1997), coursebooks are needed much more by pupils than by teachers, because pupils can easily find the previous chapters, if they feel it necessary. He also mentions that teachers can teach without textbooks, but it is a big irresponsibility. At the same time teachers do not have to insist on them rigidly. It is also advisable to use additional materials.

2.1 Concepts related to coursebook assessment

'Coursebook analysis and evaluation is useful in teacher development and helps teachers to gain good and useful insights into the nature of the material. Similarly, in teacher training, materials evaluation is a valuable component and serves the dual purpose of sensitizing student teachers to some of the more important features to look for in coursebooks and familiarizing them with a range of published materials' (Cunningsworth, 1995, p. 14). There are different criteria for evaluating coursebooks. One of the major points is the checklist, in which methodologists and researchers agreed (Cunningsworth, 1995; Matthews, 1985; Medgyes, 1997). When teachers are looking for proper coursebooks to select they have to take into consideration various criteria like pupils' age and interest, and the size of the language learning group. Teachers are often influenced by the first impression about the book, its grammar, and the methods involved in it, what language skills are improved and how, and other important factors.

Cunningsworth proposed general criteria for textbook evaluation, which included 45 criteria in 8 categories: aims and approaches, design/organization, language content, study skills, topic, methodology, teacher's book, and practical considerations (Cunningsworth, 1995). Matthews enlisted sixteen features, that should play a vital role in coursebook assessment, for instance, first impression, content and form, methodology, grammar, four skills, gradualism, presenting and practising new material, diversity, illustration, the story, series, usability, extras, pretesting, availability and finally the price (Matthews, 1985).

The present study aims to provide a methodological evaluation of English coursebooks published in Ukraine for Form 5 and Form 6 to be used in Transcarpathian Hungarian schools. The aim of the work is to reveal how these coursebooks will be able to comply with the expectations of foreign language teaching. The analysis will follow Matthew's evaluation list because it is brief and clear, moreover through it we can gain a whole and a detailed analysis of the above mentioned coursebooks. Furthermore, Matthew's checklist takes into account not only the methodology to be used in the books, but pupils' interests which may be improved by the illustrations, the pictures, the diversity and the quality of the tasks, and other important factors.

I decided to analyse coursebooks designed for the Forms 5 and 6, since it is the time when students have already acquired basic knowledge of the foreign language and are able to express themselves more freely than in lover classes. Another reason for selecting these books was that an investigation was conducted in these classes in 2009 which aimed to reveal pupils' knowledge and attitude towards the English language focusing on especially collocations (Jacenta, 2012). Pupils in Form 5 learnt from the above mentioned textbook. The results showed that pupils in these classes were not really aware of the selected collocations, however, only those collocations were used in the paper which were already learnt from the coursebooks (Jacenta, 2012). In addition, during my teaching career I often felt, that my pupils found these coursebooks rather difficult, however they are really interesting at first sight. Moreover, the stories are not artificial, but more natural, pupils have to cope with everyday problems either in letter writing, or in dialogues and other tasks as well. Another important fact is that they are 'Recommended by the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine'. They are a part of a series, whose author is Oksana Karpiuk. It is possible to apply only those coursebooks, which are officially permitted by the educational minister, and should contain the above mentioned notice. Moreover, teachers are allowed to use additional materials, textbooks, which are also regulated. These textbooks are produced mainly by British publishers (Bulletin of the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine, 2001).

2.2 Oksana Karpiuk (2009), English 5 (Pupil's book)

The textbook has hard cover, and its colour is pink, it has an ordinary size 24.3: 16: 1.9 centimetres. The weight of the book is 350 grams. It is a methodological recommendation in Ukraine that the weight of the coursebooks in the Forms 5 and 6 cannot be above 450 grams (The approval of the state health standards, 2007). At first sight the book seems to be really attractive and interesting. The contents list is on the third page, this also helps the learners in the orientation. The introduction section is followed by the units and the appendix which contains the reader's bag, grammar reference, vocabulary and list of irregular verbs.

Table 1.
Oksana Karpiuk (2009), English 5 textbook's content

Units	The title of the chapters	Pages
	Introduction	4-11
Unit 1	Summer is over	12-25
Unit 2	Meet my friends	26-39
Unit 3	I've got an idea	40-55
Unit 4	Plenty of things to do	56-71
Unit 5	What's the news	72-87
Unit 6	Parties and holidays	88-101
Unit 7	Hobbies and pastimes	102-115
Unit 8	Everyday activities	116-129
Unit 9	Health and body care	130-143
Unit 10	We are Ukrainians	144-157
	Appendix	
	Reader's bag	158-165
	Grammar reference	167-172
	Vocabulary	173-190
	Irregular verbs	191

The pages of the book are very colourful and they are full of pictures. The titles of the topics are at the top of the page, they are written in colourful letters and 16 font size bold capitals. Every topic has its own colour. The instructions are written in 14 font size bold typed letters, while the tasks are written in normal letters (14 font sizes). The examples have the same size, and they are italicized. The structure of the units is the following:

Unit (number): Title

Each topic builds upon lessons. An average topic involves 12 lessons, except the introduction, which includes only 3 lessons (See Table 2). The units contain the same types of lessons, so pupils and teachers can predict the structure and the types of the exercises in the following units. The introductory sections in each unit are composed by the first and second lessons. We can find 5 or 6 exercises here. The remaining lessons include 4, sometimes 3 exercises. The first task in the introductory section is a dialogue with a picture pupils have to listen to from the audio tape and at the same time they can see the whole text/dialogue, then they have to answer the questions. We may find everyday situations in these dialogues, so these tasks are more natural than artificial. The dialogues help to present the topic of the particular unit.

Table 2.
The content of the coursebook with the number of lessons

The title of the units		Number of lessons
Introduction		3
Unit 1	Summer is over	10
Unit 2	Meet my friends	10
Unit 3	I've got an idea	12
Unit 4	Plenty of things to do	12
Unit 5	What's the news	13
Unit 6	Parties and holidays	11
Unit 7	Hobbies and pastimes	10
Unit 8	Everyday activities	11
Unit 9	Health and body care	9
Unit 10	We are Ukrainians	11

The second lesson focuses on grammar. There are three tasks here, like fill in the blanks, open the brackets and put the verb into the correct form. The third and fourth lessons contain texts for developing pupils' reading skills. The text for reading is usually a tale/story or a letter. Various tasks follow the text at different difficulty levels. The first one is the simplest; pupils have to say what the text is about. We may find statements in the second task, and learners have to say whether these sentences are true or false. There are also questions related to the text, but in most cases these questions can be answered automatically without understanding the meaning. Using concept questions is always better than display questions, because the previous ones focus on meaning and understanding. Finally, pupils have to talk about themselves with the help of the text. They also have to use the new vocabulary, which is signed at the corner of the page.

The sixth, the seventh and the eighth lessons include exercises for developing pupils' listening comprehension. Pupils have to listen and read the proper text, and then they have to either answer the questions related to the text, or there are statements and they have to choose whether sentences are true or false. Another type of listening task is the dialogue or in some cases we may find simple questions where pupils have to listen to a short text carefully from the audiotape then answer comprehension questions.

Lessons 9 and 10 usually summarize the whole unit. We may also find a project here, which is really interesting and connected to the actual topic. In the Introduction pupils have to make a poster about themselves. They also have to get more information about their classmates (Unit 1), make up a leaflet how they can improve their English (Unit 2), write a report who can make an English newspaper in their class (Unit 4), write a recipe how to learn English communication (Unit 4), make up the brochure Holidays in Ukraine (Unit 6). In Unit 7 pupils have to collect information on their classmates' opinion about hobbies and sports. They also have to design their ideal timetable (Unit 8), make a health poster (Unit 9) and finally, design a new stamp for our country.

Every lesson ends with a homework task indicated at the bottom of the page in a small square. It can be found in pupils' workbook. The number of exercises and the pages are also given in the small square.

The Reader's Bag contains a wide variety of tales (e.g. 'The Wizard of Oz', 'The crow and the fox', 'The three little pigs', 'The fox and the crane', 'The country mouse and the city mouse', 'Toby', 'An old tale', 'The brave hunter'). There are six topics in the grammar reference which gives short descriptions of the main topics to be learned throughout the year. They are the following: the noun, the adjective, the numeral, the pronoun, the verb (five tenses are mentioned here: present continuous, simple present, past continuous, simple past, simple future tenses.), and the adverb. The Vocabulary contains the words to be studied, which are closely connected to the topics. There are 1468 words here. They are written in alphabetic order. The structure of the vocabulary is the following: the words in English, transcription and the meaning in Ukrainian. There are not any explanations here. The last page is the table of irregular verbs, where we can find the infinitive, past simple, Ukrainian translation and phonetic transcription, but the past participle form of the verbs is missing. For example:

get	**[get]**	got	**[gjt]**	отримувати

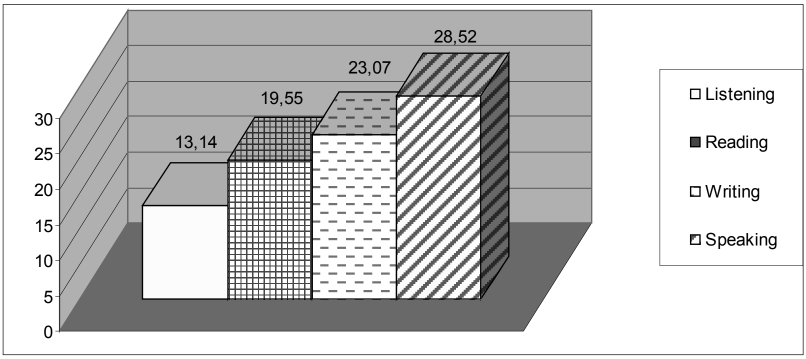
'The basis of foreign language methodology in Ukraine is the communicative language teaching approach, for example that entire learning is developed to individual or group activities of every learner. Language materials are presented in situations which stimulate informal communication adjusted to a certain age group.' (Kovalenko et al. 2010, pp. 22-23) Through the structure of the units we could see that the tasks, the dialogues are natural, what may help to improve pupils' communicative skills. The activities and the exercises are meaningful and involve real communication. Different skills such as speaking, reading, and listening are linked together, since they usually occur as in the real world.

Communicative language teaching often forgets about the fact that language teaching is a long process in its nature. Language becomes a tool in the learner's hand after significant quantitative and qualitative changes. When language learners, for instance, have to ask questions, they know very well what their task is, but the problem is that the language learners do not know how to do this, because they cannot ask (Bárdos, 2005). Another problem is that authors misinterpreted the aim of communicative language teaching, which never said that language learning is developed to individual activities of every learner.

The units begin with real-life situations; in most cases they start with dialogues, where the characters of the book try to solve something. Sometimes children have to use their previous knowledge to do the grammar tasks. Little attention is paid to the studying of new words. Moreover, they are not highlighted in the introductory texts. Only few exercises focus on expanding pupils' vocabulary. Such exercises make up 2.24% of all the tasks. Concerning teaching grammar, the book contains the most important information. For example, how the proper tense is formed, when it is used, and what the most common adverbial modifiers are. New grammar is taught mostly deductively. Those tasks that focus on practising grammar make up 15.75% all of the exercises.

Each unit tries to develop the four major language skills, but they are not equally improved (see Figure 1).

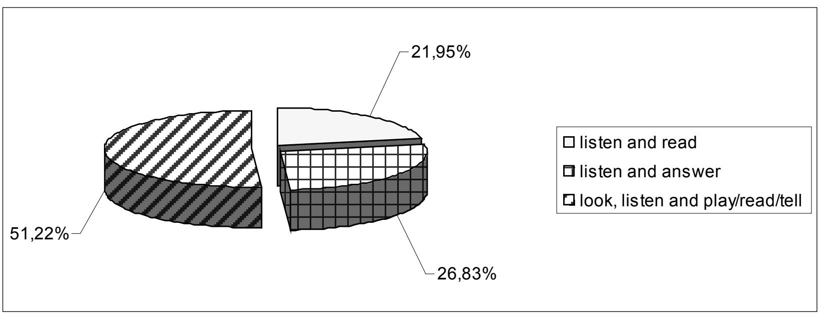
Figure 1.
Exercises that help to develop pupils’ skills (in percentage, %)



The figure shows that the book makes a great emphasis on improving learners’ speaking skills (28.52%), while only a few tasks are focusing on developing pupils’ listening comprehension (13.14%). An audio aid also accompanies the book which contains audio materials performed by Ukrainian pupils. 19.55% of the tasks help to increase pupils’ reading skills, and 23.07% of the exercises improve grammar skills. Poems and songs make up 15.72 %.

For developing listening skills pupils have to listen to those texts which are found in the textbook. There are 41 listening tasks which are divided into three main categories: listen and read (21.95%), listen and answer (26.83%), look, listen and play/read/tell (51.22%) (see Figure 2).

Figure 2.
Types of listening tasks (in percentage, %)



We can find the instruction ‘listen and read’ used with longer texts, or tales, while the instruction ‘listen and answer’ appears mainly with shorter texts. ‘Look, listen and play/read/tell’ is applied when working with dialogues.

The new words are not highlighted in the texts. They are written in a small square where only the phonetic transcription is given, but there is no translation or explanation here, e.g. compositor [kəm’pjzitə]; to deliver [dk’lkvə]. In the

Reader's bag the new words are numbered. At the bottom of the page the transcription and the meaning in Ukrainian are given, e.g. 'Then she made a tiny[3] cake and put it into the oven…' [3]['taknk] крихітний

The topics and the exercises follow each other cyclically, gradually becoming more difficult (from the simplest to the most complicated). Every topic contains the same types of exercises, so pupils can predict what would happen. They are built in the same way. New words and expressions are not highlighted, and only a small number of exercises give the possibility to use them. Exercises which help to learn new vocabulary constitute 2.24% of the tasks. If the teacher wants to reach success he/she has to think about additional tasks for practising vocabulary. Every unit includes a revision at the end of the topics.

Illustrations make the book more motivating for the pupils. They can make the new material easier and clearer for the language learners if they provide proper and meaningful context. The book is colourful and full of images. Some of them are real photos. The quality of the photos is good. This may help pupils to learn the new material, but those pictures which have methodological relation are only the 5.4% of all pictures.

Although there are permanent characters in the book the stories are not connected rigidly with each other, so it does not bind the teacher to teach pupils from lesson to lesson. Stories are all interesting, sometimes brief, or sometimes long containing new words and expressions, but they are not highlighted in the text. The instructions which are given to the exercises are clear and brief.

The book is a part of a series and an educational set and includes the following components: pupil's book, workbook, teacher's book, audio aid. It is based on the new curriculum which was issued by the Ministry of Education and Science. The book was designed for Form 5 pupils who had been studying English for four years. This book was tested before the real publication. There is an acknowledgement at the beginning of the book for the pupils who tried and used it in city Ternopil at School Number 3. The book, published in 2005 was available around Ukraine. Its sale was prohibited, while those books which were published in 2009 are not free of charge. Pupils have to buy them. Its price is changing.

2.3 Oksana Karpiuk (2010), English 6 (Pupil's book)

The book has hard cover, its colour is blue. Its size is 24.5:17:1.5 centimetres, the weight is 350 grams. At first sight this book also seems to be really attractive and interesting. The inner pages are also full of bright colours. The titles of the units are on the top of the pages they are written in 16 font size bold capitals. Every unit has its own colour. The instructions are written in 14 font size bold letters, while the tasks are written in normal 14 font size letters. The content is on the third page and divided into three main parts: introduction, the units and the appendices (see Table 3).

Table 3.
Oksana Karpiuk (2010) English 6 textbook’s content

	The title of the units	Pages
	Introduction	4-11
Unit 1	We need information	12-27
Unit 2	School life	28-43
Unit 3	Bigger! Faster! Stronger!	44-59
Unit 4	Round the calendar	60-75
Unit 5	On the move	76-91
Unit 6	Around the world	92-107
Unit 7	Welcome to Ukraine	108-123
Unit 8	Save your planet	124-139
Unit 9	Hello Summer holidays	140-155
	Appendix	
	Reader’s bag	156-163
	Grammar reference	164-173
	Vocabulary	174-190
	Irregular verbs	191

The textbook is built on the same logic as the textbook for Form5; for example, it contains topics, and these topics include lessons. Every topic contains ten lessons. The structure of the units is very similar to the above analyzed textbook.

Unit (number): Title

Read the text or look at the picture and answer the questions, or ‘look, listen and read’, then come various tasks in a great number. We can find this type of exercise in the first and second lesson in each unit. Third and eighth lessons always focus on grammar.

Writing task – correct the mistakes, or fill in the blanks, or use one word from the box to complete each question.

Project – making a definite project. This task is found in the revision section (Lesson 9-10). There is a wide range of tasks here: meet my family (Introduction), class newspaper (Unit 1), our contact with English (Unit 2), sports in Ukraine (Unit 3), Ukrainian holidays and celebrations (Unit 4), useful tips for travellers (Unit 5), get to know a foreign country (Unit 6), welcome to Ukraine (Unit 7), save your planet (Unit 8), and my ideal place for a holiday (Unit 9).

Homework – indicated at the bottom of the page in a box. It can be found in pupils’ workbook. The number of exercises and the pages are also given in the small box.

The units are followed by the appendix what contains the Reader’s Bag (including texts or tales for reading: ‘The ant and the grasshopper’, ‘Paul’s French lesson’, ‘Sports day’, ‘The USA’, ‘Typical year in Britain’, ‘The story of Robinson Crusoe’, ‘The arctic’, ‘Animals in danger’), grammar reference (there are short rules and summary in Ukrainian and English about those grammar materials that were learned through the year), and an English-Ukrainian vocabulary. The words are written in alphabetical order not split into different topics. The table of irregular verbs is on the last page including infinitive, past simple, past participle and Ukrainian translation.

Sometimes there are too many pictures on the pages, but only those illustrations which have real methodological relation are the 3.1% of all the visuals. The instructions and the tasks are clear, transparent and separate from each other so pupils can follow them easily. The book is based on the communicative language teaching approach, as it was mentioned, that the base of the foreign language teaching method is the communicative approach in Ukraine (Kovalenko et. al. 2010). The stories and the dialogues to be used in the book are natural. Real topics are better for the language learners than imaginary ones, because the previous one helps learners to establish a relation between classroom and life outside the classroom.

Most of the topics present new grammar material or new information. For example, we may find information and exercises about the simple past, the present continuous and the future simple in the introductory section (the aim is probably the revision). Unit 1 focuses on modal verbs, moreover, the use of 'much and many' with countable and uncountable nouns. Unit 3 presents the Present Perfect Tense. Unit 4 focuses on the use of 'some, any, every, and no' in sentences, furthermore, collocations with the following verbs: go, play and do. Unit 4 aims to show tag-questions and the adjectives. Unit 5 is about the use of 'too and enough' in sentences and the adverb. Unit 6 focuses on definite article (the). Unit 7 is the use of 'so/nor (neither)', in addition, linking words (and, but, so, because). Unit 8 gives an opportunity for pupils to deepen their understanding of the previously learned grammar materials. Unit 9 – presents the differences in the use of 'shall, will and going to'. Grammar reference includes detailed information about the tenses. Grammar tasks comprise 21.78% of all the exercises.

Figure 3.
Exercises which help to develop pupils' skills (in percentage, %)

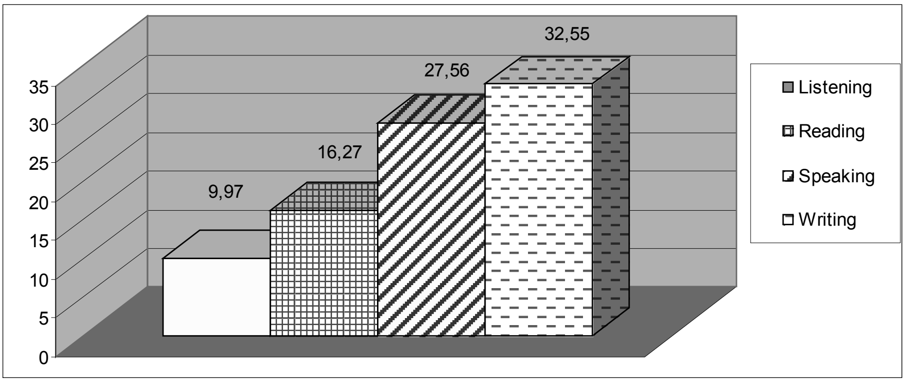
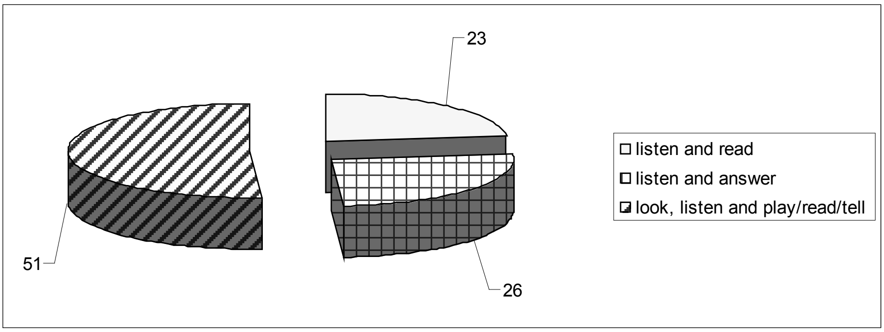


Figure 3 shows us that language skills are not equally practised. The most important language skill is the writing (32.55% of all the exercises are writing tasks). Then comes speaking (27.56%), reading (16.27%) and the last one is listening (9.97%). 13.65% are poems and songs. There are 38 listening tasks for developing pupils listening skills. These types of exercises are divided into three main categories: listen and read (21.95%), listen and answer (26.83%), look, listen and play/read/tell (51.22%) (see Figure 4).

Figure 4.
Types of listening tasks in Karpiuk, 2010 (in percentage, %)



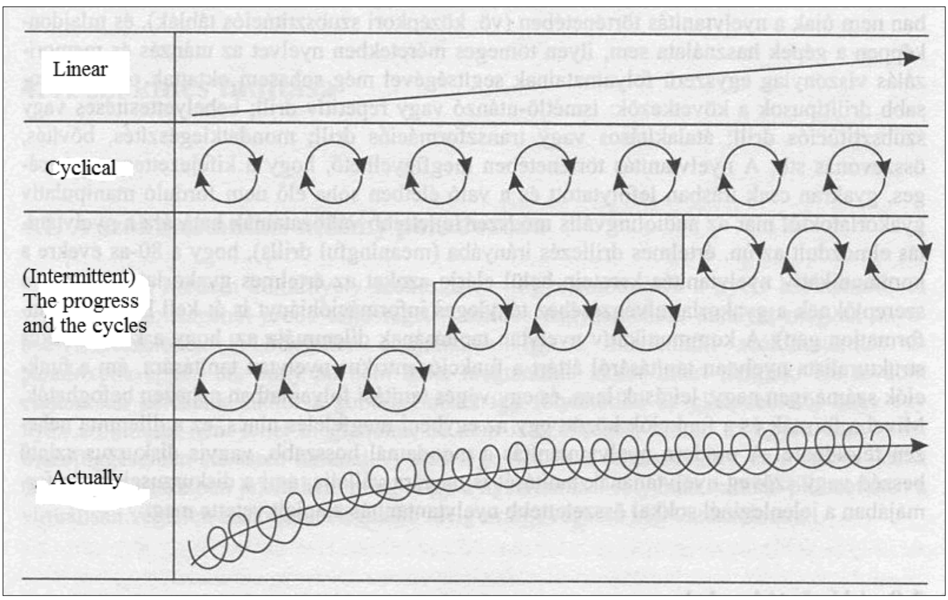
Tasks follow each other gradually from the simplest to the most complicated ones. Since the structure of all units is the same, certain parts of the units are very predictable. Apart from this the exercises are quite diverse, however, we can find out similarities in some cases. Of course, the listening and reading comprehension tasks are different in each unit, depending on the topic. The number of the exercises is approximately the same in each unit. The main characters are Taras, Ivan, Chrystyna and Lilia, they are the makers of the 'English Bridge' newspaper which is for children like them. We are told that they were the characters of the previous book too. The story is not very coherent, so it does not make the teacher follow the book step by step from topic to topic, but each unit includes a frame story, in most cases a short dialogue in which we can guess what will happen in the chapter. The instructions are also clear and brief, so pupils can easily understand their task. Materials are interesting, typically make use of authentic texts to create interest and to provide valid models of language.

The book is a part of a series and an educational set and includes the following components: pupil's book, workbook, teacher's book, audio aid. It is based on the new curriculum which was issued by the Ministry of Education and Science (Foreign language teaching curricula for the 2014-2015 academic year, 2014). The book was designed for Form 6 pupils who had been studying English for 5 years. This book was tested before the real publication. There is an acknowledgement at the beginning of the book for the pupils who tried and used it in city Ternopil at School Number 3. The book which was published in 2005 was available around Ukraine. Pupils have to buy the textbook. It is available at every bookstore in Ukraine.

These books are a part of series so they are built in the same way. The topics involved in the textbooks are real not imaginary. Real topics are usually more interesting and motivating than artificial ones. The characters are permanent in addition pupils can predict easily what kind of tasks will be in the units. Probably, this predictability may cause tediousness for the teacher, but for the pupils may provide safety.

At first sight the series seems to be extremely attractive, but the main problem is that the author has forgotten the fact, that the content of the foreign language teaching the pronunciation, the grammar, the vocabulary and the pragmatic elements have to re-teach on every level in more depth. (Bárdos, 2000)

Figure 5.
The progress of the content of foreign language teaching



(cf. Bárdos, 2005, p. 65)

It would be also advisable to re-teach those topics at a higher level that were studied by the learners in the elementary classes. One to two lessons of 45 minutes a week in lower classes (Foreign language teaching curricula for the 2014-2015 academic year, 2014) can only establish the positive attitudes toward foreign language learning (cf: Djigunovic´, 2012). Although the tasks in the coursebooks gradually becoming more difficult, there is no gradualism and progress between the textbooks. Topics and vocabulary do not occur in more depth at a higher level.

3 Conclusions

Coursebooks play an important role in foreign language learning. Their tasks can be various. They can provide safety and various activities for the language learners. At the same time coursebooks can serve as a syllabus and a resource for the teachers. However, it is important to note that books are aids, and teachers should not let the aids to use them.

In our country foreign language teachers can apply only those coursebooks, which are officially permitted by the educational minister, and should contain the notice 'Recommended by the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine'.

In conclusion, it can be stated that the structure of the two coursebooks is similar to each other, because they are parts of a series written by the same author. The size and weight of the books are appropriate, because they correspond to the methodological recommendations in Ukraine which state that the weight of the books in the Forms 5 and 6 cannot be above 450 grams. Grammar is taught mainly deductively. Grammar references in both books contain the most important information about the grammatical materials. All the four language skills (listening, reading, speaking and writing) are practised, but they are not developed equally. The most neglected one is listening in both books. Listening tasks can be divided into three main categories: listen and read; listen and answer; look, listen and play/read/tell. In most cases pupils can see those texts and dialogues which they have to listen to. Both books are based on the communicative language teaching approach, so the texts and the tasks reflect real-life situations, pupils have to cope with everyday problems. Every unit contains the same types of exercises, so pupils can easily predict what will happen. Tasks follow each other gradually from the simplest to the most complicated. New words and expressions are not highlighted in the introductory texts; moreover, only a small number of exercises focus on practising them.

The introduction section is followed by the units and the appendices which contain the Reader's Bag, grammar reference, vocabulary and the table of irregular verbs. Both books are really colourful and they contain many illustrations and real photos, but sometimes the visuals are decorative and not an integral part of teaching. Those pictures which have a methodological relation are present only in a small number in the books. Stories do not connect rigidly to each other but, there is a frame story (each unit begins with it) which aims to demonstrate the new material in the target chapter. The books are parts of a series and an educational set which include the following components: pupil's book, workbook, teacher's book and audio-aid. These books were tested before the real implementation. There is an acknowledgement at the beginning of the books for the pupils who tried and used them. Pupils have to buy those books which were published later than 2005.

4 Pedagogical implications

Both coursebooks are really attractive, colourful, and we may find real-life situations in them. It is a good point because it brings foreign language learning closer to the pupils. It would be important if more exercises focused on vocabulary teaching because vocabulary is the key element of effective communication and the building blocks of the language.

Another important factor is presenting new grammar material. Inductive and deductive grammar teaching have to be more balanced in the books. Sometimes language learners cannot make a good conclusion about the new material because the rule itself contains many exceptions so they may lose the thread in difficult cases, but on the other hand, they have to learn to think logically in order to find relationship between new things.

Other vital points are the listening tasks. The quality of listening tasks has to be better, more authentic. Audio materials are crucial, because pupils have to listen to native speakers, in order to learn the proper intonation, stress and pronunciation in a variety of situations. In addition, the rate and style of listening tasks have to be different, because in most listening materials the pupils can see the whole texts of the listening task. It would be better if pupils had to fill the blanks in texts or complete the speaker's answers in dialogues.

In addition, the quality of the questions has to be different. In most cases pupils can answer the questions automatically, without understanding the meaning. It would be more efficient to use concept questions instead of display ones.

Furthermore, visuals have to be an integrative part of teaching. The textbooks are very colourful, they are full of attractive pictures, but only a small amount of them (5.4% in Form 5 and 3.1% in Form 6) have a real methodological relation.

The basis of foreign language methodology in Ukraine is the communicative language teaching approach. This series is also based on this language teaching approach. When we are teaching foreign languages we cannot say that only one method is good. It is advisable to use different methods and approaches in the process of foreign language teaching in order to reach success.

Finally, it would be advisable to re-teach not only the grammar, but the topics, the vocabulary and the pragmatic elements at a higher level in more depth.

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VIDEO-TEXT VERSUS AUDIO-TEXT AS STIMULUS FOR L2 INSTRUCTION AND ASSESSMENT

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Abstract:
This paper hypothesises that the medium of video, which combines visually-mediated non-verbal (paralinguistic) behaviour and contextual input with auditory-mediated verbal language, is more effective as a teaching tool than audio disc in enhancing L2 learning. It explores the significance of an integrated, *total body communication* approach to L2 teaching, learning and testing, which considers the synthesis of verbal language conveyed through phonetic articulation *(lexicon)* and perceived through the acoustic channel, and paralinguistic behaviour conveyed through a combination of body movements *(kinesics and proxemics)* and perceived through the optical channel, and vocal articulation *(prosodics)* perceived through the paraverbal channel. It is widely acknowledged that foreign language learning is better facilitated by exposure to multi-channel input (i.e. auditory verbal stimuli combined with concomitant non-verbal visual stimuli), although most of the current models of L2 instruction and testing place little importance on paralinguistic behaviour, and are therefore in need of extension. The findings from an empirical investigation would seem to suggest this. Such findings have major implications for L2 teaching methodology in general, but would be especially pertinent to distance learning and self-education programmes which rely heavily on single-channel input (auditory verbal stimuli) through the use of audio-CDs for instruction, listening comprehension and testing purposes.
Key Words: paralanguage, kinesics, proxemics, prosodics, paraverbal

Introduction

> The body and voice become more involved when we are expressing ourselves than when we simply understand. Language is not the manipulation of tongue, teeth, hard and soft palates to form plosives, fricatives, labiodentals, alveolars and palato-alveolars. Language is the whole body. When we express ourselves we use affective melodies, intonations, pauses, rhythms, gestures, facial expressions and physical movements. It is „I" who am speaking, both body and spirit (Dickinson, Levêque and Sagot, 1975, p.20).

A Framework of Interpersonal Communication

Communication is fundamental to human beings. Language is the most elaborate mechanism and transactional tool in human communication. Interaction is the most basic, most important and most complex aspect of this communication and it is through social interaction that information or a message can be emitted and received. The early framework of communication conceived by Aristotle viewed communication in relationship to three points of reference: the speaker, the speech, and the audience (Hesselgrave, 1991). More complex models have emerged over the centuries, but by far the most widely used model is the „cybernetic" model, based on the works of Shannon and Weaver (1949) and Wiener (1954). This model, which has grown out of very early telecommunication and computer technology, has spawned more contemporary models embracing a broader perspective of communication to include various elements such as sender or source, receiver or respondent, message, channel, media, code, encode, decode, feedback and context. Hesselgrave (1991, p. 51) proposes such a model and aptly illustrates how these main elements of communication are drawn together to form a basis for a model of communication. Figure 1 shows a modified version of Hesselgrave's (1991) model to illustrate the system of interpersonal communication.

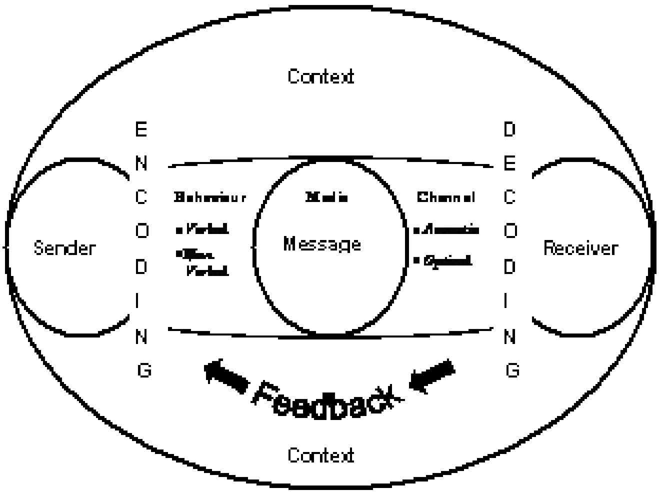

Figure 1
The Process of Interpersonal Communication (Adapted from Hesselgrave, 1991)

In this contemporary cybernetic model, the ideal form of interaction incorporates the various elements to explain and describe the interpersonal communication process. The sender encodes a message into a coded system and emits it through verbal and/or non-verbal behaviour by means of a medium or a combination of different media. The process of encoding involves using the mind and body to express ideas and impulses into a coded system. The receiver perceives the information through the acoustic and/or optical channel, reverses the encoding process (decoding) and turns the code back into a message. Feedback is an indicator of the receiver's response to the message. The context or setting gives support to the meaning of the message.

There are, however, many other factors that can affect communication, not least of which is the „commonness" of the codes used between the sender and the receiver. Unless mutually shared codes are used, communication will be ineffective. In other words, if the sender speaks in a language which is unknown to the receiver, then the message will not be understood or memorised. In the case where the receiver is not a native speaker of the language being spoken by the sender, it is necessary for the sender to employ all available non-verbal strategies to make the message more meaningful and more memorable.

In the context of L2 learning, learners, therefore, need to rely more on non-verbal communicative behaviour than in first language (L1) learning. Other factors such as smell, temperature and touch can also influence the effectiveness of communication, but the most fundamental aspect of interpersonal oral communication which seems to have been ignored in L2 pedagogy is the extent to which learners can utilise non-verbal behaviour and the optical channel in the encoding and decoding of the target language to enhance communicative competence.

Paralinguistic Behaviour and Social Interaction

Within the field of L2 learning, it is generally accepted by linguists, language teachers and researchers that a broadening of the paradigm of communication to include a framework which integrates verbal and non-verbal (paralinguistic) behaviour is essential to the development of L2 communicative competence. Stevick (1982) expresses the interrelationship between verbal and non-verbal behaviour quite succinctly: “if verbal communication is the pen which spells out details, nonverbal communication provides the surface on which the words are written and against which they must interpreted” (Stevick, 1982, p.163).

Wolfgang (1979) maintains that social interaction in the context of L2 teaching and learning is effected simultaneously on three different levels: verbal, non-verbal and cultural, with the third moderating the other two. Neither verbal nor non-verbal behaviour can be fully expressed or understood in isolation. Put more simply, verbal and non-verbal behaviour are interdependent, used simultaneously and are culture bound.

In order to identify the significance of the use of non-verbal behaviour in L2 oral communication and how it can be mediated, it is important to construct a realistic and practical framework of the human communication process. An essential characteristic of this framework is that it should recognise all relevant aspects of interpersonal communication through the unification of L2 verbal and non-verbal structure and content.

Such a framework of communication is expressed by Poyatos (1976; 1982) and focuses on ‘total body communication’. Poyatos (1976) suggests that there are a number of ways in which the human body is capable of emitting and receiving information. In face-to-face social interaction, whether it be intracultural (within a culture) or intercultural (between cultures), information and meaning are conveyed by the body primarily through gesturing and phonetic articulation and perceived through the optical, paraverbal and acoustic channels. Poyatos (1976) emphasises the communicative status of these channels and proposes a triple structure through which human interaction is realised:

> It is in interaction that we encounter the numerous channels we use consciously or subconsciously for the conveyance of messages which I have subsumed as *Total Body Communication,* this including verbal-vocal (lexical language), nonverbal-vocal (paralanguage) and, above all, nonverbal nonvocal (kinesics, proxemics, thermal change, etc.) forms (Poyatos, 1976, p.4).

Figure 2 illustrates how the oral message is conveyed by a combination of phonetic and vocal articulation and body movements through the auditory, non-lexical and visual modes, and is perceived by the acoustic, paraverbal and optical channels respectively. This perception of the message involves the multi-channel stimuli being delivered via both the

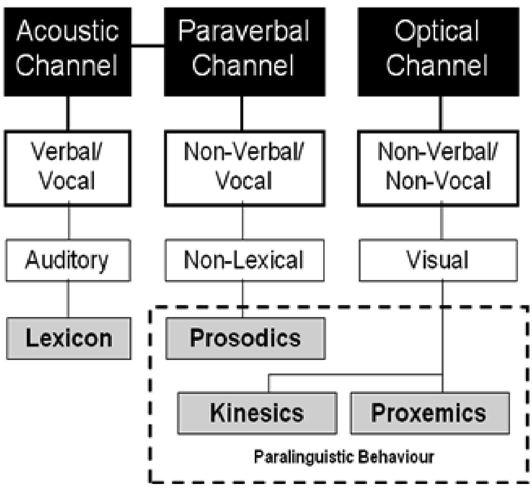

Figure 2. Integrated Multi-Channel Framework (Adapted from Poyatos, 1976)

optic and acoustic nerves to the parts of the brain responsible for the internalising of the information and the processing of language comprehension (Wernicke's area) and speech production (Broca's area). This neurobiological bi-modal system of language processing advances a neuroscientific perspective which argues that the brain structures and neural networks responsible for these processes are seen as being critical to explaining why the exposure to multi-sensory input through the medium of video can enhance intake, and ultimately comprehension and language production (Pillar, 2013).

Paralinguistic Behaviour and Meaning

The pivotal question which needs to be addressed in the verbal/non-verbal dichotomy is to what degree paralinguistic behaviour contributes in conveying meaning in communication. Studies in verbal communication carried out by Mehrabian and Ferris (1967) provide figures for the total weight of impact of a message: 7% verbal (words only), 38% vocal (tone of voice, inflection and other sounds) and 55% non-verbal (facial expression, gesture, body language and posture). Based on data from their research on the relationship between body movement (kinesics) and communication, Erscholz and Rosa (1973, p.9) cite other pioneering studies carried out in an attempt to systematise and codify body motions and spatial relationships (e.g. Goffman, 1963; Hall, 1966; Birdwhistell, 1970). These studies make similar assertions as to the amount of non-verbal communication that takes place in human interaction. They show that only 30% to 35% of the meaning of a conversation is conveyed by verbal stimuli (the words), whereas the remaining 65% to 70% of the communicative load is carried by non-verbal stimuli and perceived by the optical and paraverbal channels. These figures appear to have gained wide acceptance over the last two decades. More recent studies (e.g. Macarthur and McNamara 1987; Oxford, 1993) even cite figures of 90% non-verbal and 10% verbal.

From this review of major empirical studies on non-verbal behaviour, it is evident that paralinguistic behaviour has been justifiably affirmed as a significant and integral part of the physical delivery system of spoken communication. It is the major part of communication, yet in the field of language pedagogy, as pointed out by Stewig (1979), the majority of time and effort is spent helping learners master the message contained in the basic verbal signals - the words.

Paralinguistic Behaviour and Comprehension

Surprisingly, there has been little empirical work carried out into what Kendon (1984) calls „the communicative value" of non-verbal behaviour. One of the few contributions to this field of research is found in the seminal work of Mehrabian (1972), who promotes the communicative significance of a tri-modal semantic framework of paralinguistic cues: evaluation, potency and responsiveness:

> Positive evaluation is communicated by facial and vocal cues (which express variations in liking) and also by several postures and positions (a closer position, a greater forward lean, increased eye contact, and more direct orientation). Postural relaxation conveys potency or status, and increasing implicit activity (such as facial or vocal activity) expresses responsiveness to another person (Mehrabian, 1972, p.8).

Another major contribution to the field of non-verbal communication is the work of Kellerman (1992), who cites research on the links between verbal behaviour (through auditory stimuli) and paralinguistic behaviour (through visual and non-lexical stimuli) in L1 comprehension. According to Kellerman (1992), these correlations are organised on four levels: phonological, semantic, discourse and interaction.

Phonological: In the context of L1 acquisition, it is well established that movements of the mouth, head, eyebrows and eyes are linked with vocal intonation and stress patterns. Studies conducted by Bull and Connelly (1985) show that body movements are related to tonic stress. Hadar (1989) draws attention to the contrast between stressed and unstressed syllables and maintains that by watching the speaker talking, one can actually see where the stressed syllables are, as all body movement is made in time with the rhythm of speech. Hadar's (1989) findings indicate that head movements synchronise with stressed words and syllables, providing value to the listener in decoding speech.

Semantic: McNeill (1985) reveals the semantic significance of gestures in facilitating speech perception and production. According to McNeill (1985), gestures (typically made with hands) are defined in terms of gestures depicting action, shapes, rhythm and spatial relationships and are linked with the linguistic message on a semantic level. Most hand gestures are iconic (representational) in nature, that is, „they represent those movements whose form and manner of production exhibit a meaning parallel to the concurrent linguistically expressed meaning" (Kellerman 1992, p.242). They are referred to as *illustrators* and are categorised as *kineographs* (depicting action), *pictographs* (depicting shape), *rhythmics* (representing rhythm or pacing of an event), and *spatials* (depicting spatial relationships). These types of movement are defined as „gestural onomatopoeia".

Discourse: Studies conducted by Pedelty and McNiell (1986) suggest a correlation between paralinguistic behaviour and discourse. These investigations demonstrate the involvement of body movements in decoding clues. According to Pedelty and McNeill (1986), discourse is indexed by small, quick, abstract body movements which function as visual markers, in that a change in body movement can signal change of topic or they can indicate contrasts in the text. Pointing is frequently used to indicate these contrasts which can be locational, temporal or personal.

Interactional: According to research carried out by Brown (1986), paralinguistic behaviour has a regularity function in verbal interaction. Body movements maintain and co-ordinate the flow of speech in turn-taking. This study suggests that turn-taking is regulated by head nods, eye contact, gaze, gestures of the hand and arm, and posture.

The correlations between paralinguistic behaviour and these four levels of language organisation are uncontentious in the context of L1 learning. If paralinguistic behaviour plays an integral part in L1 decoding, it is logical to assume that they would also apply to L2 decoding. This view is consistent with that of Widdowson (1979, p.111), who recommends that „L2 learning should be seen not as the learning of new knowledge and experience but as an extension or alternative realisation of existing knowledge". Despite the body of literature that exists on non-verbal communication in L1 learning, there is relatively little literature on its relevance to L2 learning.

From the literature that does exist within the context of L2 learning, it is acknowledged that discourse comprehension and communication in general involve both auditory and visual processing (Riley, 1981; von Raffler-Engel, 1980; Willis, D., 1983; Allan, 1984; Kellerman, 1990; Danan, 1992; Gassin, 1992). In other words, when communicating we not only *listen* but to an even greater extent, *view* the message as well and interpret the two modes of information simultaneously (O'Malley, Chamot and Kuepper, 1989; Rost, 1990). Furthermore, since interaction is often effected by gesture, facial expression and eye contact or a message is conveyed through body posture and proxemics, communication in L2 can be achieved without the help of verbal language, provided of course that the body language patterns are familiar to those involved in the communicative event. The ability to recognise, understand and use these paralinguistic features of L2 is an integral part of achieving communicative competence (Lonergan, 1984). Rivers (1983, p.15) states that a crucial aspect of communicative competence is knowing „when and how to use appropriate gestures and body language".

Moreover, it is generally accepted in L2 learning that visual stimuli, such as the setting and the people with their actions and body language, can generate speculation and predictions about what the speaker is going to talk about and what he or she is going to do next (Faerch and Kasper, 1986; Rost, 1990; Ur, 1984). Therefore, the task of understanding can be made easier if the expectations of what is to come are stimulated. Consequently, the presence of the visual mode in the listening task is beneficial for understanding L2 discourse.

Another important visual aspect that enhances speech perception and L2 comprehension is „lip-reading" or „speech-reading". Very little on the subject of visual information conveyed by the articulatory mechanisms is evident in the literature on listening skills in L2 teaching and learning. Research by Kellerman (1990) shows that seeing the face while listening to what it says enhances a learner's understanding of L2. Insights from Kellerman's research show that visual information alters the perception of sounds conveyed in an intact acoustic message, and, when auditory and visual information in the articulation of various syllables and sounds are placed in competition, more information is reported from vision than from hearing.

Paralinguistic Behaviour and Instruction

Each of the elements within the paralinguistic subsystems fulfils specific discourse functions, which may vary to some extent across cultures. Paralinguistic behaviour then is manifested in different ways in different languages and it may or may not affect the message being conveyed. Therefore, within a particular culture it is important to distinguish between those that do and those that do not form part of the message, i.e. those which according to Willis, J. (1983) are message-bearing or tied to speech and those which are routine, idiosyncratic or independent of speech. Having established the former, a question of some significance and one which not surprisingly seems to stimulate great controversy in language pedagogy is whether awareness of paralinguistic signals should be brought above the conscious threshold in order to focus attention on the form and function of visual signals of L2 as well as the verbal. Alternatively, should they, as Argyle (1972, p.267) suggests, be simply „emitted and received in a spontaneous manner, below the conscious threshold”. In other words, should learners be *explicitly taught* the paralinguistic elements of L2 or should they be merely exposed to them and expected to *acquire* them inductively through implicit observation and modelling?

Von Raffler-Engel (1980) maintains that training in paralinguistic behaviour can facilitate training in phonetics and sentence intonation. Diadori (1987) claims that paralinguistic behaviour should be taught to facilitate recognition and to expedite replication in communicative interaction. Since non-verbal cues are exchanged subconsciously, bringing them to learners' attention and discussing them explicitly may not be feasible due to time constraints. Nevertheless, work carried out by Fitch (1985), Gassin (1986) and Isaac (1995) would seem to affirm that instruction in paralinguistic behaviour can be facilitative in developing receptive and productive skills and enhancing communicative competence. Thus, explicit teaching of non-verbal behaviour is a dimension of language pedagogy that should be integrated with the presentation of core material.

This can be achieved through the use of video by presenting original scenes and dialogues as stimuli for instruction and training in total body communication through creative imitation, modelling, communicational rhythm and role-play activities. As far back as the early eighties, Riley (1981) advocated that the explicit teaching of kinesic and prosodic behaviour was necessary to redress the overemphasis on verbal behaviour. Morrison (1987) argues that the overemphasis on linguistic competence has dominated foreign language methodology, but in order to develop communicative competence, it would seem essential to provide the learner with stimuli that will engender the acquisition of non-verbal competence.

Findings from one of the few studies carried out to determine the significance of paralinguistic behaviour in the assessment of communicative competence (Neu, 1990) suggest that the acquisition of non-verbal competence through conscious exposure to paralinguistic markers plays a critical role in the assessment of a learner's overall language proficiency. Neu's (1990, p.122) assertion that “people are strategically, functionally and communicatively competent not only in their native verbal languages, but in their native nonverbal ones as well” is nothing new. The acceptance of the notion of non-verbal competence is grounded on work carried out in the 70's and 80's by noted researchers in the field of nonverbal communication (e.g. Hall, 1976; Morris, Collett, Marsh and O'Shaunessy, 1979; Menot 1987).

The Case in Favour of Video-Text in L2 Learning

One of the most important attributes of video in any learning situation is its ability to engage the learner in processing simultaneously two symbol systems: auditory and visual. According to Baggett (1989), meaning can be conveyed by either symbol system, but concludes that information presented visually and linguistically is represented differently in memory. In comparing the effects of visual and auditory stimuli on comprehension, Baggett (1989) contends that information contained in visual representation can be associated more with knowledge already in long-term memory, thus making it more memorable. This is in accord with the neurological and pedagogical assertions made in Pillar (2013) regarding enhanced internalisation of information through exposure to multi-channel input.

Research from a number of experimental studies have shown the cumulative effect of simultaneous vision and sound on comprehension and recall (e.g. Pezdek and Stevens, 1984; Gibbons, Anderson, Smith, Field and Rischer, 1986; Hayes, Kelly and Mandel, 1986). These studies were carried out to compare video programmes with their decomposed audio and visual representations to determine the role of these two sources of information, individually and combined. The findings confirm that the combined use of visual and auditory symbol systems results in more recall than with visual-only or auditory-only.

Other research pertaining to the effects of visual stimuli on memory supports the utility of video input. The importance of imagery manifested through video in L2 learning is illuminated in Danan's (1992) account of Paivio's (1978; 1986) „dual coding" theory which distinguishes separate representational systems: the verbal system and the imagery system which is composed of non-verbal objects and events:

> The two systems are functionally independent, yet representations in one system can also activate those in the other because dually coded items (coded verbally and non-verbally) are linked by referential connections. Visual traces are remembered better than are verbal components and also have an additive effect when items are encoded dually. *Consequently, in the case of second or foreign language learning as more verbal language is learned in direct association with appropriate non-verbal referents, the richer and more meaningful are the referential interconnections, thus resulting in better language recall and appropriate use* (Danan, 1992, pp. 498-499, my emphasis).

The findings from the studies reviewed would seem to contradict the view that simultaneous representation of auditory and visual information competes for limited cognitive resources at the expense of comprehension. These findings would also seem to dispel the hypothesis put forward by opponents of comparative research on media, such as Clark (1983, p. 445), who contends that „media do not influence learning under any condition, but are mere vehicles that deliver instruction but do not influence student achievement".

In the context of L2 learning and teaching, video provides a multi-sensory medium of information that can present language more comprehensively than any other medium (Stempleski and Tomalin, 1990). Used intelligently within the scope of a theoretically and pedagogically valid L2 curriculum, video is an effective teaching aid which conveys the dimension of moving picture with synchronised sound, bringing the visual impact of the target language and culture into the classroom. Video gives exposure to an abundance of contextualised, authentic target language as spoken by different people in different situations (McCoy and Weible, 1983; Johnson, 1991). Jensen and Vinther (1978) reinforce the positive features of video and suggest by inference its potential benefits as an instructional aid in L2 learning:

> Video cassettes in the L2 classroom display many immediate and obvious advantages: for the mind they offer a procession of stimulating images in living color; for the ears a range of speaking voices at varied levels of language; and for the eyes, a fascinating glimpse of the non-verbal features of interacting in the foreign language, including the authentic and spontaneous lip movements and body language of natives (Jensen and Vinther, 1978, cited in Danahy, 1985, p. 53).

Also worthy of note are findings revealed in some earlier and more recent studies into the utility of the active use of video in teaching L2 listening comprehension and speaking skills. As far back as 1975, a study was carried out by Knight (1975) using in-house produced videos to assess the effects of video in oral proficiency training. Knight's (1975) study was carried out at the English Department of Stockholm University. It involved the introduction of an experimental English language proficiency course consisting of a series of ten lessons aimed at training and testing students in comprehension and oral skills. Within the course structure, the use of printed texts was kept to a minimum with the focus being placed on the use of video presentation and role-play techniques. Students' comprehension was tested through re-tell and analysis of selected video sequences and oral proficiency was assessed through the performing of role-plays of interactive diad models presented through video. Knight (1975) reports that compared with the traditional classes, which concentrated on using purely „sound production" pronunciation course in which the communicative element was almost entirely absent, the video class was more successful in both comprehension and oral expression.

In commenting on investigations to support the methodological basis for using video, Bauer (1976) regards oral expression as a natural outgrowth from listening comprehension achieved via video-text. These findings suggest that video has the potential not only to teach listening comprehension, but also to teach speaking skills. Whether presented through the TV, Internet or DVD, it is the authentic, multidimensional nature of video that gives it the potential to improve both listening comprehension and speaking skills, and thus communicative competence. Its holistic presentation of linguistic, paralinguistic, cultural and visual information distinguishes video from any other media in promoting these language learning skills.

On the strength of the literature and studies reviewed, it would seem that video has the capability to provide stimuli more memorable to the learner than audio disc in the L2 classroom. As a multi-sensory, contextually rich, memory-enhancing medium, video has the potential to allow learners to develop more effectively a range of skills in listening and viewing comprehension and oral production as they progress through the curriculum.

Empirical Study

These assertions on the advantages of video mediated input over audio mediated input were strongly affirmed in an empirical study carried out by the author to investigate to what extent L2 learners exploit paralinguistic behaviour in receptive and productive processing through exposure to video-mediated input.

The study examined the effects of video as a tool for the teaching a foreign language. It explored the significance of an integrated, total body communication (Poyatos, 1976) approach to L2 teaching, learning and testing, which considers the synthesis of verbal language conveyed through phonetic articulation *(lexicon)* and perceived through the acoustic channel, and paralinguistic behaviour conveyed through a combination of body movements *(kinesics and proxemics)* and perceived through the optical channel, and vocal articulation *(prosodics)* perceived through the paraverbal channel.

This comparative study compared the outcomes of video-mediated input and audio-mediated input and examined the utility of paralinguistic behaviour displayed through the medium of video in developing comprehension and interpersonal communication skills in a foreign language, by comparing the outcomes of learners instructed through audio-mediated material with the outcomes of learners instructed through video-mediated material.

The purpose of this investigation was to provide an empirical foundation for a broad methodological framework for instruction and assessment which combines both verbal and non-verbal aspects of communication (i.e. total body communication) in the teaching and testing of a foreign language. The implementation of communicative testing to include all sensory channels was made possible through carefully designed communicative testing instruments which measured the linguistic and paralinguistic behaviour of the subjects in the interpersonal communicative activities of role-plays and interviews.

The results conclusively affirmed the advantage of the total body communicative learning through video-mediated input in enhancing productive interpersonal skills, thus supporting the notion that multi-channel, total body communicative language learning and communicative skills testing should be integral components in the processing and generating of student learning profiles. Comprehension was measured through a series of written pre- and post- tests, the results of which concluded that there is a distinct advantage in learning through the visual media to enhance comprehension skills.

Under the conditions of the investigation, the empirical results support the hypothesis that video-mediated input is more effective than audio-mediated input in developing aural receptive skills and oral productive skills, and thus L2 communicative competence.

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A LINGUISTIC ANALYSIS OF TOP AMERICAN PRESIDENTIAL INAUGURATION ADDRESSES

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Abstract:
The paper sets out to illustrate that analyzing any text as the object of study, including impressive American inaugural addresses, can contribute to developing students' awareness of the importance of rhetorical devices. The aim is to give a systematic analysis of two famous addresses at the lexical, syntactic, structural, discourse and semantic levels, in the hope that such a holistic approach enables students to see in them the fine balance between form and function, style and content, and structure and meaning. Investigating a presidential inauguration, a very special genre that not only intends to convey messages and to persuade but also to evoke emotions, is suitable for making learners appreciate eloquent language and style. In addition, the paper intends to shed light on how the use of a variety of figurative language adds to the linguistic power of a speech.
Keywords: inaugural address, linking elements, rhetorical figures, tropes

1 Introduction

The main topics to be dealt with in this paper include: i) some aspects of the special genre of presidential inaugural addresses; ii) factors that contribute to creating coherent and cohesive speeches or texts; iii) the role of visual imagery, which, together with the clarity and logic of an address, makes it memorable. It is hypothesised that the more examples of figurative language a speaker uses, the more brilliant orator s/he is going to be considered. Much of the greatness of a speech derives from its historical context, but this perspective goes beyond the scope of this paper. In spite of different historical, geo-political, social, and economic backgrounds, it is possible to identify 'evergreen' devices in speeches that are inevitably connected to linguistic creativity; a concept that is traditionally associated with works of art. Human beings have been fascinated by the creative power of language from time immemorial, so the paper intends to investigate the linguistic strength of top presidential inauguration addresses from an interdisciplinary perspective to examine how the findings might be utilized in language teaching.

Thanks to the internet, language learners and teachers have free access to all kinds of visual and audio-visual materials at home and at school; therefore, it would be a gross oversight of teachers if they did not make use of these readily available sources. Anyone can read or listen to inaugural addresses on the internet, can enrich his vocabulary and understand the interrelation between speaker and his audience, and discover means of persuasion or even manipulation, and can thus become sensitised to the role of rhetorical devices. The aim of a presidential inauguration is very similar to the trends in business and trade, viz. to try and sell a product, consequently, the analysis of such speeches is a valid and real life-like educational task for students of English in tertiary education.

2 The special genre of inaugural speeches

Top inaugural speeches reach out to the hearts and minds of Americans because they make the most of the main rhetorical devices that have been at the heart of all great speeches for more than 2,000 years. Mark Antony in Shakespeare's play not only showed awareness of his different audiences: "Friends, Romans, countrymen, lend me your ears" (Julius Caesar, III, ii), but also used the rhetorical device of metonymy in the opening clause of his address. The world has changed a lot since this masterpiece was written, and presidents in the 20th century certainly had many more audiences in mind than those who happened to be in Washington on the particular day on which the speech was given.

To understand why a speech fascinates people is a challenging intellectual task. In the introduction to his book, which celebrates over 40 of the most extraordinary speeches of the last 100 years, Greene (2002: Copyright page) dedicates it "To the magical, creative force that, every once in a while, shiver through the thoughts, passions, and words of mere mortals, lifting them – and all of us – to experience the divine". Patterns of thematic development and the distribution of concepts in a text as a whole are probably the crucial factors that contribute to the greatness of a speech.

2.1 The structure of an inaugural address

The use of figurative language when addressing the citizens' desires and fears is really effective. An inaugural address should preferably end with a call to arms for the fellow citizens. In addition, the president is also expected to deliver the speech with a confident and optimistic voice.

Inaugurals have been analysed by Campbell & Jamieson (1990, 2008), who argue that 'the presidency' is not defined by the Constitution, but by what presidents say and how they say it. In both editions, these authors focus on presidential rhetoric, and in the more recent publication they reveal how our media-dominated age has transformed the ever-evolving rhetorical strategies that presidents use.

2.2 The most memorable inaugurals

London, in dealing with the length of inaugurals, found that the longest presidential address was delivered by William H. Harrison in 1841 and numbered 8,445 words, which might have contributed to his early death from pneumonia one month after the speech. Tragically, the president giving the longest speech served the shortest term of office. Franklin D. Roosevelt, the only American president to serve three consecutive terms, gave one of the shortest and best addresses, which was his last one, in 1945 and numbered just 559 words. In the book entitled *Great speeches* (2008), only Thomas Jefferson's, Franklin D. Roosevelt's and John F. Kennedy's inaugural speeches are quoted. Other classifications, according to historians (cf. Whipps, 2009), consider the top five inaugural addresses ever, to be those delivered by Thomas Jefferson in 1801, (1730 words), Abraham Lincoln in 1865 (700 words), Franklin D. Roosevelt in 1933 (1880 words), John F. Kennedy in 1961 (1366 words), and Ronald Reagan in 1981 (2427 words).

The paper will focus on the last two, because they share a lot in common. However, each is unique for different reasons. Both Kennedy and Reagan were charismatic speakers, who were able to convince their audience through their unshakeable confidence in the nation's success under their leadership. Listening to their voices, the rhythm and intensity of their utterances fills one with a cathartic feeling. Their personal and spiritual tone exerted a most powerful impact on their audiences.

2.2.1 John F. Kennedy's inauguration address (1961)

John F. Kennedy (JFK) was the 35th President of the US, serving from 1961 until his assassination in 1963. His inaugural address is widely considered to be among the best presidential inauguration speeches in American history. Rhetoric expert Atkinson (2011) is positive that JFK would be delighted to know that his inaugural address is still remembered and admired so many years later. A logical reason why the speech is still remembered around the world seems to be that JFK knew exactly what he wanted to say, to whom, and how best to say it. The Massachusetts Democrat turned to his people for sacrifice and asked them to put the interest of the nation above their own self. The secret was that it was the first inaugural address by a US president who remembered to analyse his audiences at a time that witnessed the appearance of mass access to television. At the height of the Cold War, JFK also had a foreign policy agenda that he wanted to be heard everywhere in the world.

2.2.2 Ronald Reagan's inauguration address (1981)

Former broadcaster, film and screen actor, and Governor of California, Ronald Reagan (RR) was the 40th president, whose speech was a memorable summons to the American people, and like Churchill before him, he asked them for blood, sweat and tears to overcome the economic difficulties. As opposed to JFK's, which focuses on foreign issues, RR's address concentrates on domestic issues for obvious reasons. His purpose was to renew the American spirit and the most significant element of RR's first months in office was his effort to transform the nation's economic policies. His patriotic tone makes the Americans believe that as a team they can achieve everything they want to. Figured among his topics are dreams and hopes, church and God, and country and countrymen.

3 Elements of sentence connection

Many factors interact in pointing to links between sentences. As Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech & Svartvik (1989:651-716) claim, a reader/listener searches for semantic relationships implied between sentences. We can expect successive sentences to show some relationship through their vocabulary – lexical devices, their sentence elements; their syntactic devices, discourse reference, which is typically anaphoric, i.e. pointing backwards; their structure – structural parallelism, and perhaps above all, through the semantic content.

Crystal & Davy (1993) also recognize the significance of a number of interrelated levels of description. Syntactic rules form the starting-point; phonological and semantic information is built in as interpretative components of the grammar. From the grammatical point of view, the main aim is to analyze the internal structure of sentences and the way these function in sequences. A semantic approach looks for the linguistic meaning of a text over and above the meaning of the lexical items taken separately. In students' writing, even at tertiary level, in the majority of cases one in vain looks for cohesion and coherence, therefore, illustrating the role of the connecting elements in inaugurals hopefully will make students better writers.

3.1 Lexical devices

The simplest form of lexical equivalence is repetition: when a word or phrase is used two or more times. JFK: "*For man holds in his mortal hands the power to abolish all forms of human poverty and all forms of human life"*. The most recurrent words in JFK's speech after *"we"* are *let* (16 times); *free, freedom* (8 times); *nation* (8 times); *pledge* (7 times); *fellow* (4 times). Thus, the words 'freedom' and 'nation' might be considered the key words in the text. In the introduction JFK uses antonyms: *"an end, as well as a beginning – signifying renewal, as well as change"*. This introduces the theme of continuity, which Kennedy uses throughout the entire speech.

In RR's speech the word 'hero' is repeated several times: *"We have every right to dream heroic dreams; Those who say that we are in a time when there are no heroes just don't know where to look; You can see heroes every day; You meet heroes across a counter"*. RR's address is very rich in lexical devices, particularly synonyms: *"a solemn and most momentous occasion",* and antonyms: *"a most momentous occasion ... a common occurrence; this every-4-year ceremony we accept as normal is nothing less than a miracle"*.

Both speakers consciously use personal pronouns: JFK hardly ever utters the first person singular, whereas RR makes a transition from the third to the second person to end up with the first person plural: *"I have used the words "they" and* *"their" in speaking of these heroes. I could say "you" and "yours" because I am addressing the heroes of whom I speak; We shall reflect..."*.

3.2 Syntactic devices

Since our existence takes place in time and space, both time and place relaters have a significant function in presenting these dimensions of our life.

3.2.1 Time relaters

"Time is understood in terms of things, locations, distances, and motion" according to Cruse (2000:208). What can this mean? Time as things is relatively easily acceptable if we think of minutes, hours, days, etc. Time intervals equal distances because what is in front of us, as speakers or observers, is future, what is behind us is past. The passing of time, i.e. the motion aspect can be expressed either as the speaker/observer is stationary or as s/he is moving. (The sentences 'Easter is coming.', and 'We are coming up to Easter.' illustrate the difference between stationary and moving entities). The temporal plane is expressed by both lexical and grammatical markers. Lexical markers typically include ordinals, adjectives, demonstrative pronouns, temporal adverbs, adverbials of time that are often realised by prepositional phrases. JFK: *"Finally; in the first 100 days; The world is ...now; We dare not forget today; this century; we are committed today*", and more than 40 other examples of lexical time relaters. When he talks about the past: *"a century ago*; *in the past*" he refers the listener to the past of the American nation, to the most memorable moments like the Civil War, World War II, and the creation of the independent United States of America.

As for grammatical markers concerning time, one has to think of such logical categories of the verb as tense, aspect, and modality. In JFK's speech, the three major divisions of time-relationship can be found: that of present and past: *"we observe*; *For I have sworn before you"*, that of present and future: *"Let every nation know, whether it wishes us well or ill, that we shall pay any price",* similarly to the last part of his speech: *"Now the trumpet summons"*, or *"Will you join in that historic effort"?*

The first sentence of RR's speech combines the syntactic devices of time and space relaters: *"To a few of us here today",* while he uses the same device in the final part: *"And as we renew ourselves here in our land"* where the temporal plane is realized by the grammatical marker for tense. In RR's speech more than 50 occurrences of lexical time relaters can be identified, e.g. *"From time to time; this-every-4-year ceremony; for decades; now or ever; in the history of our Nation"*. He manages to combine all the three temporal dimensions in one sentence when talking about the economic ills: *"They will go away because we, as Americans, have the capacity now, as we have had in the past, to do whatever needs to be done"*.

3.2.2 Place relaters, near and distant reference

Space, like time, is a universal dimension of our existence, which we can name, or denote with a definite description. We can point to it with deictic expressions, or refer back to it with an anaphora. JFK used direct markers to present the spatial dimension: "*the world; the globe; before you; at home and around the world; in the huts and villages across the globe, etc"*. Demonstrative pronouns with a deictic function are examples of indirect markers:*"this time and place; this country"*. In general, the second part of JFK's address is rich in the spatial markers, pointing out the countries, which the author addresses. For this, the parallel construction together with the anaphoric repetitions are used, and each new paragraph starts with the particle 'to' along with the addressee: *"Let every nation know, whether it wishes us well or ill; To those allies whose cultural and spiritual origins we share; To those new states whom we welcome to the ranks of the free; To those peoples in the huts and villages across the globe; To our sister republics south of our border; To the world assembly of sovereign states, the United Nations; Finally, to those nations who would make themselves our adversary"*.

RR, however, also addresses different countries without repetition: *"To those neighbours and allies"*. A very unusual treatment of place relaters is applied by RR, who at the end of his address gives a very detailed description of the actual scene of the inauguration using proper nouns and geographical names: *"This is the first time in history that this ceremony has been held... on this West Front of the Capitol. Standing here, one faces a magnificent vista, opening up on the city's special beauty and history"*. Later, he pays tribute to places or monuments that commemorate outstanding figures of American history, including the monument to George Washington, the memorial to Thomas Jefferson, the Lincoln Memorial, Arlington National Cemetery, and mentions such tragic scenes where unknown heroes' life ended: *"Belleau Wood, The Argonne, Omaha Beach Salerno... and jungles of a place called Vietnam"*. Anaphora can also be found in RR's address: *'It is made up of men and women who raise our food, patrol our streets, man our mines and our factories, teach our children..."*.

3.3 Discourse reference

JFK extends his proposals for the future of the adversaries with an anaphora: *"Let both sides",* repeated five times throughout the text. In each component of this anaphora he uses a combined stylistic device, antithetical parallelism: *"Let both sides explore what problems unite us instead of belaboring those problems which divide us"*.

RR: *"In the present crises, government is not the solution to our problem. Government is the problem; All of us need to be reminded that the Federal Government did not create the States; the States created the Federal Government"* (For other uses of anaphora see 3.2.2). An example for cataphoric reference in

RR's speech can be found when he talks about the diary found on the body of a young man called Martin Treptow: *"America must win this war".* Telling a story or an anecdote like Treptow's was typical in RR's rhetoric, but it did not characterise that of JFK's speeches.

3.4 Structural parallelism

This linking device is particularly common in mannered style, as in an inaugural. It means the arrangement of words, phrases, clauses, or larger structures placed side by side, making them similar in form. It was an important device for JFK: "*United there is little we cannot do in a host of cooperative ventures. Divided there is little we can do…"*. A very obvious parallel repetition is: *"when our arms are sufficient beyond doubt can we be certain beyond doubt"*. The second part of the speech is based on parallelism, mentioned above, and is full of antitheses: *"support any friend, oppose any foe"*. One more impressive parallelism including an antithesis is at the end of the next paragraph: *"If a free society cannot help the many who are poor, it cannot save the few who are rich"*.

A remarkable example for structural parallelism with contrast in RR's speech goes like this: *"I do not believe in a fate that will fall on us no matter what we do. I do believe in a fate that will fall on us if we do nothing"*.

4 The use of rhetorical devices

Crystal (1995) presents the difficulty of identifying the linguistic features that constitute a person's style. This activity originally belonged to the field of rhetoric, "the study of persuasive speech or writing (especially as practised in public oratory)" (Crystal, 1995:70). In the Middle Ages, the study of rhetoric became part of the scholastic trivium, along with grammar and logic. While many people think of rhetoric as essentially a matter of verbal ornament, modern rhetoric studies the basis of all forms of effective communication.

4.1 Rhetorical figures in JFK's and RR's inauguration addresses

Szaffkó (1993) claims that figurative language departs from accepted standards in order to achieve special effects. One type of figures of speech includes "figures of THOUGHTS, or RHETORICAL FIGURES, in which the departure from the standard is primarily in the arrangement or the rhetorical function of the words" (Szaffkó, 1993:113). In this case there is no real change in their meaning. His examples for rhetorical figures include chiasmus, repetition, and rhetorical question, among others. For Szikszainé (2007), rhetorical figures are termed schemes, and the essence is that for the sake of expressivity we alter the formal structure of language without altering the meaning. (As can be seen, the terminology used for referring to the same phenomena is not exactly consistent). The change may alter the phonetic form of the word, the word form itself, or the form of the clause. In sum, either the order or the composition of the building blocks at different structural levels undergoes a change. Examples of schemes include alliteration, chiasmus, enumeration, exaggeration, paradox, parallel structures, repetition, etc. (The author's translation from Hungarian).

Alliteration, the repetition of the same consonant sound beginning several words in a sequence is an example of a lexical-level device. JFK: "*Let us go forth to lead the land we love*; *high standards of strength and sacrifice".* RR: *"our system and our strength; with no barriers born of bigotry; you have shown a watching world"*; the latter is personification, as well and thus belongs to tropes. Assonance, the repetition of vowel sounds in non-rhyming words, adds an element of musical poetry to the speech. JFK: "*the steady spread of the deadly atom*".

Anastrophe, the transposition of normal word order to acquire an expressive power is used by JFK: *"And so, my fellow Americans: ask not what your country can do for you – ask what you can do for your country. My fellow citizens of the world: ask not what America will do for you, but what together we can do for the freedom of man".* A famous sentence leads over to Kennedy's ideas and plans for the two opposing powers, effectively emphasizing his concept: "*Let us never negotiate out of fear, but let us never fear to negotiate".* It is an example of chiasmus, which refers to a crosswise arrangement of concepts or words. RR's sentence: *"We are a nation under God, and I believe God intended for us to be free",* is also an example of chiasmus.

Rhetorical questions, the very effective technique of asking a question usually without expecting a reply, form a component of both speeches. JFK: *"Will you join in that historic effort?"* This involves the listeners and makes them think deeply. RR's technique is somewhat different because he answers even the rhetorical questions: "*Can we solve the problems confronting us? Well, the answer is an unequivocal and emphatic 'yes'".* At the very end of his speech he uses a similar strategy: *"Why shouldn't we believe that? We are Americans".*

JFK's phrase "*The energy, the faith, the devotion"* - is an example of asyndetic coordination and a climax, as the emotional increase from the first word to the third one can clearly be seen. RR's speech also contains examples of asyndeton, which add dramatic and emotional intensity to the enumeration: *"in days, weeks; a healthy, vigorous, growing economy; support church, charity, culture, art, and education".*

4.2 Tropes in JFK's and RR's inauguration addresses

The other class of figures of speech have traditionally been labelled as tropes: "TROPES (meaning "turns"), in which words are used with a decided change or extension in their literal meaning" (Szaffkó, 1993:113). Allusion, antithesis, metaphor, metonymy, paradox, personification, synecdoche, etc. belong to this class of figures of speech. Tropes in Szikszainé (2007) constitute the other type of rhetorical devices in which case the original and/or primary meaning is changed in some way, thus leading to a special stylistic effect. Examples of tropes include: metaphor, personification, allegory, synaesthesia, symbols, similes, circumlocution or paraphrase, metonymy, synecdoche.

By allusion a direct or indirect reference to something historical, literary, religious or mythical is meant in order to improve the credibility of arguments by quoting the appropriate words of credible speakers. In addition, biblical allusions provide the moral basis for arguments. In the last sentence of his speech, JFK refers to God, just as at the beginning, framing his address: *"I have sworn before you and Almighty God; God's work must truly be our own"*. There is also a quotation from the Bible: *"the command of Isaiah- [...]'undo the heavy burdens ... and [...] let the oppressed go free"*. Another paragraph also starts with an expression which has a biblical origin: *"the trumpet summons us"*.

Religious references in RR's address occur several times, e.g. towards the end when he suggests: *"It would be fitting and good, I think, if on each Inauguration Day in future years it should be declared a day of prayer"*. Before asking for God's blessings, he declares: *"with God's help, we can and will resolve the problems which now confront us"*. In the category of allusion, it is important to mention that the lexeme 'pledge' reminds listeners of the final sentence of the Declaration of Independence: *"We mutually pledge to each other our Lives, our Fortunes, and our Sacred Honor"*, not only in JFK's speech, emphasising the aim of the president to struggle for the freedom and equality for the nation: *"This much we pledge – and more; we pledge the loyalty of faithful friends"*. He repeats the word three more times. RR also refers to the Declaration of Independence: "*'We the people,'* this breed called Americans". He also uses the elevated word 'pledge': *"We are a united people pledged to maintaining a political system"*.

JFK concludes his address to the *"new States"* with a metaphor: *"those who foolishly sought power by riding the back of the tiger ended up inside"*. These words refer to a famous limerick: 'There was a young lady of Niger, who smiled as she rode on a tiger, they returned from the ride with the lady inside, and the smile on the face of the tiger'. This illustrates what JFK considers the fate of dictatorship in the past and in the future. Interestingly, RR also mentions riding but in a different context when depicting his intention for a proper government: *"work with us, not over us; to stand by our side, not ride on our back"*.

RR's speech also has examples for antithesis: *"this every-4-year ceremony we accept as normal is nothing less than a miracle; crushes the struggling young and the fixed-income elderly alike; We are too great a nation to limit ourselves to small dreams"*.

It would be irrational to declare that if a president used more contrasts, e.g. than another one, his speech would be more effective. On the other hand, we can declare that a combination of various rhetorical figures and tropes can make a speech really uplifting. In JFK's case we witness several types of combinations, e.g. he uses various stylistic devices, among which structural parallelism and contrasts are the most recurrent. In the introduction JFK uses the first stylistic device, parallelism, combined with contrasts: *"an end, as well as a beginning - signifying renewal as well as change"*. Later in the speech the combination of antithesis and alliteration is to be found: *"support any friend, oppose any foe"*. JFK uses alliteration together with a metaphor: *"but a call to bear the burden of a long twilight struggle"*. Three-part lists seem to be quite numerous: *"Where the strong are just, and the weak secure and peace preserved"*.

RR also uses three-part lists when talking about peace: *"We will negotiate for it, sacrifice for it; we will not surrender for it – now or ever"*. Combinations of contrasts and lists by contrasting a third item with the first two occur in JFK's speech: *"Not because the communists are doing it, not because we seek their votes, but because it is right"*. Another example: *"not as a call to bear arms, though arms we need; not as a call to battle, though embattled we are - but a call to bear the burden of a long twilight struggle"*. The combination of contrasts and lists is also identifiable in RR's address: *"work with us, not over us; to stand by our side, not ride on our back; foster productivity, not stifle it"*.

4.3 The use of metaphors in JFK's and RR's inauguration addresses

The use of a metaphor - the core of linguistic creativity - requires a leap of the imagination for understanding as it makes connections thanks to our associative powers, rather than because of reality. Essays have been dedicated to analysing and comparing the use of metaphors in inaugural speeches (cf. Zhang, 2009). Metaphors are not merely decorative features of certain styles but are an essential component of human cognition. Cruse (2000, p. 205) claims: "Nor are they purely linguistic, but are conceptual in nature". If this is the case, no wonder presidents like to employ them when they talk about topics of political faith, international relationship, and economy. Politicians are unwilling to clarify some touchy issues, so they employ metaphors, which help them avoid unnecessary troubles. Relying on Zhang's (2009) categorisations, I would like to deal with the following metaphors in JFK's and RR's speeches.

4.3.1 Metaphors of light and darkness

In JFK's metaphorical language, light and fire deliver a feeling of brightness, express encouragement, hope, guide, and freedom: *"light our country; and the glow from that fire can truly light the world"*. *"The torch has been passed to a new* *generation of Americans"*. These metaphors are also used to express something positive. One recalls the torch held by the Statue of Liberty in New York, or the torch relay in Olympic Games, with which one associates illumination. Light is used in contrast to darkness, which may symbolize an evil power or a hostile force: *"the dark powers of destruction unleashed by science engulf all humanity in [...] self-destruction"*. RR also uses this type of metaphor in a very similar semantic content: *"We will again be the exemplar of freedom and a beacon of hope for those who do not have freedom"*.

4.3.2 Metaphors of military affairs

The most frequently used metaphors are those of defence, attack, and battle. Defending is the mainstream of this type of metaphors, attack words are rarely mentioned. JFK: "*defending freedom; Now the trumpet summons; to strengthen its shield of the new and the weak"*. RR uses straightforward words in this respect: *"Let that be understood by those who practice terrorism and prey upon their neighbours;* or when he mentions "*the enemies of freedom"*. His reference to weapons belongs to this type of metaphors as well: *"we must realize that no arsenal, or weapon in the arsenals of the world..."*.

4.3.3 Metaphors of human physical suffering

In the paragraph dealing with JFK's pledge to the South American states, the president uses figurative language which makes the speech more vivid: *"casting off the chains of poverty; For man holds in his mortal hands the power to abolish all forms of human poverty and all forms of human life; ...its hour of maximum danger; bonds of mass misery"*. This type of metaphor also occurs several times in RR's address in connection with one of the worst inflations which: *"crushes the struggling young and the fixed-income elderly alike; It threatens to shatter the lives of millions of our people"*.

4.3.4 Metaphors of journey

Politicians try to emphasise the hardship of achieving their social goals. They remind the audience in a euphemistic way that it will take a long time and there will be stress, difficulties, and frustrations in the process. Just like taking a journey, the steps are sometimes fast and sometimes slow. The concept of burden therefore is typically present, since it has to be carried, it has weight and one either travels or walks with it. JFK: *"bear any burden"*. RR: *"bear and pass along, to travel"*.

4.3.5 Metaphors of building

They include structures built from human habitation to embankments raised as safeguards. JFK: *"we are committed today at home"*. Home obviously appears as something intimate. RR mentions the following examples for buildings: *"I thank* *you... for all your help in maintaining the bulwark of our republic; to preserve this last and greatest bastion of freedom; In the days ahead I will propose removing the roadblocks that have slowed our economy"*. Bulwark and bastion raise the image of protection, road-blocks obviously symbolize obstacles.

5 Conclusions

In the present educational setup, students majoring in English have linguistic courses in phonetics/phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics – often taught by different teachers in different terms. In short, they are not given a chance to treat the particularised disciplines as being one component of a whole. The totality of words, phrases, and clauses has a certain form; at the same time these building-blocks fulfil a certain function in order to convey ideas, emotions, and intentions. The paper has made an attempt to prove the advantage of combining the lexical, grammatical, syntactic, structural and semantic levels to enable students to adopt a holistic approach to the analysis of any stretch of language.

Nowadays, when century-old traditional values have been pushed to the background, the ability to persuade others is definitely among those desired. The aim of delivering a presidential address is to persuade people to act as you think. If this is the case, those involved in education should create situations that enable learners to choose from an unlimited set of options, provided they have a definite educational and training aim. Introducing students to rhetorical devices may help them to see the many ways in which a text differs from another linguistically.

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LANGUAGE TEACHERS' PERCEPTION REGARDING LANGUAGE LEARNING AUTONOMY AND SELF-ASSESSMENT IN A HUNGARIAN SECONDARY SCHOOL CONTEXT

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Abstract:
This article looks at issues surrounding learner self-assessment and studies into teachers' beliefs. Assuming that learning does not stop outside the classroom, it is essential for teachers to enforce skills that students can transfer to other learning situations, and given the influence teachers have on what goes on in the classroom, it might be revealing to look into their beliefs regarding learner autonomy and self-assessment. The current small-scale study explores teachers' attitudes and classroom practices concerning learner self-assessment in a Hungarian secondary school. Mixed methods were used to explore what teachers understood by self-assessment and in what ways they incorporated it in their practice. The research threw light on teachers' positive attitude towards self-assessment. Through the questionnaire survey and a semi-structured interview I identified a range of factors responsible for the success of self-assessment; however, the findings also highlighted teachers' less optimistic views about the feasibility of self-assessment in practice.
Keywords: teachers' beliefs, self-assessment, learner autonomy

1 Introduction

Different aspects of assessment, learner autonomy (LA) and its implications on teaching and learning have been widely researched. Teachers' voices, however, have been paid little attention to and given the influence that teachers' beliefs have on the way they teach, this is a significant gap. Research on LA in Hungarian primary and secondary school context shows that the most frequently used teaching methods are teacher-centred, and LA is not supported. Students at the same time are not willing to make extra efforts to improve their English if they do not have to pass a language proficiency exam (Édes, 2008). This small-scale study contributes to the growing body of research into teacher beliefs. In the current research I used mixed methods to examine the nature of teachers' beliefs about LA and self-assessment (SA), and how these beliefs are related to teaching practice.

2 Literature review

2.1 Learner autonomy

Several expressions are used as synonyms for autonomy: 'independent learning' and 'self-directed learning', 'self-instruction', 'self-access', 'self-study', 'self-education', or 'distance learning' (Benson, 2001). However, it is agreed that autonomy and autonomous learning are not synonyms of these. They basically describe ways and degrees of learning by oneself, while autonomy refers to abilities and attitudes. LA was originally defined in the early 1980s by Holec as the person's "ability to take charge of one's own learning" (1981, cited in Benson & Voller, 1997, p.1). Since then there have also been attempts to describe different versions of autonomy. Benson and Voller (1997) made distinction between its technical, psychological and political versions. LA has also been defined from many aspects using such words as capacity, willingness, and attitude.

Researchers claim that LA has two central features: learners take responsibility for the organisation of the learning process including the selection of the study materials to assessment and they feel responsible for their own learning (Benson, 2001; Benson & Voller, 1997; Dickinson, 1995; Pemberton et al, 1996). One of its main benefits is that reflective learning increases motivation which leads to better learning (Cotterall, 1995; Dickinson, 1995; Little, 2007; Smith, 2008). Moreover, involving students in decision in different aspects of learning makes learning more purposeful, thus leads to more effective learning. Benson (2008) suggested that LA helped students become critically conscious members of society.

2.2 Learner self-assessment

As interest in LA has grown, more attention has been paid to methods of SA, being considered as one of the most important elements of self-directed learning (Harris, 1997). In a learner-centred classroom where LA is supported, students need to be involved in all the processes of learning, including evaluation. One of the main arguments for implementing SA is that it develops critical self-awareness and it also helps students identify their strengths and weaknesses thus being able to decide what their needs are (Council of Europe, 2001). As it is impossible to teach everything students need to know –and given that learning does not stop outside the classroom– it is better to teach skills they can transfer to other learning situations. Butler and Lee (2010) revealed that SA had positive effects on the students' language performance as well as on their language confidence, and they also improved their ability to self-assess themselves over time. However, there are a number of factors that influence SA: students' anxiety, their proficiency levels and previous experience in language learning (Blanche & Merino, 1989), the same as the extent to which students understand the items and scales, and how the items themselves are constructed (Butler & Lee, 2010). Dragemark Oscarson (2009) found that students were self-critical regarding specific writing skills and tended to underestimate their performance compared to subjective assessment. Implementation of SA can also be challenged by contexts which traditionally support the teacher-centred approach of assessment (Butler & Lee, 2010). However, research showed that training helped (Council of Europe, 2001; Dragemark Oscarson, 2009) and accuracy increased when language was self-assessed with clear descriptors which were connected to the learning context, and items of an abstract nature proved to be less accurate than functional (can do) skills (Butler & Lee, 2010; Council of Europe, 2001; Harris, 1997). Brown (2004) concluded that SA improved teaching and learning and made schools more accountable although when introducing a new type of assessment the teachers' conceptions should be taken in consideration.

2.3 Teachers' role in supporting LA and SA

Although autonomy is clearly not a teaching method, you cannot *do* it to your students (Little, 1990), the teacher has a central role in developing autonomous learning (Benson, 2008; Cotterall, 1995; Édes, 2007). While creating a supportive classroom learning environment, teachers can make students conscious about the benefits of independence in their learning. In such a classroom the main roles of a teacher should be more of a manager, a resource person and a counsellor (Camilleri, 1999; Ho & Crookall, 1995). Teachers also play an important role in promoting LA by making students understand learning strategies (Joshi, 2011; Yang, 1998). Teachers' role in LA development could be endangered by teachers' negative attitudes towards autonomy originating from their own learning experiences (Yildirim, 2008). Moreover, it is agreed that LA depends on teacher autonomy as teachers cannot be expected to support the growth of their students' autonomy if they do not have any experience about what it is to be an autonomous learner (Joshi, 2011; Little, 1995; Smith, 2008).

2.4 Teachers' beliefs

Borg (2006) claimed that beliefs are complex, often contradictory, they change over time and they affect teachers' decision making, which has an impact on their classroom behaviour. However, he suggests that beliefs and practices may not correspond due to experience, contextual factors and situational constraints. The area of teachers' beliefs about LA and SA is relatively neglected and several misconceptions persist in how teachers perceive LA, as among others, Benson (2008) and Joshi (2011) noted that autonomy was considered to be synonymous with self-instruction and that teacher intervention was not something to be desired. Camilleri (2007) revealed that teachers were willing to develop their practice, they supported the idea of incorporating LA in their teaching, but at the same time they were reluctant to involve students in methodological decisions. They were positive about involving learners in activities where students decided about the position of the desks, assessing themselves or in working out learning procedures. At the same time teachers did not want to let students decide about the selection of learning material or the time and place of lessons. Teachers also reported that institutional constraints made the promotion of LA less feasible.

2.5 Teachers' attitudes towards learner self-assessment

Little empirical research has been conducted about teachers' views about the effectiveness of learner SA in language learning. Dragemark Oskarson (2009) found that teachers showed positive attitude towards the implementation of SA in the EFL writing classroom and viewed it as a skill that can be transferred to other learning situations. Butler and Lee (2010) revealed that teachers and students viewed the effectiveness of SA differently depending on their teaching or learning backgrounds. It was also found that although regular SA had some effect on the students' confidence, it did not impact other affective domains, such as anxiety and motivation. Brown (2004) and Bullock (2011) found that teachers' overall attitudes to self-assessment were positive but they faced challenges during the implementation and teachers' attitudes showed mismatches with their classroom practices concerning SA (Bullock, 2011). Teachers were worried about implementing SA as they had doubts about learners' ability of assessing their own proficiency accurately (Blanche & Merino, 1989; Bullock, 2011). Teachers felt challenged also by the feasibility of SA and expressed the need for it to be practical in terms of time and availability of resources (Bullock, 2011).

3 Hungarian language learning and teaching context

The overview on recent research in the Hungarian context points towards dispiriting conclusions (Révész, 2011): heavy workload, sporadic communication among colleagues, teachers not informed about changes in policy, scarce if any contact with training institutions. Research showed that the most frequently used teaching methods were teacher-centered, and LA was not supported. At the same time, students were not extremely eager to make extra efforts to improve their English unless they had to pass a language proficiency exam (Édes, 2008). Illés and Csizér (2010) found that learners being however conscious about the role of English in international communication, it did not influence their openness as they did not seek opportunities to use English. Research also revealed that teachers did not feel responsible to raise and maintain motivation, claiming that students ought to come to English lessons motivated (Galántai & Csizér, 2009; Dombi, Turányi & Nikolov, 2011; Nikolov, Ottó, & Öveges, 2009). Nikolov, Ottó and Öveges (2009) found that teachers consider transmitting subject knowledge more important than communication and cooperation with colleagues.

As Medgyes and Nikolov (in press) pointed out in their overview on research conducted in Hungarian context, "however, both the philosophy and practice of teacher education have dramatically changed (...) the most exciting area of research is the study of synergy, or the lack thereof, between teachers' beliefs and practices. Whereas both student motivation and teacher motivation have been examined fairly extensively, the interplay between the two is an area still waiting to be explored" (p. 21). In the past decades various aspects of assessment, including proficiency and school-leaving exams have played a central role in language teaching in Hungary, although SA as an important element of LA has not been paid attention to and it is only recently that researchers have started to focus on the classroom.

The way the concept of self-regulated learning is defined and used by Csizér (2012), Csizér and Kormos (2012), and Mezei (2008) is in line with Benson's (2001) definition of LA: they consider self-regulated learning as an active process in which learners set goals for their learning and to reach them attempt to control their cognition, motivation, and behaviour.

Csizér (2012) investigated the influence of self-regulated learning and learning styles on language learning motivation. Her participants showed high level of motivation but scored low on self-regulation, their anxiety and beliefs about their self-efficacy influenced their self-regulated learning, determining the amount of effort they invested into language learning. Csizér and Kormos (2012) looked into the interrelatedness of motivation, LA and self-regulation strategies and concluded that the researched concepts closely related to each other, students were motivated but self-regulation and autonomous behaviour lagged behind. Édes (2008) explored students' beliefs about autonomous language learning and their autonomous behaviours. She displayed mismatch between students' autonomous beliefs and behaviour, found that students were less self-directed than expected, Mezei (2008) explored the relationship between self-regulation and motivation, and found that self-regulation increased with proficiency, that motivational strategies and self-regulation were interrelated in complex ways, extrinsic motives being strong even at high level of proficiency.

4 The study

4.1. Research questions

The current study intended to explore teacher attitudes, beliefs, and behaviour concerning learner SA and the research questions were as follows:

1. What are EFL teachers' attitudes to LA and learner SA?
2. What do teachers understand by learner SA and in what ways, if any, have they incorporated it in their practice?
3. What is the relationship between teachers' attitudes, beliefs, and practice in connection with SA?

4.2 Research design

In this study I applied a mixed-method design (Creswell, 2003; Dörnyei, 2007; Mackey & Gass, 2005). The reason for using a quantitative phase was that closed questions were more amenable to draw the profile of the group. Semi-structured follow-up interview was conducted to find more fine-grained answers to my research questions. The trustworthiness of the study was achieved by triangulation of these two different data sources.

4.2.1 Context and participants

My study was conducted in a German-Hungarian bilingual secondary school in the south of Hungary, with classes 7-12. The school provides a year of intensive German language learning class and various subjects are taught in German, several teachers are native speakers of German. English is the second FL taught, and emphasis is given to German in this school: it is compulsory for students to take the school-leaving exam in German, while the English exam is optional. The school underwent an accreditation procedure conducted by the German Federal Institution in 2012. Inspectors observed classrooms and conducted interviews with students, and their parents, with teachers and with the school management; they also inspected the documents of the school. The main foci of their data collection were the culture and the infrastructure of the school, quality of teaching and learning, openness and cooperation, these concepts being broken down into further subsections. After collecting data for a month they found that the school gained the lowest score on the scale measuring LA. The aim of the present study is to explore teachers' attitudes towards LA and SA a year after feedback was given and the results were communicated to the school by the Federal Inspection. In the questionnaire phase of my study I involved all (eight) EFL teachers from the school, all of them were women, with teaching experience varying between 10-35 years. My interviewee had been working in this school for 19 years and had 32 years of teaching experience.

4.2.2 Instruments

I designed a questionnaire based on a previous study (Bullock, 2011) that consisted of 10 statements to elicit teachers' attitudes towards two areas: promoting LA with two items and SA with eight items. Answers were given on a four-point Likert scale: agree, tend to agree, tend to disagree to disagree. The reason for using four response options is that by omitting the "undecided" category participants had to make real decisions (Dörnyei, 2003). The questionnaire addressed teachers' views on LA, their opinion about feasibility of SA. After administering the questionnaire, a semi-structured follow-up interview was conducted with a teacher who volunteered to take part in it. The interview aimed to explore in more detail responses given to the questionnaire. Questions were based on the areas specified for the questionnaire, although more emphasis was given to practices since beliefs are not necessarily consistent with practices (Borg, 2006).

4.2.3 Procedures

I adapted Bullock's (2011) questionnaire by removing the items which were not relevant for the context of my research. The questionnaire was administered by paper and pencil anonymously, and fortunately, it was returned back by all the participants within ten days. After analysing the answers I randomly chose an interviewee, who agreed to participate in the second, qualitative phase of my research. The interview was conducted in the participant's home in Hungarian – she said to feel more comfortable using Hungarian when talking to a native speaker of Hungarian. The interview was recorded and transcribed, then the answers were categorised respectively to my research questions.

4.3 Results & discussion

Q1: What are teachers' attitudes to LA and learner SA?

Overall results show positive attitude towards LA and SA, teachers strongly agreed with three items:

Students should be encouraged to take responsibility for their own learning.
When supported, learners benefit from assessing their work.
Self-assessment raises learners' awareness of their strengths and weaknesses.

However, I should take into consideration that this extent of agreement might have been caused by the previous inspection followed by brainstorming meetings which made teachers aware of what was expected from them. The most disagreeing answers were given for these negatively worded statements, which again, point towards a positive attitude to LA and SA:

It is pointless to ask learners to assess their own work since they are not used to doing it.
Self-assessment is pointless since it is the teacher who ultimately decides whether or not the student has achieved.

I found the highest disagreement among the teachers in the case of the following item:

Getting students into the habit of reflection and self-assessment wastes a lot of teaching time.

> Interestingly only one teacher agreed with the other item related to timing: *Training learners to take responsibility for their own learning is a waste of time because they are not used to such an approach.*

Other concerns touched upon were students' limited knowledge of the language and that students were not used to this approach to assessment.

The homogeneity of the answers led me to the decision of selecting a single interviewee so that to reveal views a year after the accreditation procedure. In the first part of the interview her answers seemed to correspond to the patterns emerging from the questionnaire: she said that "*LA works*", she also mentioned time constraints (Harris 1997). However, later during the interview it was not always clear if her beliefs concerning benefits of LA or SA were internalised or simply were accepted as something recommended. Her views on SA showed to be influenced by previous learning experience: "*I wasn't socialised in this tradition"* (Yildirim, 2008).

The recurring theme of the interview was that of coming up with excuses and listing the challenges they face: frequent changes in curriculum, language exam-orientedness of the institution, not being used to this approach, lack of experience in this field, need for training.

Insecurity was also a salient feature emerging from the interview; she did not feel confident in connection with the appropriateness of her views and practices even after 32 years of teaching practice which leads us to the need for reflective practice, as it helps teachers examine successes and failures and overcome uncertainty (Farrell, 2011). Reflective thinking is considered to be a key concept in professional development as it brings unconscious beliefs to the level of consciousness; it helps teachers gain a deeper understanding of the teaching and learning process, influencing teaching decisions.

Q2: What do teachers understand by learner SA and in what ways, if any, have they incorporated this?

When asked what my participant meant by SA, she provided a range of answers that showed an autonomy-supportive approach to teaching saying that LA enables learners to feel responsible and control their own learning process. My interviewee found that accuracy of SA depends on students' age and language proficiency (Blanche & Merino, 1989), furthermore that level of LA increases when learners are preparing for language exams, which leads us to extrinsic motivation (Cotterall, 1995; Dickinson, 1995; Little, 2007; Smith, 2008). She described the autonomous learner as a person who is conscious about their goals and needs. However, it was not clear how this translated in practice as the implementation of SA was limited to certain tasks: she asked her students to complete a checklist with 'can do' items after every third or fourth lesson, which took them about five to ten minutes. Students were confused first, she had concerns about accuracy as she had the impression that her students usually overestimated their real performances (Blanche & Merino, 1989), and they did not dare to admit that they were falling behind. My interviewee said to be perplexed about how to deal with the differences in understanding emerging to the surface through SA. Similarly, from the interview no evidence emerged how teachers encouraged their students to set learning goals.

Q3: What is the relationship between teachers' attitudes, beliefs, and practice in connection with SA?

The interview revealed mismatches between language teachers' beliefs and practices (Borg, 2006). My interviewee had rather controversial views on SA: she said that she incorporated it in her practice, found it effective, but she also admitted to implement it because she was expected to do so. Although she felt that students enjoyed the opportunity for an increased level of LA, she also feared that no explicit learning happened, knowledge was not transmitted. My participant mentioned that she did not always trust students acting autonomously as learners because she was afraid of errors being fossilised without the teacher's intervention, and this pointed out that LA in her view equalled learning without the teacher. She also reported that there was no communication among colleagues in the language department about their practice, the possibility of mutual classroom observation was viewed as a threat, and in the light of this information the strong agreement revealed through the answers given in the questionnaire seems contradictory and might need further research.

5 Conclusions

My findings were not unexpected and resonate with previous research into implementation of new approaches of assessment: they revealed that teachers' attitude towards SA was positive but they faced challenges while integrating it into their everyday teaching practice. Teachers think that it is not automatic for learners to feel responsible for their own learning, they need to be supported and that with practice their level of LA can improve. Teachers' beliefs were not necessarily indicative of their classroom practices: in practice SA was limited and closely tied to formal assessment tasks, which took place about once a week. There was little evidence to suggest that SA was a consciously and consequently sustained process that played a central role in learning (Little, 2005).

Being a small scale study, my findings are not generalisable, and I am aware of the fact that my data could have been enriched by data collected through classroom observations that would reveal more about teachers' practices, thus making possible to compare beliefs, reported and observed practices concerning LA and SA. However, this study might be relevant for teachers: by giving feedback about my results to my participants through self- reflection they may improve their practices concerning LA. The present findings may be of interest for teacher educators, as the interview revealed that one of the possible reasons for these difficulties in implementing LA can be that teachers lack proper training and experience in this field, and this gives emphasis to the importance of integrating the methodology for promoting LA in the curriculum of teacher training programmes. Furthermore, if both pre-service and in-service teachers were aware of the benefits of reflection, it would narrow the gap between theory, beliefs and practice, teaching and learning, thus ensuring more effective educators. As for further research, classroom-based research is needed to explore the relationship of teachers' beliefs and practices concerning LA and SA and the reason for the correspondences and mismatches between them.

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Appendix 1

Teachers' questionnaire—learner self-assessment

Please tick one box only for each statement. Please do NOT write comments.

		agree	tend to agree	tend to disagree	disagree
1	Students should be encouraged to take responsibility for their own learning.				
2	Getting students into the habit of reflection and self-assessment wastes a lot of teaching time.				
3	When supported, learners benefit from assessing their own work.				
4	Self-assessment helps learners to plan their learning more effectively.				
5	It is of little benefit for learners to assess their own work because they have limited knowledge of the language.				
6	Self-assessment raises learners' awareness of their strengths and weaknesses.				
7	Self-assessment stimulates motivation and involvement in the learning process.				
8	It is pointless to ask learners to assess their own work since they are not used to doing this.				
9	Training learners to take responsibility for their own learning is a waste of time because they are not used to such an approach.				
10	Self-assessment is pointless since it is the teacher who ultimately decides whether or not the student has achieved.				

Thank you for taking the time to respond.

Appendix 2

1. Guiding questions for the interview
2. How would you describe an autonomous learner?
3. What does self-assessment mean for you?
4. What factors you experienced to influence the success of self- assessment?
5. How do you think it is related to students' age and their language proficiency?
6. To what extent and how do you implement self-assessment?
7. To what extent are you satisfied with its effect?
8. What challenges do you face in connection with self-assessment?
9. What is your students' attitude towards self-assessment?
10. How do your students respond when you implement it?
11. Can you recall a case when you felt that self-assessment was successful/ did not worth doing it?

“BREEDING” TEXTS FOR TRANSLATION PRACTICE

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In Hungary, just like other places in Central Europe, German was not merely the most popular foreign language. For police and army officers, clerks and officials, teachers, engineers and other professionals, it was nothing less than a second native tongue before World War II.

After the war, however, the situation changed. Russian became the required language at school, but it was also possible to learn other foreign languages, though they were not compulsory.

English language learning materials underwent a slow evolution between World War II and the mid-1980s. Newer and better coursebooks and dictionaries were produced from time to time, and some books served the learners for decades. Such a book was “Anglicizmusok” by Ernő Kundt, regularly published from the late 1930s to the early 1970s.

Often the coursebooks were referred to by the names of the authors, like “the Czobor-Horlai” or “the Báti-Véges.” Foreign coursebooks were also available, e.g. several editions of “Essential English for Foreign Students” by C. E. Eckersley and J. M. Eckersley.

Producing translations–books as well as documents–was performed by a relatively small group of professionals, who considered translation as an intellectual challenge as well as a source of living. Translation was, naturally, a part of the curriculum in the foreign language classroom, but only as one of the various skills and dimensions of foreign language learning, pronunciation, grammar etc.

The slow evolution turned into a series of explosion-like changes in the 1980s. There was a demand for translations in an extent unheard of ever before. The demand did not include translations for books and other documents only, the increasing number of cable TV channels, video cassette makers and a range of other industries all needed translations, and they needed them fast. After the collapse of the Iron Curtain, the same magazines, professional and hobby journals from fashion to gardening were published at least in a dozen ‘new’ languages in both sides of Europe.

At the same time, new types of language coursebooks appeared. The old coursebooks, consisting mainly of text and a few line drawings, sometimes supplemented with vinyl records for phonetic practise, were rapidly superseded by A/4 size books, printed on glossy paper, richly illustrated with colour photographs, always supplemented by audio material. The audio material has recently undergone an even faster evolution: cassette tapes were followed by CDs, and some books today offer simply downloadable audio recordings.

The majority of the coursebooks in use today is produced by the leading British publishing houses, and is imported to various countries. The books offer a 'set' or 'package' of every important part of grammar and vocabulary, regardless of the specific needs of the target users, since neither the authors of the books, nor the publishers know what the mother tongue of the end users will be. In this way, the responsibility of the teacher increases, as the learners with different native languages require attention at different parts of the process of learning. Grammatical gender is, for example, not a problem for most Indo-European learners, as it is familiar for them from their own language. It may, however, cause some difficulty for Finno-Ugric learners. The concept of definite and indefinite articles, on the other hand, is familiar for Hungarian learners, but not for Russians.

Elementary and secondary schoolbooks written in Hungary in the earlier decades contained material on British and American civilization, and also passages for translation practice.

Today, more and more new coursebooks do not find it important to include culture-specific material. H. Q. Mitchell's *To the Top* still has cars in it with the steering wheel on the right hand side, the Big Ben appears when time is taught through various watches and clocks, the names are still English, but when the characters buy something in the shop, and through it students learn about sums, numbers and figures, the prices are specified in euro, not in GBP (Mitchell, 2005). As it is pointed out by Bielak and Pawlak, there is "interrelationship between language and such aspects of human experience as culture, society, emotions and communication" (Bielak & Pawlak, 2013, p. 9). Clearly, however, these books intend to prepare learners for an increasingly globalized world, for interactions between people who use English as a second language, and the authors see little need for links to a specific cultural background. Similarly, there are no translation texts in these books, and the amount of grammar drills when a new element of grammar is introduced is small, although most of these books come with a workbook that the learners may use for some practice. Emphasizing 'communication' and 'communicative language teaching' may lead to a loss of accuracy in expression: "The encouragement of 'communication' can often mean the promotion of language production with little regard for the content of the communication taking place." (Johnston, 2003, p. 116). Formerly popular grammar drill books are used to a much lesser extent than before. There is a pressure on teachers to reach the end of the basic book with their students by the end of the school year, and they do not have the opportunity to use a lot of extra material.

These changes have imposed such a pressure on the bilingual language exam systems that formerly contained translation as one of the exam tasks that they finally dispensed with it. Students summarize longer texts from one language into shorter ones in the other, that is all left from translation.

The most common counter-argument against using translation at the language exam is that it is not a *skill* taught at the elementary and secondary classrooms. It is, however, possible to look at translation not as a *skill*, but as the most complex way of dealing with the language, a way of practising and testing grammar, vocabulary and usage at the same time.

A translation text from L1 to L2, no longer than eight or ten lines in normal font size on a standard A/4 sheet is suitable for testing various features of grammar, vocabulary and usage. That was the method used at the 'Origo' language test, the oldest language examination system in Hungary until recently. To that end, the texts were written by the examiners. The actual words, naturally, changed, but the grammatical framework of the texts was usually the same or very similar. For the translation assignment from L2 to L1, mostly newspaper articles were chosen, in approximately the same length: between half and a whole page.

Examinees often asked before the exam whether using a dictionary was allowed. When they heard it was, they were no longer anxious; with a dictionary they were obviously going to be able to translate any text. That was, not surprisingly, very often not the case. The texts 'bred' specifically for grammar testing required more than a dictionary: they required reliable knowledge of the grammar matching the level of the exam. For the very same reason, such texts are suitable for practising grammar and helping the learner in acquiring the necessary routine in using the language.

There are language teachers who are not in favour of drills, sentences or texts modelled on the same pattern. They argue that these are not 'natural' texts, and as such, they isolate the learner from real-life language usage. Still, it is hard to deny the benefit of books like *Living English Structure*, a companion of the English learner since the early seventies, and a lot of other and newer books that usually come with a CD ROM now.

When the teacher does not intend to use any of these sources, or the Internet that offers an immeasurable amount of resources, and intends to provide something original to their students, it is easy to produce–'breed'– sentences and text for practice. Naturally, it is most useful at parts of the grammar where the structures, logics, the very philosophies of the two languages are radically different. There are, naturally, not two entirely analogous grammatical structures between two languages, but there are points where the differences are particularly big.

Below, a few examples are provided to illustrate what sentences and texts students may use to polish their usage and consolidate their grammar.

Sentence patterns:

Mit gondolsz, miért akarja Jack elvenni Miss Longthigh-t?
[Why do you think Jack wants to marry Miss Longthigh?]

Szerinted hány hamburgert tud Mac barátunk felfalni?
[How many hamburgers do you think our friend Mac is able to devour?]

Mit is mondott a rendőr, hol van a postahivatal?
[Where did the policeman say the post office was?]

In this case, the sentence structures are so different between the two languages that when Hungarian learners first attempt to translate them, the result is usually a rather cumbersome construction that native speakers of English may perhaps understand, but will find overtly complicated or even funny. It is therefore necessary to adjust and mobilize what Mystkowska-Wiertelak and Pawlak describe as "the *subconscious internal system* that competent language users possess and language learners develop." (Wiertelak & Pawlak 2012, p. 12).

The 'subconscious internal system' sometimes breaks the surface of the conscious, and demands rational explanations and rules:

> Many adult learners have a very strong need to understand the rules by which grammatical structures are formed. They also frequently insist on being given rules about how and when a certain bit of language is used. For these learners teaching with reference to explicit rules has definite advantages. There is practically no evidence, however, that the same is true for *all* adult learners or for children and teenagers. Your learners especially (…) seem to be more at ease with holistic methods of learning in which structures are acquired subconsciously. (Gerngross et al., 2008, p. 6.)

Pattern drills are suitable for all learner groups, because those who want to know the rules may learn them, and practise in possession of the rule. Those who prefer the holistic method may find studying through the exercises comfortable.

It is also possible to practice sentence structures in a system from L2 to L2. It is possible with upper intermediate or advanced learners.

Practising inverted word order – simple starting sentences:

1) The hurricane destroyed his villa and sank his yacht. >> Not only did the hurricane destroy his villa, it also sank his yacht.
2) He sent down two glasses of whiskey and drank a bottle of tequila. >> Not only did he send down two glasses of whiskey, he also drank a bottle of tequila.
3) He has a silver Porsche and a red Ferrari. >> Not only does he have a silver Porsche, he also owns a red Ferrari.
4) Johnny was a good football player and he excelled in tennis, too. >> Not only was Johnny a good football player, he also excelled in tennis.

5) Frank gave a large tip to the waitress and invited her to the movie. >> Not only did Frank give a large tip to the waitress, he invited her to the movie!

Later more complicated sentences may be introduced:

1) He had been on top of his school in Eton and he was the first in Balliol College, Oxford. >> Not only had he been on the top of his class at Eton, he was the first in Balliol College, Oxford, too.
2) The girl he had picked up in the bar stole all his money and locked him in the bathroom. >> Not only did the girl he had picked up in the bar steal all his money, she locked him in the bathroom!
3) The new gardener accidentally cut off all the flowers and dropped the lawn mower in the pool. >> Not only did the new gardener accidentally cut off all the flowers, on top of that, he dropped the lawnmower in the pool!
4) While he lived in the suburbs of Calcutta, he starved a lot and contracted typhoid fever. >> Not only did he starve a lot while he lived in the suburbs of Calcutta, but he also contracted typhoid fever.
5) At one of her tantrums, she hit him with a gin bottle and threw a burning kerosene lamp at him. >> Not only did she hit him with a gin bottle at one of her tantrums, but she threw a burning kerosene lamp at him!

When a teacher does such exercises with their students either orally or in writing, they may easily find themselves in a situation described as follows: "You are planning a lesson that includes some drills. Your colleague spots you in the staff room and says, 'Drills? Surely you don't still do those! They're so old-fashioned, and they've proved they don't work.' Is it worth arguing back? What would you say?" (Scrivener, 2009, p. 255).

Scrivener answers his own questions by arguing powerfully and at length to demonstrate and prove how useful grammar/translation drills are.

Similarly to pattern drills, it is easily possible to "breed" texts for practising/testing purposes. The short text below is one used for the ITK-Origo language exam system years ago. To economize on space, the English translation, that is, the target product is included here:

In the spring <u>I decided that I would</u> *have my apartment decorated*. Then I changed my mind, and decided to do it myself. As <u>I had never done such a work before, I bought</u> a book about house painting. I studied the various descriptions carefully. I thought of painting the two rooms during the weekend. Friday evening I removed the furniture, scraped the walls, and began working. The floor **was covered** with newspaper sheets and I was wearing rubber gloves. After an hour or two I felt very tired. I had a break. The job seemed to be very time-consuming. <u>It would have been better to have it done by</u>

> somebody else. ”I wish somebody came to help!”– I thought. If I had thought that I was going to be painting for three days, I would have reconsidered the idea of doing it myself.

This relatively short passage contains tense, *causative*, **passive** and conditional, that is, a lot of the elements of grammar intermediate learners are supposed to be familiar with. Leaving the original idea unchanged but replacing the actual words in accordance with shopping, gardening and a wide range of other topics, a number of new texts, approximately at the same level of difficulty, is ”bred.”

From translation from L2 to L1, as it was referred to earlier, usually newspaper articles, sometimes details from literary works are used at the language exams. Selecting them should be done with great care, as the level of difficulty in this case may vary considerably. A simple description of events in chronological order is a lot easier than e. g. a popular-scientific report.

Sometimes excerpts from literary texts prove to be excellent for vocabulary development. The passage below is from a novel Sir Arthur Conan Doyle, primarily known for his Sherlock Holmes stories:

> For example, Nigel, it is sooth that for every collection of beasts of the forest, and for every gathering of birds of the air, there is their own private name so that none may be confused with another.’
>
> ‘I know it, fair sir.’
>
> You know it, Nigel, but you do not know each separate name, else are you a wiser man than I had thought you. In truth none can say that they know all, though I have myself pricked off eighty and six for a wager at court, and it is said that the chief huntsman of the Duke of Burgundy has counted over a hundred – but it is in my mind that he may have found them as he went, for there was none to say him nay. Answer me now, lad, how would you say if you saw ten badgers together in the forest?’
>
> ‘A cete of badgers, fair sir.’
>
> ‘Good, Nigel - good, by my faith! And if you walk in Woolmer Forest and see a swarm of foxes, how would you call it?’
>
> ‘A skulk of foxes.’
>
> ‘And if they be lions?’
>
> ‘Nay, fair sir, I am not like to meet several lions in Woolmer Forest’
>
> ‘Ay, lad, but there are other forests besides Woolmer, and other lands besides England, and who can tell how far afield a knight errant as Nigel of Tilford may go, when he sees worship to be won? We will say that you were in the deserts of Nubia, and that afterward at the court of the great Sultan you wished to say that you had seen several lions, which is the first beast of the chase, being the king of all animals. How then would you say it?’

> Nigel scratched his head. 'Surely, fair sir, I would be content to say that I had seen a number of lions, if indeed I could say aught after so wondrous an adventure.'
> 'Nay, Nigel, a huntsman would have said that he had seen a pride of lions, and so proved that he knew the language of the chase. Now, had it been boars instead of lions?'
> 'One says a singular of boars.'
> 'And if they be swine?'
> 'Surely it is a herd of swine.'
> 'Nay nay, lad, it is indeed sad to see how little you know. Your hands, Nigel, were always better than your head. No man of gentle birth would speak of a herd of swine; that is the peasant speech. If you drive them it is a herd. If you hunt them it is other. What you call them then, Edith?'
> 'Nay, I know not,' said the girl, listlessly. A crumpled note brought in by a varlet was clinched in her right hand and her blue eyes looked afar into the deep shadows of the roof.
> 'But you can tell us, Mary?'
> 'Surely, sweet sir, one talks about a sounder of swine.'
> The old knight laughed exultantly. 'Here is a pupil who never brings me shame!' he cried. 'Be it chivalry or heraldry or woodcraft or what you will, I can always turn to Mary.' (Doyle, 1975, pp. 127-128.)

Learners find a lot of collective nouns it it, and first they may believe that most of them do not even exist in their own native language. When they ask foresters, hunters, they are surprised to find how many deep layers of the vocabulary of their mother tongue exists and they have had no idea about it.

Other texts may offer a good vocabulary of other topics, in this case travelling by air:

> The seat is remarkably comfortable (…) the aisle is free should one wish to walk up it. (…) But as the plane taxis to the runway, he makes the mistake of looking out of the window at the wing bouncing gently up and down. The panels and rivets are almost painfully visible, the painted markings weathered, there are streaks of soot on the engine cowlings. (…) [H]e has read somewhere that eighty percent of the aircraft accidents occur at either take-off or landing–a statistic that did not surprise him, having been stacked on many occasions for an hour or more over Esseph Airport, fifty planes circling in the air, fifty more taking off at ninety-second intervals, the whole juggling act controlled by a computer, so that it only needed a fuse to blow and the sky would look like airline competition had finally broken into open war… in the sky, TWA's Boeings ramming Pan Am's... rival shuttle services colliding head

on, the clouds raining down wings, fuselages, engines, passangers, chemical toilets, hostesses menu cards and plastic cutlery (Lodge, 1979. pp. 9-11).

Here we find the vocabulary of just about all the objects people normally encounter during a journey by air. Also, as Costigan observes, "once students 'get' a work of literature aesthetically, then they can adapt that information in the reduced forms demanded on tests" (Costigan, 2008, p. 158).

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Сучасні напрямки в навчанні іноземних мов та в прикладній лінгвістиці. / За редакцією Ілона Густі та Ілона Лехнер - Ужгород: Вид-во "Графіка" - 248 с. (англійською мовою).

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