NEW DIRECTIONS IN TEACHING FOREIGN LANGUAGES

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INTRODUCTION

Like the four previous monographs (*Inovácie a trendy vo vyučovaní cudzích jazykov u žiakov mladšieho školského veku*, 2008; *Cudzie jazyky a kultúry v modernej škole*, 2009; *Modernization of Teaching Foreign Languages: CLIL, Inclusive and Intercultural Education*, 2010; *Current Issues in Teaching Foreign Languages*, 2011 the present volume *New Directions in Teaching Foreign Languages* includes the results of some of the latest research activities in the field of language pedagogy in the Czech Republic, Slovak Republic and Hungary. The aim is to give an up-to-date overview of current thinking about important research issues in foreign language education.

Language teaching research should support and develop investigation of both quantitative and qualitative research within the area of foreign language teaching. As a result of their profession as language educators the authors of the monograph are paying more attention to teacher-driven research to help clarify and explain various phenomena occurring in classrooms. That is why a wide range of topics in the area of language teaching is covered in the current book including the research of the early language production, areas of teaching foreign languages to learners with learning difficulties, teaching foreign languages for academic and specific purposes, implications of intercutural communicative competence and intercultural education for teaching foreign languages, and implementing online support and ebooks into the process of acquiring foreign languages. These areas are reflected in9 chapters of the present treatise.

The editor and the authors of the monograph would like to express their gratitude to the reviewers of the issue, doc. PaedDr. Silvia Pokrivčáková, PhD. and Mgr. Andrea Holúbeková, PhD., whose valuable notes helped improve the text and its focus. Special appreciation is due to doc. Světlana Hanušová, Ph.D. for her collegial support and help with securing the monograph's publishing.

Editor

ONLINE SUPPORT AT THE UNIVERSITY COURSES

Ivana Cimermanová

Digital natives and digital immigrants

We live in a digital era which is undisputable. We shop online, buy travel tickets online, book hotels online, we read books using e-readers, we text messages for Christmas on Christmas Eve instead of sending postcards (two weeks before Christmas).

Although some of us are digital immigrants (see e.g. Dudeney and Hockley, 2008; Prensky, 2001) we have to learn to live in a digital era. An interesting comparison is brought by Jukes and Dosaj (2006) who compare in a very simple example digital natives and digital immigrants. According to them digital natives learn differently – "Digital natives on the other hand, pick up new devices and start experimenting with them right away. They assume the inherent design of the devices will teach them how to use a new gadget intuitively. This is because the digital native has adopted a mindset of rapid-fire trial and error learning. They're not afraid of making mistakes because they learn more quickly that way. They use devices experientially, and have no problems getting help online." On the other hand "digital immigrants" don't understand this. But many digital immigrants just can't conceive how anyone can learn like this. So by the time a digital immigrant has read the table of contents of a manual, the digital native has already figured out 15 things that will work and 15 things that won't. While the digital immigrant is afraid they'll break the device, the digital native knows they can just hit the reset button and do it all over again. In fact, for many digital natives, they see the world as one great big reset button." (ibid)

Jukes (2009) coined the terms DFL and DSL. He claims that the digital native's first language is digital as a first language and digital immigrants speak digital as a second language. The truth is that most of us, teachers, are digital immigrants and need to learn digital language. Foreign language requires, apart from motivation and patience, a lot of drills and especially skills development.

Learning and teaching in digital era

"Learning itself has undergone a transformation over the past thirty years. The Internet is changing the way that children—and college students—gather and process information in all aspects of their lives. For Digital Natives, "research" is more likely to mean a Google search than a trip to the library. They are more likely to check in with the Wikipedia community, or to turn to another online friend, than they are to ask a reference librarian for help. They rarely, if ever, buy the newspaper in hard copy; instead, they graze through copious amounts of news and other information online." (Palfrey, Gasser, 2008, p. 239)

To enable digital learning we have to teach digitally. Many teachers are proud of finally transferring their OHP transparencies to PowerPoint presentations and at the same time are disappointed that students ask them to send the files with presentations immediately after the lecture via email. It is understandable, as we, teachers expect students to be actively listening to the lectures which includes making notes, and deciding what is relevant and what is less relevant. On the other hand, digital natives consider it to be very practical as many times they can concentrate on the lecture itself instead of having to take notes throughout. They simply do not learn things in the same way as we do and we should accept it and not force them to do it in our ways.

Prensky (2010, p. 21) introduces the term partnering pedagogy and he defines the job of teacher as follows: "In a partnering pedagogy, using technology is the students' job. The teachers' job is to coach and guide the use of technology for effective learning. To do this, teachers need to focus on, and become even more expert at, things that are already part of their job, including asking good questions, providing context, ensuring rigor, and evaluating the quality of the students' work."

E-education

E-education, e-learning is a form of distance learning that dates back to the 19th century. "An Englishman, Isaac Pitman, is credited as an early pioneer. He began teaching shorthand by correspondence in Bath, England in 1840. Students were instructed to copy short passages of the Bible and return them for grading via the new penny post system." (California Distance Learning Project, 2005-2011) In 1873, Anna Ticknor created the

society to encourage studies at home for the purpose of educational opportunities for women of all classes in the society (see Nasseh, 1997). There is also an account of an advertisement of a teacher Caleb Phillips, looking for students of new method Shorthand who was seeking for learners for lessons to be sent weekly (see more in wikipedia – Distance Education).

In the past in e.g. Australia various forms of distance learning were applied as overcoming geographical barriers was a necessity. Even though geographical isolation is still one of the main characteristics of distance learning (the most common form today is e-learning) it is not the only advantage why many educational institutions decided to introduce different forms of distance education.

The means of communication varied/varies/changed from radio programmes (mostly one-way communication) through correspondence courses (there was a strong attempt to introduce the correspondence courses also in Slovakia, or Czechoslovakia in a course of time). The correspondence courses were later transformed to e-courses in a form of e-mail communication. Spreading Internet meant an important step in distance education and web 2.0[1] changed especially types of interaction radically.

Speaking about using e-learning form in language teaching we have to trace back to the history at least to the beginning of the 1960s and we have to deal with computer assisted language learning. Computer assisted language learning (CALL) is the term coined in the early 1980s and it substituted the term CALI - computer assisted language interaction (where the teacher-centred approach was dominant) and this term CALL "is widely used to refer to the area of technology and second language teaching and learning despite the fact that revisions for the term are suggested regularly" (Chapelle, 2001, p. 3). The term technology Enhanced Language Learning (TELL) is used as an alternative term to CALL. Levy (1997, p. 1) defines CALL as "the search for and study of applications of the computer in language teaching and learning".

Warschauer (1996) describes 3 phases of CALL

- Behavioristic (later changed to Structural) that dates back to the 1950s and was implemented in between 1960-70 (in later sources it is till 1980s) in which most materials were based on

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[1] Web 2.0 allows interaction and collaboration among user; web 2.0 brought social networks, blogs, podcasts, wikis etc.

drill-and-practise-material (based on the belief that "Repeated exposure to the same material is beneficial or even essential to learning").
- Communicative – implemented in 1970-1980s(in later sources 1980-1990s) where the main focus was mainly on using the language rather than its analysis.
- Integrative (1990s) (later sources 2000 onwards)integrated learning into tasks and projects using multimedia technologies.

In the 1980s e-mail correspondence became popular and in the next decade the world wide web entered our lives. At the turn of the millennium social networking became a means of communication especially among digital natives and in a course of time (maybe after some lurking) many digital immigrants became members of the networks. It is very hard to exist in our society if one is a technophobe. The digital era entered probably all fields of our lives and professions, and education is one of those.

E-learning systems
We have already mentioned that many universities and educational institutions offer e-learning courses. It is frequently used for continual professional development of the employees or as courses for public (free of charge or paid). To provide and manage e-education learning management systems (LMS) are frequently used. LMS is a system for managing online courses, delivering the educational content, tracking students' performance, etc. Ellis (2009) states that „a robust LMS should be able to do the following:
- centralize and automate administration;
- use self-service and self-guided services;
- assemble and deliver learning content rapidly;
- consolidate training initiatives on a scalable web-based platform;
- support portability and standards;
- personalize content and enable knowledge reuse".

Speaking about LMS we should also mention the content management system (CMS) that enables publishing and editing materials online, the content on a website.
An example of learning content management system LCMS is e.g. Moodle, which is usually assigned as LMS Moodle, but in fact it is the LCM

system. LMS Moodle – is an open source web application widely used around the world in the business and academic environment as a system for online courses or face-to-face courses support.

The systems for managing education have also been changed rapidly. They frequently can be intuitively managed (from the role of student) and navigated.

It would be an ideal situation if the preparation of courses were the team work where authors (writers, teachers) prepare the scenarios of the courses, programmers, graphic designers and designer experts prepare the design and interactions and tutors (teachers) lead the courses. In our conditions most of our universities look for open—source software and try to merge all key roles of e-course preparation into one person – the enthusiast. Lately, universities look for different possibilities on how to make e-education systematic and professional which concerns not only the system but the preparation of the high quality courses that follow didactic principles.

Terminology connected with e-education is being coined constantly, but there is a lot of ambiguity in the terminology and the terms that are used interchangeably. Thus we can find the term LMS, CMS, LCMS and VLE. VLE - virtual learning environment is a classroom where teachers and learners can communicate both synchronously and asynchronously. The teaching materials and assignments are usually delivered and published using the web. VLE comprises teaching and learning tools for publishing materials that can also be linked to the other sources, electronic communication, discussion, collaborative writing, testing, tracking students, etc.

Besides the above mentioned systems e.g. the platform Second Life is used for formal and informal education and is very attractive for digital natives (and not only for them) as it allows them (not just thanks to the graphics and design) to be in a virtual world. It is currently one of the most popular platforms for educators, although this is not valid about the Slovak educational system. "There is a strong community of developers and programmers who are working to simplify the interface on the one hand while enabling a higher degree of integration with other platforms and programmes on the other. For "newbie" educators, this support network is of great assistance. (Kingsley,J., Wankel, Ch.2009, p. 4)

Dudeney and Ramsay (In: Kingsley, Wankel, 2009, pp. 11-12.) define 4 barriers to introducing Second life to Higher Education and these barriers address a much broader environment – it can be applied to introducing LMS

system to education generally. The first barriers they mention are institutional barriers „arising from the inherent administrative and financial structures of college bodies". The second type of barriers is pedagogical barriers. These „are often barriers of perception of the users'"… and the "inability to sustain the required level of suspension of disbelief needed to fully engage in these kinds of environments". Pedagogical barriers are very closely connected to technical barriers. "High-end hardware requirements combined with network restrictions that often necessitate institutional IT service intervention, regular software upgrades and limitations on the opening of"… "accounts all combine to make technology a potentially significant barrier for many institutions in purely practical implementation terms". The fourth category, Dudeney and Ramsay defined, are end-user barriers. They particularly mention "client configuration issues and accessibility. On the more practical implementation side, we also examine social issues of user training, e-safety, disruptive behaviour and undesirable content".

The barriers that are postulated above can be generalised (more or less) and applied to using e-learning.

Learning styles and e-education

Learning style group different approaches and ways of learning as key factors affecting language learning. There are three basic types (visual, auditory and kinaesthetic).

Coffield et al. (In Graf, 2007, p. 5) classified learning style models into 5 families "which are based on some overarching ideas behind the models, attempting to reflect the views of the main theorists of learning styles. The first family relies on the idea that learning styles and preferences are largely constitutionally based including the four modalities: visual, auditory, kinaesthetic, and tactile. The second family deals with the idea that learning styles reflect deep-seated features of the cognitive structure, including patterns of abilities. A third category refers to learning styles as one component of a relatively stable personality type. In the fourth family, learning styles are seen as flexibly stable learning preferences. The last category moves on from learning styles to learning approaches, strategies, orientations and conceptions of learning".

Some authors speak about Neomillennial Learning Styles (see e.g. Folley, 2010; Dietrele, Dede, Schrier, 2007[2]; etc.). Dede (2005) mentions several types of experiences that affect people's lifestyles:

- Mobile wireless devices (MWDs)—such as gaming devices, cell phones, digital music players, personal digital assistants—would access media that are virtually connected to locations (such as street signs linked to online maps), objects (such as books linked to online reviews), and services (such as restaurants linked to ratings by their customers).
- MWDs would access every type of data service anywhere (banking and stock market information, weather, tickets and reservations, transport schedules).
- MWDs would locate strangers nearby who have identified themselves as having common interests (people interested in dating and matched on desired attributes, friends of friends, fellow gamers, or fans of a certain team, actor, or author).
- Rather than having core identities defined through a primarily local set of roles and relationships, people would express varied aspects of their multifaceted identities through alternate extended experiences in distributed virtual environments and augmented realities.

"Proponents of learning-style assessment contend that optimal instruction requires diagnosing an individuals' learning style and tailoring

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[2] „Dieterle, Dede and Schrier, propose adding a media based or mediated learning style, the "NeoMillennial learning style" which results from new technologies, the ubiquitous nature of connectivity, the vast volumes of information constantly developed and propagated; and the collaborative nature of the emerging technologies. … Specifically, Dieterle,Dede & Schrier indicate that the media based lifestyles have led to the following:
1. "Fluency in multiple media, valuing each for the types of communication, activities, experiences, and expressions it empowers.
2. Learning based on collectively, seeking, sieving, and synthesizing experiences rather than individually locating and absorbing information from a single best source.
3. Active learning based on both real and simulated experiences that includes frequent opportunities for reflection." (NeoMillennial Learning styles, educational origami website, http://edorigami.wikispaces.com/NeoMillennial+Learning+styles)

instruction accordingly." (Pashler, H.; McDaniel, M.; Rohrer, D.; Bjork, R., 2008).

It is not only the learning style but also the age, aptitude, motivation and attitude, learning strategies, and the personality that affect (language) learning. The role of the above mentioned factors in the e-education are the focus of pedagogical research.

Experience

First courses in LCMS Moodle were introduced at Department of English Language and Literature at Presov university in February 2006 and since that time they are used mostly to augment "traditional" face-to-face courses. During our experience with using LMS Moodle several surveys and searches about e.g efficacy and students' performance were conducted and results were published (see e.g. Cimermanová, 2011).

There has been a lot discussed about the skills and abilities students should have if we want them to be efficient in VLE. The biggest problem of the past - technical skills – was naturally solved in a course of time and most of todays students are digital natives. In the past decades there were a lot of researches conducted to learn more about autonomous learning and autonomous students. It has been proved that autonomous learners are more successful and they have less problems with functioning in e-courses, keeping discipline and deadlines.

Experimenting with teaching in LMS Moodle and concurrently on-campus we compared the results of students in both groups to find out whether students in one of the forms are more successful (more about testing is described below). We have already mentioned the importance of learner styles, intelligence types and students' learning preferences. This led us to dividing two groups (e-course and on-campus) to smaller groups according to learner styles, intelligence types etc. In this study we will present results focusing on different (prevailing) intelligence types and their efficiacy in two forms of education (e-form and on-campus).

The study will report on findings from survey data and an informal classroom experiment involving the same respondents as the test subjects.

Method

The test subjects formed the sample consisting of 78 undergraduate students with a mean age of 21 years. The students were, for the purposes

of this study, divided into two groups that were formed based on their preferences to become members of the on-campus or e-course group (we are aware of the fact that there were various factors influencing their decision, as they were regular students who had to come regularly on-site for other subjects) – group of face-to-face EFL Methodology course students - n=53 and group of EFL Methodology course e-course n=25), with more females than males in both groups. They all study the teacher-training programme with the specialization of English language and literature.

The pedagogical experiment (where the form of teaching was a categorical independent variable) was realised in the second semester of the course, but the initial stages were organized before the experiment itself. The e-course was built following the four stage instructional design model (front end analysis - content analysis - sequencing content - evaluation) (see e.g., Morice, 2002).

For both groups, it was the second semester and the students knew each other. Similarly, they knew the teacher, tutor. Thus, it was not necessary to start the course with ice-breaking activities. What was necessary to be done was to demonstrate learners how to use e-tools and to navigate them how to get oriented in the e-environment.

Data collection

The data concerning the results presented in this article was collected by means of a questionnaire - Multiple Intelligences Survey (translated to Slovak language by I. Turek) where the maximum value per intelligence was 10, the feedback form and final assessment.

Hypothesis

The hypothesis to be tested was that there is no significant difference in results reached in any of the groups (expressed in the form of final grade). We also believed that the introvert students would tend to take part in an online course and they would be more successful in the e-course. The study itself brought the results of about 8 intelligence types formulated by Gardner originally (verbal, logical-mathematical, spatial, bodily-kinaesthetic, musical, interpersonal, intrapersonal and naturalistic), as the original hypothesis was extended to the 8 above mentioned intelligence types.

Statistical methods

The form of teaching – face-to-face or e-form was an independent variable. The dependent variable in our study was the final assessment, the grade the students reached at the end of the course. At the same time we studied the relations between the intelligence types and the results students reached. Only the final result was considered (the number of attempts to pass the exam was ignored).

As the sample was not normally distributed we used an alternative to the independent t-test - Mann-Whitney U Test. The tests were used to find out the statistical significance of the relation between intelligence types and the form. The results were assessed at the asymptotic significance (2-tailed) p level = 0.01 and 0.05. The tests were performed in the SPSS program.

Analyses

Kendall tau correlations were used to find out the relations between form and evaluation. The results proved there is no significant difference between the e-course and the on-campus group in relation to the results they reached in the final assessment (see the results below)

Tab. 1: Correlation – evaluation:form

Kendall Tau Correlations – MD pairwise deleted Marked correlations are significant at p <.05000		
	Form	evaluation
Form	1.000000	-0.029884
Evaluation	-0.029884	1.000000

We also wanted to know whether there are some preferences for opting for one of the forms in relation to learning style.

Tab. 2: Descriptive statistics– intelligence types according Gardner

	Form	N	Mean rank	Sum of ranks
Verbal	face-to-face	53	38.69	2050.50
	e-course	25	41.22	1030.50
	Sum	78		
logical-	face-to-face	53	38.84	2058.50

|				
mathematical				
	e-course	25	40.90	1022.50
	Sum	78		
Spatial	face-to-face	53	44.86	2377.50
	e-course	25	28.14	703.50
	Sum	78		
bodily-kinaesthetic	face-to-face	53	45.80	2427.50
	e-course	25	26.14	653.50
	Sum	78		
Musical	face-to-face	53	42.49	2252.00
	e-course	25	33.16	829.00
	Sum	78		
interpersonal	face-to-face	53	35.80	1897.50
	e-course	25	47.34	1183.50
	Sum	78		
intrapersonal	face-to-face	53	48.46	2568.50
	e-course	25	20.50	512.50
	Sum	78		
Naturalistic	face-to-face	53	37.99	2013.50
	e-course	25	42.70	1067.50
	Sum	78		

The non-parametric tests were used to find out the relations between the form and intelligence types.

Tab. 3: Non-parametric tests (a grouping variable: form)

	Mann-Whitney U	Wilcoxon W	Z	Asymp. Sig.(2-tailed)
Verbal	619.500	2050.500	-.467	.640
logical-mathematical	627.500	2058.500	-.379	.705
Spatial	378.500	703.500	-3.087	.002
bodily-kinaesthetic	328.500	653.500	-3.600	.000
Musical	504.000	829.000	-1.732	.083
interpersonal	466.500	1897.500	-2.125	.034
intrapersonal	187.500	512.500	-5.132	.000
Naturalistic	582.500	2013.500	-.866	.386

From the data in table 3 it can be concluded that there is a statistically significant difference between the intelligence type and form in four types of intelligence – spatial, bodily kinaesthetic and intrapersonal at the p level 0,01 and spatial type of intelligence was significant at the p level of 0,05.

To present results in a more transparent way we used box-and-whisker-graphs – characterising groups through their five number summaries: whiskers - the smallest observation (sample minimum) and the largest observation (sample maximum); box – lower quartile and upper quartile, and median.
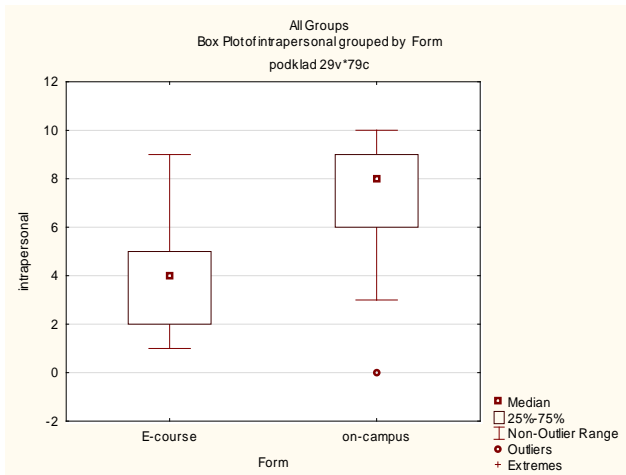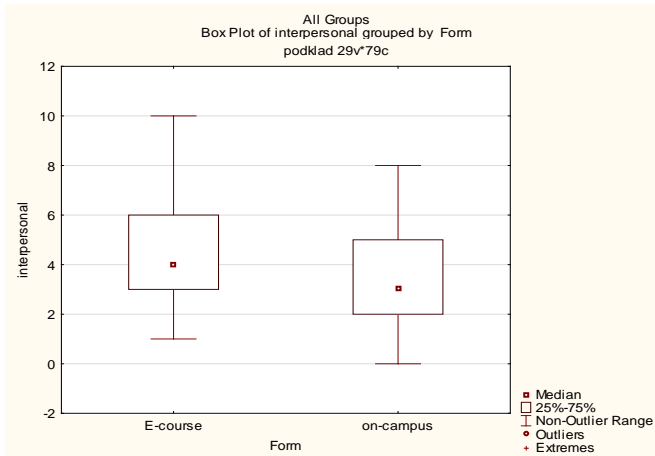
Graph 1: Box and whiskers plot – relationship intrapersonal intelligence and form

We expected there would be a significant difference between the form and group of introvert students and the hypothesis was confirmed. However, we presumed that the prevailing amount of the students with introvert intelligence would be represented in a group of those students who opted for the e-course. On contrary, the research did not prove this assumption and vice-versa the most of introverted students chose the on-campus course. Most of introvert students decided to take course on-campus.

Here, we can mention the key competencies that were split into seven domains (see Hutmacher 1997) – learning, searching, thinking, communicating, cooperating, getting things done, and adapting oneself). Most of these competencies are necessary if one wants to be successful in an e-course. The truth is, that a good e-course forces learners to develop the above mentioned competencies. Hutmacher (ibid) states that there are five sets of key competencies with attached particular importance and "which schools should "equip" young Europeans". The first are "Political and social competencies such as the capacity to accept responsibilities, to participate in group decisions, to resolve conflicts in a non-violent manner, and to play a part in running and improving democratic institutions" (ibid). Based on our own experience we can claim that this skill is in most courses being intentionally or unintentionally being developed. The face to face contact is substituted by different social forms and a lot of group work to create a positive and cooperative atmosphere.

Tutors have to be really good pedagogues and managers to create a functioning group and concerning this point of view it might be easier for e-teachers to work with students with prevailing interpersonal intelligence who are looking for contacts, for cooperation, and want to learn more about their classmates.

Graph 2: Box and whiskers plot – relationship interpersonal intelligence and form

Out of four intelligence types (defined by Gardner) that proved to be statistically significant the least difference was observed in a group of interpersonal intelligence. Here, again, we have to state that our assumption was wrong we expected that more students with prevailing interpersonal intelligence would choose the on-campus face-to-face course. There are more students with prevailing interpersonal intelligence who decided to do an e-course. This result, however, might have been influenced by the homogeneity of the group - they were all future language teacher trainers. We could have expected that this will be a group with prevailing linguistic and interpersonal intelligence who are ready to communicate and cooperate (this assumption was not considered before running the experiment, but it is the factor that could have influenced the results of our research). We present the graph representing the relationship between the form and linguistic intelligence (there was no statistically significant difference observed).
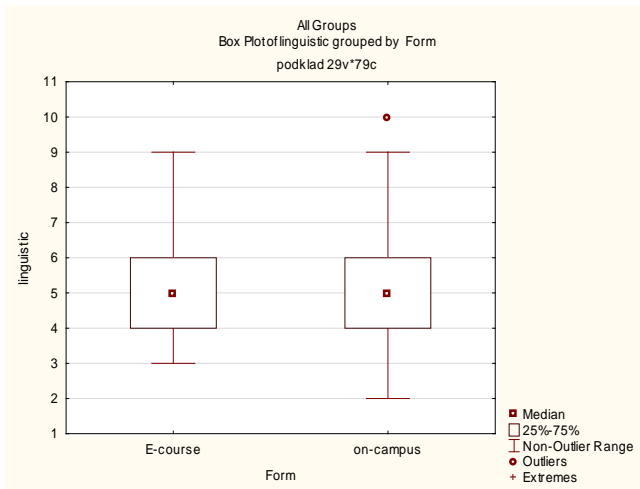
Graph 3: Box and whiskers plot – relationship linguistic intelligence and form

The last tests we performed (concerning intelligence types) tested the success of the testees according to their learning style and evaluation, and intelligence type and the evaluation in relation to form (the tests were run for different forms separately).

The correlations were performed in the Statistica software and are presented in the table below.

All statistical tests testing the relation between evaluation and form, evaluation and intelligence type, evaluation form and intelligence types proved that there is no statistical relationship between the samples.

We compared two independent ordinal samples and the Kendal-Tau test was applied.

Tab. 4: Kendall Tau Correlations - form:evaluation (independent test for intelligence types)

Kendall Tau Correlations - MD pairwise deleted Marked correlations are significant at p <,05000	
Verbal	**-0.816497**
logical-mathematical	-0.333333
Spatial	0.894427
bodily-kinaesthetic	0.253546
Musical	0.500000
interpersonal	0.250000
intrapersonal	0.147542
Naturalistic	0.500000

The survey in table 4 shows there is no statistically significant difference between the samples except for verbal intelligence where the strong correlation was measured. It is necessary to say that this research should be repeated with a bigger size group, as the size of subsamples, especially in the e-group was very small.

Conlusion

The results of some researches, for instance, (Morgan, 2000; Lei & Govra, 2010) show that introducing the online courses as an alternative to the on-campus courses depends on many factors but there are many of those proving its efficiacy.

There are numerous studies that compared face to face and online learning and found no significant differences in student learning. (face-to-face and online groups), for instance, (Odell, Abbitt, Amos, & Davis, 1999; Beile, & Boote, 2002). The tests proved that there is no significant difference between the online and on-campus group in the research and their progress was not a variable that would cause any difference in their gained scores. The research confirmed the null hypothesis and we consider this finding very important as contemporary education shifts towards mobile learning (frequently not systematically and not following the educational principles). Many students in their verbal reports claimed that e-learning led and forced them to search for further information that helped them to get oriented in the sources that are available. They also highlighted the multimedia character of the sources as an important characteristic of education

contributing to visualisation, exemplification and clarity of the material presented.

University students are ready to work in virtual reality. Most of them work on a computer daily.

What was very challenging and motivating for us were the verbal statements from the students of the experimental group. Sample reactions: "…I learned so much about CLIL… I read the compulsory article and there were some links that I visited…" "I have never heard about teachertube… I use youtube daily…", "It forced me to study a lot…, at a normal lesson, I would ask the teacher… But writing an e-mail would take some time, so I'd rather surf and I found much more than I needed… It was good…".

Students became autonomous, the teaching was learner-centred and oriented towards individualisation and building learning strategies. The similar findings were reported e.g. by Weigel, 2005; Dennis, 2007, etc. Various techniques were used to support communication and cooperation, a lot of space was devoted to individual work but there was also enough space for synchronous and asynchronous discussions which supported the group as a whole and also the teacher-student and student-student rapport.

The tests proved that even if the group was subdivided into learning styles there was no statistically significant difference between the groups in relation to evaluation (except for verbal). What should be highlighted is that tutors and course designers need a special training programme on the methods and forms used in e-learning and especially training on how to communicate with e-students and keep them attracted and motivated. In addition, we need to find ways of how to support students to become autonomous, independent and still cooperating learners.

It is important to realise that "just because Digital Natives don't learn things in the same way that their grandparents did does not mean that the way that their learning is not as effective. There is no evidence to suggest that they are learning less than their grandparents did, or that they are more superficial in their learning.

In fact, Digital Natives are quite sophisticated in the ways that they gather information. The people to be worried about are those who are growing up in a digital age but who are not learning these sophisticated information gathering and information-processing skills, or creating things of their own based on what they learn and sharing it with others.

Digital Natives gather information through a multistep process that involves grazing, a "deep dive," and a feedback loop. They are perfecting the art of grazing through the huge amount of information that comes their way on a daily basis" (Palfrey, Gasser, 2008., p. 241). E learning might be a form that is close to their way of thinking, searching, cooperating, and learning. And even though we think differently, and learn differently we might try to help them by teaching in a mode that they understand and accept.

Cassette recorders and OHPs are the past. Computers, data projectors, interactive whiteboards, interactive exercises, use of websites, teacher-created websites and electronic evidence are the reality of these days. Hardware can be found in most of schools, the trained and skilled teachers are not so common. If we want to have the schools of the future we need not only the equipment of future but we also need the teachers who are ready to use the equipment of future (and not only technically but also applying the didactic principles). The truth is that schools invest a huge amount of money to the infrastructure but they do not provide an adequate training to teach them to use the latest technologies.

The universities preparing teacher-trainers should be among the first to present the possibilities that the digital era offers in education and the pedagogy, psychology and methodology should reflect this status quo.

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Acknowledgements

RESULTS FROM THE TWO PROJECTS IN PART "LANGUAGE AND COMMUNICATION"
MAPPING THE TEACHING OF RUSSIAN AS FOREIGN LANGUAGE TO PUPILS WITH SPECIFIC LEARNING DIFFICULTIES IN THE CZECH REPUBLIC

Renée Grenarová

1 Introduction

A characteristic of our present time is the fact that the concept of upbringing and education is changing in the era of European integration, effective technologies and teaching strategies are used in lessons, and the aspect of pupil individuality is emphasized together with a differentiated approach on the part of the teacher.

The contemporary school education system pays increased attention also to the teaching of foreign languages since the capability of communicating in a foreign language has becomes a must in today's globalized world. The teaching of foreign languages has passed through intensive development in the last hundred years (Beneš, 1970), from the translation and grammatical concepts of teaching foreign languages the didactic have arrived at a method of communication the basis (Jelínek, 1976, pp. 23-36) of which is formed by the content and context of a communication situation (Hendrich, 1988, pp. 256-276). Lessons are gaining drive, flexibility, plurality, their effectiveness is increasing (Průcha, Walterová, Mareš, 2009), and principles of adequateness and visualization are applied (Purm, Jelínek, Veselý, 2003, pp. 229-235).

2 Specific learning difficulties and the teaching of Russian language

Current statistics speak of 5 to 20 percent of pupils in a today's typical class of primary school declaring certain special requirements and needs (Bartoňová, Vítková, 2007, pp. 9-35) in the educational process at different stages, i.e. apart from other handicaps (Lechta, 2010, pp. 12-43) the children exhibit also some light or more serious signs of specific learning difficulties

(SLD) such as dyslexia, dysgraphia, dysorthographia, dyscalculia, dyspinxia, dysmusia or dyspraxia (Pokorná, 2010, pp. 17-28). These individuals have to be unconditionally given the same standard of instruction and tending as the normal population and their right for equal access to education is also guaranteed by a number of legislative documents such as the Charter of Fundamental Human Rights and Freedoms, adopted by the Czech Republic in 1993, ratified documents such as the Childrens' Charter, the Framework Educational Programme for Primary Education of 2005 (*RVP pro ZV*, 2007) and others (*Zákon č. 561/2004; Vyhláška MŠMT ČR 73/2005; Vyhláška č. 116/2011; Vyhláška č. 147/2011*).

Difficulties to be encountered with in the school practice of teaching foreign languages are dyslexia (Grenarová, 2008, pp. 167-176), dysgraphia, dysorthographia and partly also dyspraxia.

3 Teaching Russian language to pupils with specific learning difficulties

Russian language is one of five basic foreign languages included in the Framework educational programmes of the Czech system of education (*RVP pro ZV*, 2007). After the period of absolute recession in the first half of the 19th century, the interest in the Russian language has been gradually revived. That it is not a coincidence and can be demonstrated by the increasing numbers of pupils studying Russian recorded in the statistics on teaching foreign languages, published by the Ministry of Education of the Czech Republic, the Research Institute of Education, the Centre for the reform of school-leaving examination, and education facilities and institutes (*Tematická zpráva ČŠI, 2010)*.

The present trend of introducing the teaching of a so called second foreign language (*Usnesení Rady Evropy ze dne 21. listopadu 2008 o evropské strategii pro mnohojazyčnost*, 2008) also in senior primary grades returns Russian back in the play along with French and Spanish. Moreover, under certain circumstances Russian is not entirely without a chance to become even the first foreign language.

4 First project "*Problems of teaching Russian language to pupils with specific learning difficulties as viewed by the teacher*" in the part of "L*anguage and Communication*" of the research programme *"Special Needs of Pupils in the Context of the Framework Educational Programme for Basic Education"*

Now we come up to the presentation of results from descriptive research of the first project in the field of education *"Language and communication"*, resolved in 2007-2013 by the team of experts under the leadership of Prof. PhDr. Marie Vítková, CSc. within the research programme of the Faculty of Education, Masaryk University Brno – *"Special Needs of Pupils in the Context of the Framework Educational Programme for Basic Education".*

The main objective of the aforementioned research programme for the years 2007/2008 is to map the current situation in the teaching of foreign languages, i.e. English, German, French and Russian to pupils with specific learning difficulties in the region of South Moravia at senior primary grades and in the lower grades of multiannual grammar schools. In the text below the issue will be discussed from the Russian language teacher's viewpoint of the implemented Russian language teaching process.

4.1 Concrete results from the *research "Problems of teaching Russian language to pupils with specific learning difficulties as viewed by the teacher"* in 2007/2008

A.   Methods of research, questionnaire survey, basic data on the sample of respondents explored

The collection of data reflecting the current initial situation in teaching Russian to pupils with specific learning difficulties was carried out by means of anonymous questionnaire sent as an e-mail to electronic addresses of all primary schools and multiannual grammar schools in the City of Brno and in the region of South Moravia (Jihomoravský kraj). The objective of the research implemented at a general level was to enhance the effectiveness and quality of lessons taught to pupils with specific learning difficulties. The questionnaire survey was to find out concrete data and basic information concerning:

- The teachers of Russian language – their skills in the subjects taught;
- the age, sex, education experience and grade of teachers;

- we were also interested in the types of classes in which our respondents teach;
- the number of pupils with specific learning disorders in the classes, etc.

The questionnaire was prepared as a system of closed inquiries, in which a group of questions required a closed answer yes/no, and a group of questions with optional scale of answers with the character of some questions also considering free answers of the respondents.

Questionnaires used for our purposes had to be completely filled; precisely we received answers from 21 teachers from primary schools and from the lower grades of multiannual grammar schools in the City of Brno and region of South Moravia, teaching Russian language as a compulsory subject, optional compulsory subject or in a not-compulsory language course.

The collected data were processed into a tabular form in Microsoft Excel PC programme and subsequently graphs and diagrams were prepared in Microsoft Word, which provide a visualization of the initial state, current situation, data and other partial findings, and research results.

The questionnaire survey, i.e. the proper collection of data was carried out in the spring and autumn months of the 1st and 2nd half of school year 2007/2008.

B. Basic information on Russian language teachers and schools

Item: Number of respondents and their sex

As mentioned above in the preceding sub-chapter, the questionnaire survey was attended by 21 teachers from primary schools and lower grades of multiannual grammar schools in the City of Brno and in the region of South Moravia, who provide for the teaching of Russian language as a compulsory subject, optional compulsory subject or in a not-compulsory language course. The studied sample of teachers included 18 females and 3 males. The proportional representation of females and males can be expressed as 6 : 1, i.e. the share of males representing 18 % in the studied sample of respondents. The fact generally corresponds with the proportion of female and male teachers presented in yearbooks of the Ministry of Education of the Czech Republic in recent years.

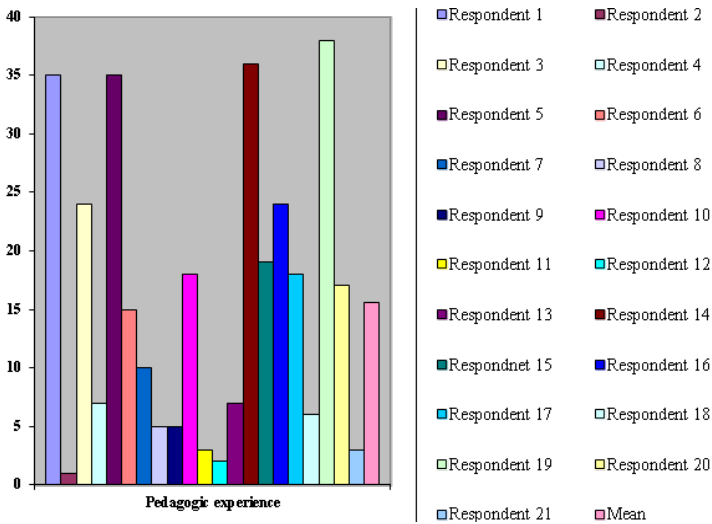*Item: Pedagogic experience of respondents*

The average pedagogic experience of teachers at primary schools or at lower grades of multiannual grammar schools is 15.61 years – see Graph 1.

Less than 5 years of experience was claimed by 3 respondents, 15 years of experience was declared by 11 teachers, 1 respondent was teaching the first year of his career, on the other hand, the longest mentioned teaching experience was 38 years.

Item: Highest accomplished education of respondents
We were interested to know, what was the highest accomplished education of the respondents and participants in the questionnaire survey, and they could make a choice from the following scale of answers: primary, secondary, higher technical, academic, doctoral. Nearly 81 % (precisely 80.95 %) of teachers claimed to have reached the level of an academic degree and were fully qualified for the concerned type of Russian language lessons. Two respondents were currently studying at the Faculty of Education completing the required degree and qualification.

Graph 1: Pedagogical experience in individual respondents

Item: Competence. Item: Other degrees and qualifications
Regarding the fact that teachers of Russian language experienced a dramatic loss of interest in their qualifications, due to the recession of Russian language teaching and hence subsistence problems with an immediate threat to their personal career in teacher's profession, many of the respondents

tried to extend their competence after the Velvet revolution through further study. We were interested not only in the second, but also in the third (possibly even fourth) accomplished line of study within pedagogical university education. The specialization most frequently mentioned by the teachers, as other subjects that they are competent to teach in addition to Russian, was Czech language, German language, civics (now rudiments of social sciences), music education, biology, history, psychology, office work basics, art lessons and physical training.

A delightful finding is the information about the competence of Russian language teachers, which amounts to 80.95 % – see Graph 2 and Graph 3.

C. Types of classes with the pupils with specific learning difficulties

Item: Types of classes

In this part of the questionnaire survey – see Graph 4 – we investigated school grades and class types in which the teachers of Russian language teach. The respondents were offered the following scale of answers:

- in common classes with no pupils in whom the specific learning difficulties were diagnosed – concretely in grades (please specify);
- in common classes with no pupils in whom the specific learning difficulties were diagnosed but with some pupils suffering from problems resembling the learning disorders – concretely in grades (please specify) + state the number of such pupils in the individual classes;
- in common classes with pupils in whom the specific learning difficulties were diagnosed, but the level of their problems does not require integration – only taking their problem into account – concretely in grades (please specify) + state the number of such pupils in the individual classes;
- in common classes with integrated pupils with the specific learning difficulties – concretely in grades (please specify) + state the number of such pupils in the individual classes;
- in classes specialized for pupils with the diagnosed specific learning difficulties – concretely in grades (please specify) + state the number of such pupils in the individual classes.
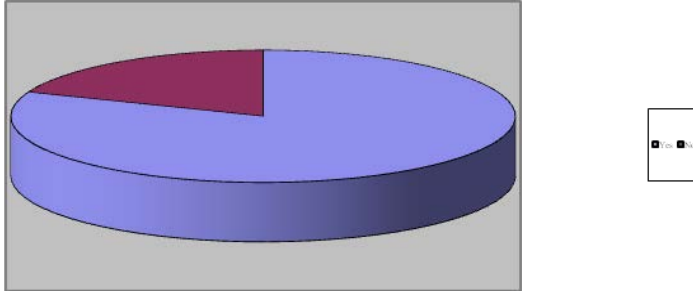
Graph 2: Respondents' competence Specialized class for learners with diagnosed SLD
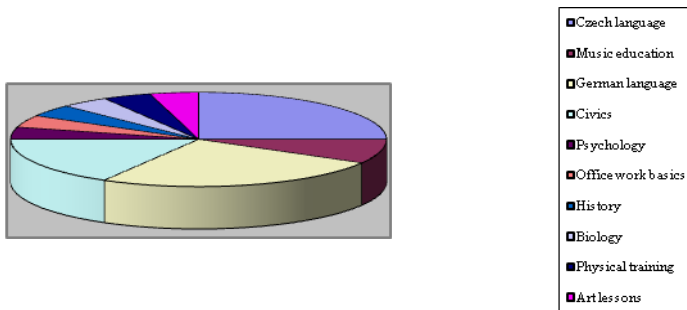
Graph 3: Second and third subjects in competent respondents

Our comments to the obtained data and results follow:

Question a) was answered positively by four teachers (all from the lower grades of multiannual grammar schools, with 1 respondent teaching only the first year and therefore might not have discerned the latent form of specific learning difficulties with his paedagogic experience being relatively still quite short).

Question b) was answered positively by four teachers, too (2 respondents from primary schools and 2 respondents from the lower grades of multiannual grammar schools). The fact that pupils from the lower grades of multiannual grammar schools appeared in the answers may have several explanations: * the pupils are actually suffering from specific learning difficulties but can compensate SLD thanks to their high intelligence; * the pupils suffer from learning "pseudo-difficulties" the reason or the triggering

factor of which may be the transition of these pupils from the primary school to the secondary level, exactness and different style of lessons, insufficiently acquired appropriate teaching strategies and the pupil's styles of learning, or long-term stress from the new environment and the like.

Question c) was answered positively by 12 teachers (all from primary schools).

Question d) was answered positively by 3 teachers (all from primary schools).

Question e) was answered negatively by all respondents. The fact may have been affected also by the relatively low number of respondents in the sample of the questionnaire survey.

As to the school grades, which are most often mentioned in the questionnaires, we were greatly surprised by the fact that the pupils From the 8th and 9th grades showed a substantial quantitative increase especially when compared to the lower grades. Therefore the question must be asked as to whether the increase does not result from the threat of written applicant qualification tests for the secondary school in the 9th grade. Through a targeted visit to a pedagogical and psychological advice clinic or the school psychologist's the parent apparently try to gain a purposeful advantage for their offspring in the form of testimony upon the diagnosed specific learning difficulties. Otherwise we would have anticipated a rather opposite development in the number of pupils with SLD on the basis of theoretical findings assuming that fourteen and fifteen years old pupils have sufficiently adopted compensation strategies, skills and aids already during the re-education activity. The expressed hypothesis can be confirmed or disconfirmed by further investigations in the near future.
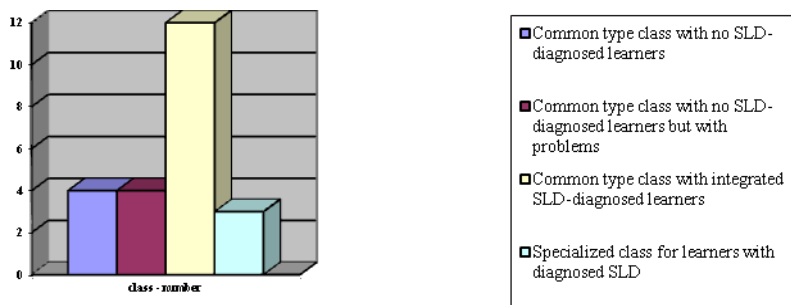
Graph 4: Types of classes in which the respondent teaches Russian language

4.2 Partial conclusions

The realized questionnaire survey has met our expectations, by providing a realistic picture of the situation and condition in the school practice. We have gained a basic overview about the issue of Russian language teaching to pupils with specific learning difficulties as viewed by teachers at the 2nd level of primary schools and in the lower grades of multiannual grammar schools in the region of South Moravia and in its natural centre – the City of Brno. The first analysis shows that high professional and human demands are imposed upon todays teacher, while the role of the teacher in the process of upbringing and education is irreplaceable (despite a whole range of technical possibilities for self-learning and effective teaching strategy).

Concluding we would like to remind you of several generally valid rules for working with the pupils suffering from specific learning difficulties (Swierkoszová, 2008) and with specific education requirements (Müller, 2001), which are binding for teachers, the parents of the child and experts in paedagogy (Slowík, 2007) and psychology (Kucharská, Chalupová, 2006) as they were formulated in works published by Z. Matějček (1995), Z. Michalová (2001), O. Zelinková (2003), M. Selikowicz (2000), S. Kerr (1997) and a number of other specialists in the issue of special educational needs (Bartoňová, 2005) and specific learning difficulties (Jucovičová, Žáčková, Sovová, 2001; Pokorná, 2010):

- Let us approach the process of education in a creative and positive manner.
- Let us always try to get the children involved and to motivate them for activity.
- Let us adhere to Komensky rule of schooling by playing.
- Let us work every day.
- Let us set up realistic goals by stages.
- Let us evaluate not the process result itself but rather the effort exerted by the child.
- Let us be uncompromising and fair.
- Let us not scrape for praise even for (in our eyes) a negligible improvement and progress.
- Let us support and develop the sense of reality in children.
- Let us teach them self-assessment, independence and objectiveness.
- Let us strive for the creation of a system and order in the taught lessons.

- Let us minimize disturbing elements, let us support peacefulness and concentration of both parties.
- Let us not underestimate the permanent repetition of the already adopted skills, knowledge and capabilities.
- Let us praise directly for a concrete activity, for mastering an exactly defined assignment.
- Let us diversify the activities, let us interlace them with minute rests, let us change working positions, visual aids and work methods.
- Let us deny boredom in children.
- Let us arm ourselves with a sufficient measure of our own quietude, composure, kindness, patience, understanding and optimism.
- Let us maintain as tight contact as possible with all participating parties, and let us exchange mutual information about the pupil.

5 Second project "*Research in Russian Language Instruction for pupils with Dysgraphia*" in part of "L*anguage and Communication*" of the research programme *"Special Needs of Pupils in the Context of the Framework Educational Programme for Basic Education"*

Gathering and maintaining information is a key task today. Even though students may compensate for their dysgraphic difficulties by more frequent use of PCs (Jucovičová, Žáčková, 2009) and other forms of technology (dictaphones, etc.), there are situations in which the objective of the research generally lay in reinforcing the efficiency and quality of instruction for students with the observed specific learning difficulties.

For our purposes only completely filled-out questionnaires from both groups were used. Of the original 150 questionnaires the simplest, fastest way to save information, one's ideas or messages, is to take notes by hand using writing aids and materials, most often paper. Handwriting is still the most accessible way to store and transfer knowledge, communications, information and messages (Loginova, 2004; Siwek, 2011). This may be very stressful and exhausting, however, for people suffering from dysgraphia (Smutná, Novák, 1996).

The aim of initial foreign language instruction (Hála, 1987) is to acquire simple communication patterns (Ladmanová, 1988) and rules that students may encounter in everyday situations. In terms of grammar, only simple concepts (Grenarová, 2007, pp. 74-81) and rules are presented (always in the context of providing practical use for communication). Aside from reading,

language skills require the ability to write in Russian, i.e., acquisition of the Cyrillic alphabet (Veselý, 1985). This initial instruction is the subject of this research.

A study into the context and conditions of Russian language instruction as they bear on pupils with dysgraphia (Paramonova, 2006) was carried out in 2009, 2010 and 2011. Its main objective was to map the current state of the initial instruction of Russian in regular classes for pupils with dysgraphia at the upper primary school level and lower levels of multi-year grammar school. Specifically, the focus was put on:

- difficulties encountered by pupils diagnosed with dysgraphia;
- identification of specific learning difficulties and specific errors made by pupils with dysgraphia;
- outline of suitable re-education activities, a chronological sequence of targeted remedies to help dysgraphic pupils compensate for their difficulties and, for the future, an outline of suitable interventions in Russian language instruction provided to dysgraphic pupils.

The objective of the research generally lay in reinforcing the efficiency and quality of Russian language instruction for pupils with specific learning difficulties, specifically pupils with dysgraphia.

The data for research into teaching Russian to pupils suffering from dysgraphia, a specific learning difficulty, was implemented using an anonymous questionnaire with two groups of respondents. These groups consisted of:

- pupils diagnosed with dysgraphia and pupils in regular classes who filled in the questionnaires in classic printed form and worked, as instructed, with the following diagnostic tools: copy, transcription and dictation;
- Russian language teachers who filled in an electronic version of the questionnaire. The questionnaire was prepared as a set of closed-end questions where some of these questions required a closed yes/no response and questions with scaled answers. Some of the questions also required free responses from the respondents distributed to the first group, i.e., pupils diagnosed with dysgraphia and pupils in regular classes, 126 questionnaires were returned. From the second group of Russian language teachers, the return rate was 100%, with all ten questionnaires were returned. We are aware of the fact that the selection of the teacher group was non-random

given that we have already worked with the respondents during other field research.

The objective of the survey carried out in the first group comprised of pupils focused on determining specific learning difficulties and specific errors in learning the Russian Cyrillic alphabet and their analysis.

The survey for the second group consisting of Russian language teachers aimed to determine specific data and basic information on Russian language teachers, their qualification, the subjects they teach, age, sex, pedagogical experience and education achieved; were further interested in the types of classes the respondents teach; the rate of students with learning disabilities and dysgraphia in the classes observed; the form and implementation of collaboration between teachers, the school psychologist, parents and the pedagogical-psychological counselling centre; the ways in which teachers obtained their initial knowledge of the specific learning difficulties, specifically dysgraphia, and whether they considered these sufficient; how they evaluated their own knowledge about learning disabilities, particularly dysgraphia; what forms of professional help they'd welcome from the researcher to help them work with dysgraphic pupils; and whether they were interested in working with the researcher in the future.

Given the limited scope of this chapter, only some data, findings and partial research results will be presented. We plan to present comprehensive research results on dysgraphy as an independent study in the near future.

Concrete results from the *research* "*Research in Russian Language Instruction for pupils with Dysgraphia*" in part of "L*anguage and Communication*"
Item: Diagnostic tools for dysgraphia
Basic tools used in pedagogical diagnostics of dysgraphy as such and related issues include (Jucovičová, Žáčková, 2009; Paramonova, 2006):

- copy – illustrates how pupils have acquired the basic grapheme shapes and their arrangement into individual words, sentences and statements by connecting movements;
- transcription – illustrates how pupils mastered the mutual relationship between the printed and handwritten graphemes;
- dictation – requires pupils to have acquired the mutual connection between phoneme/sound – grapheme/letter. This requires adequately developed auditory and visual perception and dictation thus represents comprehensive student language skills;

- free writing – demonstrates the pupils' ability to express themselves independently in writing; this requires key comprehensive language skills on the grammatical, graphic, lexical and stylistic levels.

For purposes of our survey on the initial phase of teaching the Russian language, only the first set of diagnostic tools was used, i.e., copying, transcription and dictation. Free writing (Ladmanová, 1988), the final tool, was not used in the questionnaires handed out to pupils suffering from dysgraphia and pupils in regular classes because it is suited to the lower intermediate level of Russian language teaching, corresponding to the second year of foreign language teaching within the school system.

Item: Partial objectives of dysgraphia re-education:
As part of Russian language instruction, pupils must master the lower case and capital letters of the Russian Cyrillic alphabet, the so-called graphemes (Fedosova, 2001a; Fedosova 2001b; Fedosova 2001c; Loginova, 2004). There is a dichotomy between reading and writing. Psychological and language-teaching methodology would dictate that it is better to begin with reading and continue with writing. Due to the limited space in this chapter, re-education notions will not be discussed.

Item: Outline of appropriate re-education activities, a chronological sequence aimed at compensating for dysgraphia and an outline of appropriate interventions in Russian language instruction provided to dysgraphic pupils
The re-education process is often focused on remedying deficiencies in independent functions associated with pedagogic practice (Zelinková, 2006). The Russian language teaching and re-education involved aim at mastering writing ability (Loginova, 2004; Paramonova, 2006). That means pupils will be able to produce adequately rapid, legible handwriting, i.e., students will acquire their own handwriting technique at the level necessary. This means that students will:
- achieve adequate levels of fine and gross motor skills as well as the necessary level of graphomotor skills;
- remember the shapes, movements and strokes needed to produce individual graphemes;
- pose fixed, automatic movements, shapes and strokes necessary for writing individual graphemes in mutual relationship. This means they will be able to produce graphemes independently;

- have mastered the necessary level of perceptual cognitive skills, including rhythmic exercises;
- have mastered sensorimotor and motor coordination, i.e., coordination of movements, as in left hand – right hand, left hand – right leg, etc.;
- have mastered and be able to employ proper work habits – proper selection of writing instruments and proper grip, proper relaxed hand position, adequate pressure on the pad, adequate writing fluidity, pace and accuracy and correct sitting posture, along with meeting other ergonomic requirements for work.

Practical examples of re-education activities will once again be left aside in favor of a focus on acquiring a new graphical set, the Cyrillic alphabet, by pupils with dysgraphic difficulties.

5.2 Partial conclusions

Partial conclusions of the research: let us point out in brief the most frequent specific errors which occur during handwriting practice in Cyrillic, which we have arrived at on the basis of a detailed analysis of questionnaires received from Group 1, and outline some recommendations for pedagogical practice.

It must not be forgotten that from the point of view of the succession and progression of writing technique itself, atomization of grapheme recollection must be achieved, along with an ability to identify graphemes as phonemes within a passive and active acquisition framework.

Teachers must also ensure the individual elements are fixed and practiced, first as isolated phenomena and then as a whole once connected (syllables, words, sentences and communications). Based upon a partial evaluation of the survey, gradual acquisition of individual graphemes (letters) is recommended for pupils with dysgraphic difficulties in the following chronological sequence:

1. Pupils suffering from dysgraphia (and not only these pupils) get acquainted with the letters of the Russian handwritten alphabet which are identical with the handwritten Latin alphabet in shape and meaning (e.g., *a, o, e*).
2. Then they proceed to Cyrillic handwritten graphemes totally different from Latin handwritten graphemes (e.g., *ф, щ, ж* etc.).
3. Exceptional attention during practice and fixation must be paid to graphemes which are identical or very similar in shape in both the Latin and Cyrillic alphabets but whose phonemic meaning (Veselý, 1985;

Zatovkaňuk, 1979), i.e., sound realisation, differs (*д, р, с* etc.). An adequate amount of time must be devoted to this group of graphemes both inside and outside of class (as homework) for practise and generally to support pupils in their increased efforts to remember them properly.

4. Continuous attention must be paid to practising those graphemes which are similar in the Cyrillic alphabet and therefore easily interchangeable (in written Russian these include, e.g.*, л – м, ш – ц, т – п* etc.).

A general rule applies to the acquisition of handwriting technique: students must really "write" the graphemes and not "draw" or "paint" them. Special time is necessary for practice and fixation of proper habits to connect individual graphemes/letters into words.

Based upon an analysis of Group 1 questionnaires (pupils diagnosed with dysgraphia and unaffected pupils) we have arrived at the conclusion that specific manifestations of dysgraphic difficulties in the handwritten Cyrillic alphabet acquisition often involve:

- the writing of some small and some capital graphemes of the Cyrillic alphabet and some shapes or portions (individual moves) of graphemes, e.g.,: *Б/б, В/в, И/и, У/у, Х/х, Р/р, С/с; А, Н, Ш, Ч, Щ, Ы, Е*;
- connections made during writing, e.g.: *л, м, я, в* (e.g., *ал, ам, оя, ым, ая, вл, ов*);
- interchanging graphemes while writing, e.g.: *и – й, м, н; ш – щ; ь – ъ; э – е*; the Russian capital handwritten *A* for the Czech capital *A*, or, the Czech capital handwritten *P* for the Russian *П*;
- insufficient acquisition bordering on lack of knowledge of some graphemes. This specifically concerns, with some exceptions, capital handwritten letters, e.g.: *З, П, Р, Ч, Ю, Я*, and the grapheme for the so-called hard sign ъ.

In the initial phase of Russian language instruction pupils gradually acquire phonetic and graphic language tools together with the grapheme image, which leads to conscious differentiation between similar shapes. This must not be rushed under any circumstances (Liškář, 1979; Veselý, 1985; Zatovkaňuk, 1979). Inadequate fixation or improper acquisition of habits may complicate handwriting technique for pupils suffering from dysgraphia continuing through adulthood. Dysgraphia is a specific learning difficulty (Jucovičová, Žáčková, Sovová, 2001; Michalová, 2001) for which it is difficult to provide re-education (Loginova, 2004; Paramonova, 2006) and which may

thus persist into adulthood, when individuals select compensation techniques and strategies to attempt to prevent specific learning difficulties or at least ameliorate them (Jucovičová, Žáčková, 2009; Pokorná, 2010).

Conclusion

Foreign language acquisition has become a prerequisite for successful communication and establishing contacts with the external world. Knowledge of at least one or two foreign languages is a must if people wish to be successful on the job market. The fact that the Czech educational system has a focus on integration and inclusion is neither coincidental nor unexpected. The Czech educational system reacts to current global instructional trends in placing emphasis on inclusive education and autonomy of pupils. It understands education to be a lifelong process, takes into account special educational needs and demands including specific learning difficulties, seeks pupils' overall harmonious development and motivation, promotes multilingualism and foreign language instruction on an effective, individualized basis.

Our chapter has no ambition to present a complex professional view of the issue of specific learning difficulties as they are viewed by the teacher of Russian language. We attempted to conduct research into the issue of specific learning difficulties, trying to describe the lived current reality and to outline some regularities as well as possible suggestions for our future professional work. Our results of two researches will definitely be an inspiration for the further work of the whole expert team engaged in the research programme.

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Acknowledgement

WRITING, EDITING AND PUBLISHING EBOOKS IN UNIVERSITY EFL EDUCATION

József Horváth

Reading and creating blogs and ebooks in university English as a foreign language (EFL) education can contribute to realizing authentic and autonomous roles and behaviors, and ultimately to successful communication (Bloch, 2007; Godwin-Jones, 2003; Leja, 2007). Such an approach is embedded in contemporary technology and it takes account of the experiences and preferences of the students (Mak & Coniam, 2008; Murray, Hourigan & Jeanneau, 2007; Rahhavan, 2006; Veselá, 2010; Wei, 2008). By inviting them to develop discourse that puts them in the center, ebook projects have the additional advantage of widening the reach of their audiences. This paper introduces two ebook development projects I have facilitated at the University of Pécs, Hungary, in the the past two years in a BA-level courses. The courses were Reading and writing skills (RWS) classes in EFL, aiming to improve students' vocabulary, reading and writing skills, as well as their overall literacy skills in the virtual realm. The projects have been meant to enhance these skills by providing an authentic framework for relevant individual and group work as well as to engage in classroom-based research (Dörnyei, 1997).

The theoretical framework

Writing pedagogy constitutes a special domain within the development of skills in the first and additional languages. Besides linguistics and educational studies, applied linguistics deals with the behaviors and views of its participants. When assessing the potential of ebooks in EFL writing pedagogy, it appears useful to provide an overview of the issues, theories and practices of the field, which is what the next section of this paper undertakes.

One factor that sets apart work done in the domain of writing pedagogy is whether the emphasis is laid on the text or on the process of creating it. In this paper, the process orientation approach will be in the focus. The stages of this process, among others, are brainstorming, the mapping of the components of a theme, free writing, drafting, revising, and editing (Bello, 1997). 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, that is, the two approaches do not represent a rivalry. The reason for relying on the former approach in this paper is that in my pedagogical practice, the continual development of skills has proved to be more efficient.

In terms of the participants in two of the phases of this process, revision and editing, besides the traditional roles of the student and the teacher, that of the editor is also a crucial player. An editor is the companion who aims to help in contributing to the fine-tuning of expression. During revision, it is the author who is best suited to decide how the purposes of the writing have been achieved. Editing entails a different set of skills and processes: those that aim to match writerly aims with readerly assumptions, some of which may not be always within the grasp of the writer.

Each of these participants has a stake in the feedback to the writing, too. Traditionally, it has been the teacher whose response to student writing has been considered most relevant, but recent research has pointed out the need for a wider range of feedback options (Hyland, 2002; Cho, Schunn & Charney, 2006; Grabe & Kaplan, 1996; Horváth, 2001; Lee & Schallert, 2008; Rae & Cochrane, 2008), including the ways in which praise and criticism are expressed and applied in the process. In terms of the interaction in the virtual space, such practices will need to be further investigated.

What is this virtual space? It is the space where students actively and willingly communicate with their friends and peers, where they can use

their mother tongue and additional languages, such as EFL. Writing pedagogy may exploit the opportunity presented in the authentic extension of this type of discourse into the sphere of language skills development in general and writing skills development in particular (Stevens, 2007; Stevens et al., 2008). 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 in my RWS classes, following the application of blogs, I started to investigate the values of writing, editing and publishing ebooks (Turney, Robinson).

The pilot ebook project
The pilot project aimed to collect evidence of the usefulness of integrating ebooks in the Spring 2011 RWS course where one option that students had was the creation of blogs (Arena & Jefferson, 2008). Besides that, participants were invited to submit one or two printed portfolios at the end of the semester, a collection of their written work produced during the classes and at home. I then selected scripts from these submissions, compiling an electronic book. After securing the students' permission to do so, I planned to make that content available on Feedbooks.com, a website that provides access to tools of editing and publishing that make the process easy and smooth (see Figure 1). Of the fourteen students who had submitted one or two portfolios, ten gave me permission to edit their scripts and publish them in an anthology, which I made available as a free download. Called *I Can't Be 16 Again,* it features mainly non-fiction stories that I identified as both good-quality writing as well as potentially interesting thematically and stylistically for an international audience (see Figure 2). In this project, my main aim was to see how my feedback and editorial role would enable me to create an ebook based on students' writing. In addition, I was curious whether I was right that such a collection would find its audience. (For other examples of my RWS-related work, see Horváth 2007-2012a, 2007-2012b, and 2009.)
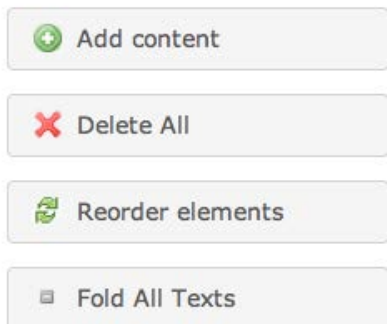
Figure 1: A part of the editing tools of Feedbooks

Already within the first two weeks, over 200 people from five continents downloaded the book. The collection continued to attract considerable attention worldwide: by September 2012, it was downloaded over 1,200 times.

One reason for this attraction is the popularity of mobile devices and the reading enabling software installed on them. (See Figure 3 to see what formats *I Can't Be 16 Again* is available in.)

The writers, publishers and editors of ebooks who employ the services of Feedbooks, Smashwords and other resources can also track reader engagement via a number of tools. These can contribute to a sense of community in a course like the RWS that I taught in that, for example, students can have concrete evidence of when and where they works were accessed by their audience. (See Figures 4 and 5.)
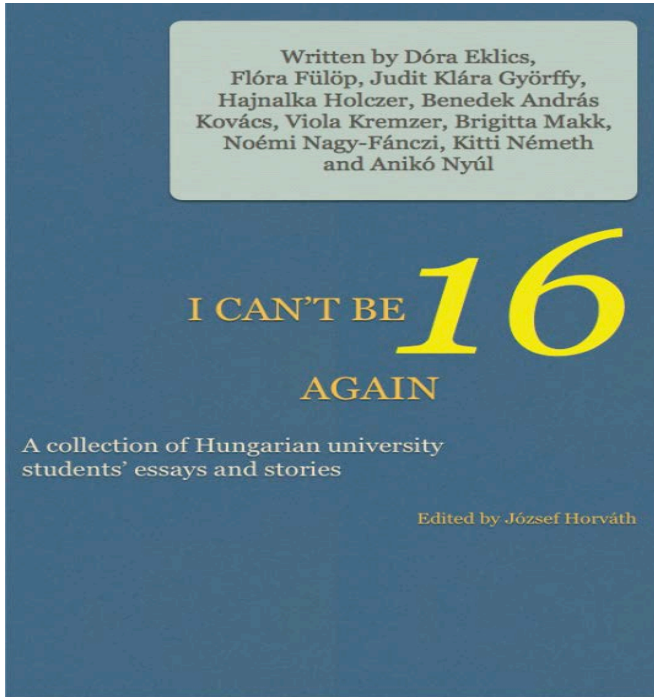
Figure 2: The cover of the ebook in the pilot project, based on the texts written by ten students in the Spring 2011 RWS course. The book can be downloaded at bit.ly/NF7Aw7
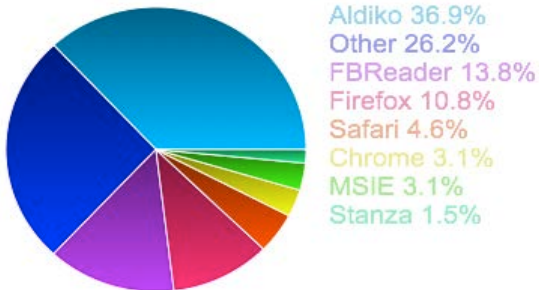
Figure 3: Mobile and desktop file formats for *I Can't Be 16 Again*

Figure 4: Downloads of *I Can't Be 16 Again* in the 30-day period ending September 16, 2012

Figure 5: Geographical view of readers of *I Can't Be 16 Again* in the same period

The second ebook project: Spring 2012

Following up on the success of the pilot project, I started planning my next RWS course taking into account the ebook option as one of the choices, that is, the non-mandatory tasks. I hypothesized that when aiming to develop autonomy in students, we need not assist them too much in reaching their own goals. Obviously, the facilitating role of a tutor is necessary in such a project, too, but after the initial pilot culminating in the anthology of *I Can't Be 16 Again*, I aimed to fully incorporate the ebook potential in the spring semester of 2012. The creation of ebooks this time encouraged participants to develop their publications in pairs. The rationale of the partnership was

that such a setup would allow for an effective pooling of resources. Students were free to decide how much each project was conceived of as a co-authored and co-edited collaborative enterprise. Some decided to write and revise their works, with their partners assuming responsibility or the editorial and publishing part of the job. Others worked out a system that involved both members in all phases of the work equally. My only requirements were, in terms of the process and the product, that each book contain ten texts, which could be a mix of non-fiction and fiction and that these books should observe all publishing criteria of Feedbooks, including copyright matters.

I have pedagogical evidence to support the claim that when students experience an authentic writing, editing and publishing task, which is based on their own free choice, we as teachers can focus on the positive aspects of this process, rather than start a negative discussion of plagiarism. When we encourage originality and help students find their own exposure to their own audience, they will do the right thing (Zergollern-Miletić & Horváth, 2009; Zinsser, 1998) more often than not.

Altogether, eight of the fifteen students in the group decided to create ebooks, a fairly large proportion considering that this was the first such undertaking ever in the EFL program of the university. (See Figures 6 to 9 for the covers of three of the books and a page from one project.)

Figure 6: The cover of the book written by Zoltán Éliás and edited by Réka Nagy. It can be downloaded at bit.ly/SbEvds
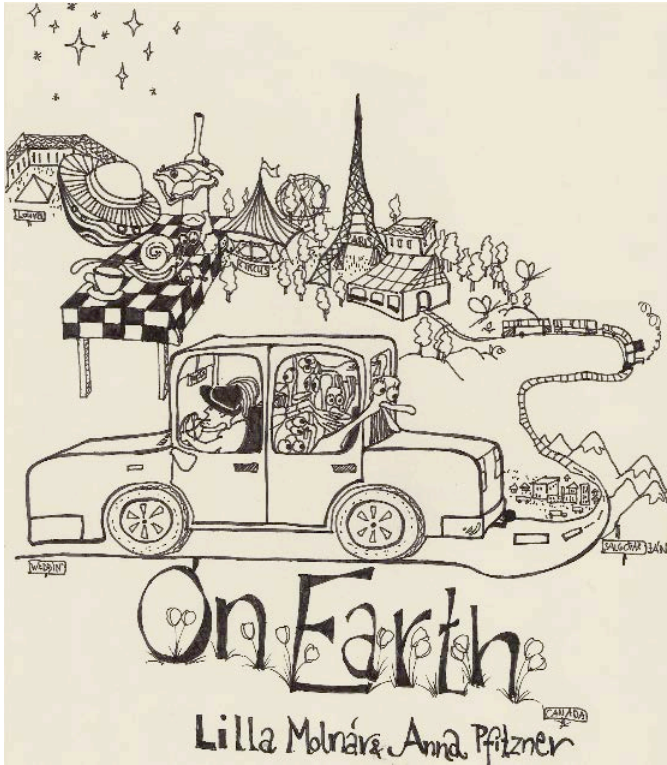
Figure 7: The cover of the book by Lilla Molnár Lilla and Anna Pfitzner. It can be downloaded at bit.ly/RAks8P
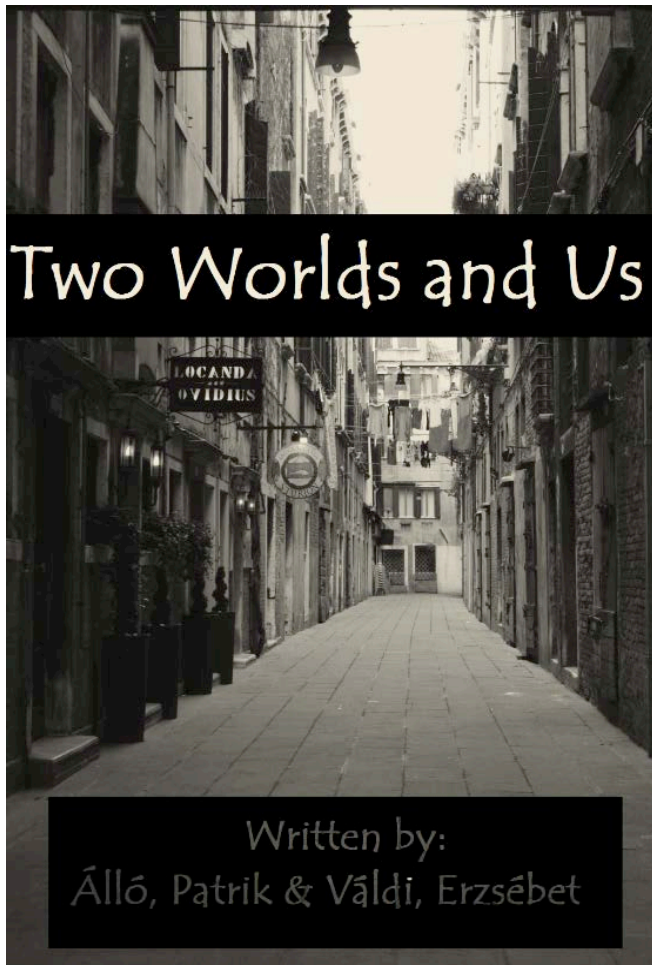
Figure 8: The cover of the book by Patrik Álló and Erzsébet Váldi. It can be downloaded at bit.ly/VhsSjO

Figure 9: An essay from the book written by Melinda Farkas and edited by Balázs Pálfy. It can be downloaded at bit.ly/UipVSg

Conclusion

Participating in authentic projects that go beyond the realm of education has potential in developing written communication skills that are relevant in the world of students (Géczi, 2005, 2006). Such an involvement, as this discussion of these two pioneering projects has aimed to investigate and illustrate, is embedded in the process approach of writing pedagogy that may extend beyond the two courses concerned. As we have seen, readers continue to be interested in students' ideas even when these students disband: when the

course is over. A book, and an ebook is no exception, is more than the sum of its parts: in terms of both its content and its contributors.

What is more, the ten students featured in the first, and the eight in the second project have an insider's view, being published authors, what it may mean to be exposed to an audience, and thus, their long-term views and practice related to reading and writing may also be different from those who have no such experience.

Obviously, more research is necessary in the field - both nationally and internationally. I hope this paper has provided some evidence that such pedagogical innovation may satisfy authentic purposes. It remains to be seen what are the long-term benefits, if any.

Resources

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VÝSLOVNOSŤ AKO ZÁKLADNÝ STAVEBNÝ KAMEŇ PRI NADOBÚDANÍ CUDZOJAZYČNEJ KOMPETENCIE
(*PLAIDOYER ZA ŠIRŠIU INTERGRÁCIU FONETIKY DO CUDZOJAZYČNÉHO VYUČOVANIA*)

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Jazyková pripravenosť obyvateľov je jedným z prioritných zameraní politiky Európskej únie. Koncept cudzojazyčných kompetencií predpokladá, aby každý obyvateľ Európskej únie ovládal dva cudzie jazyky. Vlády jednotlivých krajín únie sú tak nútené reagovať na dané požiadavky zmenou obsahu vzdelávania na všetkých stupňoch a typoch škôl, kde sa výučbe cudzích jazykov venuje čoraz väčší priestor. Zmeny obsahu vzdelávania sú taktiež odozvou na meniace sa spoločenské podmienky v 21. storočí. V súčasnosti dochádza k väčšej medzištátnej mobilite občanov, znásobujú sa multikultúrne kontakty a aktívne používanie minimálne jedného cudzieho jazyka sa stáva prirodzenou podmienkou pri uchádzaní sa o pracovné miesta. Aktívne používanie cudzieho jazyka je tak nevyhnutnosťou a spolu s počítačovou gramotnosťou jednou z podmienok úspešného začlenenia jedinca do spoločnosti. Výučbu cudzích jazykov vnímame tak z aspektu sociálnej integrácie, ako aj z aspektu vlastnej identifikácie, politického pôsobenia, kultúrnej rôznorodosti a interkultúrneho porozumenia. Vo svojej podstate je výučba cudzích jazykov uznávaná ako rozhodujúci faktor v medziľudskej komunikácii a nadväzne aj sociálnej interakcii. Ovládanie cudzích jazykov si vyžaduje nielen dobrú slovnú zásobu, osvojenie si gramatických pravidiel a sémantických zvláštností daného cudzieho jazyka, ale aj adekvátnu, primárnymi používateľmi jazyka akceptovanú výslovnosť.

Práve výslovnosť je pri výučbe cudzieho jazyka najviac zanedbávanou oblasťou, avšak je zároveň prvým kontaktom s primárnym používateľom cudzieho jazyka a z aspektu dôležitosti ju možno chápať ako základ pre rozvoj ďalších rečových zručností v cudzojazyčnej výučbe. Preto by fonetika mala v rámci cudzojazyčného vzdelávania zaujímať prvoradú pozíciu. V rámci bezprostrednej komunikácie v cudzom jazyku často badať, že slová a vety

vyslovené primárnym používateľom cudzieho jazyka znejú akosi inak. Hlásky, hoci ich grafické vyjadrenie je rovnaké ako v našom materinskom jazyku, majú v cudzom inú artikulačnú bázu, vety majú inú melódiu, rytmus je odlišný. Rozdiely medzi materinským a cudzím jazykom sa prejavujú tak v segmentálnej ako aj suprasegmentálnej rovine jazyka. Tieto odlišnosti si v školskom prostredí, kde všetci učiaci sa používajú cudzí jazyk takmer rovnako, v podstate neuvedomujeme. Mnohí učitelia vychádzajú totiž z predpokladu, že špecifiká jazyka učiaci sa počujú a následne ich budú pri hovorení v cudzom jazyku používať automaticky. Skutočnosť je však presne opačná. Ak sa nácviku výslovnosti v cudzom jazyku nevenuje dostatočný priestor, prenášajú učiaci sa fonetický inventár svojho materinského jazyka do cudzojazyčnej výslovnosti, čo sa potom zákonite prejaví ako cudzí prízvuk. Pri priamej komunikácii však primárny používateľ jazyka už pri prvých vetách odhalí cudzí prízvuk, ktorý môže negatívne ovplyvniť celú ďalšiu cudzojazyčnú komunikáciu. U primárneho používateľa cudzieho jazyka môže cudzí prízvuk vyvolať zaužívané stereotypy a predsudky, vzbudiť nedôveru, alebo neochotu v komunikácii pokračovať, alebo viesť k nedorozumeniam založených na chybnej dešifrácii významov (Maroušková 2007, s. 406). Neúspešná komunikácia a nesprávna artikulácia v cudzom jazyku môže následne u učiaceho sa vyvolať reakciu odmietania alebo ostychu daný jazyk používať. Preto je nevyhnutné zmeniť postoj k výslovnosti, k fonetickým cvičeniam na hodinách cudzieho jazyka a prekonať názory, že učiaci sa si správnu výslovnosť osvojí sám v procese nadobúdania jazykovej kompetencie. Považujeme za nevyhnutné pristúpiť k cielenému nácviku správnej artikulácie v cudzom jazyku.

V predkladanom príspevku sa venujeme všeobecnej charakteristike základných fenoménov, ktoré determinujú osvojovanie si zvukovej stránky nemeckého jazyka a hlavným metodickým zásadám i komunikatívnym postupom nácviku a zdokonaľovania nemeckej výslovnosti v slovenskom jazykovom prostredí. Zároveň podávame návrh na typy cvičení, efektívnosť ktorých sme verifikovali pri nácviku nemeckej výslovnosti počas našej pedagogickej praxe.

V hierarchii aktuálnych otázok vyučovania cudzích jazykov sú výsledky fonetického bádania považované často za menej dôležité, ako výsledky gramatického a lexikálneho bádania. Pritom by vyučovanie výslovnosti malo tvoriť jednu z pomerne významných oblastí osvojovania si cudzieho jazyka. Kým gramatiku a slovnú zásobu možno vhodne a primerane „dávkovať",

výslovnosť je všadeprítomná od prvých minút vyučovania v celom rozsahu, v segmentálnej i suprasegmentálnej rovine. Mnohí vyučujúci sa spoliehajú na schopnosť žiakov imitovať cudzojazyčnú výslovnosť na základe sluchovej percepcie. Naše výskumy a bádania potvrdili, že viac ako 20 % jednotlivcov nemá dostatočne citlivý sluchový analyzátor a preto vníma a následne reprodukuje cudzojazyčnú výslovnosť so značnou interferenciou z materinského jazyka. Jednotlivcom s nedostatočne citlivým sluchovým a artikulačným analyzátorom mnohokrát pomôžu popisy výslovnosti, prípadne vizuálna predstava či náčrt o mieste a spôsobe artikulácie jednotlivých foném a prozodém.

V odborných kruhoch sa často diskutuje o slabých výsledkoch vo vyučovaní cudzieho jazyka a o nedostatočnom rozvíjaní bezchybnej komunikácie. Jednou z hlavných príčin je aj stavanie do úzadia vyučovanie výslovnosti a časté podceňovanie a bagatelizovanie výslovnostných chýb. Pritom je empiricky dokázateľné, že dorozumievanie v cudzom jazyku je sťažené a fonetická zrozumiteľnosť minimálna, ak je výslovnosť a intonácia nesprávna. Získané skúsenosti dokazujú, že žiak len ťažko dosiahne svoj komunikačný cieľ, keď má nepresné a neúplné predstavy o výslovnosti cudzieho jazyka. Fonetické zručnosti sa nedostatočne rozvíjajú a komplikované vzťahy medzi hláskoslovím a písmom sa v dostatočnej miere nezohľadňujú. Pritom je zrejmé, že hlásky a grafémy k sebe patria, veľmi úzko spolu súvisia a tvoria materiálnu bázu jazyka. Bezpečné ovládanie oboch komponentov je predpokladom pre vznik a zdokonaľovanie komplexných zručností – počúvania s porozumením, čítania, písania a hovorenia.

Pozorovania a výskumy v cudzojazyčnom vyučovaní dokazujú, že fonetické vedomosti a zručnosti sú solídnou východiskovou bázou pre ďalšie štúdium cudzích jazykov. Správnu výslovnosť sa teda učíme s cieľom zlepšiť komunikáciu v cudzom jazyku. Tvrdenia, že v komunikatívne orientovanom vyučovaní cudzích jazykov nie sú potrebné fonetické vedomosti, sú jednoznačne nesprávne. Už v minulosti (stará petrohradská a neskôr leningradská fonologická škola) neexistovalo cudzojazyčné vyučovanie bez striktného fonetického kurzu v rámci filologických štúdií. Komplexná fonetická a fonologická príprava bola neoddeliteľnou súčasťou štúdia cudzích jazykov. Ale ani dnes by sa nemala podceňovať úloha fonetiky v cudzojazyčnom vyučovaní a nemali by sa zľahčovať špecifiká výslovnostných cvičení. Problematickou oblasťou vo fonetike naďalej zostávajú výstižne a účinne formulované ciele fonetiky ako jednej z najcitlivejších, ale

i najproblematickejších oblastí cudzojazyčného vyučovania. Jadro a ciele fonetického vyučovania, problém korektúry a hodnotenia výslovnostných chýb sú neustálym predmetom diskusií odborníkov v oblasti fonetiky (Slobodová 2004, s. 466). Mnohé problémy pramenia aj z nedostatočnej kvalifikácie učiteľov, deficitu odborných učebníc a pomôcok, nedostatku jazykových laboratórií, nepripravenosti, prípadne nedostatočného rozvoja rečovej kompetencie učiacich sa. Sám vyučujúci musí zvážiť, koľko času bude venovať osvojovaniu si výslovnosti učiacich sa podľa stanovenej cieľovej úrovne ovládania cudzieho jazyka.

Plnohodnotná ústna komunikácia, vzájomné dorozumenia a porozumenie účastníkov komunikácie sa nerealizuje tak ľahko a jednoducho, ako by sa to na prvý pohľad mohlo zdať. Tak napríklad: Často sa stáva, že komunikačný partner rečníkovej výpovedi nerozumie, a to aj vtedy, ak má bohatú slovnú zásobu, zautomatizovaný inventár slovných spojení zaužívaných v tej ktorej komunikatívnej situácii a tvorí gramaticky správne konštrukcie. V takomto prípade je obvykle chyba v jeho nie celkom správnej, presnejšie v nesprávnej alebo nedôslednej výslovnosti segmentálnych a suprasegmentálnych prostriedkov jazyka. Ako jednoduchý príklad môžeme uviesť nemecké slovo *dementsprechend* [∪de:mEntΣprEX↔nt], ktoré zmení svoj význam, ak v ňom komunikant vysloví namiesto dlhého zatvoreného [e:] slovenské dlhé otvorené [é] a ak použije prízvuk na nesprávnom mieste, napr. *[dE∪mEnt∪ΣprEX↔nt].

Pri identifikácii výpovede *Bei denen ist gleich offensichtlich, dass sie sich nicht amüsierten.,* (pri nesprávnej výslovnosti) nie je jasné, či bolo intenciou rečníka upozorniť, že sa zjavne nezabáva bližšie nešpecifikovaný okruh ľudí *(bei denen = u/pri týchto)* alebo ľudia konkrétnej národnosti *(Dänen = Dáni).* Podobne vo výpovedi *Merkwürdig – es waren am Ufer nur hohe Wälle zu sehen. –* je otázne, či na brehu bolo vidieť len vysoké zátarasy *(= der Wall/e Wälle)* alebo vysoké vlny *(= e Welle(n) –* za predpokladu, že rečník natoľko zredukoval koncové „n" v plurále lexémy Welle až bolo akusticky nezachytiteľné. *Er aß ganz gern.* Znamená táto veta, že niekto celkom *(= ganz)* je, alebo že *rád* je *hus (= die Gans).* Vo vete *Die Wälder waren voll von Lärchen. –* nie je pri výlučne akustickej recepcii zrejmé, či boli lesy plné smrekovca *(= die Lärche)* alebo škovránkov *(= die Lerche).* Tento druh homofónie, resp. homografie je v nemeckom jazyku najfrekventovanejší.

Vo vete *Es gibt Leute, die jedes Hindernis umfahren.* je sémantika výpovede bez znalosti širšieho kontextu len ťažko identifikovateľná. Mal rečník na mysli

priebojných ľudí, ktorí každú prekážku zdolajú *(= umfahren)*, alebo naopak takých, ktorí sa každej prekážke vyhnú *(= umfahren)*. Lexém s týmto „negatívnym" potenciálom je v nemeckom jazyku viac ako dosť. Za všetky uvedieme ešte niekoľko príkladov *der Abort (= odpad, záchod) vs. Abort (= potrat); übersetzen (= premiestniť, previezť na druhú stranu) vs. übersetzen (= prekladať texty); modern (= moderný) vs. modern (= hniť, plesnivieť)* (Chebenová/Müglová 2011, 107).

Dobrá a korektná výslovnosť (či si to hovoriaci uvedomuje alebo nie) podmieňuje jeho sebaistotu, rešpekt, uznanie, sociálnu prestíž a možno aj obdiv v spoločnosti. Naopak zlá výslovnosť nielen znižuje informačnú hodnotu prejavu, ale odosielateľa takejto správy v spoločnosti často menej akceptujú, resp. ho podceňujú. Z tejto skutočnosti by mal vychádzať každý učiteľ cudzieho jazyka (v našom prípade nemeckého), pretože výslovnosť učiteľa vo veľkej miere ovplyvňuje výslovnosť učiaceho sa. Pri osvojovaní si cudzieho jazyka spravidla neexistuje bezprostredný, neustály kontakt s cudzím jazykom a ortoepické a ortografické normy sú predmetom vyučovania cudzieho jazyka. Tým sa vytvára odstup od konkrétneho jazykového prostredia (väčšinou učiteľ nie je primárnym používateľom jazyka a cudzí jazyk sprostredkováva cez prizmu svojho materinského jazyka, čím dochádza k odcudzeniu sa od cudzojazyčnej reality). Učiaci sa je odkázaný na učiteľa a na jeho sprostredkovanie výslovnostných a pravopisných pravidiel. Každý učiteľ nemeckého jazyka je zároveň učiteľom fonetiky. Keď má učiteľ dobrú výslovnosť, fundovane a veľmi citlivo koriguje ústny prejav učiacich sa, dáva výstižné inštrukcie, používa adekvátne metódy, má schopnosť empatie, využíva na hodinách metodicky dobre rozpracované učivo, môže postupne dosiahnuť primeraný efekt, nezávisle na vekovej kategórii frekventanta štúdia. A to je adekvátna výslovnosť dosiahnuteľná tak u začiatočníkov, ako aj u pokročilých. Na druhej strane je veľmi dôležité, aby učiteľ zvolené metódy a metodické postupy nácviku výslovnosti varioval podľa veku učiacich sa. S pribúdajúcimi rokmi sa pri nácviku výslovnosti objavujú psychologicky podmienené bariéry. Mnohí majú zábrany odkloniť sa od vytvorených stereotypov v artikulácii. Pociťujú to ako istý zásah do integrity svojich psychických a fyziologických procesov, ktoré sú veľmi úzko spojené s rozvojom osobnosti.

Ďalším závažným javom, na ktorý by nemal zabúdať žiaden učiteľ cudzieho jazyka, je skutočnosť, že učiaci sa nielen imitujú svojich vyučujúcich, ale veľmi kriticky hodnotia výslovnosť každého z nich. Prístupových kanálov

k takémuto porovnávaniu majú dostatok. Najčastejšie sú to audio- a videonahrávky, vysielanie v masmédiách, nespočetné možnosti študijných pobytov v zahraničí, prítomnosť zahraničných lektorov na školách a pod.

Nácviku a zdokonaľovaniu nemeckej výslovnosti v slovenskom jazykovom prostredí výrazne napomáhajú vhodné učebné plány, v ktorých je zakotvený obsah učiva a stanovený cieľ, ale ktoré poskytujú aj kritériá hodnotenia umožňujúce objektívne zhodnotiť dosiahnuté výsledky. Ďalej sú tu nové, moderne koncipované učebnice nemeckého jazyka, v ktorých sa už objavujú početné a dobre rozpracované materiály aj na nácvik výslovnosti.

Učiteľ, ktorý chce predchádzať chybám vo výslovnosti, ale najmä chyby odstraňovať, musí byť odborne erudovaný a musí disponovať aj náležitým časovým rozpätím. Dobrý učiteľ nielen sprostredkováva vedomosti zo svojho odboru, ale práve pri nácviku výslovnosti využíva znalosti aj z ďalších príbuzných disciplín. Mal by neustále hľadať nové, nekonvenčné cesty a učiacich sa vhodne motivovať. Tak isto si musí učiaci sa uvedomiť, že pri nácviku nemeckej výslovnosti učiteľovi nejde o nejaké „kozmetické" úpravy jeho výslovnosti, ale že chybná výslovnosť môže veľmi negatívne ovplyvniť komunikatívnu hodnotu výpovede, dokonca viesť k nepríjemným nedorozumeniam, resp. vyvolať negatívne emócie (Džambová 1997, 22).

Na tomto mieste sa nám žiada ilustrovať niektoré skúsenosti s nácvikom nemeckej výslovnosti v slovenskom jazykovom prostredí:

- Intenzívna a systematická práca pri nácviku a zdokonaľovaní nemeckej výslovnosti už v počiatočnej etape štúdia jazyka prináša adekvátne výsledky. Je jednoduchšie a časovo menej náročné naučiť učiacich sa nové fonetické javy správne artikulovať, ako neskôr už vžité návyky korigovať.
- Senzibilizácia (zvýšená vnímavosť), motivácia a aktivizácia učiacich sa sú tiež veľmi dôležité, pretože súvisia s vnútorným presvedčením a stotožnením učiacich sa s myšlienkou, že sa chcú zlepšiť vo výslovnosti (Häussermann/Piepho 1996, s. 19).
- Nevyhnutný je diferencovaný a individuálny prístup učiteľa k učiacim sa, ktorí majú často rozdielne problémy s jednotlivými fonetickými javmi. Z toho dôvodu uprednostňujú skôr individuálne formy a metódy práce. Napríklad pri nácviku imitácie učiteľ uvedie príklady, ktoré učiaci sa jednotlivo alebo spoločne opakujú, ďalej čítanie nahlas

v malej skupine (spolu, individuálne), pričom k oprave chýb je potrebné pristupovať veľmi citlivo. Za vhodné považujeme aj voľné cvičenia a hry.

- Názornosť pri nácviku nemeckej výslovnosti si vyžaduje integráciu všetkých dostupných prostriedkov, a to nielen verbálnych, ale i neverbálnych: napríklad gestá, mimiku, držanie tela (posturiku). Za dôležitý totiž považujeme aj somatický jazyk (reč tela), predovšetkým v tých neverbálnych prejavoch, ktoré sú interkultúrne rozdielne. Máme tu na mysli napr. diferencie v gestike, mimike, posturike (držaní tela), proxemike (priestorovej vzdialenosti medzi komunikantmi) a pod. Neznalosť týchto faktorov môže tiež spôsobiť komunikačnú bariéru (Fischer 2007, s. 38).
- Výber vhodných fonetických cvičení: každý text a každé cvičenie sa dá prakticky využiť pri nácviku výslovnosti. K tomuto účelu slúžia nielen písomné materiály (kniha, pracovný list), ale aj audio- a videonahrávky, počítačové programy a filmy.
- Nácvik výslovnosti si vyžaduje metodickú rôznorodosť. To znamená, že sa využívajú imitačné cvičenia, ktoré sú nepochybne veľmi dôležité, ale môžu zlyhať hneď na začiatku, keď učiaci sa nesprávne počuje, resp. nie je dosť nadaný, aby počuté javy imitoval. Preto sa využívajú aj iné typy cvičení, napríklad transformačné, doplňovacie, dialogické cvičenia alebo hry, ktoré po celý čas udržiavajú pozornosť a rozvíjajú aktivitu učiacich sa.
- Veľmi vhodné je aj spojenie nácviku fonetických javov s gramatickými a lexikálnymi javmi, pretože nácvik izolovaných výslovnostných javov a analytická práca s nimi nestačí na to, aby učiaci sa vedel tieto javy integrovane používať v rečovej praxi.
- Nácvik uvedomeného počúvania je predpokladom pre správnu výslovnosť. Výsledky počúvania musia byť kontrolovateľné tak pre učiteľa, ako aj pre učiaceho sa. V opačnom prípade sa problémy a ťažkosti nepostrehnú. Kontrolným signálom môže byť napríklad zdvihnutie ruky, zatlieskanie, ukázanie kartičky a podobne.
- Uprednostňuje sa intenzívna práca s prízvukom, rytmom, melódiou a pauzou pred precvičovaním artikulácie jednotlivých hlások. Chyby v intonácii často znehodnocujú výpovednú hodnotu komunikačného aktu.

- Nácvik výslovnosti je efektívnejší a zaujímavejší, ak zaradíme situačné cvičenia. Je potrebné zachovávať tematické súvislosti, zaraďovať vhodné dialógy, prednes básní, reklamných spotov a hrané výstupy, pri ktorých možno do nácviku začleniť aj krajinovedné aspekty.
- V centre pozornosti sú aj cvičenia, v ktorých sa prezentujú rečové floskuly. Využívame typy cvičení, dôležité a účelné pre prax. Pre oživenie možno využiť aj jazykolamy a takzvané „nonsens"-vety, ktoré nemajú konkrétny význam.
- Pravidelné nahrávky učiacich sa pomáhajú nielen systematicky kontrolovať a pozorovať ich výslovnosť, ale súčasne aj korigovať ich chyby.
- Špecifickú úlohu zohráva aj samovzdelávanie v mediotékach alebo doma a následná kontrola so vzorovou výslovnosťou na audio- či videokazetách, prípadne počítačových programoch alebo na internete. Ale efekt prináša iba vtedy, keď je učiaci sa schopný porovnať svoju výslovnosť s výslovnosťou na nahrávke a v prípade jej chybnej realizácie sa opraviť.
- Na tomto mieste chceme akcentovať, že len od učiteľa záleží, do akej miery urobí nácvik výslovnosti zaujímavým. Musí zohľadniť aktuálnu situáciu v pracovnej skupine, stanoviť požiadavky a ciele, ku ktorým chce dospieť.

V rámci metodických zásad a postupov nácviku nemeckej výslovnosti je základným predpokladom osvojenie si foneticko-fonologického systému nemeckého jazyka (až neskôr pracujeme s ostatnými jazykovými rovinami), pretože fonematické interferenčné chyby majú oveľa väčšiu frekvenciu ako chyby gramatické alebo lexikálne (Vaverková, 1980, s. 121).

V ďalšej fáze zaraďujeme modifikáciu cudzojazyčnej percepčnej a artikulačnej bázy, pričom veľkú pozornosť venujeme interferenčným javom. Príčinou interferencie sú nielen nedostatočne rozvinuté schopnosti vnímať percepčné a artikulačné javy nemeckého jazyka, spojené so špecifikami artikulačnej bázy, ale i nedostatočná fixácia (automatizácia) znalosti jeho zvukovej stránky (Adamcová, 1998, s. 145). Percepčná báza materinského jazyka tu pôsobí ako filter alebo šablóna. Často negatívne ovplyvňuje adekvátne počúvanie, resp. ho sťažuje. Pomocou nácviku a trénovania počúvania sa vo vyučovaní nemeckého jazyka formujú návyky a zručnosti – konečným efektom je vytvorenie dynamických stereotypov. Učiaci sa si musia

osvojiť aj isté penzum z teórie artikulácie. V tejto etape nácviku pomôžu ortoepické príručky s popismi fáz artikulácie hlások a vyobrazením polohy artikulačných orgánov v rozhodujúcej fáze artikulácie.

Pri formovaní dynamických stereotypov je nácvik fonematického sluchu veľmi dôležitý a má prioritu pred nácvikom artikulácie, pretože učiaci sa môže primerane reagovať na prejav v nemeckom jazyku iba vtedy, ak je schopný rozoznávať normatívnosť hlások cudzieho jazyka (v našom prípade nemeckého). To znamená, že pri nácviku fonematického sluchu učiaceho sa pôjde o formovanie schopnosti identifikovať a diferencovať zvukové jednotky nemeckého jazyka v rovine segmentálnych a suprasegmentálnych javov. Súčasne je potrebné upozorňovať na dištinktívne zvukové javy nemeckého a slovenského jazyka. Každý, kto sa začína učiť nemecký jazyk, vníma zvukovú stránku nemeckého jazyka cez prizmu slovenského jazyka. Vyvstáva otázka, ako senzibilizovať slovenské ucho na adekvátny príjem výslovnosti nemeckých hlások (hláskovej kombinatoriky atď.). Úlohou učiteľa je zamerať pozornosť učiaceho sa na určité artikulačné javy, ktoré sa musia špecifikovať. Iba na základe takéhoto postupu je učiaci sa schopný rozpoznať a určiť dĺžku samohlásky, resp. znelosť a neznelosť spoluhlásky, identifikovať prízvučnú slabiku, správne označiť melódiu (klesavú alebo stúpavú), diferencovať spisovnú výslovnosť od hovorovej a pod. Zatiaľ čo pri každom ústnom prejave chyby väčšinou počujeme, chyby počúvania zostávajú skryté. Každý učiteľ by mal vedieť, ktoré chyby pri nácviku a zdokonaľovaní nemeckej výslovnosti v slovenskom jazykovom prostredí pramenia z chybného počúvania. Dištinktívne výslovnostné javy nemeckého a slovenského jazyka je potrebné zakomponovať do špeciálnych analytických cvičení počúvania, od počiatočnej až po poslednú etapu štúdia.

Na nácvik počúvania využívame rôzne nahrávky, filmy, rozhlas, počítače a internet. Vhodné sú aj tradičné pomôcky, napríklad knihy, pracovné listy, taktilné pomôcky (dlaň, ukazovák, špička prsta), rôzne predmety, obrázky a v neposlednom rade jazykové laboratóriá. Význam týchto pomôcok si často učitelia neuvedomujú, preto ich optimálne nevyužívajú.

Ďalej zaraďujeme do nácviku výslovnosti produktívne cvičenia, ktoré môžeme využiť dvojakým spôsobom:
Učiaci sa opakujú výslovnosť hlások, slabík, slov, slovných spojení a viet po učiteľovi. Ide tu o čisto imitačný (intuitívny, neuvedomený) drilový spôsob nácviku výslovnosti, ktorý sa uplatňoval už v priamej metóde (aj

behaviorizmus v 50-tych a 60-tych rokoch favorizoval imitačnú metódu). Aplikácia imitačného spôsobu vo výučbe nemeckého jazyka zápasí najmä s faktorom času.

O kognitívnom (analytickom) spôsobe nácviku a zdokonaľovania nemeckej výslovnosti hovoríme vtedy, keď pred cvičeniami zaradíme výklad o postavení a pohybe artikulačných orgánov alebo o osobitostiach prízvuku a intonácie v nemeckom jazyku (Kráľová 2009, s. 195). Nemecké zvukové jednotky môžu učiaci sa imitovať aj po analytickom vysvetlení artikulačných osobitostí.

Ak pri nácviku a upevňovaní artikulačnej bázy nemeckého jazyka vychádzame z fonematickej a intonematickej konfrontácie slovenského a nemeckého jazyka, odhalíme príčiny takzvaných „typických chýb" a nájdeme efektívne prostriedky a metódy nielen na odstránenie príslušných chybných artikulačných a intonačných návykov, ale aj na vybudovanie nových správnych stereotypov (Katreniaková/Bohušová 2002, s. 37).

Nácvik výslovnosti väčšinou usmerňujeme tak, aby si učiaci sa osvojil všetky fonematické zvláštnosti nemeckého jazyka v primeranej miere. Chybná výslovnosť znižuje komunikatívnu hodnotu jazykového prejavu. Práve chybne osvojené výslovnostné javy sa zafixujú na celý život a odstraňujú sa veľmi ťažko. Každý učiteľ by si mal permanentne uvedomovať, že jeho výslovnosť je pre učiaceho sa akýmsi modelom. Učiaci sa má zvyčajne viacerých učiteľov nemeckého jazyka a väčšie rozdiely v ich výslovnosti ho môžu dezorientovať. Poradie nácviku a zdokonaľovania výslovnosti hláskových jednotiek nemeckého jazyka v procese vyučovania určujú nielen lingvistické činitele (dištinktívna funkcia), ale aj psychologické činitele. K nim zaraďujeme:

a) Poradie osvojovania si zvukových jednotiek jazyka: k ľahšie osvojiteľným radíme suprasegmentálne javy, pretože si ich jednoduchšie uvedomujeme. K ťažšie osvojiteľným z psychologického hľadiska radíme segmentálne javy.

b) Špecifikácia ťažko osvojiteľných zvukových jednotiek pri nácviku a zdokonaľovaní si cudzojazyčných javov: niekedy sa stretávame s názorom, že nácvik a osvojenie si zvukových jednotiek nemeckého jazyka, ktoré materinský jazyk nepozná, je najťažšie a ľahšie je osvojiť si také zvukové jednotky, ktoré sa iba málo alebo vôbec neodlišujú od materinského jazyka. V skutočnosti je to naopak. Ťažšie je rozvíjať sluchovú a motorickú citlivosť učiacich sa pri zvukových jednotkách blízkych materinskému jazyku. Tu pôsobí interferencia a iba ťažko sa odstraňuje. Pri nácviku dištinktívnych jednotiek je interferencia menšia.

Súčasný trend vo vyučovaní výslovnosti cudzích jazykov je tzv. TOP-DOWN prístup, teda od javov vyššej úrovne (suprasegmenty - dynamicko-rytmické štruktúry, melódia) k javom nižšej úrovne (segmenty). Z. Oliverius (1970, s. 67) takisto navrhuje zachovať postupnosť od ľahšieho k ťažšiemu: suprasegmenty – segmenty a v rámci segmentálneho podsystému postupnosť: prvky odlišné od materinského jazyka – prvky podobné materinskému jazyku (Kráľová, 2009, s. 198).

Z metodického hľadiska je relevantné, aby predmetom nácviku segmentálnych javov neboli izolované hlásky, ale dištinktívne artikulačné zvukové jednotky. Vieme, že každá fonéma má toľko variantov, koľko je možných spojení s inými fonémami. Ak sa fonéma realizuje správne v jednom spojení, neznamená to, že sa realizuje správne aj v inom spojení. Preto je potrebné nacvičiť hláskové realizácie všetkých existujúcich zoskupení foném nielen v rámci lexikálnych jednotiek, ale i v rámci intonematických skupín.

Znalosť korelácie „fonéma – graféma" je základom pre nácvik dobrej výslovnosti. Uvažovať možno iba o tom, či si má žiak osvojovať vedomosti z danej oblasti praktickou rečovou činnosťou alebo pomocou teoretických poznatkov a fonetickej transkripcie. Mnohí považujú fonetickú transkripciu za nadbytočnú záťaž, iní zasa za nevyhnutný prostriedok na nácvik správnej výslovnosti. Skúsenosti z praxe ukazujú, že osvojenie si fonetickej transkripcie má veľký význam pre zlepšenie nemeckej výslovnosti. To by si mali uvedomiť najmä autori učebníc nemeckého jazyka a pri nových lexikálnych jednotkách by mali uvádzať fonetický prepis, a to najmä pri interferenčných javoch. Učiteľ by mal pracovať s normatívnymi príručkami (*Wörterbuch der deutschen Aussprache, Deutsches Aussprachewörterbuch)* a mal by učiacich sa viesť k tomu, aby si výslovnosť overovali vo vyššie uvedených slovníkoch. Aj na Slovensku sa ujala fonetická transkripcia Medzinárodnej fonetickej spoločnosti (Association Phonétique Internationale – skratka API), ktorú tvoria písmená latinskej abecedy, diakritické znamienka a niektoré písmená gréckej abecedy. Používa sa zjednodušená verzia, ktorá je prispôsobená slovenskému ortografickému systému.

Pomocou fonetickej transkripcie môže učiteľ zmeniť spôsob opravy nesprávnej výslovnosti. Nemusí už stále upozorňovať na chyby a opravovať ich, čo dosť negatívne ovplyvňuje psychiku žiaka a môže viesť až k ignorácii. Učiteľ prepíše fonetickou transkripciou chybne artikulované slová na tabuľu

alebo na fóliu a žiak sa opraví sám. Autokorekcia je totiž veľmi efektívnym prostriedkom pri osvojovaní si správnej výslovnosti.

Fonetické cvičenia na hodinách často absentujú. Jedným z prvých predsudkov voči nim je, že na učiacich sa pôsobia nudne a demotivujúco a z hľadiska hodinovej dotácie určenej pre daný cudzí jazyk sú časovo náročné. V tejto súvislosti uvádzame niekoľko základných zásad ako vyššie spomínaným predsudkov predísť a uľahčiť tak prácu s fonetickými javmi. V prvom rade je nevyhnutné si uvedomiť, že fonetické cvičenia majú byť integrálnou súčasťou vyučovania a logicky nadväzovať na preberané učivo. Ich výhodou je, že môžu byť aplikované v ktorejkoľvek fáze vyučovacieho procesu. Izolácia fonetických cvičení a ich použitie iba na akési vyplnenie „prázdnych miest" vo vyučovaní sú jedným z dôvodov ich odmietania. Fonetické cvičenia by preto mali byť orientované na komunikatívno-funkcionálnu stránku jazyka. Učenie istého fonetického javu by malo byť následné rozdelené na malé, postupné, prehľadné a opakovateľné jednotky, ktoré zachovávajú zásadu postupnosti a primeranosti. Zložitejšie javy by mal učiteľ vysvetľovať a aplikovať až po zvládnutí jednoduchších. Časové rozpätie fonetických cvičení nemá z priebehu vyučovacieho procesu zaberať viac ako 10 minút. Úlohou učiaceho sa pri fonetických cvičeniach nie je iba bezmyšlienkové opakovanie preberaného javu, ale nosnou časťou by sa mal stať rozvoj fonematického sluchu a vlastná kontrola výslovnosti. Tú je možné docieliť aplikáciou nových audiovizuálnych pomôcok vo vyučovacom procese (napr. realizácia a analýza vlastných nahrávok pomocou počítačových programov na analýzu reči) (Rausch/Rausch 1998, 99; Bohušová 2009, s. 25).Okrem vyššie uvedených zásad ponúkajú fonetické cvičenia množstvo variácií na spracovanie artikulačných javov v cudzom jazyku (napr. diskriminačné, identifikačné, aplikované cvičenia, tvorba dialógov, cvičenia na zmenu slovného druhu atď.). Takmer každý cudzojazyčný text alebo cvičenie môže učiteľ správnym využitím metodologických postupov aplikovať aj k výučbe fonetiky. Špecifickú pozíciu majú aj tzv. univerzálne cvičenia (napr. šepkanie, mrmlanie, hovorenie s plnými ústami, jazykolamy, gestá, tlieskanie, klopanie, hranie) (Fischer 2007, s. 34). Aj keď na prvý pohľad môžu tieto formy cvičení vyvolať nedôveru učiacich sa a učitelia sa k nim môžu stavať skepticky, podporujú naučenie adekvátnej výslovnosti. Šepkanie napríklad pomáha správnej technike dýchania, hovorením s plnými ústami naopak docielime správnu pozíciu artikulačných orgánov. Všetky fonetické cvičenia je možné doplniť gestami, tlieskaním či klopaním. Gestá vhodne dopĺňajú preberaný fonetický jav,

napríklad stúpajúcu melódiu v opytovacej vete, alebo dĺžku samohlásky. Tlieskaním a klopkaním zdôrazníme počet slabík, rytmus, alebo prízvučnú slabiku. Ako nové prístupy v aplikácii fonetických cvičení na hodinách cudzieho jazyka označujeme ich spojenie s pohybovými, hudobnými, tanečnými cvičeniami, ktoré majú po prekonaní prvotného ostychu u učiacich sa motivačný charakter a tiež prispievajú k lepšej demonštrácii fonetického javu.

Vyučovanie nemeckej výslovnosti usmerňujeme tak, aby si učiaci sa na začiatku vyučovacieho procesu osvojili pokiaľ možno čo najviac fonetických zvláštností nemčiny, aby nimi nesprávne prednesený jazykový prejav nestrácal na svojej komunikatívnej hodnote.

Cieľom pri zostavovaní fonetických cvičení je motivovať, aktivizovať učiaceho sa a rozvíjať jeho tvorivé myslenie (Dieling/Hirschfeld 2000, 47; Adamcová 1999, s. 24; Spier 2002, s. 7). Akcentujeme najmä systematickú prácu s výslovnostnými javmi, pretože návyky správnej výslovnosti možno formovať iba neustálym precvičovaním a trénovaním. Cvičenia možno opakovať viackrát, aby sme dosiahli žiaduci efekt. Kvalita programu s fonetickými cvičeniami závisí aj od kvantity ponuky cvičení. Podľa typov a zamerania cvičení rozlišujeme niekoľko základných foriem práce. Primárne delíme fonetické cvičenia na cvičenia zamerané na nácvik fonematického sluchu/počúvania a cvičenia na nácvik zručnosti hovorenia resp. adekvátnej výslovnosti. (V prípade fonetických cvičení je zručnosť hovorenia zameraná na opakovanie resp. reprodukciu adekvátnej cudzojazyčnej artikulácie, a nie na priamu komunikáciu v cudzom jazyku). V oboch typoch sa vyskytujú prípravné a aplikované cvičenia.

Cvičenia na nácvik počúvania sa venujú najmä nácviku fonetického a fonologického počúvania. Vznik a rozvoj fonetického a fonologického počúvania je komplikovaným procesom, ktorý nemožno obmedziť iba na identifikovanie jednotlivých vlastností hlások. Vzťahuje sa komplexne tak na prozódiu, redukciu koncoviek, vetný prízvuk ako aj na situačný kontext a z neho vyplývajúce emočné podfarbenie výpovede. Učiaci sa je v týchto cvičeniach cielene orientovaný na isté zvukové a hláskové špecifiká cudzieho jazyka. To, čo pri počúvaní vnímame nie sú iba obsahy a významy výpovedí, slov a viet, ale predovšetkým kontinuálny sled vyslovovaných hlások, ktoré musíme spracovať. Pri nácviku počúvania musí učiaci sa identifikovať jednotlivé hlásky, od ostatných zvukov, segmentovať neprerušovaný prúd slabík a zároveň vnímať javy ako intonácia či rytmus rečového prúdu,

následne zvukovej stránke priradiť adekvátne významové jednotky a tieto jednotky usporiadať do kontextu. Neoddeliteľnou súčasťou cvičení na nácvik počúvania je aj obsahové porozumenie textu, ktoré umožňuje rozširovanie slovnej zásoby. Zámerom týchto cvičení je učiacemu sa zvukovo priblížiť cudzí jazyk, naučiť ho tento jazyk odlíšiť od materinského, identifikovať jeho jednotlivé hlásky a postupne získať „cit" pri jeho osvojovaní. Fonetické cvičenia na nácvik počúvania delíme na **prípravné**, resp. základné a **aplikované**.

Jedným zo základných typov prípravných cvičení na počúvanie sú **úvodné cvičenia**, v nemeckom jazyku označované ako *Eintauchübungen*. Vyskytujú sa na začiatku fonetického nácviku, ktorý sa realizuje v symbióze s nácvikom prízvuku, rytmu a intonácie. Primárny používateľ cudzieho jazyka číta neznámy text, napr. *krátke príklady, verše, básne, piesne, dialógy*. Tieto umožňujú učiacemu sa preniknúť do podstaty problematiky, zároveň upozorňujú na precvičovaný ťažiskový jav a zafixovávajú ho. Cieľom týchto cvičení je, senzibilizovať učiacich sa pre zvuk cudzieho jazyka, pričom vôbec nemusia čítanému textu rozumieť. Tento typ cvičení je prípravou na ďalšiu prácu s daným fonetickým javom.

Ako vhodný príklad uvádzame dialóg zameraný na slovný prízvuk v nemeckom jazyku.

Aufgabe:

Der Dialog ist eine einführende Hörübung zur Wortakzentuierung.

- *Wie heißt der König? Au<u>gust</u>?*
- *Nein, <u>August</u>. Der König heißt <u>August</u>, der Monat aber heißt Au<u>gust</u>.*
- *Dann heißt es: <u>August</u> der Erste.*
- *Ganz recht. <u>August</u> der Erste, aber: der erste Au<u>gust</u>.*
- *August, August, das habe ich nicht gewusst.*

<div align="right">(Stock/Hirschfeld, 1996,9)</div>

Nasledujúcim typom prípravných cvičení sú tzv. **diskriminačné cvičenia**. Ich zámerom je naučiť učiaceho sa rozpoznávať, rozlišovať a identifikovať cudzojazyčné zvuky a hlásky (Džambová 1998, s. 169).

V diskriminačnom cvičení k Ö- und Ü-hláskam si učiaci sa vypočujú 4 slová. Ich úlohou bude v tabuľke vyznačiť, v ktorom stĺpci (1, 2, 3, 4) počuli prvé slovo.

Aufgabe:

An welcher Position (1, 2, 3, 4) hören Sie das erste Wort wieder?

1	**Züge**	Ziege	zöge	Züge
2	**spülen**	spülen	spülen	spielen
3	**er lügt**	er liegt	er lügt	er legt
4	**du süßt**	du siehst	du süßt	du süßt
5	**Türe**	Türe	Tiere	Türe
6	**fühlen**	fühlen	fielen	füllen

	1	2	3	4
1				
2				
3				
4				
5				
6				

Identifikačné **cvičenia** sa zameriavajú na znovu rozpoznanie istého fonetického javu alebo hlásky. Základné typy týchto cvičení sú: *priradenie významu, práca s obrázkami, zapísanie správneho poradia počutých slov* a pod.

Pri zaradení identifikačných cvičení do výučby na hodinách nemeckého jazyka môže vyučujúci vychádzať z predpokladu, že učiaci sa už venovali dostatočnú pozornosť diskriminačným cvičeniam a teraz dokážu vo vypočutých slovách identifikovať určené hlásky. Úlohou učiaceho sa je napríklad vyznačiť v tabuľke, či počuté slovo obsahuje nasledovné hlásky: [X], [x] a [j].

Aufgabe:

Sie hören ein Wort. Markieren Sie bitte, ob es ein [X], [x] oder ein [j] enthält.

	[X]	[x]	[j]
Chirurg	**x**		
(Dach)			
(Köche)			
(wachen)			
(echt)			
(Jena)			
(Licht)			

(Hirschfeld/Reinke 2009, s. 90)

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Iným druhom identifikačných cvičení môže byť ucelený text, ktorý si učiaci sa vypočujú. Následne majú vyznačiť do textu interpunkčné znamienka, bodky, čiarky, otázniky, začiatok vety označiť veľkým písmenom. Na záver dostanú za úlohu určiť vo vetách klesavú, stúpavú alebo nekončiacu - rovnú melódiu.

Aufgabe:

Hören Sie folgenden Text. Tragen Sie dabei die Satzzeichen ein und schreiben Sie die Satzanfänge groß. Bestimmen Sie dann die Melodie an den Satzzeichen (↓ fallend, ↑ steigend, → gleich bleibend).

Johannes Brahms war zu einem Abendessen eingeladen die schönsten Fleischstücke von Rind Schwein und Huhn wurden aufgetragen Brahms speiste mit großem Appetit als Nachtisch servierte ihm die Tochter des Hauses Beethoven Mozart und auch Brahms auf dem Klavier nach dem Vortrag eilte die Mutter auf den Komponisten zu und fragte gespannt großer Meister welches Stück hat Ihnen am besten gefallen ruhig antwortete Brahms das Stück vom Rind

Johannes Brahms war zu einem Abendessen eingeladen.↓ Die schönsten Fleischstücke von Rind,→ Schwein und Huhn wurden aufgetragen.↓ Brahms speiste mit großem Appetit.↓ Als Nachtisch servierte ihm die Tochter des Hauses Beethoven,→ Mozart und auch Brahms auf dem Klavier.↓ Nach dem Vortrag eilte die Mutter auf den Komponisten zu und fragte gespannt:→ „Großer Meister,→ welches Stück hat Ihnen am besten gefallen?"↓ Ruhig antwortete Brahms: „Das Stück vom Rind."↓

(Stock/Hirschfeld, 1996,51)

Po základných cvičeniach nasledujú ***aplikované cvičenia***, ktorých cieľom je použitie preberaných fonetických javov v iných kontextoch. Tieto cvičenia zároveň spájajú fonetickú rovinu jazyka s ortografickou, ako aj lexikálnou a sémantickou rovinou. K aplikovaným fonetickým cvičeniam, ktoré sú zamerané na počúvanie patria aj tzv. ***kontextuálne cvičenia***, ako napr. *písanie diktátu, doplnenie chýbajúcich grafických znakov do textu, počúvanie a opakovanie cudzojazyčných textov, dialógov a piesní*. Kontextuálne cvičenia spájajú fonetické počúvanie s počúvaním zameraným na obsahové pochopenie textu.

Aufgabe:
Hören Sie ein Beispiel für Lückendiktate aus „Die Suche". Ergänzen Sie die fehlenden Buchstaben.
Orthographie „a" oder „ah"?

- *„Ihre F___rk___rten, bitte", s___gt der M___nn.*
- *„Ich h___be keine."*
- *„Moment m___l, das kostet 60 Euro."*
- *„Ich bez___le, ___ber ich h___be eine Fr___ge: W___s kostet eine K___rte für die Str___ßenb___n?"*

(Eismann u.a., 1994, 219)

Ako ďalší typ cvičení na nácvik počúvania uvádzame tie, ktoré spájajú počúvanie s inou činnosťou (napr. pantomíma, kreslenie atď.)

Aufgabe:
Befolgen Sie die Anweisungen des Lehrers sofort während des Hörens pantomimisch.

Reinigen Sie das Gesicht und den Hals mit einer Reinigungscreme, und waschen Sie die Creme mit dem Wasser ab. Trocknen Sie sich ab. Kremen Sie das Gesicht und den Hals mit einer leichten Tagescreme ein. Nehmen Sie dann ein wenig von der Teintcreme, die zu Ihrer Hautfarbe passt, auf Ihre Fingerspitzen und verteilen Sie sie gleichmäßig und dünn auf das Gesicht und den Hals.

Fonetické cvičenia zamerané na nácvik výslovnosti sa orientujú najmä na priblíženie artikulácie v cudzom jazyku. Ich cieľom je postupným opakovaním docieliť výslovnosť, ktorá by sa v najvyššej možnej miere približovala výslovnosti primárnych požívateľov jazyka. Základnou formou tohto druhu fonetických cvičení sú ***jednoduché opakovania***. Učiacim sa sú prehrávané slová, slovné spojenia alebo vety, ktoré majú nahlas opakovať. K takýmto cvičeniam zaraďujeme: *opakovanie, zborové opakovanie, polohlasné synchrónne hovorenie*. Vyšším stupňom opakovacích výslovnostných cvičení sú ***variačné cvičenia***, tzv. *kaschierte Übungen*, v ktorých učiaci sa vety nielen opakujú ale zároveň kultivujú svoju kreativitu. Precvičované javy musia učiaci sa okamžite identifikovať a musia ich aj vedieť v najrozličnejších situáciách použiť. Vhodný príklad je napríklad hra „Bärenjagd", v ktorej sa text nielen opakuje, ale aj obmieňa a hrá.

Aufgabe:
Die Bärenjagd
Wir gehen auf Bärenjagd.
Und haben gar keine Angst.
Denn wir haben Messer.
Und ein Gewehr.
Strophen 1-4
Was ist denn das?
Das ist ja ein See! (Berg, Moor, eine Höhle)
Kann man da rechts rum?
Kann man da links rum?
Kann man da oben drüber?
Kann man da unten drunter?
Man muss mitten durch!
Schluss
Was ist denn das?
Das ist ja ganz warm.
Das ist ja ganz weich.
Und das hat zwei gelbe Augen!
Das ist ja ein Bär!
Hilfe!
(usw. wie am Anfang, aber den Weg schnell zurück)

(Endt/Hirschfeld, 1995,50)

Produktívne výslovnostné cvičenia slúžia na prepojenie fonetického nácviku a lexikálnej, morfologickej, resp. gramatickej roviny jazyka. V týchto cvičeniach učiaci sa nielen opakujú slová a vety podľa predlohy, ale zároveň tvoria aj isté gramatické alebo lexikálne štruktúry.

K týmto cvičeniam môžeme zaradiť napríklad cvičenie na rozlíšenie spoluhlások [k] a [g] a na tvorenie jednoduchých viet so slovami, v ktorých sa dané spoluhlásky objavujú.

Aufgabe:
Differenzierung von [k] und [g]
In dieser Übung geht es um die Differenzierung von [k] und [g]. Lösen Sie die Aufgabe und sprechen Sie die Sätze. Groß oder klein?

Bilden Sie aus den Wortpaaren Sätze.

Vater/Kind → *Der Vater ist groß, das Kind ist klein.*
- *Krähe/Lerche*
- *Flugzeug/Wagen*
- *Park/Garten*
- *Berg/Hügel*
- *Klavier/Geige*

(nach Stock/Hirschfeld, 1996, 117)

Aplikované cvičenia na výslovnosť korešpondujú s primárnym cieľom jazyka, ktorým je rozvoj komunikatívnej kompetencie v cudzom jazyku. Aplikované cvičenia sa zameriavajú na *prednes a hlasné čítanie cudzojazyčného textu*, ako aj na *tvorbu vlastných textov a dialógov v cudzom jazyku*.

Aufgabe:
Hören und lesen Sie folgenden Text. Dann erzählen Sie ihn frei nach.

Ende September begann es zu regnen. „Es regnet, es regnet…"; sangen die Kinder. „Endlich Regen!" freuten sich die Leute, denn es war vorher trocken und heiß gewesen. Und es regnete. Erst einen Tag, dann zehn Tage, dann ein ganzes Jahr, dann zehn Jahre. Die Kinder sangen jetzt längst keine Regenlieder mehr. Und die Erde war nicht nur nass, die Erde konnte man überhaupt nicht mehr sehen. Es gab keine Wege mehr, keine Seen, selbst die höchsten Berge waren verschwunden. Nur die Älteren erinnerten sich noch an die Sonne, und sie erzählten den Kindern Geschichten, wie gelb und warm sie gewesen war. Jetzt wohnten die Menschen auf Hausbooten und das Leben war schwierig. usw.

(Fredrich, 1985, 45)

Existuje mnoho ďalších klasifikácií fonetických cvičení. Možno ich klasifikovať podľa cieľa, resp. zamerania (napr. cvičenia, zamerané na sprostredkovanie, hodnotenie alebo opravovanie artikulačných chýb, alebo cvičenia, zamerané na preverenie fonetických zručností učiacich sa). Na jednotlivé oblasti výslovnosti sa špecializujú artikulačné, intonačné či rytmické cvičenia. Podľa

stupňa jazykových zručností klasifikujeme fonetické cvičenia pre začiatočníkov, mierne pokročilých, pokročilých (Hirschfeld 2009, s. 17).

V závere pripomenieme niektoré základné ukazovatele efektívneho vyučovania zvukovej stránky nemeckého jazyka. Nácvik výslovnostných javov je dlhodobý proces, ktorý sa začína na prvej hodine a mal by pokračovať s nezmenenou intenzitou nielen na ďalších hodinách, ale i v ďalších rokoch štúdia. Už v úvodnej etape štúdia musí učiaci sa nadobudnúť správne základy a návyky výslovnosti, ktoré potom neustále rozvíja a zdokonaľuje. Učitelia by mali pravidelne a systematicky opakovať so žiakmi výslovnostné javy, pretože každá nedôslednosť vo výučbe zvukovej stránky jazyka negatívne ovplyvňuje kvalitu výslovnosti žiakov. Pri častejšie sa vyskytujúcich chybách by sa mali vrátiť k metódam počiatočného nácviku toho ktorého výslovnostného javu. Nácvik správnej výslovnosti okrem iných faktorov pozitívne ovplyvňuje aj zaradenie memorovania textov, ktoré učitelia nie veľmi obľubujú a pri výučbe výslovnosti ho málo využívajú.

Pri aplikácii výslovnostných cvičení je nevyhnutné zohľadňovať viacero faktorov, ktoré ovplyvňujú samotný efekt nácviku zvukovej stránky jazyka. Jedným z najvýznamnejších je vek učiacich sa, ktorý má veľký vplyv na úspech, resp. neúspech fonetického nácviku. Čím sú žiaci starší, tým je ťažšie u nich rozvíjať dobrú výslovnosť. Eliminovať už osvojenú nesprávnu výslovnosť si vyžaduje väčšie úsilie a časovú náročnosť. Druhým výrazným faktorom ovplyvňujúcim naučenie adekvátnej cudzojazyčnej výslovnosti je vplyv materinského jazyka. Preto je nevyhnutné, aby učiteľ poznal odlišnosti cudzieho a rodného jazyka a počas cudzojazyčnej výučby našiel správne metódy, pomocou ktorých je možné minimalizovať interferenciu rodného jazyka.

Najdôležitejším a súčasne najefektívnejším prostriedkom pri nácviku a zdokonaľovaní výslovnosti nemeckého jazyka stále zostáva imitácia cudzojazyčného prostredia a vytvorenie cudzojazyčnej atmosféry na vyučovacích hodinách i v mimo vyučovacom čase. Z pedagogickej praxe väčšina vyučujúcich potvrdí, že pri osvojovaní si cudzieho jazyka je dosiahnutie výslovnostnej úrovne primárneho používateľa cudzieho jazyka u našich učiacich sa zriedkavým javom. Po dlhšom pobyte v cudzojazyčnom prostredí sa ich výslovnosť môže výrazne zlepšiť, ale iba v ojedinelých prípadoch dosiahne úroveň primárneho používateľa jazyka. Napriek tomu nemožno tento cieľ spúšťať zo zreteľa a naše úsilie by malo smerovať

k optimalizácii výslovnosti žiaka/učiaceho sa, aby sa čo najviac priblížila k fonetickej prezentácii nositeľa nemeckého jazyka.

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INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATICE COMPETENCE: FOCUS ON ASSESSMENT (THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS)

Klára Kostková

> *Motto: If it's not tested, it's not taught.*
> *(Michael Byram)*

1 Introduction

To define the construct under discussion in its most general sense, we may present intercultural (communicative) competence as "a complex of abilities needed to perform *effectively* and *appropriately* when interacting with others who are linguistically and culturally different from oneself" (Fantini, 2006, p. 12).

Concerning the linguistic (as well as cultural) difference some questions may arise, (a) about the origin of speakers, i.e. their mother tongue, and (b) about the language of the dialogue which serves as a framework for the usage of intercultural (communicative) competence. Throughout the literature we may find various terms defining more or less similarly perceived constructs, however, the two most widely used are the terms intercultural competence and intercultural communicative competence. Opinions on defining and understanding these terms vary; we believe that it is important to specify our own position concerning the mentioned terms and to emphasize certain discrepancies between them. Some authors perceive the terms synonymously, these definitions mostly originate from the provenience of English language speaking countries, in other words, from the context of English language as a contemporary *lingua franca*[3] (e.g. Jenkins, 2007). Although (foreign) language as such is not usually explicitly discussed in these models, they do not omit the aspect of communication completely (e.g. Deardorff, 2004, 2009; Fantini, 1995 revised 2001 and 2005, 2000). On the contrary, models originating from the

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[3] Some authors also use the term *English as an international language, EIL* (e.g. McKay, 2002).

area of the European Union (etc.) often emphasize the role of foreign language as a prerequisite for intercultural communication (e.g. Byram, 1997; Lázár et al., 2007). It is thus possible and desirable to distinguish between intercultural competence and intercultural communicative competence. According to Byram (1997, pp. 70–71),

> in the first case, individuals have the ability to interact in their own language with people from another country and culture. […] On the other hand, someone with Intercultural Communicative Competence is able to interact with people from another country and culture in a foreign language.

Byram (ibid.) further describes the relationship between intercultural competence and intercultural communicative competence as a degree of complexity and the ability to deal with a wider range of situations of contact in the latter than in the former. Fantini (2009, p. 458) similarly claims:

> Happily, contributors to the present work are obviously comfortable with the term *intercultural (communicative) competence*. This label, in fact, has gained increasing ground, building nicely on a concept already widely used over many years by language educators – *communicative competence*. […] Those who choose to acquire second communicative competence [i.e. foreign] develop intercultural competence.

Although it would be possible to discuss and present an abundance of models of intercultural competence and intercultural communicative competence, for our purpose, i.e. educational context and assessment needs, we decided to accept intercultural communicative competence – the more complex of the two constructs – as an "amalgam" of intercultural competence[4] and communicative competence in a foreign language (or foreign languages).

No matter what terminological label the related terms posses (let us use ICC further on), we agree with Fantini[5] who defined ICC as a construct

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[4]   Intercultural competence may be manifested for instance during communicating with a foreigner in our mother tongue, in our context e.g. communication with a Vietnamese pupil.

[5]   Fantini perceives intercultural competence and intercultural communicative competence interchangeably.

comprising of various components that need to be taken into account to be able to overcome the above mentioned differences.

The core components of ICC include (Fantini, 2000):

- a variety of traits and characteristics – some commonly cited traits of ICC include: flexibility, humor, patience, openness, interest, curiosity, empathy, tolerance for ambiguity, and suspending judgment, among others;
- three areas or domains – ICC involves ability in three areas or domains:
  - the ability to establish and maintain relationships;
  - the ability to communicate with minimal loss or distortion;
  - the ability to collaborate in order to accomplish something of mutual interest or need;
- four dimensions – ICC has four dimensions, these include:
  - knowledge;
  - (positive) attitudes;
  - skills;
  - awareness
- proficiency in the host language – the ability to communicate in a second or foreign language is important to the development of ICC. Grappling with another language challenges how one perceives, conceptualizes, and expresses oneself; and in the process, it opens the possibility of developing alternative communication strategies on someone else's terms. This humbling process often results in transcending and transforming how one understands the world. Lack of a second language – even at a minimal level – constrains one to continue to think about the world and act within it, only in one's native system, and deprives the individual of one of the most valuable aspects of the intercultural experience;
- varying levels of attainment throughout a longitudinal and developmental process – the development of ICC usually involves a longitudinal and on-going process. For this reason, various benchmarks may be helpful to mark one's journey along the way. At World Learning, four levels have been found useful for our context. These are: Level I: Educational Traveller, Level II: Sojourner, Level III: Professional and Level IV: Intercultural/multicultural Specialist.

All the components are closely interrelated and would be worthless in isolation, however, (especially) in the educational context, many aspects need to be taken into consideration, such as the possibility to distinguish inborn personal qualities from characteristics acquired / developed during one's life or the role of family and the role of the educational system. Both distinctions are rather important for intercultural education since they pose a question of which characteristics and abilities can and should be developed through educational influence at schools, and further more, which of them should and can be assessed or tested.

To sum up, only some components of ICC can be evolved through school education and training. Many authors concentrate on the component of language (processes of language teaching and learning) and the fact that ICC comprises of particular dimensions (also above mentioned four dimensions). The quantity and quality of the dimensions in question vary according to an author(s) and also in relation to the discipline of origin (since ICC is a multidisciplinary construct, e.g. Průcha, 2001). The dimensions in particular are perceived as suitable for didactic transformation on an ontodidactic as well as psychodidactic level and so for operationalization, i.e. its development and further assessment. Because of that, we decided to verify the quantity and quality of the dimensions that ICC comprises of. In order to do so, a meta-analysis of 17 models of ICC were carried out (Kostková, 2010) with the aim to find out which dimensions the models consist of, i.e. what is the content of the ICC models under investigation. The results of the meta-analysis are the following ICC dimensions (presented from the highest number of occurrences): attitudes, foreign language communicative competence, skills, awareness and knowledge.

This introduction presents our terminological standpoint concerning the construct of ICC and its content. For the purpose of ICC development (including assessment) within the context of former education as well as on the basis of realized meta-analysis, we define ICC as a construct comprising of 4 dimensions: awareness, attitudes, knowledge and skills, all of these rooted in the context of foreign language communicative competence. In our opinion, these dimensions should be developed (and tested) in learners of foreign languages in the context of former educational system.

Let us first discuss the assessment of ICC on a general level, and then present a specific example of ICC assessment from the context of former education in the Czech Republic.

2 ICC assessment

ICC development is undoubtedly a challenge for teachers of foreign languages, especially the development of all the defined dimensions (in more detail, e.g. Byram, 1997; Fantini, 2001; Kostková, 2011; Průcha, 2001, 2004). This chapter, however, focuses on an even more specialized area which is the assessment of ICC development. Without exaggeration, assessing the ICC development in all the defined dimensions is an even greater challenge, and therefore deserves the attention of teachers, researchers as well as other specialists, e.g. curricular designers.

2.1 Assessing foreign language communicative competence

The fact that language testing incorporates cultural dimension is not new. Such approach towards testing foreign language communicative competence dates back to the beginnings of modern language testing. (19th century[6]). Communicative language testing brought a shift of attention from testing the language structures towards, as Byram (2000, p. 8) claims, testing the speech acts and discourse competence rather than towards testing the sociocultural competence. This approach, however, includes incorrect understanding of original definition of communicative competence by Hymes (1972). Morrow (1979) described this period by a metaphor *the Promised Land* which on one hand labels a shift towards the so called psycholinguistic and sociolinguistic period, on the other hand, it perceives the period of communicative testing as an antiquated one; at the same time we may talk about the post-communicative period (in Poláčková and Píšová, 2011). Post-communicative period of language testing earns increased attention paid to the integration of language and culture (i. e. ICC). Byram (2000, p. 8) points out that the impact of the current economic developments of the world poses new political demands on increasing the standards of education in this field. Not only the need of ICC development, but also its assessment deserves our attention. It cannot be said that we have reached the desired goal in the dimension of assessing foreign language communicative

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[6] Assessment of acquired knowledge about foreign language cultures (so called *background studies*) surely has long-range history too.

competence, however, it can be positively stated that much attention is paid to assessing language in context, i.e. to assessing the contextual dimension of ICC – context for the remaining dimensions.

2.2 Assessing intercultural dimensions of ICC

Based on our own pedagogical practice, it can be assumed that assessing ICC as a complex phenomenon in the reality of schools can be labelled as pioneer efforts of enthusiastic teachers. Causes of such state can be found for instance in curricular documents or in theory:

(a) *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (CEFR), a document of European provenience, reflects the development of ICC since it defines the aims of language teaching in the areas of *general competences* and *communicative language competences[7]* (2001, chapter 5)*.* In relation to the defined aims, it may be surprising that chapter 3 of the same document: *Common Reference Levels* (partly also chapter 9: *Assessment*) elaborates the assessment criteria (criteria for the common reference levels) in the area only on the level of *communicative language competences*. Aims stated in the area of *general competences* (including for instance sociocultural knowledge, intercultural awareness, intercultural skills and know-how) are not covered within the area of assessment in this influential document of European educational policy. In the Czech Republic the situation in the area of ICC assessment elaboration in the curricular documents seems to be similarly dissatisfying (it might not be of interest in this monograph of an international impact, however, detailed analysis of aims in the Czech curricular document can be found e.g. in Kostková, 2011).

(b) A number of sources are devoted to the development of ICC, they mostly are sources of foreign (not Czech) origin and theoretically conceived. It is only an exception that we may come across a practical handbook or concrete ICC assessment instruments suitable for the context of formal education (further in the text we present a selection of such instruments).

The above mentioned leads us back to Byram's quote in the opening, i.e. leads us to the assumption that what is not tested is not taught. Literature talks about the so called backwash effect – reverse influence of assessment, testing included, on processes of teaching and learning. Therefore, we deduce a hypothesis that if ICC assessment is not incorporated into curricular documents (as discussed above), it is not thus tested

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[7] Competence in plural.

by teachers and it is possible to assume that it is not even being taught in an organized manner. Negative backwash effect influences even the processes of learning by pupils since it is possible that in the context of former education they focus their attention to the subject matter which is assessed/ tested by teachers. In other words and in relation to the quality of curricular documents, pupils do not devote their time to studying ICC in all its dimensions. In this context, Dervin (online[8]) supports Byram's quote by a reflection of more aspects included in the process of assessment when he claims that our worlds are engraved with the "soft barbarity" of assessment – a common practice in teaching – because one cannot but assess as learners tend not to pay attention to what is not assessed and therefore demand that good assessment tools are developed. Nowadays, backwash effect is perceived in a wider perspective, e.g. Hughes (2005, p. 53) defines backwash effect as an influence of test on pupils, teachers and moreover on the educational system and society in general. Accepting the need of positive backwash effect on the processes of teaching and learning, it clearly emerges that it is absolutely necessary to devote special attention to ICC assessment in the context of formal education since it directly influences its development and the importance given to it by teachers and pupils.

2.3 Approaches to assessing ICC

Most scholars who have worked on ICC have warned against its assessment, e.g. Byram (1997), Kramsch (1993). Moreover, Tagliante (1994) poses questions about the possibility to achieve the four basic criteria of assessment / testing: reliability, validity, fairness and consistency (in Dervin, online). We partly incline to the concerns about assessing ICC, mainly the need to assess the "invisible" is perceived as a problematic one. Additionally, there are two other problematic aspects: on one hand it is necessary to assess possible development in reaching the intercultural aims, i.e. feedback function of assessment; on the other hand, it is not certain whether the assessment of ICC is possible as such, i.e. possible to be done objectively, but also whether it is moral to assess ICC as a complex phenomenon, for instance the dimension of attitudes. Such thoughts might be one of the causes of insufficiently elaborated ICC assessment in the context of formal education, to be more specific assessment techniques and

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[8] Undated and unpaginated (see link).

instruments. For this reason we view the need to assess ICC development as rather important and from the theoretical and empirical sources available we can choose those we find suitable.

Scarino (2009, p. 70) points out Shephard's influential distinction between *acquisition metaphor* and *participation metaphor*. These metaphors can be connected to assessment paradigms. Within the acquisition metaphor, learning is understood as a process of acquiring factual knowledge that is then abstracted and generalised. This view of learning fits best within the traditional psychometric paradigm, which focuses on testing content through objective procedures. In the psychometric paradigm, student learning is referenced to either the performance of other students (norm-referencing) or a predetermined standard (criterion-referencing). Within *the participation metaphor* which we view as a suitable one for developing and assessing ICC, learning is understood as a process of constructing understanding by interacting with more knowledgeable others in diverse contexts. This view of learning aligns with the qualitative, sociocultural, interpretive paradigm, which provides a contextual and personalised view of assessment. The model of ICC we have accepted as the model of our departure implies a qualitative sociocultural perspective drawing on the interpretive paradigm. In our opinion, it is not appropriate or even possible to compare outcomes of individual learners in all dimensions of ICC with standardized oucomes or outcomes of other members of the study group / class since the assessed qualities are highly individual. Therefore we incline to the *individual progress norm*[9] in which we compare the outcomes of a student to his/her previous outcomes. We focus on individual's progress; Fantini (2000, see above) defines this progress, more precisely the development of ICC, as one of the components of ICC.

2.4 Assessing ICC: theory and practice

Assessing ICC includes various aspects that need to be taken into consideration; all the aspects are clearly summarized in figure 1.

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[9]   As opposed to *social progress norm*.

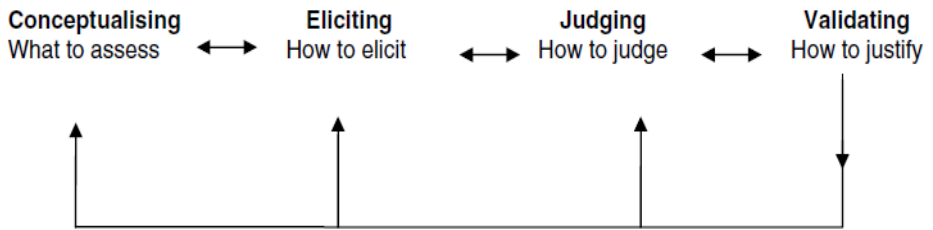| Conceptualising | | Eliciting | | Judging | | Validating |
| What to assess | ⟷ | How to elicit | ⟷ | How to judge | ⟷ | How to justify |

Figure 1: The assessment cycle (Scarino, 2009, s. 70)

The area of conceptualization of ICC was introduced in the Introduction. The defined model of ICC influences the approach towards its development, but also the process of elicitation – that is the nature of the tasks provided to gain evidence on whether the development of ICC and its dimensions is or is not taking place. The conceptualisation of the construct also influences the criteria for judging performance; these in turn influence the construction of the tasks. These four processes, operating in a mutually informing cycle, provide a framework through which to consider conceptual and practical issues in assessing ICC (Scarino, 2009, p. 70).

2.4.1 Conceptualizing ICC: What to assess? & Eliciting: How (and when) to elicit?

This model of ICC comprises of dimensions of awareness (of self and others), attitudes, skills, knowledge and foreign language communicative competence (see above; in more detail about the construct of ICC see e.g. Kostková, 2010). The area of assessing such a complex construct is surely a difficult one. Fantini (2000, p. 31) also claims that assessing ICC development presents various challenges. Whereas most educators and trainers know how to assess knowledge and skill, awareness and attitude are seldom part of traditional assessment. Because the latter are less subject to quantification and documentation, indirect, rather than direct, indicators are usually required. The most difficult is to cover the assessment of all the dimensions of ICC. Dimensions of awareness and attitudes are not included in the curricular documents in the areas of the aims to be assessed and tested (see above). On the other hand, assessing foreign language communicative competence can be labelled as a separate discipline (e.g. Alderson, Clapham, Wall 2001; Bachman, 1990; Hughes, 2005; McNamara, 2000). Assessing the intercultural dimensions of ICC is thus a more problematic and challenging

task. In many cases, we have also been able to witness some incorrect approaches towards the development and assessment of the knowledge dimension (so called *reálie* in the Czech Republic, *background studies* in the United Kingdom, *civilisation* in France or *landeskunde* in Germany). Very often teachers focus on teaching and assessing knowledge about the culture of the target language such as historical and geographical facts. But is such approach to the knowledge dimension sufficient? Byram (2000, p. 9) states:

> Yet it seems on the surface not difficult to assess learners´ acquisition of information, There can be simple tests of facts, but the real difficulty comes in deciding which facts are important. Shall they, for example, learn ´facts´ about social etiquette and politeness in a particular country? But then whose social etiquette, that of the dominant social class, or that of the social class or ethnic group or gender group to which they belong? Shall they learn historical ´facts´, but whose version of history?

From the above example, it is obvious that even a dimension which generally is perceived as the easiest one for the needs of didactic transformation might be difficult to be solved in accordance with precisely formulated aims in ICC development. In this context Byram (2000, pp. 9-10) further emphasises that assessing knowledge is only a small part, what needs to be involved and assessed is the learners' ability to step outside, to make the strange familiar and the familiar strange, and to act on that change of perspective.

Similar thoughts on the importance of developing and assessing individual dimensions of ICC draw our attention to one's performance in which the development of all dimensions of ICC mirrors. The competence itself is abstract, tacit, it means it is not possible to observe it or to assess it directly (compare with Chomsky's distinction between competence and performance). It is logical that we may then connect assessing competence, i.e. unobservable, with indirect assessment, whereas performance, which is observable, can thus be assessed directly. For such indirect assessment, self-assessment seems to be highly suitable, on the other hand direct assessment may be realized by a teacher or with the use of peer-assessment.

It is obvious that approaches to testing individual dimensions of ICC vary. Nonetheless, in our opinion it is important to elaborate the assessment of all the dimensions, i.e. analytical assessment. Concurrently, it is important to assess ICC in its complexity since we perceive this construct as "gestalt",

i.e. more than just a sum of its parts, which implies the use of holistic assessment.

Assessing dimensions of foreign language communicative competence, knowledge and skills that are demonstrated in performance are, as already discussed, easier to capture to collect evidence. Assessing attitudes and awareness is, however, as important. Byram (2000, p. 10) points out that most difficult of all is to assess whether students have changed their attitudes, become more tolerant of difference and the unfamiliar. This is affective and moral development and it can be argued that even if we can assess it, we should not attempt to quantify it, e.g. to quantify awareness of self or others, attitudes or tolerance. Therefore, for the purpose of some dimensions, we accept qualitative assessment ICC over quantitative one, or at least a combined methodology. Qualitative (or combined) assessment is very often connected to informal assessment and, according to Lázár et. al. (2007, p. 32), it is very often about the assessment of process and progress. Informal assessment in the area of ICC development may be perceived as an important one, that being so for several reasons: (a) it has a strong motivational function; (b) quality assessment methods are not developed for the purpose of a former educational system, i.e. for the needs of school practice. The latter might be influenced by the aforementioned absence of ICC assessment directions in the curricular documents.

Scarino (2009, p. 74) points out that the assessment process needs to take into account the dynamic nature of the construct which clearly emphasizes the role of formative assessment. With regard to the motivational role of reaching the stated aims, it is, however, not possible to resign from the summative assessment either. Assessing ICC levels at the beginning, during, and end of a given period of time provides important and useful information to learners as well as teachers (Fantini, 2000; Lázár et al., 2007 etc.). Like a circle we return now to the beginning of our discussion, i.e. to the need to formulate ICC aims that teachers and learners would be familiar with. Moreover, we should ask ourselves, how to assess such aims.

2.4.2 Eliciting: How to elicit?

Decisions about the conceptualization of ICC model have been made, a model which is a subject of our didactic influence, including the process of assessment. The question to answer now is: How to assess ICC

development? A variety of aspects connected to the ICC assessment and their mutual relationships have been considered above; we have included:

- direct and indirect assessment;
- assessment of performance and competence;
- assessment of the observable and unobservable, i. e. tacit;
- analytical and holistic assessment;
- qualitative and quantitative assessment, alternatively combined;
- summative and formative assessment;
- formal and informal assessment;
- self-assessment, peer-assessment, assessment by a teacher, and standardized assessment by an external authority;
- commercial and non-commercial assessment[10].

All these aspects of assessment (and many others) are needed to be taken into consideration while planning and implementing ICC assessment. They are an integral part of the decision-making about what to assess, i.e. conceptualization, but also of decisions about the method of assessment and its timing.

We shall now focus our attention to concrete instruments and techniques of ICC assessment. Firstly, we introduce the selection of techniques and instruments available; secondly, we present selected ones in more detail.

Hughes (2000, p. 75) defines assessment techniques as a way how to encourage candidates' behaviour that will be informative about their abilities. The necessary techniques require that they:

- elicit behaviour which serves as a reliable and valid indicator of abilities under investigation;
- elicit behaviour which may be assessed in accordance with the reliability principles;
- are not time demanding, nor need big effort investments;
- will provide positive backwash effect, if relevant.

An overview of the techniques suitable for testing foreign language communicative competence is not difficult to find, yet it only covers one of the ICC components. Techniques that would cover ICC as a whole differ,

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[10] Role of commercial and non-commercial assessment is not discussed in detail since it is not usually being used in the context of formal education. Commercial assessment tools might be labelled as relatively well prepared, however, they mostly aim to assess ICC for the purpose of e.g. business communication.

especially in their scope, e.g. what dimension(s) is the technique suitable for? While choosing the suitable technique, it is necessary to consider a wide range of variables which might influence the suitability of the chosen technique, e.g. age of respondents, time, and further usage of the gained results. The level of ICC development might be difficult to record by a numerical value or percentage, qualitative techniques seem to be more suitable, moreover, they often are based on a subjective, i.e. impressionistic assessment. Let us present only an overview of the most widely discussed techniques (e.g. Fantini, 2009; Feng et al., 2009; Lázár, 2003) without an aspiration to present an exhaustive list, including their structuring or evaluation:

- questionnaire (including self-assessment, mutual assessment, assessment by a teacher);
- presentation (e.g. poster presentation, cultural collages);
- group discussion / interaction, debate, dialogue, interview;
- role-play, critical incident;
- (written) structured and unstructured reflection (e.g. reflective diary);
- evaluation, essay, critical review of a book / short story (poem / movie etc.);
- open and closed questions;
- objective quantitative techniques, e.g. multiple choice, true/false, matching, cloze test, gap fill.

It is obvious that techniques suitable for ICC assessment correspond to the techniques of ICC development in many aspects. We have already labelled the ICC as a phenomenon of a dynamic character; moreover, within the interpretative paradigm we inclined to the sociocultural orientation of processes of teaching and learning as well as assessment. According to Scarino (2009, p. 75) it implies that even assessment is a dynamic process, influenced by students' interactions within the environment supporting learning. Processes of teaching and learning and processes of assessment are not separated, but mutually integrated.

Instruments assessing ICC development which use various techniques (discussed above) are usually focused on the area of interculturality, i.e. they are not transferred from other disciplines. These instruments are usable for continuous as well as one-time assessment. According to Fantini (2009, pp. 462-263) they might include the following (we present only the relevant ones for an education context in need):

- diagnostic tests – used to determine which areas of competence are strong as well as which may require further training or strengthening,
- preparedness tests – inform about individuals' preparedness for intercultural experience, etc.;
- aptitude tests – used to ascertain one's potential for learning a specific set of skills or knowledge; these tests are commonly used in advance of language training but may apply to cultural areas as well.

The disadvantage of ICC assessment instruments often is their incompatibility for the use of classical classroom. This incompatibility may be caused by a variety of reasons, such as: instruments often are of foreign origin which means a high level of foreign language communicative competence are used in the instruments; a prerequisite of intercultural experience; demanding administration; time demanding administration and completion; the financial aspect connected to the commercial instruments etc. On the other hand, the advantage of such instruments is their attempt to cover the ICC construct in its complex manner. Scarino (2009, p. 73) poses a question whether ICC dimensions can be assessed in an integrated or separate manner. Byram (1997, p. 88), who treats ICC assessment with highest care, reacts by a reference to the shift from the psychometric paradigm to the interpretative one. This hope, that processes of teaching / learning and assessment may be perceived holistically, lead to re-evaluating the role of assessment. Byram (1997, s. 88) views model of ICC as a holistic one, its analytical components are used only to understand what is the nature of this one complex competence.

The ability to assess ICC in its complex manner is the basic criterion for including the relevant instruments into our overview. Further more, we choose such instruments that might be used in the educational area; we omit instruments assessing e.g. preparedness of individuals to succeed in an international business. Here again, we do not aspire to present an exhaustive list. Basic information, author/s, source and aim are presented[11].

- *Behavioral Assessment Scale for Intercultural Competence (BASIC):*
  - Koester and Olebe (1998);
  - the instrument focuses on the assessment of one´s actions/ behaviour towards members of other cultures in seven dimensions.
- *Intercultural Sensitivity Inventory (ISCI):*

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[11] Detailed information may be found in the sources presented in the list of literature.

- Bhawuk and Brislin (1992);
  - the instrument assesses individuals' abilities to interact and modify their behaviour in cross-cultural situations.
- *The Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI):*
  - Hammer (2009);
  - the instrument is based on Bennet's *Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS)*, which was used to assess the ICC of high school students etc.;
  - it is a commercial instrument, users are to attend a specialized seminar, therefore, we only draw from a secondary source.
- *The Cross-Cultural Adaptability Inventory (CCAI:)*
  - CCAO scales were developed by Kelly and Meyers in the early 1990's mainly for the purpose of assessing one's potential for cultural adaptability. They have, however, been used in various contexts, what we perceive as interesting is the assessment of influence that experiential teaching has on cultural adaptability (Goldstein and Smith, 1999).
- *Intercultural Competence Questionnaire:*
  - online, undated;
  - the instrument focuses on ICC self-assessment, ICC is described as a global literacy.
- *European Language Portfolio:*
  - online (2001);
  - the instrument is focused on assessment of achieved reference levels of foreign language communicative competence[12], at the same time it includes intercultural aspects of language usage and acquisition.
- *The Assessment of Intercultural Competence (AIC):*
  - Fantini (2000);
  - the instrument is in the format of a questionnaire: *Your Objectives, Guidelines and Assessment (YOGA Form)*; instruments serves for self-assessment in specific areas including dimensions of ICC. Especially for this reason we perceive the instrument as a suitable one for our research inquiry into the assessing of the

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[12]   Draws on the reference levels defined in CEFR.

ICC development in defined dimensions of ICC in our students (elaborated in detail in chapter 2).

Many more instruments for assessing various aspects of ICC exist, mainly those based on direct assessment in the form of students' performance observations. Portfolio is also used quite often to collect evidence about ICC development (e.g. Brebera, Černá, Kostková, 2007; Byram, 1997, 2000; Jacobson et al., 1999; Kostková, 2011; Pruegger, Rogers, 1994), its main advantage is the possibility to collect above mentioned techniques and instruments all together and high level of individualization.

2.4.3 Validating: How to justify?

The quality of tests is judged on the basis of its characteristics, mainly validity and reliability (in more detail see e.g. Alderson, Clapham, Wall, 2001; Hughes, 2005; CEFR, 2000), however, the tension between the two cannot be forgotten. This is even more true for tests that aim to assess constructs such as ICC. Lázár (2003, p. 76) presents one of the means of how to ensure a reliability of ICC tests which is to include as many techniques and instruments as possible. These should be continuously distributed and collected in a portfolio, rather than presented at the end of a given period of time, e.g. a school year or semester. Concerning validity, face validity and content validity should be emphasized since because of them students perceive ICC assessment as a meaningful one, i.e. as assessment of such qualities that are to be used in real life. In our case we base the assessment of ICC on self-assessment mainly; then we need to be aware of Ruben's doubts that the validity of data of this type rests fundamentally on the presumption that respondents (in e.g. a questionnaire) have the desire and ability to engage in valid self-assessment (in Dervin, online).

Self-assessment, although perceived as a highly suitable one, brings along a number of problematic aspects concerning mainly its reliability. Some authors (e.g. Atshuler et al., 2003) point out the discrepancy between students' self-perception of their intercultural abilities and their real abilities. Others emphasize possible self-stylization of students, Lundgren (2009, p. 146) claims that especially with intelligent students it is impossible to fail to notice that they are well aware of where the assessment is heading and are thus able to fulfil our expectations and impress us. Nevertheless, ICC assessment, including self-assessment, should comprise an inseparable part of ICC development.

Conclusion

Assessment of ICC would deserve further discussion, especially with the attention paid to the distinction between observable and unobservable components. We incline to the opinion that competence, ICC included, is tacit, thus cannot be observed directly, however, it can be seen through observing how one performs. In other words, competence and performance are closely interrelated, the former being abstract, the latter observable - which also means assessable. Assessment of ICC development is generally considered a problematic part, especially because of the need to assess the unobservable. Moreover, the "coin of assessment" has two sides; on one hand, there is without a question a need to assess possible success in reaching the intercultural aims, but on the other hand, do we – teachers – have the moral right to assess such components of human personality such as attitudes? That might be the reason why the sparsely available instruments are often based on self-assessment; examples of such being e.g. portfolio or an evaluative instrument of American provenience *YOGA Form* (*Your Objectives, Guidelines, and Assessment*) – the latter used in the research inquiry introduced in a chapter of this book called *INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATICE COMPETENCE: FOCUS ON ASSESSMENT 2 (RESEARCH)*.

To sum up, we are aware of the fact that assessing the reached level of ICC is a challenge of practising teachers as well as researchers, especially the need to assess ICC in it complex nature. We also hear voices about the right to assess the ICC of our learners since some of its dimensions may be deeply rooted e.g. in a family education. Such concerns are legitimate; however, we hold an opinion that ICC assessment (even if highly individualized) should have its place in the processes of its development – especially in connection to the backwash effect.

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CLIL METHODOLOGY THROUGH PROJECT WORK WITHIN THE ENVIRONMENT OF ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES

Elena Kováčiková

Learning languages and other subjects in an isolated way is not very effective. If it is so, the learners are not able to use gained knowledge in cross-curricular relations. CLIL creates a fusion between the content and language, subjects and challenges independent and cooperative learning, creates the base for long-life development. Interdisciplinary education can increase student motivation for learning as well as the level of their engagement. As opposed to isolated learning, students within the cross-curricular project are able to see a practical use of what they have been learning (Houghton Mifflin, 1997).The language and content are mutually connected, dependant and inseparable. The CLIL potential is to use a language as an instrument naturally. It can be realized in various ways and situations, has a lot of advantages concerning the quality of learning as it increases opportunities for communication, increases gained knowledge from other subjects, supports inter-disciplinarity, prepares students for long-life learning and strengthens the learner´s autonomy and decision making in learning. (Pokrivčáková et al., 2008).

Content and Language Integrated Learning is a dual-focussed educational approach in which an additional language is used for the learning and teaching of both content and language. It can be viewed as one example of curricular integration. CLIL as an educational approach was developed in Europe and is, therefore, very strongly European–oriented. It is based on the assumption that foreign languages are best learnt by focusing in the classroom not so much on language but on the content which is transmitted (Marsh, 2007). CLIL methodology has been put into practice in all levels of education.

This paper deals with the environment of English for specific purposes (ESP) at universities. Firstly, the term CLIL is explained, with its types, in the countries where it is used. Secondly, the relationship between ESP and CLIL is defined, and then the author deals with the project work as

one of the methods within CLIL methodology as well as its use in language teaching and learning. Eventually, the part of the paper summarizes the recent surveys dealing with CLIL, project work and ESP. The final part focuses on the personal experience of the author from the observation of ESP classes using project work from Holland universities in particular as a preparatory phase of research carried out on ESP at the Slovak University of Agriculture in Nitra, Slovakia. Thus, the paper serves as an overview of CLIL implementation through project work in the English classes set in the specific context and environment of the non-philological universities over Europe.

Types of CLIL

As Pokrivčáková (2008) states, in the majority of European countries, pre-school institutions and elementary schools implemented the *immersion CLIL* programme. The first language of education is the mother tongue, while a foreign language is used only in some lessons, for teaching some topics or some subjects.

Johnson and Swain (1997) define immersion programmes as follows:

- A foreign language is a medium of instruction.

- The immersion curriculum parallels the local mother language curriculum.

- Overt support exists for the mother language.

- The program aims for additive bilingualism.

- Exposure to the foreign language is largely confined to the classroom.

- Students enter the programme with similar (and limited) levels of the foreign language proficiency.

- The teachers are bilingual.

- The classroom culture is that of the local mother language community.

Subtractive CLIL program is a program in which a foreign language is used at the expense of the mother tongue. It does not pay attention to the national cultural values; however, they are not suppressed. An example is a course for immigrants with the aim to adapt very quickly. (Pokrivčáková, 2008). In our paper under the term CLIL implementation the type of *immersion CLIL* is meant. CLIL has found its place in European education

very quickly. Before 1980 there were a few countries which had integrated the content and language education and it happened mainly in prestigious schools, today CLIL methodology is known throughout the whole of Europe. The Eurydice Report (2006) provides a detailed overview of the countries and target languages. Marsh (2007) claims that CLIL methodology is applicable within all educational levels: elementary, secondary, and tertiary.

The main reason for introducing CLIL methodology into the school practice in Europe is the practical need of essential development of language education and competence in the field of languages on the one hand, and the limited sources for the foreign language education, on the other (time limits, human sources, financial).

According to Pokrivčáková et al. (2008, pp. 8-10) the most successful countries with the CLIL application are Holland and Finland. As for Bulgaria the authors think that their way could be inspiring for Slovakia as well. Regarding the fact that we share a similar political background and our implementation of language education started later than in other European countries. In Bulgaria CLIL has been implemented in 125 schools at the common elementary schools. After reaching the B1/B2 level, students can choose at least 3 subjects taught by CLIL such as history, biology, geography, chemistry, physics, mathematics or philosophy. The main problem is considered to be the lack of professional teachers who would be competent enough to teach in CLIL. The same problem seems to be encountered in our country.

In Hankova's paper (2007) we can find information on CLIL in the Czech Republic. The "National Plan of Language Education" from 2006 considers CLIL as one of the ways of how to make education more effective in the Czech Republic. The CLIL has been implemented so far in elementary schools; there are few examples in the secondary level. Again, the problem is the lack of competent teachers. However, in that very paper, the author introduces the project on improvement of teachers and enhancing methodological knowledge of qualified teachers. This could help to face as well as solve the mentioned problem. The output of the project should be the methodological handbook for teachers which could be very helpful in their teaching career.

2 CLIL and ESP

This chapter focuses especially on the relation of CLIL with teaching ESP, in terms of principles, attitudes and approaches. According to Pokrivčáková et al. (2008, p. 7), CLIL does not represent "*a revolutionary change"* in education as it actively flows from the way of schooling in some European bordering regions. She also states that it is derived from methodologies such as ESP as one of the most widely spread methodologies of bilingual education. The term CLIL has been used since the nineties years of the 20th century, however, the integrated teaching of a language and a subject (as a methodology of bilingual education) was realized earlier. Each country has its own terminology concerning integrated learning, as for example *cross-curricular language learning, content-based learning* or *dual education*.

Recent research on CLIL clearly establishes its relationship with ESP. Greere and Räsänen in a report on a LANQUA Subproject on Content and Language Integrated Learning (2008) states that "CLIL should be seen as a continuum of various pedagogical approaches which aim to facilitate learning" (ibid, p. 5); they define this continuum as consisting of 6 steps:

1. Non-CLIL: Non-concern for language learning, no pedagogical collaboration;

2. Discipline-based language teaching: language specialists providing discipline specific language teaching to support learning, no systematic collaboration with subject specialists;

3. Pre-CLIL (language): pre-session teaching of language to support the student's learning of the content, collaboration with the language-subject teacher, and language learning outcomes specified according to content learning needs;

4. Pre-CLIL (content): language learning expected due to exposure, but outcomes not specified, implicit aims and criteria, rare collaboration of subject specialist with language teacher;

5. Adjunct-CLIL: language support coordinated with/ integrated in subject studies, which takes place simultaneously, with joint planning between teachers and specified outcomes for both content and language; and

6. CLIL: fully dual approach and full integration of language across subject teaching by subject specialist or team teaching.

It is obvious that CLIL is a methodology concerning all the languages, not English only and ESP is closely related to English language teaching. It can be understood as a more specific category of language teaching and learning. In our work above the shift from teaching to learning in CLIL has been explained. CLIL and teaching ESP have common objectives, beliefs, principles and approaches. The aim of both is to work on communicative competence of learners and by using the proper means, methods and techniques it is surely to happen even in the more specific contexts. As for the oversimplification of the language in CLIL, as it is criticised by some of the teachers, we must add that ESP does not work with advanced learners only. Simplification of the scientific language is necessary in A2 and B1 levels (according to CEFR) as well and it does not mean that the content of the subject is "poorer". It has been mentioned that ESP prepares students for the real world by developing their language skills with learning how to write reports, presentations or proposals; that is not what would be in contrast with CLIL methodology.

On the contrary, teaching methods motivating the students to use the language in the given context are highly recommended by CLIL methodology. Case studies, Power Point Presentations, role plays, projects, etc. are widely used in the classes. They also support the learner's autonomy. It is necessary to say that further trends in learning languages suggest the growing tendency is to form an autonomous learner from the learner. As Holúbeková (2004) states, it is necessary to realize that only a small percentage of the learners are autonomous. Therefore, the role of the teacher is also to help to the students on their way to autonomy, i.e. the focus is put on *how* to learn rather than *what*. And these principles are common for ESP as well as CLIL.

Garrido and Fortanet-Goméz (2009, p. 179) characterize the relation between ESP and CLIL as follows:

> ´However, the relationship between ESP and CLIL is not something
> new, since already in 1997 well-known literature supported the link
> between ESP (or EAP, English for Academic Purposes) and CBI
> (Content-based Instruction), for many a predecessor (Soetaert and
> Bonamie, 2008), or a synonym of CLIL (Dalton-Puffer and Smit, 2007):
> English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and advanced disciplinary English
> for Academic Purposes (EAP) contexts provide additional support for
> advanced level CBI (Content Based Instruction) programs (Grabe and

Stoller, 1997). Some other studies have also pointed out the link between ESP and CLIL (Mahbudi, 2000; Huan and Normandia, 2007; Fortanet-Gómez and Raisänen, 2008). There are researchers who even state that "content and language integrated learning (CLIL) has greatly influenced the teaching of ESP as it incorporates meaningful authentic language processing".

It is seen that many researches and scientists admit the relationship between CLIL and teaching ESP even though, no one claims that one has developed from the other. There are some principles which are common for both and make them overlap in a way. According to Jendrych and Wisniewska (2010) from Kozminski University in Poland, one of the main assumptions of teaching ESP is that teaching materials should enable learners to acquire the variety of language and skills they will need in typical situations they meet in their professional life. There are specific vocabulary and language situations which are likely to occur and therefore ESP teachers integrate content with language teaching. They find themselves teaching not only the language skills but also professional skills. That is why teaching ESP is considered to be CLIL.

CLIL potentialities have been summarized as four essential principles: content, communication, cognition, and culture. Their combination makes CLIL a very powerful tool to learn languages and subjects, proposed by European authorities as one of the best strategies to encourage languages learning. The interconnection between all these elements demands a focus on methodology, on how subjects are taught and learnt through a foreign language. In this perspective the development of the cognitive dimension in language learning is the real challenge of CLIL. (Coyle, 2002)

3 CLIL and Project work

The previous chapters have proved that CLIL methodology offers opportunities on how to learn things from many sources, prepare for real life tasks, encouraging the learners to be adaptable to the life situations. Regarding the educational process it supports work in groups and teams, joins several learning styles, and uses authentic materials with the aim to prepare learners for a lifelong learning process. It has also been mentioned, that modern trends in education lead to the approaches aiming to gain knowledge more effectively, teaching students how to use it in real situations and become more autonomous in learning even beyond the school

walls. Project work can be one of the possible ways of applying CLIL principles in ESP classes.
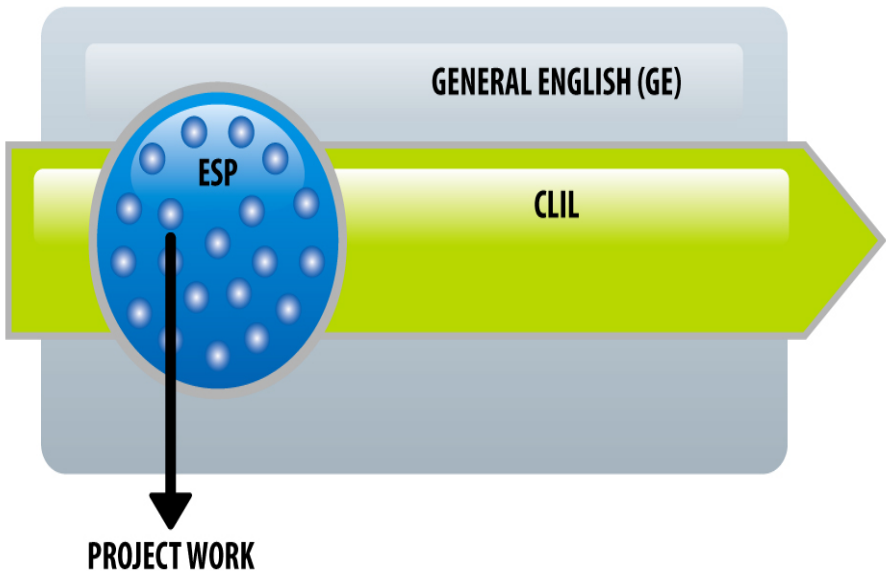
Picture 1 Applying CLIL in ESP classes through projects

4 Project work in language classes

The Project can be understood as a teaching method, form or teaching strategy. The roots of this term traced back to the beginning of 20th century, in the times when some new innovative methods are introduced in the teaching and learning process with the aim to change the traditional way where a teacher is the only active element most of the time and students passively acquire the given knowledge with the further phases of memorizing, drilling and reproducing. The Project as a result of a learner-centred approach is a result of the learner´s active participation in the learning process with the aim to learn, "construct" and present it to the world.

Regardless the project definition, there are three main features which should be followed:

- the learner´s responsibility for self- learning;
- the learner´s autonomy in gaining knowledge;
- the learner´s effort put in goal achievement (product=project).

As previously mentioned, project work has its basis in the principles of content-based learning within which the activities of the language classes are specific to the subject matter being taught, and are geared to stimulate students to think and learn through the use of the foreign language. Interest in project work and its integration into language classes stem from the work of Fired-Booth (1982, 1986), Legutke and Thiel (1983), and Haines (1989). Such an approach according to Stoller (1997) leads quite naturally to the integrated teaching of the four language skills. It employs authentic reading materials which require students to not only understand information but to interpret and evaluate it as well. It provides a forum in which students can respond orally to reading and lecture materials. It recognizes that writing follows form listening and reading, and thus requires students to synthesize facts and ideas from multiple sources as preparation for writing. In this approach, students are exposed to study skills and develop a variety of language skills which prepare them for the range of academic tasks they will encounter.

Shepard (1995) claims that project work is particularly effective in ESP settings because it easily lends itself to:

- authentic language use;

- a focus on language at the discourse rather than the sentence level;

- authentic tasks;

- learner centeredness.

These are all characteristics of not only ESP but also CLIL context. Most importantly, project work leads to purposeful language use because it requires personal involvement on the part of the students: from the choice of a project, the way in which they will elaborate it to the final part of the presentation and evaluation. Apart from the language requirements, it also needs a certain amount of learner autonomy. Project work, whether it is integrated into a content-based thematic unit or introduced as a special sequence of activities, it requires multiple stages of development to succeed. Stoller (1997) proposes the following steps when incorporating project work.

1. *Students and a teacher agree on a theme for the project.*

2. *Students and a teacher determine the final outcome.* They consider the nature of the project, its objectives, and the most appropriate means to culminate the project (written report, poster, display, oral presentation, video, etc.).

3. *Students and a teacher structure the project.* They need to gather the proper information, find and select the verified sources of information, time management, and in case of team or group work, divide the roles.

4. *Teacher prepares students for the language demands of information gathering.* According to the plan of information gathering, the teacher provides the students with supporting activities. If the students use the library to gather the materials, the teacher reviews the steps for finding resources and practice skimming and note-taking, etc.

5. *Students gather information.*

6. *A teacher prepares students for the language demands of compiling analysing data.*

7. *Students compile and analyse information.*

8. *A teacher prepares students for the language demands of the culminating activity*. A teacher brings in language improvement activities to help students succeed with the presentation of their final products.

9. *Students present final product.*

10. *Students evaluate the project.* Students reflect on the experience, the language that they mastered to complete the project, and the content that they learned about the topic.

By integrating project work within the CLIL classroom, learners develop language skills while simultaneously becoming more knowledgeable about the particular topic of the project. Teachers distance themselves from teacher-dominated positions and create vibrant learning environments that require active student involvement, stimulate higher level thinking skills, and give students responsibility for their own learning. These steps confirm all the principles of CLIL methodology.

5 CLIL implementation in ESP environment

In the previous part we have discussed the theoretical terms and relations related to our thesis and research. This chapter introduces some of the studies and surveys published in connection with ESP, CLIL or project work. All of them are aimed for learning or teaching English.

CLIL relates to any educational situation where the content and a language are integrated. Today, there is a tendency to integrate the second language with the content and the aim to provide the learners with professional/specific language as well as a more professional character of a language depending on the school specialization which they attend. This approach in language education is effective mainly in professional education.

In the case of higher education, the state of affairs is much more heterogeneous, since generally speaking CLIL "has not yet been widely adopted" (Coleman, 2006, p. 5). In addition, there is no single comprehensive, centralised or institutional survey of CLIL at this level (as there is for primary and secondary education, see *Content and Language Integrated Learning at School in Europe, Eurydice 2006),* that summarizes where, how and who is implementing this approach across Europe. According to Coleman (ibid.), two lengthy studies throw light on the real situation of English medium teaching in European higher education. One is a quantitative study conducted by the "Academic Cooperation Association Survey in 2001/2002", which includes data from over one thousand five hundred higher education institutions involved in Socrates-Erasmus programmes in nineteen countries where English is not a native language. By and large, this study reveals that the English-medium teaching in Europe is a recent phenomenon, which dates back to around 1998. These are mainly the courses in engineering and business studies, especially at the postgraduate level. Another pan-European study was conducted in 1999/2000 (Dafouz et al., 2009). This study analysed twenty-two European countries and offered data, such as types and numbers of programmes and student enrolment, start dates, rationales, etc. the Netherlands and Finland followed by Germany ranked the highest in the number of higher education institutions with English-taught programmes. Our personal experience from CLIL implementation in higher education in Netherlands is described further.

Over the last decade, there has been an enormous change in the presence of English as the language of instruction in Europe. As Dafouz et al. (ibid.) mentions, in addition to the general questionnaires, a more specific

survey which included interviews, was conducted among teachers involved in piloting courses with international students. Teachers complained over the lower level of their language competence. They regard speaking skill as the weakest. As regards students' responses (n=85), the situation was more heterogeneous than with teachers, since there were instances of ´semi-CLIL´ experiences or ESP courses with a considerable amount of subject content presented through English. The students enrolled in these courses believed that they had made substantial improvement in the areas of subject-specific vocabulary, pronunciation and listening. By contrast, grammatical development was perceived as the least improved area, however, according to CLIL principles; emphasis is placed on fluency and language skills rather than grammatical accuracy. Informally, students responded that a content class taught through English was more useful in the long run, but at the same time, more demanding and stressful, since the level of concentration required is higher.

Dafouz et al. (2009) initiated a pilot study in 2006 which focused on the different attitudes that teachers and students in the *Universidad Complutense de Madrid* and *Universidad Politécnica* (Spain) have towards the potential implementation of a CLIL approach in their respective settings. The data summarise the responses obtained from two questionnaires distributed among teachers and students from the disciplines of Chemistry, Aeronautical Engineering and Health Sciences (Pharmacy and Medicine). As regards teachers' responses (n = 70) to methodological adjustments in a CLIL context, three main changes were considered essential: adaptation of material, slowing down of classroom rhythm and a slight reduction of content. Secondly, most teachers believed that teaching through English would necessarily entail a slowing down of rhythm and, consequently, a slight reduction of content, more repetition of main ideas and a slower speech rate to facilitate comprehension. Thirdly, the questionnaires disclosed that most teachers did not feel that there should be significant modifications in evaluation style under a CLIL approach. Since the examination format is mostly written and based on problem-solving tests with very little foreign language used, teachers generally manifested their belief that exams would basically imply "translation of specific vocabulary into English". This belief undoubtedly suggests the need for further investigation into the assessment methods used.

As Coyle (2007) observes, there is no cohesion as far as CLIL pedagogies are concerned. In fact, methodologies, materials and curriculum organisation vary across countries. At the tertiary level, CLIL needs to be different from CLIL models for primary and secondary educations. Specifically, teachers' practices and competences should be redefined to the linguistic, academic and professional demands that university students bring with them. As for the project-based second and foreign language education we would like to mention the following studies conducted in the higher educational institutions.

Gu (2002) reports on a successful 12-week project that teachers organized at Suzhou University in China. Twenty Chinese students were paired with 28 American students at the Southern Polytechnic State University of Georgia. The Chinese students were doing projects about a Chinese clothes exhibition and marketing strategies. The author finds that project-based learning enhanced the Chinese EFL learners' motivation, improved their performance in writing, and communication and initiated their active roles in learning.

Fang and Warschauer (2004) report on a 5-year study conducted at the same university. They find that Chinese students interacted far more often in project-based learning than they would have in other EFL courses, they had more autonomy in their learning, and they perceived that the learning process was more relevant to their lives.

Kemaloglu (2010) reported his results of his study carried out at a Turkish University. The study was conducted to investigate students' and teachers' assessments on project work in the intensive English classes. A hundred students were involved, fifty from the upper-intermediate level (B2) and fifty from the intermediate level (B1) as well as four teachers who supervised students' projects. The evaluations of the participants about project work were explored with respect to the achievement of institutional goals, learning gains, and problems accompanied by suggested solutions. The following instruments were used: project analysis, questionnaires and interviews. The findings of the study have revealed that the goals of the project work in the research setting were generally perceived to have been moderately achieved, signalling the existence of some learning gains and problems within the context of project work. It also has highlighted some major aspects of a sample project work experience in an EFL context, namely goals and problems. The author also admits that there are only a few studies

conducted on project work. Therefore, his study may prove useful in guiding the project work practices. This may set the grounds for more effective implementations at project work.

As discussed previously, project work has been reported to assist students in learning language, content, and skills simultaneously, increasing student motivation and learner autonomy. However, the same researchers have also pointed out some constraints. Coming out of the findings of the surveys, some students revealed discomfort with learner control and responsibility. Also many teachers and faculty members felt uncomfortable to lose teacher control in student-centred learning.

Unfortunately, no studies and surveys conducted on CLIL implementation in the higher education in Slovakia have been published yet. It was one of the reasons for carrying out our research.

ESP in the higher education in Holland

As it has already been mentioned, Holland is one of the most progressive countries using CLIL with the longest tradition. Due to our research this chapter describes our personal experience with the aim to compare ESP classes in Dronten with ESP classes in the University of Wageningen.

Within Leonardo program, in March 2010 we visited Dronten University of Applied Sciences in Holland (CAH) and then in April 2011 we attended the University of Wageningen with the aim to monitor English language teaching, especially courses of English for Specific Purposes. Thus, we took an opportunity to compare ESP classes at the Slovak Agricultural University in Nitra with the Dutch ones. First of all, we will describe the specialization of the institutions and then, we will focus on the ESP classes, used approaches, methods and techniques.

CAH Dronten University of Applied Sciences (CAH DUAS) is a member of the association of Professional agricultural universities. About 1300 students specialize in the programmes of Business Administration and Agribusiness, Rural Development, Management of Animal Breeding, Horticulture, etc., with the focus on international agriculture as well.

International programmes are also very diverse. Approximately 200 students come from European countries, as well as USA, Canada, Asia and Africa. English programs provide knowledge from the fields of management, agribusiness, European studies as well as biotechnologies, horticulture and animal production. The study is enriched with the

cooperation of business and research universities in Europe and the USA. Practice is one of the main concepts in Dronten CAH which uses the educational model based on competence (Competency Based Education). Students learn how to develop products as for example a plan for tulip exportation, to carry an audit in food safety or to write a plan for rural development in Italian mountains. The bases for the cooperation are the contacts with private as well as the state sector. Significant professors from external organizations host the lectures, participate in student evaluation or mastering the modules.

CAH DUAS also helps the students to run their own business while studying. On a school farm they can try management skills where they focus on skills in pig, sheep or poultry breeding management. The farm covers also the sections of milk production and sale of fruits and vegetables. Greenhouses are placed in the school premises and the students are responsible for the complete running, from product selection up to sales marketing.

As it has been already mentioned, Holland and Finland are the two countries which are on the first places with CLIL implementation. In Holland there is a long tradition of language education. Students of all the programs take English with the aim to work on their communication competence. English teachers use different ways of integrating Professional topics with the real life practice. As to illustrate: on the Plant Production topic, the students got an assignment to work out a project of annual fruit trees care. The students work in a group of 3 to 5 and each member is responsible for time and financial plan: from the trees purchase, through to the care which is not only watering but also pruning as well as fertilizing and spraying against bugs, and eventually providing a target group of customers. The project is set to a place known to the students. The whole project is presented in English and thus the students not only improve their communication competence but also apply knowledge from other professional subjects (in this case: management of fruit production, marketing, fruit industry, etc.).

Such a project has a cross – curricular and interdisciplinary character, and also calls for a cooperation of a language teacher and an expert or teacher of professional subjects. It may be developed into a long-term project which would be enriched with problem solving tasks such as financial crisis, decrease of apple price on the market, etc. with the aim to apply theoretical knowledge in real situations.

The task of a teacher in a pre-teaching phase is to present new vocabulary or to warm students up with a text on a similar issue, set the rules, monitor and in case of a problem, he/she takes over the role of facilitator and adviser.

Students work in groups and manage their work on their own. They use different sources, including the Internet, interviews or studies. In the phase of presentation it is necessary for the whole group to feel the responsibility for the result of their work and the feedback is the evaluation of the teacher as well as the discussion led by their peers.

As for the organization of the classes, the students have two contact classes per week. The materials they use are provided by the school and it changes very often due to the information up-date and the level of the students. We were surprised that even though the students had been learning English since their Elementary School, their communicative competence reached the levels A2 and B1 which was comparable with our students. We observed that the students were rather shy or not very self-confident. This could have happened even due to our presence in the class.

Another university with the similar specialization such as SAU and CAH Dronten is Wageningen University attended in April 2011 through LUZK program[13].

The aim of the business trip was to monitor and compare ESP classes, and the use of innovative methods and techniques.

Wageningen University offers scientific education. Students get the opportunity to combine the exact sciences – from plant sciences to food technology and health – with the social sciences – from environmental studies to economics and sociology. It offers a broad range of studies and courses focusing on the domain 'healthy food and living environment'. Students are stimulated to combine the natural and social sciences; from plant sciences to economics and from food ingredients technology to sociology. This multidisciplinary approach helps students to build bridges and to apply their specialised knowledge to other subjects. Wageningen's studies have their roots in society and are always focused on finding solutions on societal problems.

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[13] LUZK – is the project realized at the SUA in Nitra on the education of employees co-financed from the operational program Education: Human Resource Development and Quality Assurance at SAU in Nitra

The language centre covers the language education at all the three levels – Bachelor, Master and Doctoral as well as language classes for employees and school managers. The university is known for a long-term tradition in providing international programs, therefore a lot of them are taught in English. Therefore, not only students but also teachers must work on their language competences.

ESP classes in Wageningen were very similar to those in Dronten. The teachers focus on improvement of presentation techniques, communication skills, writing academic papers as well as the testing of language competences. They use different techniques and methods such as brainstorming, mind maps, project works, role – plays and simulation games in order to bridge the school with the practice. In short, CLIL principles were observed, however, the teachers and learners did not realize they had applied CLIL in the educational process.

To sum up, ESP classes at CAH Dronten and Wageningen were very inspiring and the further discussions in person or via mails with the teachers of English from Dronten (Prof. T. Medema, Dr. Wieke Hetsen, Dr. Brian Thompson, and Dr. Sophie Rebel, March – July 2010) and Wageningen (Dr. Irene Jansen) served as another stimuli to apply CLIL approaches at the Slovak University of Agriculture Nitra, particularly through project work. Due to the fact that the specializations and fields of study at the universities in Holland are very similar to the Slovak University of Agriculture in Nitra, innovations in ESP classes seemed to be applicable in our conditions as well.

To conclude, the first part of the paper finds the principles and positive approaches of CLIL methodology in different contexts. The second part finds the connection between CLIL and ESP. English for specific purposes follows the needs of learners and the course is designed accordingly. It focuses on teaching and learning English only whereby CLIL aims to teach language and content of the specific subject at the same time. Therefore, CLIL brings more challenges into both: language and specific contents. There are different methods on how to implement CLIL into ESP classes. Project work contributes towards the independent work of students, supports learner´s autonomy and uses various special topics and tasks according to the specialization of learners. According to Horváthová (2011, p. 37), "*as opposed to mostly simulated contents of traditional English language teaching and learning, specific contents lead to the real cognitive, conscious and emotional work with language and thus also to the optimal process of learning. Specific*

contents processed in pair- or group work support the process of learning, increase the motivation and draw students more into the learning process". Pair or group work help students cooperate and give authenticity to the experience of tackling with real-life situations and moreover, it builds up learner autonomy. However, it also brings a bigger burden on the shoulder of teachers. It changes the role of a teacher into a motivator, facilitator, advisor and evaluator. It is necessary for a teacher and students to cooperate and make decisions over the project design, steps of the work and its evaluation. This paper aims to overview various surveys and studies about project work, CLIL methodology in ESP classes at different universities. This paper is a theoretical background of the survey carried out at the Slovak University of Agriculture in Nitra, Slovakia; therefore, it was needed to get to know the state of the affairs within this subject. The particular attention is paid to ESP classes in Dutch universities as CLIL methodology has been mostly developed and successful in Holland and Finland. It is described from the personal experience of author´s observation.

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ENGLISH FOR ACADEMIC PURPOSES COURSE DESIGN FOR NATURAL SCIENCE DOCTORAL CANDIDATES

Juraj Miština

Introduction

A variety of access pathways to curricular content at the universities oriented to natural sciences has meant that incoming students are entering postgraduate study initially with a different entry level of English knowledge and communication skills. To prepare a course of professional language communication that would meet the demanding criteria for the post-graduate training of doctoral candidates is a challenge for the potential teacher-designer. This study investigates the changing focus of such a language programme at the Faculty of Natural Sciences, University of SS. Cyril and Methodius in Trnava, Slovakia, based on the needs analysis of students, workplace, the target professional environment and several other aspects of the studies. We tend to move the syllabus away from a broad-based approach to a certain (specific) variety of English for Academic Purposes (EAP), to focus it more strongly on the discipline-specific instruction - English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP). The study deals with the author's personal experience and theoretical basis with its application in educational practice.

English: the Lingua Franca of Science?

With the fall of the iron curtain and the advent of new information technologies, the scope of cross-cultural communication and the volume of information exchanges have been rapidly increasing bringing countries and people closer to each other and raising the profile of English as the medium of international communication. English has become the predominant academic and scientific language. This has created a global academic environment with a common medium of communication. The domination of English creates challenges for universities that do not use English. For example, the main scientific journals (even those local ones) are

published in English. Similarly, the large majority of the world's academic web sites and scientific networks function in English. International scientific meetings increasingly use English as the only official language. A global academic environment needs a common medium of communication, and English is the only possible language. These factors lead to homogenising knowledge worldwide. Not only is English the dominant language, but its relationship with the controlling trends in international science and scholarship is a powerful combination of forces contributing to decreasing diversity of themes and methodologies (ALTBACH, 2007).

The academic journals and books published in English increasingly dominate world scholarship. These publications are almost the only ones internationally circulated. They are the most prestigious journals, and academics worldwide compete to publish in them. They are listed in the Science Citation Index (SCI) and its sister indexes. Although SCI was not developed to rank journals or to measure the scholarly productivity of individual academics or institutions, it has become a de facto ranking. English is also the most commonly used language in the sciences. According to David GRADDOL (1997), the Science Citation Index in 1997 reported that 95% of its articles were written in English, even though only half of them came from authors in English-speaking countries. Although resources do not specify the current state, it is reasonable to assume that the proportion of English in the contributions published there has been increased. Universities and governments often use the SCI and related systems to judge the impact and value of their academics and universities. SCI becomes a kind of proxy for quality and productivity. Similarly, the international ranking systems use such measures. This is not surprising, since there are few other easy ways of measuring productivity. However, again, this privileges those who produce their work in English and intend to reach an international audience.

Most Slovak universities implemented an English language course at least into their Bachelor curricula. Nevertheless, too often as the postgraduate students become mainstreamed into content classes, it becomes evident that many are not adequately prepared for the transition. Their experience with authentic lecture discourse, different genres of academic writing, extensive reading and synthesizing, and most fundamentally, analytical processing of subject-specific information is limited. In order to assist these students in achieving language proficiency levels and academic

communication skills needed for the target environment of science, most universities and colleges offer special language programmes.

English for Academic Purposes

Before we can discuss specific aspects of the English language courses, i.e. their content and form, the needs of students, etc., we need to consider the terminology-conceptual apparatus. To begin, it is necessary to take a look at how English for Academic Purposes is defined. Among many definitions that can be reproduced I have chosen several that represent different approaches influenced by national or local/historical educational concepts or those inspired by professional experience of their authors. English for Academic Purposes (EAP) deals with "the use of English in study settings (particularly but not exclusively in higher education) where the main goal of language learning is the ability to cope with the student's chosen academic specialism" (K. JOHNSON & H. JOHNSON, 1998). According to Jordan (JORDAN, 1997), EAP exists in different settings. Teachers thus have to be very careful before designing the course and selecting relevant teaching materials in order to match their teaching situations. Dudley-Evans and St John (DUDLEY-EVANS and ST JOHN 1998, p. 34) also pointed out that "the key determinant of what an EAP course should contain is whether or not the subject course is taught in English". For this reason, four types of EAP situations should be considered when we practice EAP teaching in a tertiary level context: EAP in an English-speaking country, EAP in ESL (English as a Second Language) situations, EAP in which certain subjects are taught in English and EAP situations where subject courses are taught in the national language. According to COFFEY (quoted by JORDAN, 1997, p. 4), English for Academic Purposes has two divisions: common core and subject-specific. These two divisions have been described by Blue (quoted by JORDAN, 1997, p. 4) as English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP) and English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP). Regarding a possible conflict of interests between English for General Academic Purposes and English for Specific Academic Purposes, Johns' observation (quoted by JORDAN, 1997, p. 249) is relevant: the difference between the skills and conventions needed in the academia may be greater than similarities; for discipline, audience and context significantly influence the language required. Students must only read a certain extent of the material of each academic discipline that they encounter.

Another approach is to establish how English for Academic Purposes relates to English Language Teaching/Learning. Hutchinson and Waters (HUTCHINSON, WATERS, 1994, p. 16-18) represent it in the form of a tree: the tree of English Language Teaching/Learning is nourished by its roots which are *learning and communication*. As we go up the tree, we can see three branches of English Language Teaching/Learning. One of them is called English as a Foreign Language (EFL). It is divided into two branches:

- General English (GE);
- English for Specific Purposes (ESP).

Thus, English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is a separate branch of English Language Teaching/Learning. The branch of ESP has three branches, too. This division depends on the purpose of studying English:

- English for Science and Technology (EST);
- English for Business and Economics (EBE);
- English for Social Science (ESS).

Every one of these branches is divided into two: for work and for academic study, which have their own branches and show the level that is needed by learners. The field of our concern is English for Academic Purposes. The classification of English for Specific Purposes offered by Robinson (quoted by DUDLEY-EVANS and JOHN, 1998, p. 6) depends on the experience of students: English for Specific Purposes is divided into two parts:

- English for Occupational Purposes (EOP);
- English for Academic Purposes (EAP).

Doctoral studies

Since Berlin 2003, doctoral studies are considered as the third cycle in the degree structure according to the Bologna Process. This entails numerous discussions about the organisation of doctoral studies and also involves impacts of other action lines on doctoral studies. The term 'doctoral studies' is usually used for all doctoral degrees, but for the purposes of this paper I use it solely for PhD degrees by research. People going through doctoral studies, aiming at a third cycle degree (often a doctoral degree) are referred to in various ways. Common terms are "doctoral students", "doctoral candidates", "PhDs" "young researchers" and "early stage researchers". Throughout this paper all the individuals included in the above-mentioned terms will be referred to under 'doctoral candidates'.

Doctoral studies are organised differently in different European countries and institutions. Two different approaches to the organisation of doctoral programmes can be detected around Europe. The definitions from the European University Association are:

- "An individual study programme based on an informal to formal working alliance between a supervisor and a doctoral candidate (an apprenticeship model, sometimes described in a less complimentary way as a "master-slave" relationship) with no structured coursework phase;" (EUA 2005);
- "A structured programme organised within research groups or research/graduate/doctoral schools with two phases: a taught phase (mandatory and voluntary courses or modules) and a research phase." (EUA 2005).

According to the Statement of the Austrian Rectors' Conference on the international discussion about different kinds of doctorates (Vienna, 2006), "Each doctorate is an original piece of research work (doctoral thesis), which proves the student's ability to work independently and to use the scientific methods of the field in question. … The differences between the different kinds of doctorates are more likely to be found among the students´ motivations, within the fields or the institutions. As already stressed in the mutual statement of the three German speaking Rectors' Conferences …, the doctorate is the distinctive element of universities"

Doctoral training is highly fragmented in Europe, with over one thousand universities conferring doctoral degrees. In contrast, there are only about four hundred PhD awarding institutions in the US, of which less than one hundred are responsible for 80% of all PhDs. Around Europe, there are many different traditions regarding the way the third cycle has been organised up to now. We believe that the way the third cycle is structured must fit into the tradition of the specific country or research area. In those cases where there are fewer structured doctoral programmes, and the students rather enrol in individual programmes, it is important that there is some form of "curriculum" or plan of work agreed between the doctoral student and the supervisor(s). Despite the many advantages of structured doctoral programmes it is crucial to point out the importance of having a balance between coursework, teaching and other types of institutional work and the research that doctoral students must manage. In the cases of structured doctoral programmes it is also important that the doctoral students have the

opportunity to choose the courses they want to attend and have the opportunity to make a choice that suits their research project. In recent years, the doctoral programmes in European countries, in spite of the aforementioned differences in the structure and approach, have been built on a solid platform of common European educational space. The purpose of doctoral education has been emphasized and specified in The European Students' Union ESU 2010 Policy Paper "Doctoral Education". The core of doctoral education is original research, which can be either basic or applied. Doctoral candidates are trained to become fully independent professional researchers. This indicates that the creation of new knowledge, building a researcher mindset and personal development to be a professional researcher are the main goals of doctoral education. The qualifications the doctoral education should provide are mapped out in the European qualifications framework and in "The framework of qualifications for the European Higher Education Area". Graduates of doctoral education should be prepared for a research based career. The higher education institutions need to provide opportunities for the doctoral candidate to be able to develop the appropriate skills to take up future responsibilities.

Building an ESAP course

The Faculty of Natural Sciences became an integral part of the newly-founded University of SS. Cyril and Methodius in Trnava, Slovakia immediately after its foundation on August 1, 1997. The main objective of the Faculty of Natural Sciences consists in instructional-educational activities aimed at the preparation of erudite specialists in modern and interdisciplinary areas of Applied Informatics, Chemistry and Applied Chemistry, Environmental Chemistry and Remediation Technology, and formerly also Applied Mathematics. As it can be seen from the date of establishment, comparing to the old "stone" universities, the Faculty is a young but rapidly growing workplace fighting for its position among the established and reputable institutions of higher education in Slovakia and abroad. Therefore, accreditation of the doctoral programme "Applied Analytical and Bioanalytical Chemistry" has contributed to its prestige. The fact of accreditation and implementation of the challenging doctoral programme into the University practice represents a solid base for training of own experts - educators and research workers, creating the encouraging prospects for the future.

Applicants for doctoral studies submit an application for the specific research topics. After acceptation, under the supervision of an expert they conduct research, publish, and present the achievements. During the four year period students carry out scientific and teaching experience under the guidance of a research supervisor and guarantors of individual disciplines. Students attend and pass exams in compulsory and optional courses, e.g. methods of molecular and atomic spectroscopy, separation methods, electroanalytical methods, chemometry and methodology, nuclear analytical methods and environmental analytical chemistry, biochemistry, and the magnetochemical method. To complete the study students present and defend "dissertation" theses, as the result of their research activities in the field, and as the research solutions of the particular research project. As it can be seen, the second model of the European University Association definition, used at most of the Slovak universities, is applied at the Faculty of Natural Sciences.

The Faculty Board has made a progressive step towards improving the quality of doctoral studies by including a compulsory subject of professional English language. The Department of English Language, which formerly had been providing teaching solely for bachelor degree studies, faces a major challenge - to build up the ESAP course tailored to the needs of doctoral candidates.

Since we tend to move the course away from a broad-based approach to English for Academic Purposes (EAP) instruction to more discipline-specific instruction - English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP), needs analysis has to be the starting point of the course design and teaching. On the basis of the needs analysis the ESAP lecturer or course designer can specify course objectives, which lead to an assessment of the resources available, and the use of the appropriate syllabus and methodology. Implementation of the syllabus then leads to an evaluation of the course in terms of its effectiveness. The ESAP course is being designed to meet the specific needs of the doctoral candidates. It has to be centred not only on the language (grammar, lexis, register), but also the skills, discourses and genres appropriate to those activities. For DUDLEY-EVANS (2001) the defining characteristic of such a course is that teaching and materials are based on the results of a needs analysis. The key questions are:

- What do students need to do with English?
- Which of the skills do they need to master and how well?

- Which genres do they need to master either for comprehension or production purposes?
- How much do the learners know about their specialism?
- Are the students pre-experience or post-experience learners?
- How specific and detailed are the language, skills and genres that the learners need to learn?

Despite the growing demand for English for Specific and Academic Purposes instruction in tertiary educational institutions, ESP courses are still limited to learning specific vocabulary and translating texts, or they are supplemented by general English courses. With the continued expansion and participation in the global educational and scientific space, much attention should be drawn to the design of ESAP courses which can help to prepare students for future professional/scientific communication. In response to these needs, ESAP course design tends to be an initial and essential part of the qualitative process. It is the analysis of learners' specific needs. Other issues addressed include: determination of realistic goals and objectives; integration of grammatical functions, acquisition skills, assessment and evaluation.

The role of needs analysis in any ESAP course is indisputable. For JOHNS (1991), needs analysis is the first step in course Design and it provides validity and relevancy for all subsequent course Design activities. As an example of the "needs analysis" and the "course design" I have chosen an adaptation of the Bell's course design model (Figure 1).
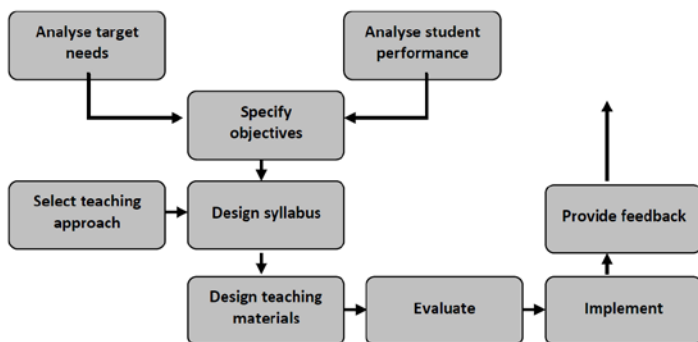

Figure 1: Course design model (BELL, R., 1981, p. 50)

The model presents the standard scheme: analyse → specify → design → evaluate → implement → get feedback. We have improved the model according to our teaching experience, student and institutional needs as follows (Figure 2). The model represents continuous process of needs analysis, since the internal and external conditions are being changed.
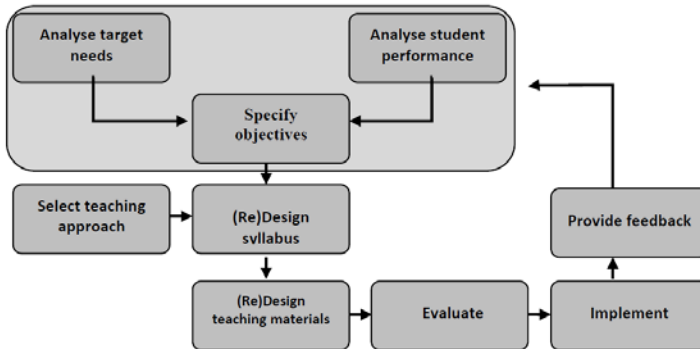

Figure 2: The Model of continuous needs analysis based on the Bell's course design model

A comprehensive English language needs analysis is definitely needed in order to design an effective ESP course for students following Art and Design courses. Figure 3 shows the conceptual framework of this study and the identification of English language needs relies on HUTCHINSON & WATERS' needs analysis model (1987), whereas aspects of designing an ESP course were adapted from DUDLEY-EVANS & ST. JOHN (1998). What is important is that none of the three figures are complex. Vice versa, their non-comprehensiveness shows how complex the problem of the course design, particularly in ESAP, is. Recently, for example, in the complex process of the course development, we have to consider advanced teaching technologies as teaching and communication tools, we have to bear in mind virtual teaching/learning environment, and we have to accept new learning strategies (e-learning/blended learning) (HORVÁTHOVÁ, 2011).
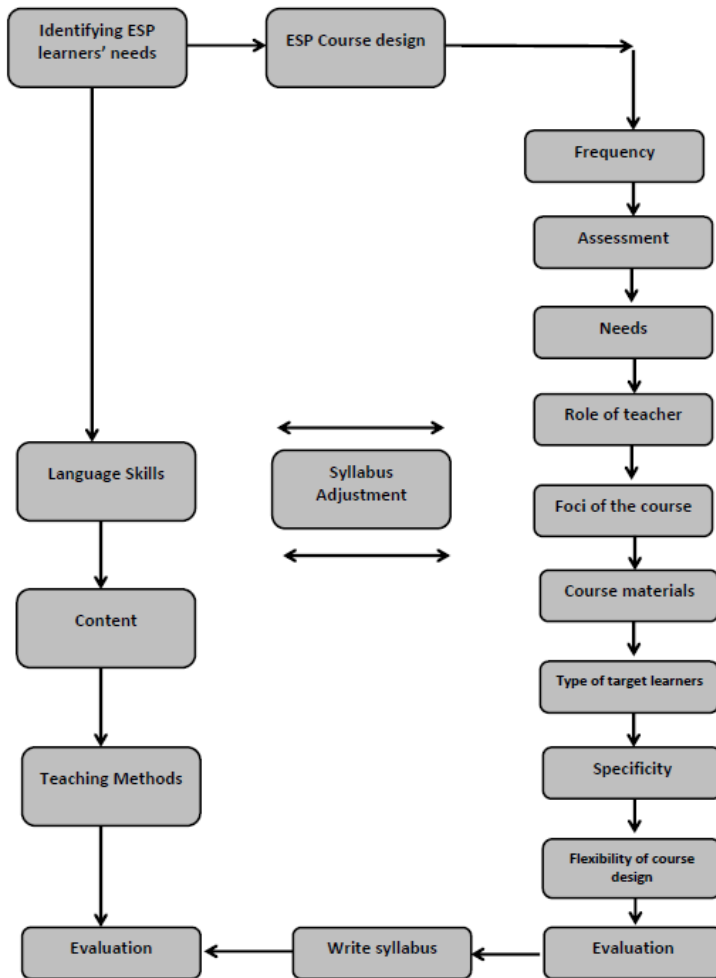
Figure 3: Conceptual Framework of the Study (Adapted from HUTCHINSON & WATERS, 1987 and DUDLEY-EVANS & ST. JOHN, 1998)

Besides the learner-centred approach, the role and needs of teachers are increasingly coming to the forefront. Growing economic, social, political, cultural and language globalisation brings new needs in ethical issues that are closely interconnected to communication and intercultural studies. Such words as netiquette, e-mail etiquette, cyberspace, etc. are new to humankind. However, they have become our everyday reality.

There are number of ways in which information can be gathered about needs. The most frequently used are:

- Questionnaires
- Interviews
- Observation
- Data collection
- Data analysis

In view of the complexity of needs, we have used all of them. It was ALLWRIGHT (1982) as quoted by WEST (1994) who made a distinction between needs (the skills which a student sees as being relevant to himself or herself), wants (those needs on which students put a high priority in the available, limited time or in other words it is what the learner feels she/he needs), and lacks (the difference between the students present competence and the desired competence or what the learner does not know). His idea were adopted later by HUTCHINSON and WATERS (1987), who advocate a learning-centred approach in which learners' learning needs play a vital role.

Role of ESAP teacher

Although the lecturer perhaps does not need to be an expert in a specialist area, s/he does need to have some awareness and feel for a particular professional/scientific area. Bell (BELL, 2002) advocates the three Cs for helping teachers to improve their knowledge and skills in a particular area of ESAP:

- **Curiosity** (The teacher should be interested in the subject area and want to learn more.);
- **Collaboration** (Teachers should seek out subject specialists, show them their work and ask for their feedback.);
- **Confidence** (Confidence will grow as teachers explore the new subject matter, engage with subject specialists and learn from their learners.)

Harding (HARDING 2007) stresses that the general skills that a general English teacher uses e.g. being communicative, using authentic materials and analysing English in a practical way are also applicable to ESAP. He also suggests that teachers should:

- think about what is needed and do not just follow an off-the-shelf course or course book;

- understand the nature of their students' subject area;
- Work out their language needs in relation to their specialism;
- use contexts, texts, situations from their subject area;
- use authentic materials;
- make the tasks as authentic as possible;
- motivate the students with variety, relevance and fun;
- take the classroom into the real world and bring the real world into the classroom.

Besides the above stated needs, our analysis has shown that ESAP teachers also have to:
- update their technology skills in line with the latest trends (hardware, software, …);
- be familiar with the methods, practices and techniques of communicative language teaching and be able to locate these within an academic context and relate them to teaching the language and skills required by academic tasks and processes;
- be able to identify and analyse academic genres and the functional and rhetorical features of academic texts and train students to do the same;
- be able to help doctoral candidates to understand university policies and procedures and the reasons behind them – e.g. respect for intellectual property;
- make links between critical thinking and study competence explicit for students and provide opportunities and stimulus for critical thinking in sequences of learning activities;
- integrate study skills into lessons;
- foster student autonomy through group activities as well as one-to-one tutorials (ALEXANDER, 2012);
- be able to provide a high degree of co-operation between tutors/supervisors/departments.

Learner-centred ESAP course
The doctoral thesis project and the original contribution to science connected to it are the two main aspects of doctoral studies. Doctoral candidates acquire a wide range of English language skills and key competences, which are advantageous to their future careers, inside or outside the university.

The new ESAP course has been designed to support them to advance and individuate their transferable skills (key competences). The candidates combine subject-specific knowledge with presentation and publication skills. They are expected to set up research projects and carry them out successfully, to know the rules of academia and find their own career path within the scientific landscape of multicultural environment. Doctoral candidates who are admitted to the three-year doctoral study programme as well as those changing to the new curriculum are offered a series of lectures and exercises in academic English skills. This focused blended way of training of language skills, academic and specific field vocabulary, and key competences (including communication competences in foreign language) aims at supporting doctoral candidates in their development and enabling them to carry out their scientific tasks in a structured and purposeful way. Furthermore the course serves as a platform for exchange and networking for scholars, researchers and doctoral candidates studying or working at relevant institutions abroad. The doctoral candidate's success as an academic depends heavily on his/her ability to communicate to fellow researchers in the discipline, to colleagues at partnering universities abroad, to incoming undergraduate and graduate students, and perhaps even to the international public at large. Communicating well in an academic setting depends not only on following the basic rules that govern all good communication (for example, tailoring the message to meet the needs of a specific audience), but also on adhering to the particular norms of academic genres.

The purpose of the course, then, is threefold:

- First, the course will acquaint students with guidelines that will help them to create well-crafted academic communication.
- Second, it will give them an opportunity to practice their communication skills and to receive extensive feedback from their colleagues and from the tutor. They will write and/or revise an article manuscript or conference paper, present a conference paper, write a manuscript peer review, and engage in various other communication exercises. The article writing and professional skills acquisition, which are the major assignments of the course, will be based on material from their own doctoral studies.
- Third, the course will provide an opportunity for students to learn about professional norms for a range of activities that surround

the academic institutions, including, for example, the scholarly publication process and the job search process.

As one of the core features of the Bologna Process, mobility should also be encouraged for students in the third cycle. In the context of students mobility as well as a global higher education market, the changing policies and practices at university level are interesting – particularly the increasing use of English as a teaching medium in higher education not only in Europe, but also in Asia or Latin America, which has also been taken into account when considering the content of the English for Specific and Academic Purposes course.

Doctoral candidates are trained to develop strong transferable skills which will add to their employability and enhance the quality of their research project. Throughout the ESAP course training in general research methods, academic writing and oral communication skills are provided:

- laboratory report;
- research paper writing - IMRAD structure (Introduction, Materials and Methods, Results and Discussion), genre characteristics of the research paper, writing abstract, key words, effective title, improving language accuracy, style, grammar, vocabulary, phrases, professional slang, avoiding common lexical and grammatical errors, etc.;
- grant proposal writing;
- scientific poster design and presentation;
- writing academic letters, Europass CV and resume, cover letter;
- adapting a written source (e.g. paper) to a presentation context;
- practical introduction to presenting: body language, voice, pace, focussing on the audience, effective PPT slides, visualisation, etc.;
- improving presentation style (pace, clarity, interaction with the audience);
- using discourse markers to structure a presentation;
- improving intonation, pronunciation and word stress;
- individual presentations about participants' research work, with written tutor and peer feedback;
- acquiring seminar skills: handling questions and comments;
- academic reading and note taking;
- using various forms of dictionaries and translators.

The above scheduled content will tend to orient postgraduate doctoral students to the use of English, that they feel will appeal to an international audience. Even though most of them are quite experienced in this language, special requirements have to be met in using the English language in an academic and scientific context.

Conclusion

When developing the course of English for Specific Academic Purposes, it is expected that the teachers have a certain level of academic teaching experience, a high degree of professionalism, and the ability to respond flexibly to the current needs. This is an essential prerequisite enabling him/her to start building the course on the basis of a thoughtful and carefully prepared needs analysis. Parts of this paper are purposefully designed to make it clear that the needs analysis is not a simple and direct process. The analysis is not focused only on the needs of students, but also to the needs of teachers, supervising departments and the target professional/academic environment. And, most importantly, the needs analysis is not a single process. It is a continuous ongoing activity, which aims to respond to the constantly changing and evolving environment of science, technology and universities.

Acknowledgement

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COMPATIBILITY OF THE NATIONAL CURRICULUM IN SLOVAKIA WITH THE CEFR WITH RESPECT TO INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION

Eva Reid

Slovak education, including foreign language education in Slovakia, is going through a curricular reform. One of the main priorities of the new Concept of Teaching Foreign Languages at Primary and Secondary Schools (2007) is to equip pupils (European citizens) with the ability to communicate across linguistic and cultural boundaries in multicultural and multilingual Europe, in other words to acquire intercultural communicative competences. There is a great variety of possibilities and occasions for learners to use foreign languages. Today, people are travelling more and more outside the boundaries of their own countries and coming into contact with members of different cultures, where they have an opportunity not only to use a foreign language, but also use the skills of intercultural communication. Consequently, there is a great demand for people who are inter-culturally competent and schools are expected to prepare inter-culturally competent graduates. According to the Council of Europe, the aim of foreign language education is not only to master the knowledge and skills needed for communication, but also to become familiar with the cultural context of the foreign languages, to develop mutual understanding and tolerance, and to create respect towards different identities and cultural differences.

The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment (CEFR) was developed by the Council of Europe between 1989 and 1996 and published in 2001. It describes what the language learners have to learn in order to use the language for communication, and what knowledge and skills they have to develop to be able to act effectively in intercultural situations. CEFR (2001) defines six reference levels of the language proficiency, which allows the learners' progress to be measured at each stage of learning. These reference levels are becoming wildly accepted as the European standard. The CEFR provides a guideline for the elaboration of language syllabi, curriculum guidelines, examinations, textbooks, etc. for all European countries. Also the new Slovak

curricular documents are based on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment (2001).

The new School Act (245/2008) was passed on the 22nd May 2008 and it defines the new school system and makes it compatible with other European systems. The Slovak school system introduces two levels of curriculum: the "national curriculum" and the "school curriculum". The national curriculum becomes the binding fundamental document for developing school curricula. The national curriculum sets out the key stages, core subjects, expected standards of pupils' performance and model curricula. For each subject, there is a programme of study, which describes the subject knowledge, skills and understanding pupils are expected to develop during each key stage. The school curriculum specifies individual subjects for each stage at individual schools, respecting distinctive characteristics of the communities and regions (Štátny vzdelávací program…, 2008).

In the school reform, foreign language education becomes one of the most significant areas of curricular modernization. The curricular reform in foreign language education should eliminate the diversity of variations of teaching plans and should increase the quality of the foreign language teaching. The reform is based on the requirements of the European committee and the priority is to provide effective foreign language education for children from a very early age (8 years old), as the key attitudes towards other languages and cultures are formed at that age. The Slovak parliament passed a new concept of teaching foreign languages at primary and secondary schools (12th September 2007), which sets the compulsory teaching of two foreign languages, the first language to the third class of primary schools, and the second language to the fifth class of primary schools. The new concept also increases the amount of foreign language lessons and defines new criteria for ongoing and final evaluations. English language is the most taught language in all European countries and the proportion of pupils learning English is close to 90 % (Pokrivčáková, 2010). On 1st February 2011, the Slovak parliament passed an amendment to the School act 245/2008 about the English language becoming the compulsory subject from the third class at the primary schools. An important component of the curricular reform is the development of intercultural competences of the pupils (Štátny vzdelávací program…, 2008).

The aim of this paper is to analyse and compare the CEFR with the Slovak national curriculum concerning the implementation of cultural contents within English language education at the primary school level. The CEFR was chosen as the reference document for comparative analyses with the Slovak national curriculum. The A1 reference level was chosen, which represents the end of the fifth year of primary school (11 years of age). My interest is to deal with the first level of language proficiency (A1), which is in this case the age of the young school children (as they form attitudes towards other languages and cultures at this age).

I have chosen the topic of intercultural communication, as it is becoming more and more valid in today's world. Intercultural communication is most often connected with the ability to communicate in a foreign language, but intercultural competence is not necessarily dependant on knowledge of the foreign language. However, paradoxically learning a foreign language should be complemented with learning cultural contents in order to acquire the intercultural communicative competence. That is why this research concentrates on acquiring the intercultural competences within the English language teaching.

The main research aim:
1. is to analyse the Slovak curricular documents for teaching English at primary school level and to compare them to the CEFR considering the implementation of cultural teaching within English language education.

The research questions with regard to the main aim:
1. how are the recommended cultural contents from CEFR reflected in the current Slovak curricular documents?
2. to what extent does the Slovak national curriculum reflect the CEFR concerning the implementation of cultural teaching within the English language education?

Methodology of the research - Document analysis

The educational world is full of complexity, richness and contradictions and not everything can be measured and counted, some things have to be understood deeply and the methods of qualitative research fulfil these criteria. Qualitative approach is usually holistic and it should be

concerned more with description rather than prediction, induction rather than deduction, generation rather than verification of theory, and construction rather than enumeration. Qualitative research design is chosen for this study through analysing curricular documents. Veselá and Horvathová (2011) state that qualitative research of document analysis consists of analysing aspects of the content of the text at different levels, from the explanation of the text's meaning to deep interpretation. Analyses focus on the actual content and internal features of the text.

According to Cohen, Manion, Morrison (2007) and Flick (2010) documents are standardized artefacts and most of them have been written for a purpose, such as notes, reports, statistics, policy documents, letters, expert opinions, newspaper articles, archives, etc. If one wants to understand the nature of documents, he/she has to move away from the consideration of them as static and pre-defined artefacts. They must be considered in terms of fields and networks of actions, how the documents are integrated into the fields of action. Documents are composed of two dimensions: the authorship and the access to the documents. The authorship can be divided into personal and official documents (official and private). The access to documents can be closed (medical records – documents are not accessible), restricted (juridical records – access is limited to specific professionals), open archival (everyone can have access, but only in a specific archive), or open (documents are published and accessible to any interested party). The good quality documents for research must be authentic (genuine and of unquestionable origin), credible (documents must be accurate, the producer must be reliable), representative (whether it is a typical record of the kind), and relevant (if the documents are clear and comprehensible with the meaning for the reader).

Also in this study, documents need to be looked at as means of communication and the following questions should be placed. Who has produced these documents, for which purpose, and for whom? Are the documents produced, used for specific practical purposes? Many documents have been written by skilled professionals and may contain valuable information. The advantage of using documents for analysis is that there is little or no reactivity on the part of the writer, especially if it is not written with the intention of being the research data. Unobtrusive methods are used for analysing documents and the outcomes can provide a new and unfiltered perspective on the field and its processes. The attraction of documents

is their availability, often at a low cost and being factual. Analysing documents can also bring difficulties, as they might be biased and selective (Cohen, Manion, Morrison, 2007, Flick 2010).

The methods of categorizing and coding are applied for processing the research data. I plan to apply the open coding to document analysis, which expresses data in the form of concepts. This procedure helps to elaborate deeper understanding of the text. Data are first segmented and then categorized by grouping them around the phenomena discovered in the data. Codes should represent the content of each category and should become an aid for reference of the categories. The result should be a list of the codes and categories attached to the text. The aim and the end point of coding is the theoretical saturation. All the coding and analysis should be based on constant comparison between materials (Flick 2010).

In this research, I want to analyse two documents concerning cultural contents recommended for English language lessons at a primary school level. The base document for this analysis and comparisons is the Common European Framework for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment (CEFR, 2001). The other document is the Slovak national curriculum for teaching English at a primary school level. From the CEFR, I have chosen the A1 level, which represents the end of the fifth year of primary schools in Slovakia (age 11). The current Slovak national curriculum for the English language for ISCED 1 level represents the corresponding level to the A1 from the CEFR. The national curriculum was introduced in 2011 and it is based on the CEFR. I want to find out to what extent the current national curriculum reflects the CEFR concerning the implementation of cultural teaching within English language education. For further reference, various research studies on teaching English at the primary school level are analysed by Pokrivčáková (2012).

Research analyses
CEFR

The CEFR covers cultural contexts in which languages are set and promotes intercultural development of the learners. It recommends a combination of linguistic and cultural competences in order to develop socio-cultural knowledge, intercultural awareness, intercultural skills and know-how. From the beginning of the pupils' education, the intercultural approach is especially important, as it promotes the favourable development of their personalities, attitudes towards other languages and cultures, and a sense of identity in response to the enriching experience of otherness in language and culture. This is also why the primary school level has been chosen for this research, as I also agree with the significance of including the intercultural approach to foreign language education from a very early age. Furthermore, in the time of curricular reforms, there is great justification for comparison of curricular documents.

The A1 level from the CEFR is also called the Breakthrough level, which is the first stage of becoming the basic user. The general descriptor for the CEFR A1 level (2001, p. 24) states that the learner: "can understand and use familiar everyday expressions and very basic phrases aimed at the satisfaction of needs of a concrete type. Can introduce him/herself and others and can ask and answer questions about personal details such as where he/she lives, people he/she knows and things he/she has. He/she can interact in a simple way provided the other person talks slowly and clearly and is prepared to help". The other descriptors set the standard for the basic skills, such as listening, reading, speaking and writing. When listening (CEFR 2001, p. 26), a learner should be able to recognize familiar words, basic phrases concerning themselves, family and concrete surroundings. When reading (ibid.), a learner should be able to understand familiar names, words, simple sentences, notices, posters and catalogues. When speaking (ibid.), a learner should be able to interact in a simple way, repeat, rephrase things, ask and answer simple questions, describe where he/she lives and people they know. When writing (ibid.), a learner should be able to write a simple short postcard, holiday greeting, or fill in forms with personal details. The other descriptors deal with the linguistic range (p. 110), vocabulary range (p. 112), grammatical (p. 114), phonological (p. 117), orthographic (p. 118) accuracy and sociolinguistic appropriateness (p. 122). Also the description of "real life" tasks is given for the A1 level. The learner reaching the

breakthrough level (CEFR 2001, p. 31) should be able to make simple purchases (using pointing and gestures), ask and tell which day it is, the time of day and date, use basic greetings, say yes, no, excuse me, please, thank you, sorry, fill uncomplicated forms with personal details and write a short simple postcard. The last mentioned descriptors are concerned with intercultural communication.

The intercultural concept in the CEFR was developed from the Byram's (1997) model of intercultural communicative competence (see p. 31-33). Byram developed a model for foreign language teachers on how to teach and assess intercultural communicative competence. The model declares that the linguistic, sociolinguistic, discourse and intercultural competences are the dimensions of the intercultural communicative competence. Byram names the factors influencing the intercultural communicative competence: attitudes, knowledge (*savoir*), skills of interpreting and relating (*savoir comprendre*), skills of discovery and interaction (*savoir aprendre/faire*) and critical cultural awareness (*savoir s'engager*).

The CEFR does not exactly follow Byram's model, but modifies it in the following way. The CEFR divides competences to the general competences and communicative language competences. The general competences consist of knowledge (savoir), skills (savoir-faire), existential competence (savoir-être) and the ability to learn (savoir apprendre). The communicative competence comprises of several components: linguistic, sociolinguistic and pragmatic. The CEFR includes intercultural aspects to all the related components (knowledge, existential competence, sociolinguistic competence and pragmatic competence). In the component of knowledge (savoir) the empirical knowledge relating to day to day living, shared values and beliefs in social groups are considered as an essential component to intercultural communication. Existential competence (savoir-être) is considered as culture-related as it includes the sum of personal characteristics, personality traits, attitudes, self-image and one's view of others. These factors are the product of acculturation and can be modified. Existential competence is sensitive for intercultural perceptions and relations (what can be considered as friendliness in one culture might be perceived as offensive in another culture). Sociolinguistic competences refer to the socio-cultural conditions of language use (rules of politeness, norms relating relations between generations, sexes, classes and social groups).

The sociolinguistic component affects all communication between representatives of different cultures. Pragmatic competences are concerned with the functional use of the language. The cultural component is very important here, as the ability to use the language suitably depends not only on linguistic competences, but also on the cultural environments in which the interactions are constructed. Non-verbal communication must not be forgotten as an important part of intercultural communication. Paralinguistic features, such as gestures, facial expressions, eye contact, body contact, proxemics; extra-linguistic speech sounds for expressing silence, happiness, disgust, approval, disapproval etc.; and prosodic features such as loudness, and pitch of the voice are very sensitive features in intercultural communication and can cause great misunderstandings if perceived or performed inappropriately. The following diagrams highlight the components related to the development of intercultural competences.
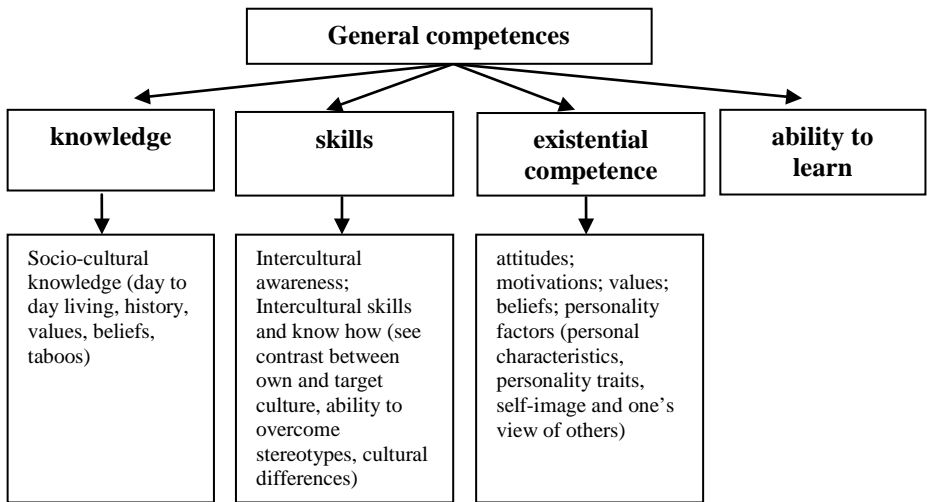

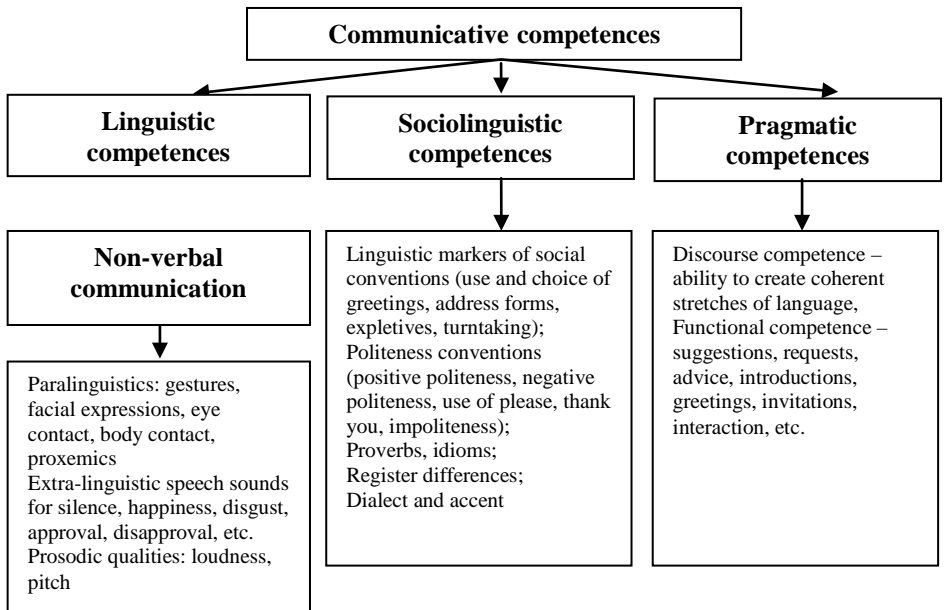Figure 1: General competences connected with culture

Figure 2: Communicative competences connected with culture

For the analysis of the documents I have decided to choose the main categories concerning intercultural aspects from the CEFR. I have selected the main categories and codes within each category for further comparisons. For easier understanding, the categories and the codes with examples are put into the following table:

Table 1: Main categories and codes based on CEFR

Categories	Code Nr.	Codes	Examples
Sociolinguistic competences	1	greetings, addressing	upon arrival, leaving, introduction, formal, informal, familiar
	2	use of exclamations	Dear, dear! My God! Bloody Hell!
	3	positive politeness	admiration, hospitality, affection, showing interest,
	4	negative politeness	apologizing, expressing regret, avoiding direct orders
	5	appropriate use of	please, thank you
	6	impoliteness	bluntness, dislike, anger, impatience, complaints
	7	proverbs, idioms	sealed lips, smacking lips
	8	register (language use in different contexts) (p. 120)	formal (May I come in, please?), neutral (Shall we begin?), informal

Categories	Code Nr.	Codes	Examples
			(Right. Can we start?), familiar (O.K. Let's get going), intimate (Ready dear?)
	9	dialect, accent (p. 121)	social class, regional differences, ethnicity
Pragmatic competences	10	suasion (advising, persuading, urging) (p. 126)	suggestions, asking for help, requests, warnings, advice, invitations, encouragement
	11	socialising (p. 126)	attracting attention, toasting, greetings
	12	interaction patterns (p. 127)	turn taking
Non verbal communication	13	body language (p. 89)	gestures, facial expressions, posture, eye contact, body contact, proxemics
	14	extra linguistic speech sounds (p. 89)	for silence, approval, disapproval, disgust
	15	prosodic qualities (p. 89)	loudness, pitch
Socio-cultural knowledge	16	everyday living (p. 102)	food and drink, meal times, table manners, public holidays, leisure activities,
	17	living conditions (p. 102)	housing, welfare, living standards
	18	interpersonal relations (p. 102)	class structure, family structure, relations between generations, sexes, etc.
	19	values, beliefs, attitudes, people, country (p. 103)	institutions, social change, history, states, politics, religion, humour, national identity, arts, etc.
Categories	Code Nr.	Codes	Examples
	20	social conventions (p. 103)	dress, presents, punctuality
	21	ritual behaviour (p. 103)	festivals, celebrations, traditions, weddings, funerals
Recommended materials	22	authentic texts	books, newspapers, magazines, public signs, notices, leaflets, packaging
	23	authentic language (p. 56, 143, 148, 154)	native speakers, radio, TV, media
	24	special books (p. 148)	encyclopaedias, etc.
	25	computers (p. 143	games, emails, internet
Recommended methods and techniques	26	role-plays, games, simulations (p. 56, 148)	
	27	discussions, negotiations (p. 145, 148)	
	28	explanations, illustrations (p. 145, 148)	
	29	creating portfolio (p. 175)	Language biography including more informal experiences with language and other cultures

The above mentioned categories and codes are taken from what the CEFR recommends for acquiring intercultural knowledge and development of intercultural competences. Also materials, methods and techniques are mentioned. Not all the categories or codes are specified in the descriptors for each level of language proficiency. As was mentioned above, the descriptors are dealing more with the setting the standards for reading, speaking, writing and listening skills, vocabulary, grammar, phonological, orthographic accuracy rather than aspects concerning intercultural competences. However, there are few descriptors which can be understood as dealing with intercultural competences. One of them is the descriptor for sociolinguistic appropriateness for the A1 level, which states that the learner should be able to establish basic social contact by using the simplest everyday polite forms of greetings and farewells, introductions, saying please, thank you, sorry, etc. The other one was mentioned above as the descriptor for the "real life" tasks (making simple purchases, asking and saying what time, day and date it is, using basic greetings, saying yes, no, excuse me, please, thank you, sorry, filling uncomplicated forms with personal details, writing a short simple postcard). The development of intercultural communicative competences is obviously one of the main priorities of the foreign language teaching, but the CEFR does not specify them individually for each level of proficiency. The CEFR only describes the competences in general and the intercultural communicative competences are contained within. The difficult part is on the creators of language curricula, who have to decide which cultural aspects and on what level should it be included in the language teaching on each level of proficiency. However, as it is recommended by many specialists and also CEFR, the development of intercultural competences should be started at a very early age, so the cultural aspects specified in each code could be included to a certain extent in all levels of language proficiency, including the A1 level.

Slovak national curriculum for the English language ISCED 1 (2011)

A new concept for the foreign language teaching at primary and secondary schools in Slovakia was accredited by the government of the Slovak Republic on 12th September 2007 (767/2007). The aim of the curricular reform is to eliminate a great variety of teaching English at primary schools and to improve the standards of foreign language education. The priority is to provide an effective foreign language education for children from a very

early age, as young children already begin to form key attitudes towards other languages and cultures, which may remain deep seated in later life. As a consequence, compulsory foreign language education has been brought forward to the third year of primary school education. The plan of the language reform was to bring the accredited changes into practice at the earliest by the school year 2008/2009, or in the school year 2009/2010, concerning the unified version of the language curriculum (Koncepcia vyučovania cudzích jazykov v základných a stredných školách, 2007, p. 34). A problem was the insufficient number of qualified foreign language teachers for the primary school level and the plan was to provide within three years a greater number of qualified foreign language teachers for the primary school level (Koncepcia…, 2007, p. 24). The transition period should last at the latest till the school years 2017-2019. After 2019 all the schools will have to provide the teaching of foreign languages in correspondence with the reformed concept of foreign language education (Koncepcia…, 2007, p. 21). Based on the new concept of foreign language education, at least two foreign languages should be learned by each pupil in Slovakia. The first foreign language should be taught from the third year (8 years old pupils) of primary school and the second foreign language should be taught from the fifth year (10 years old pupils) of primary school. Also the number of language lessons is increased. Levels of language proficiency are set according to the CEFR for each level of education. The Slovak parliament on 1st February 2011 passed an amendment to the School Act (245/2008) about the English language becoming the compulsory foreign language taught in schools.

Even though the plan of the reform was to bring the accredited changes into practice in the school year 2008/2009 (or 2009/2010), the national curriculum for the English language was published in May 2011. Primary schools were to make their own school curricula based on the national curriculum, which was truly impossible with the national curriculum coming three years later. This is quite an important fact showing defaults in the curricular reform.

Nevertheless, the next step of this analysis is to focus on the current national curriculum for the English language at the primary school level. It is based on the CEFR A1 proficiency level, but it is slightly modified, as the Slovak primary education finishes with the fourth year and the A1 level corresponds with the end of the fifth year of primary school (lower secondary education). Therefore, the national curriculum sets the language proficiency

level to the A1.1 as the target level for the end of the fourth year of primary school. The national curriculum is not divided into individual school years, only the target level A1.1 is described. The curriculum deals with the following aims and competences.

General aims cover various aspects concerning the acquisition of a foreign language, where the development of intercultural competences is mentioned as one of the aims. Social aims are characterized too generally and they can be applied to any other subject, e.g. cooperation with partners, providing help and encouragement to others, ability to adjust, to accept failure, etc.

General competences are described as the competences which are not characteristic for language, and this description does not correspond with the CEFR. The CEFR describes general competences as knowledge, skills, existential competences and ability to learn and all of them are portrayed in connection with language including the intercultural issues. So the above mentioned, in my opinion important part, is definitely missing in the national curriculum.

Communicative competences mention linguistic competences, sociolinguistic competences (basic social communication, greetings, introduction, thanking) and pragmatic competences (only on the level of combining letters and joining words with conjunctions "and", "or"). I consider these descriptions as insufficient in comparison with the CEFR. Any reference to non-verbal communication is completely missing.

The curriculum deals further with the description of skills (reading, listening, speaking, writing), and only a few cultural aspects are mentioned. In speaking skills the ability to introduce oneself, greet somebody, ask how they are, ask and answer questions about everyday life is mentioned. And in the writing skills the ability to write a postcard is included.

A great part of the curriculum is devoted to functions and competences in the English language for the A1 proficiency level. It names and describes 25 different competences for A1 to B2 level, which should be based on the CEFR, but are taken from the publication *"Un Referentiel: Textes ET References Niveau B2 Pour Le Francais/Livre - Conseil Europe"* (Beacco, J.-C., Bouquet, S., Porquier, R., 2004). However, nowhere in this version can these 25 competences be found. I mention the ones which are included in the curriculum for the A1 level: relating with others in a communicative situation (1), listening to and giving information

(2), choosing from given possibilities (3), expressing opinion (4), expressing willingness (5), expressing ability (6), expressing feelings (7), expressing expectations and reactions to expectations (8), discussing interests and tastes (9), setting rules and regulations (11), making and responding to offers (14), responding to possible events (15), meeting people for the first time (17), correspondence (18), making a phone call (19), monitoring understanding (24). Some of these competences include the intercultural aspect, which I illustrate and describe later.

The last part of the curriculum deals with the topics for communication for the level A1.1+ and the suggestions for the development of language skills and the way of evaluating pupils. Fourteen topics are named without any closer description (Family and society, Home and living, Human body, Transport, Education, Humans and nature, Hobbies and free time, Food, Multicultural society, Clothes and fashion, Sports, Shopping, Countries, towns and places, Ideals). I assume that more description, ideas and tips would be needed in the curriculum. For better illustration, I put the occurrence of cultural issues in the curriculum in the following table:

Table 2: Categories and codes present in the current Curriculum

Categories	Code Nr.	Codes	Occurrence in various contexts	Examples
Sociolinguistic competences	1	greetings, addressing	4 - very good	Introducing oneself (I'm…/My name is…) and others (This is…/My mother's name is…), responding to introductions (Hello, how are you?), expressing welcome (Welcome. Come in.), greeting by arrival (Hello/Hi/Good morning/ Good afternoon/ Good evening) and departure (Good night/Goodbye/Bye-bye/Bye)
	2	use of exclamations	0	
	3	positive politeness	1 - insufficient	Expressing likes: I love…/ I like…,
	4	negative politeness	0	
	5	appropriate use of	2 - sufficient	Thank you. Thanks. That's ok. OK. Yes, please. No, thank you.
	6	Impoliteness	1 - insufficient	Dislike (I don't like…)
	7	proverbs, idioms	0	
	8	register (language use in different contexts)	0	

Categories	Code Nr.	Codes	Occurrence in various contexts	Examples
		(p. 120)		
	9	dialect, accent (p. 121)	0	
Pragmatic competences	10	suasion (advising, persuading, urging) (p. 126)	4 - very good	Making requests (Speak slowly, Can I go…, please?) responding to requests (Yes. Ok. No, sorry.), suggesting something (Can you…?/Let's play), offering help (Can I help you?), monitoring understanding (Does he understand?/Can you spell your name?/How do you say it in English?/Can you repeat it please?)
	11	socialising (p. 126)	3 - sufficient	Written greetings, letters (how to start and finish), telephone conversation
	12	interaction patterns (p. 127)	0	
Non verbal communication	13	body language (p. 89)	0	
	14	extra linguistic speech sounds (p. 89)	0	
Categories	Code Nr.	Codes	Occurrence in various contexts	Examples
	15	prosodic qualities (p. 89)	0	
Socio-cultural knowledge	16	everyday living (p. 102)	0	
	17	living conditions (p. 102)	0	
	18	interpersonal relations (p. 102)	0	
	19	values, beliefs, attitudes, people, country (p. 103)	0	
	20	social conventions (p. 103)	0	
	21	ritual behaviour (p. 103)	1 - insufficient	foreign languages, celebrations, cultures coming together
Recommended materials	22	authentic texts	0	
	23	authentic language (p. 56, 143, 148, 154)	0	
	24	special books (p. 148)	0	
	25	computers (p. 143	0	
Recommended methods and techniques	26	role-plays, games, simulations (p. 56, 148)	0	

	27	discussions, negotiations (p. 145, 148)	0	
	28	explanations, illustrations (p. 145, 148)	0	
	29	creating portfolio (p. 175)	1 - sufficient	Self evaluating notes, collection of drawings, projects, tests, etc.

From the above table it is obvious, that only 8 codes were included and the remaining 21 codes were not mentioned in the current curriculum. The quality of the codes was also marked as 'very good', 'sufficient', or 'insufficient', based on the analyses of the contents of the mentioned codes. The national curriculum has some very well documented codes, some codes were sufficient, some come codes were insufficient and quite a number of codes that were not included.

The national curriculum pays the most attention to the development of some aspects of sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences, from which the most frequent codes appeared in four various places. These aspects are represented by these codes: the code number one "greetings, addressing" and the code number ten "suasion - advising, persuading, urging". The code number one was mentioned in the introduction of the curriculum, but mainly in the competence number 1 (Relating with others in a communicative situation) and the competence number 17 (Meeting people for the first time). The number one code suggests: introducing oneself (I'm…/My name is…) and others (This is…/ My mother's name is…), responding to introductions (Hello, how are you?), expressing welcome (Welcome. Come in.), greeting by arrival (Hello/Hi/Good morning/Good afternoon/Good evening) and departure (Good night/Goodbye/Bye-bye/Bye). I assume the code number one is well and sufficiently represented with the aim to develop the sociolinguistic competence.

The code number ten "suasion (advising, persuading, urging)" was present in the competence number 14 (Making and responding to offers) and competence number 24 (Monitoring understanding). The code 10 suggests: making requests (Speak slowly, Can I go…, please?) responding to requests (Yes. Ok. No, sorry.), suggesting something (Can you…?/Let's play), offering help (Can I help you?), monitoring understanding (Does he understand?/Can you spell your name?/How do you say it in English?/Can you repeat it please?). The code number ten develops pragmatic competences and I suppose that this code is also sufficiently represented.

The following codes were mentioned three times, twice or once. The code number eleven "socialising" was mentioned in the introduction of the curriculum and in the competences 18 (Correspondence) and 19 (Making a phone call). The code eleven suggests: written greetings, letters (how to start and finish) and telephone conversations. I consider this code sufficient enough for this language proficiency in development of pragmatic competences.

The code number five "appropriate use of thank you" was illustrated in the competences 1 (Relating with others in a communicative situation), 14 (Making and responding to offers) with phrases such as: thank you; thanks; that's ok; OK; yes, please; no, thank you. There are good examples for thanking in the described situations, but missing is an explanation for the use of "please". The codes number three "positive politeness" and six "Impoliteness" were mentioned only once in the competence 9 (Discussing interests and tastes). These codes were in my opinion not sufficient with only very simple phrases expressing likes and dislikes: I like/I love, I don't like. The codes three, five and six are connected with development of sociolinguistic competences.

Code number twenty one "ritual behaviour" was mentioned only once in the topics for communication "Multicultural society" with the suggestions for discussions: foreign languages, celebrations, cultures coming together. This belongs to the category of socio-cultural knowledge and I believe that this is more than inadequate.

The category of recommended materials was never mentioned in the curriculum and the category of recommended methods and techniques was mentioned once by the code twenty eight "creating portfolio" in the part dealing with evaluation and the portfolio was to include: self evaluating notes, collection of drawings, projects, tests, etc.

Some of the codes were well described and represented, some were sufficient, some were insufficient and quite a significant number of codes were not even mentioned in the current national curriculum. For example, code number one and code number ten are well represented with loads of appropriate examples with the aim to develop the sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences.

I consider the codes five and eleven as fairly sufficient, as what is mentioned in the curriculum is adequate (telephone conversations, written greetings, thanking), but there are some essential parts of these codes

missing (how to use 'please' appropriately, socializing – greetings, conversations). The codes number five and eleven develop sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences.

I consider the codes three and six as insufficient, as they only mention very simple phrases (I like/I don't like) for expressing likes and dislikes. The socio-cultural knowledge was represented only by the code twenty one and with only basic topics (foreign languages, celebrations, cultures coming together). This category was insufficiently represented in the current curriculum.

19 codes out of 29 were never even mentioned in the curriculum and I believe that the codes two (use of exclamations), four (negative politeness), and at least some codes from the categories of non verbal communication, materials, techniques and methods for teaching culture should be included in the national curriculum.

The quality of the codes is summarised according to the categories. The sociolinguistic competences category includes four codes out of nine. Out of the four codes in the current curriculum the code number one is very good, the code number five is sufficient and the two codes three and six are insufficient. The curriculum does not include five codes from this category, from which the codes describing negative politeness, or exclamations should be included.

The category of pragmatic competences is represented by two codes out of three (10, 11) in the current curriculum. The code number ten is very good and the code number eleven is sufficient. Overall, the category of pragmatic competences is sufficient in the current curriculum, from which two codes are either very well or sufficiently represented.

The category of socio-cultural knowledge is represented by one code out of six (21) in the current curriculum. The curriculum mentions only one code (21) out of six and I consider this code as insufficient, too general with little information. Overall, the current curriculum is poor in including socio-cultural knowledge into its content, as it lacks basic information.

From the category of recommended methods and techniques, the current curriculum includes one code (28) and I consider this code as sufficient. Nevertheless, out of four codes in this category, only one is mentioned. This category is considered as underrated.

The categories of non verbal communication and recommended materials were not even mentioned in the national curriculum. I believe that

these categories should be included. The category of non verbal communication is an important part of intercultural communication and the category of recommended materials offers valuable tips for materials which could be used for cultural teaching.

Conclusion of document analyses

To summarize the comparison of CEFR with the current national curriculum, I have to answer the research questions. The research question number 1 states: "How are the recommended cultural contents from CEFR reflected in the current Slovak curricular documents?" The recommended cultural contents from the CEFR are reflected in the form of categories and codes illustrated in the above tables. Only 8 codes out of 29 are included in the current curriculum, from which 2 codes are very good, 3 codes are sufficient and 3 codes are insufficient. The sociolinguistic competence category is represented by 4 codes out of 9, 1 code is very good, 1 code is sufficient and 2 codes are insufficient. The pragmatic competence category is represented by 2 codes out of 3, 1 code is very good and 1 code is sufficient. The socio-cultural knowledge is represented only by 1 code out of 6 and it is insufficient. Category of recommended methods and techniques is represented only by 1 code out of 4, but this code is sufficient. Other categories including non verbal communication and recommended materials were not mentioned.

The research question number 2 states: "To what extent does the Slovak national curriculum reflect the CEFR concerning the implementation of cultural teaching within the English language education?" I consider the extent of cultural teaching in the national curriculum as generally insufficient. It includes only 8 codes, which is less than a third of the set 29 codes. As was mentioned earlier, not all the codes have the equal importance, but I claim that some important categories and codes (e.g. negative politeness, exclamations, living conditions, social conventions, non verbal communication, recommended materials, methods and techniques) should be included.

The aim of this study was to find out the extent of cultural content in the current national curriculum and compare it with the CEFR. I have found out that the current curriculum includes only less than a third (29 %) of the set 28 codes concerning cultural aspects, which I consider as highly unsatisfactory. Particularly, the missing aspects regarding negative politeness,

exclamations, living conditions, social conventions, non verbal communication, recommended materials, methods and techniques should be included in the curriculum.

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BUILDING LEARNER CONFIDENCE IN EARLY LANGUAGE PRODUCTION VIA CREATIVE TASKS

Zuzana Straková

Introduction

Learning a foreign language is a complex process which has many specific features for each age group as well as for each individual stepping inside this process. There has been a lot of research conducted within the area of age-specificity, conditions necessary for language progress, individual differences in language learning and still, however, there is no single method or approach in teaching foreign languages. On the other hand, no approach would deny the importance and the influence of motivation on the results of the learning process. As Arnold et al (2007) claim motivation for learning is strengthened by the positive feeling the learner has when it comes to the learning process and the interest in learners that the teacher is able to spark. These aspects are important for any age group although it is quite often, especially in the school context, taken for granted that students are obliged to be motivated and that the teacher´s task is only to make sure they keep up with the textbook-based plans (Shorrocks, 1994). This article focuses on two cornerstones which determine the success in learning a foreign language: feeling safety and inner motivation through creativity which altogether fosters early language production.

Early language production

Language development has several stages which are closely interrelated; however, they might not last the same time for each learner. Within the area of second language development the early language production in general means that the child depends heavily on context, produces, words in isolation, verbalizes key words, and responds with one or two words or short phrases, points, draws, or gesture responses. Mispronunciation is quite common as well as grammar errors. As to the cognitive processes, the child is able to name, recall, draw, record, point out, underline, categorize, and list (Krashen and Terrell, 1983). It would correspond to the period from

6 months to 1 year of second language acquisition. Foreign language context does not match this development precisely due to the limited time and amount of exposure to the target language which is quite common. Yet, the stages of the language development resemble the stages of second language acquisition (Lightbown, Spada, 1999). One of the important factors influencing success in language teaching is respecting this natural language development:

- *silent period* – this period is hardly ever taken into consideration by teachers since they try to get children to speak already during the very first encounters with the target language. However, there are clear signs of this period present in child´s hesitant and non-responding behaviour during the lesson. This means we need to give more time to the child to get acquainted with the language and see more examples on which they could build their confidence. It is never effective to push the child too much. We should rather offer more language samples and create the feeling of safety so that the child can gain the confidence.

- *reproductive period* – seems to be one of the longest periods in the school environment. It is the period when the child responds to the stimuli usually by repeating what was said by the teacher or other children. The child speaks or writes although it is not real production. Children need a lot of examples and guidelines in order to achieve a task.

- *repro-productive period* – this stage is usually achieved during the higher levels of primary education. Children still need a lot of examples and cues, however, they are able to modify them and say something what they really want, i.e. what is true about them.

- *early production period* – this is the typical borderline between the primary education and lower secondary education where children are able to produce pieces of spoken and written communication after sufficient practice of certain language samples.

- *productive period* – starts after a child´s development of abstract thinking has been completed, i.e. usually at the lower secondary level. The child is able e.g. to describe the picture using certain cues

whether in written or spoken form or perform a dialogue in a familiar situation. (Straková, 2011)

When we focus on the language production, which is the prime aim of school language education, it seems crucial that all the above mentioned stages are respected and well laid out between primary and lower secondary level. While the first three stages are necessarily a part of primary education, the fourth and the fifth stage belong to the care of lower-secondary teachers. The first year of lower secondary level – year 5- is especially important for the language progress. This is the year when early foreign language production should be fostered most and missing this period in language learners´ development might hinder the process of proceeding with ease to the stage when we expect learners to actually produce the foreign language due to the psychological development of the learners.

The Early production period in foreign language learning can be characterized as the transition between reproductive and productive stage. This is the time when learners stop purely repeating what they have heard or seen in the classroom and tend to produce their own messages. However, their linguistic competence does not allow them to express their thoughts with ease so they have to limit themselves to the basic phrases. Even though their motivation to deliver their messages is usually high, they still need a lot of support and guidelines from the teachers. The way they automatize their utterances might resemble the repro-productive stage, however, the language practice at the early production stage is of a different nature. 10 year-old learners will no longer merely reproduce the language they hear around themselves. Language practice for these learners needs to include:

- creative elements – in order to personalise their outcomes;

- fun elements – in order to lower their affective filter;

- reflection – in order to become aware of their own language progress.

Tasks which are appropriate for this kind of language practice usually allow for creative outcomes, are open-ended and personalised. Lojová et al. (2011, p. 23) describe personalisation as an approach in which learners focus their attention to contexts which are close to them, which they know from experience and which they consider personally important and meaningful. Such creative and personalised outcomes have a greater potential to remain in learner´s memory than a pure language exercise from the textbook.

Creativity and the textbook

Creativity as an inborn capacity develops from early years mainly through games which serve as a base-line for exploration, for learning and discovery. Schooling as an important borderline in child´s development (Portík, 2001) brings a rapid decrease in the creativity growth since children are being taught to keep to the given rules, to optimize their outputs to meet the desirable and measurable criteria. Szobiová (1999) refers to the research of Torrance presenting these findings and claims that the starting of schooling brings a new phenomenon – evaluation and assessment – which also hinders the development of creativity due to the attempt of children to meet the given criteria.

Textbooks are the symbol of the school context; they are a distinctive feature of a child attending the school. It could be said that textbooks have an irreplaceable role in education in general. They are considered by researchers as well as teachers in practice the main teaching aid, the key resource for planning and teaching process. Even now, despite the huge boom of modern technologies, textbooks do not lose their dominant position. Even though teachers use a variety of resources in their teaching, textbooks remain the prime focus of what they are going to deal with in their lessons.

Language textbooks which are used nowadays are almost exclusively produced by foreign publishers which have managed to transform our understanding of a good textbook. It is no longer one single book being shared by teachers and their students, but usually it is a complex of teaching and learning materials that are available in multiple formats all along with accompanying teaching resources. Publishers provide teachers with everything they might need for the classroom work and teachers, thus, need to invest less effort into their preparation for teaching. However, even though it might be considered that new textbooks with all their accompanying materials will only bring positive effects to teacher development, often the opposite is true. Teachers frequently display a kind of resignation and give up searching for their own ideas, as everything is ready for them, planned, poised – without the need to spend much time on thinking about what is beyond one´s teaching. Another negative phenomenon that can be noticed in today´s teaching practice is that textbooks have in general become the only content that the teacher deals

with - the textbook imprints the scope of learning and shapes the school syllabus, as the basic content that should be passed on the students.

The textbook is definitely a useful teaching aid for teachers, as well as for students. However, teachers should be aware of the limits each textbook has when considering the intended aims in education in general. Apart from the typical stereotype of the teaching process, which is both comfortable and dangerous at the same time, textbooks have a potential to generate certain dependence of the teacher on the tasks the textbook offers. Supplements which are handed in to the teacher with any textbook (answer key, additional activities for specific tasks in the textbooks, additional audiovisual material, etc.) create a kind of reassurance that tasks used in the lesson are tailor-made for the students we teach. Planning lessons according to prepared materials from teacher´s books is not demanding, quite time-saving; however, it remains impersonal and under-developing for both the teacher and the student.

Language textbooks published by foreign publishers are written to satisfy the multinational market which narrows the horizons of textbooks to secure global issues. In recent years, there is also the trend to orientate teaching towards measurable outcomes and towards the success in tests. It is, therefore crucial for the student to master the whole bunch of testing techniques in order to perform well in these tests. Notwithstanding these trends, the aim of education should be to develop divergent thinking processes, not to limit them to serve a single purpose.

Raising a question whether the textbook can support creativity as such – bearing in mind all the above mentioned limits – without having a teacher as a decision-maker, we examined a selected set of textbooks which are being used at the moment in the school context. The content analysis was based on a set of criteria which are commonly cited by the professionals focusing on creativity development of students. Szobiová (1999) addresses the issue of creativity with the following criteria defined:

- Fluency - producing as much content

- Flexibility-create as many ideas

- Originality - production of original ideas, answers

- Sensitivity to problems - observation

- Redefining - meaning a change of use

- Elaboration - developing details

A randomly selected unit consisted of 71 tasks which were divided into various areas focusing on the language development. Only 6 out of 71 tasks in the selected unit could be considered creative or at least leading towards the development of creativity. The rest of the tasks were of a convergent nature as they were pushing students to one expected answer or consisting of closed questions.

The results of this content analysis might seem too pessimistic however, they only reveal true nature of textbooks which teachers must be aware of. The role of the textbook is to provide the material for the teacher to work with, not a lesson plan for the teacher. It is there ready for the teacher to take and use, however, it is not a step-by-step plan to use in the lesson. Each teacher training course focuses the future teacher on effective work with any textbook which should follow mainly four principles: select, adapt, omit, supplement. If a teacher follows these principles there should be no worries that we cannot develop learners´ creativity using any textbook. It only requires that teachers understand the positive role and functions of the textbooks and that they do not resign on their duty to bring about learning with the support of all stimuli that are at their disposal. So basically we do not need creative textbooks to develop learners´ creativity but creative teachers Zelinová, Zelina (1997), who understand how learning happens and teachers who are devoted to use any tools to make it happen.

Creativity and the task
The application of the above-mentioned rules for using textbooks effectively will underline the importance of considering the value of a single task as a defining unit for supporting or hindering creativity and learning process. If textbooks become a representative of the core content and if we allow supplementary materials to function as the tool for opening the door to the outside world (Pokrivčáková, et al, 2010), the combination can be beneficial especially for the learners who will feel the sense of systematic language progress and at the same time they will gain confidence in using the language through creative tasks.

One example of using a textbook as a starting point for further creative work can be given in the following example. In this case study (Straková, 2011) the aim was to monitor whether the language level limits the interest of learners to work with art pieces and their language production. It describes an

example of how art and language can be developed together in a class where the focus is not exclusively on language practice but where the goals have been set much wider.

Since the main focus was to monitor how proficiency level limits the interest and ability to work with art in the class, the low elementary level - year five at a primary school – was chosen for this purpose, which means the level where students are rather limited by what they can do with the foreign language. They are exactly at the level that we have addressed before as early production stage.

The group of learners which have been selected for the case study had English classes four times a week and there were 16 learners in the group (10 girls and 6 boys). They were 10 years old and started to learn English in year 1 although the first two years they only had one lesson per week.

The aims of the experiment lessons were set as follows:

- students will be able to recognize the famous fine art masterpieces;

- students will recognize selected famous painters;

- students will be able to express their feeling towards selected paintings;

- students will be able to describe a picture using structure "There is/There are".

The planned unit consisted of three lessons which were divided into the following parts: the lead-in lesson, the theme lesson and the feedback lesson. The regular textbook that students used in their learning provided a sufficient element for the lead-in part and served as an introduction into the theme Art in our life. The textbook material was taken from a CLIL page in the learners´ textbook (Project Third Edition 1, p. 73) and the exercises were considered a good starting point for the entire theme.

The lesson started with a presentation performed on an interactive whiteboard and learners were first introduced to the title Art in our Life. The discussion which was held was in their mother tongue. After that the learners were shown four names of famous artists (Pablo Picasso, Vincent van Gogh, Leonardo da Vinci, Peter Bruegel) and they were asked whether they recognised them. It was quite surprising that not many students were able to respond but some of these names sounded familiar to them. This created a strong learning point in this lesson. After disclosing they were all painters students were asked which ones of the painters were the oldest

and the youngest. Then they were shown their pictures and based on that their guesses were near right. Later the students were presented one selected piece by each painter and their task was to guess who the author was. The last painting (by Bruegel) was identical with the picture in their textbook so the students continued with some language work based on textbook exercises. At the end of the lead-in lesson their task was to describe selected parts of Bruegel´s painting.

The theme lesson was focused on the language production through a creative task and the main aim was to lead learners towards selecting a painting of their preference, describing it using the language they had at their disposal and prepare it for the gallery display. At the beginning the learners were presented a set of famous paintings with the name of the author at the back side, printed in colour and laminated. They were asked to look through them carefully and to choose the one they liked. If learners recognised some paintings they had a tendency to select it. There was also a brief discussion about the paintings while introducing them. Once each learner had their painting, their task was to prepare the promotion of this painting for their class gallery. Learners were presented the idea of designing a class gallery in their classroom and they were also told the promotion of new paintings would be recorded. That brought an element of interest as well as higher anxiety and learners were thinking more carefully about how they could present their painting to the others. Since we worked with 10 year-olds at elementary level they also needed some guidance. They were given the following guidelines:

- introduce the painting (its name);
- give the name of the author;
- say what we can see there:
    - there´s somebody/something (what it looks like, what colour it is; what people are wearing, tec.)
    - somebody is doing something - What is it?
    - something is happening – What is it?
- express whether you like this picture or not and why.

After completing the tasks the written description were edited and written on the coloured paper with the laminated painting above it. The final products were displayed in their classroom.

The text of selected painting descriptions clearly shows that although the learners were given some structure they tried to express their feelings

depending on their level of proficiency. Some of them went beyond their limits risking mistakes and some stayed within the safe ground. Finally learners presented their painting and each presentation was recorded. Most learners tried to learn their texts by heart but some of them tried to describe it freely supporting themselves by the text from time to time.

This case study demonstrates that a textbook can function as a starting point for taking the activity of students further beyond the textbook limits. Art seems to be especially suitable for inviting creativity into the classroom. Even some authors of EFL textbooks acknowledge the importance of including the links towards art in their textbooks. However, the good practice examples are rather spare since classroom teachers often do not feel confident enough to work with art if they are not qualified arts teachers. Their worries include uncertainty over whether students might be interested in fine art in general, if they as teachers will be able to provide enough information about the individual pieces of art, or if they should bother at all since there are so many exercises in their textbook which need to be covered anyway. Another worry might be connected to the language proficiency level of students. Teachers might be concerned about whether their students are able to describe or to discuss the fine art work or whether they should wait until they master the language at higher level. Grundy et al. (2011, p. 10) claim that "one of the most significant methodological issues in language teaching is the issue whether we learn language in order to use it or whether we learn a language through using it". While working with a textbook usually directs the learner towards one expected outcome, involving art in teaching means opening the gates for freer use of the language and for the attempts to succeed with whatever is at the learner´s disposal at the moment. Most of the   times the students are focused on real cognitive processes – thinking about the piece of art, receiving messages, creating an opinion, expressing that opinion – rather than rehearsing, practising those processes and looking for the correct answer.

It has to be admitted that even though art is usually considered as a passive self-responding, art has the potential to spark imagination which goes beyond the author´s original intention. It should be no problem for teachers nowadays to bring the images from art galleries to the classroom via modern technology and invite their learners to respond in spoken or written form to what they see. The new digital world entered even the area of education

and these technologies which are being used nowadays at schools can bring even original fine art masterpieces closer to the learners. We no longer need to take the class to the gallery – unless we want the real feeling – in order to introduce the fine art to our students. That makes it easier even for the language teachers who otherwise would find it difficult to excuse the entire class from the lessons to take them to the gallery. Digital technologies and especially Internet websites can expose the learners to what we need and any time we want.

A good example can be given by using the painting Bad News by James Tissot. This painting depicts three people in the room obviously discussing some bad news. There are two women and a young gentleman wearing a uniform. One of the women is leaning against the young man saying nothing while the other, standing at the table seems to be speaking. Having a painting like that displayed in the classroom the students have an opportunity to use it in many ways. For instance they could be given the following tasks:

- describing the picture giving as many details as they can;

- since the painting is named Bad news and it was painted in year 1872, students can research the internet sources for what happened that year and choose one of the events that they think gave an impulse to the author. The students can come with examples such as: *March 26: 7.8 earthquake shakes Owens Valley, California, April 24: Volcano Vesuvius erupts, June 6: Susan B Anthony is fined for trying to vote, October 9: Aaron Montgomery started his mail-order business, December 26: 4th largest snowfall in New York City history (18").* Their task then would be to explain how these people are connected to any of these events;

- adding speech bubbles to people in the painting;

- adding thinking bubbles to people in the painting describing what they are thinking;

- the speech bubbles can be flavoured by emotions that people in the painting have, e.g. *boredom, sadness, tiredness, jealousy, envy, bitterness, depression;*

- the speech or thinking bubbles can be limited to questions only, imperative sentences only or negative sentences only, etc.;

- after describing the painting the students can be encouraged to discover the secrets each person in the painting has which the others are not aware of. The students individually or in pairs can come up with their own idea of the secrets people in the painting are hiding.

Art offers unlimited ways of responding in the target language and the most important thing for the learners' self-confidence is that the teacher does not expect only one correct answer. Whatever they come up with will be listened to and considered by the class as a unique idea. The language mistakes become of lesser importance than when students are working on a grammar exercise. In the reflection after the activity the teacher should, of course, give the feedback to the students also on the language they used for expressing themselves, however, the joy of saying what they wanted will not be diminished.

Creative writing at the early production level
Language production at early stages involves not only oral production – speaking – but also written production – writing. Mastering foreign language with respect to written production is described in the Common European Framework of Reference for languages (2001, p. 61) as follows:
- completing forms and questionnaires;

- writing articles for magazines, newspapers, newsletters, etc.;

- producing posters for displays;

- writing reports, memoranda, etc.;

- making notes for future reference;

- taking down messages from dictation, etc.;

- creative and imaginative writing;

- writing personal and business letters, etc.

It can be seen that creative writing is specified as a legitimate part for early production at A1 level with the definition that learners at this level should be able to "write simple phrases and sentences about themselves and imaginary people, where they live and what they do"(ibid.)

As Maley (2009) explains creative writing usually denominates such text types which carry an aesthetic value and do not focus only on the informative features of the text (e.g. poems or stories). As he further notes the main characteristics of creative writing is their "playful engagement with language, stretching and testing its rules to the limit in a guilt-free atmosphere, where risk is encouraged". These features correspond with the necessary conditions for confidence building especially at the times of limited linguistic competence.

Even this limited linguistic competence allows for creative outcomes of learners at the early production stage and they can come up with the results they might be proud of (Reilly, Reilly, 2005). These outcomes can be connected to project work products or even such activities as using poetry writing, e.g. what is commonly referred to as Haiku – miniature Japanese poems with a strict composition (5-7-5 syllables). In this case a piece of art can again serve as a generator of ideas since Haikus are typically connected to the nature. There are loads of paintings which can spark creative thoughts in learners once exposed to them. Learners´ ideas are recorded and afterwards formed to meet the rules of Haiku writing and thus bring about not only language discovery but even fun and joy of self-expression (Eliášová, 2005). Other examples of activities suitable for this age and proficiency level are comic books, blogs, making an journal, etc.

An important element and supplement of creative writing activities as Zajícová (In: Janíková, 2011, p. 105) claims are classroom displays of learners' products, discussions about the products, reading aloud of what learners have produced or the presentation of these products in a school newspaper. She also suggests storing these products in the learner's portfolio for further reference. This can be considered as another step in building learners' confidence through the feeling of acceptance by the group of their classmates.

Thus it seems that language competence does not necessarily need to precede the language production, in other words teachers do not have to wait until their learners are ready for producing written or spoken language. Their competence will deepen with using the language in such situations that learners themselves will consider meaningful and relevant. The positive atmosphere in the classroom can definitely be of more use to learners than drilling rules of using the language (Hunt, Sampson,1998). It is the confidence that matters the most especially in such insecure times as

learners at lower secondary level find themselves in. Teachers need to relax in pushing students too much to find the correct answer in a grammar or vocabulary focused textbook exercise (Gerngross et al, 2007) and instead open up for unforeseen situations which might bring not only fun but also a memorable learning experience. Students have a tendency to remember more such situations than the moments when they filled in a missing article.

Summary

In recent decades creativity has been paid lip service by many educators and teachers as well. Creativity seems to be a part of every project the school submits, it is a frequent focus of many final theses of teachers heading for their attestations and yet, creativity has seldom full realisation in the school context (Zelinová, Zelina, 1990). The obstacles that teachers face in putting creative approaches in practice can be of an internal as well as an external nature (Königová,M., 2007, pp. 17-20). The internal obstacles are connected to the internal conflicts of the teacher, insecurity, worries, the feeling of time pressure. Another barrier for creative approaches can be noticed in feeling too much responsibility resulting in indecisive behaviour of a person especially in connection to personal threats that decision-making represents (Lokšová, Lokša, 2001). On the other hand, external barriers are mainly represented by the school environment (even such aspects as noise, dark rooms, etc.) and by people connected to the professional network.

When we consider a teacher´s work we can notice that the administrative load takes a lot of energy from teachers and in order to carry out all their duties, they lose the initiative to try out new approaches and new ideas. They opt for secure, tried-out paths, commonly accepted stereotypes in order to avoid the position of a misfit in their school environment. In foreign languages the position of textbooks (mentioned above) seems to have a crucial influence on the way teachers think. They do not search for innovative ways of teaching, but for the best textbook. Eliášová (2006, p. 55) carried out a research at Slovak secondary schools and her findings describe the attitude of teachers who understand that creative writing raises the motivation of their learners to produce language however, they do not find it feasible due to the time demands leading to pressure that teachers feel in their work. They also find it difficult to evaluate the creative outcomes and products of their learners. This shows that teachers do not feel enough personal space and freedom in their work and at the same time they do not

feel safe in consideration of how to approach the feedback on what the students have produced. Although at early language production level that should not be the major issue since learners at this level do need to feel that their attempts to use the language creatively has been accepted by their teacher even with minor faults.

Learning a foreign language is closely connected to acquiring not only linguistic rules, words, or phraseological expressions but also immersing into cultural background through the language which might be sometimes hard for learners especially due to the fact that phraseological expressions carry associations together with emotionality (Opalková, 2006, p. 57), which is not always easy for learners to understand. Creative supplement, as for instance art, can deliver such messages easier than pure translation. This element not only raises the interest of learners and their motivation but also enriches the complex understanding of language as such.

Creativity is an important element for personal development and needs to be present at schools. It seems to open the channels of productive use of the language and is, therefore, too important to be left aside. Lower secondary education has a tendency to limit the foreign language learners with fixed given boundaries of the textbook content and resigns from the ambition to equip their learners with confidence they need in order to succeed in the learning process. Teachers will never find the perfect textbook and therefore they need to prefect the way they teach. Inviting creativity might be one possibility.

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