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ESP Practitioners and Content Teachers Collaboration in ESP Syllabus Design: English for Health Tourism Case in Point

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Abstract: Although the necessity for collaboration between content teachers and FLSP practitioners has been widely recognised, it is rather underdeveloped in Serbian tertiary education institutions (Đorović and Mirić, 2011; Mirić and Đorović, 2015). Therefore, we set out to investigate the collaborative practice involved in the design of English for Health Tourism Purposes (EHT) syllabus.

The general aim was to explore whether and how the collaboration between ESP practitioners and content teachers could contribute to an effective EHT syllabus designed to accommodate the students’ linguistic and professional needs. The small-scale questionnaire survey was carried out among the content teachers. The results obtained have confirmed the initial position that the information provided by content teachers is valuable for ESP syllabus designers. The study has also demonstrated that content teachers lack awareness of their beneficial role.

Keywords: collaboration, content teachers, English for Specific Purposes, health tourism, students’ needs.

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INTRODUCTION

Recent developments in educational and pedagogical sciences, as well as the increasing demands of the labour market, have emphasized the power of teacher collaboration at all educational levels. Given the specificity of the foreign language (FL) taught for special academic and/or vocational purposes (FLSP), which is reflected in the fact that FL learning through or in conjunction with the subject matter is usually the focus of FLSP courses, the real necessity of collaboration between FL teachers and content teachers has been widely recognised. In the context of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) teaching and learning, Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) were among the first to acknowledge the importance of this collaboration. In fact, a collaborator has been discerned as one of five distinctive roles taken on by ESP teachers (Dudley-Evans and St. John 1998), which clearly indicates that professionalism in this field goes far beyond teaching.

In the context of tertiary education in Serbia, collaborative work of content teachers and FLSP practitioners is rather undeveloped and lacks institutional support. As evidenced by previous empirical research carried out at the Belgrade University (Đorović and Mirić 2011; Mirić and Đorović 2015), the instances of collaboration are scarce and informal. Overall, the results support the claim that in our community the importance of cooperation aimed at significant enhancement of the educational process and equipping students with skills for professional functioning is not fully recognized as yet (Mirić and Đorović, 2015, p. 508). This provided the stimulus to our study. Yet, we set out to investigate only one aspect of the collaborative practice, i.e. the one involved in an ESP syllabus design. The focus of our attention was on the syllabus designed for English for Health Tourism Purposes (EHT). The academic undergraduate study programme of Health Tourism was established at the Faculty of Hotel Management and Tourism in Vrnjačka Banja in 2016/2017 academic year with the primary aim to equip students with sufficient theoretical and practical knowledge and thus educate competent managers in this field. The overall curriculum is organised around the combination of lectures, exercises and hands-on experience in professional courses delivered by the tertiary education specialists, or content teachers in our terms. Given the criticality of English for the successful performance in the tourism industry (Radovanović and Pešić, 2017, p.p. 683–684), one-semester compulsory English courses were scheduled at all four years of study. In brief, the overall goal of the EHT instruction is to furnish students with linguistic tools and skills to utilise English efficiently in health tourism destinations both in Serbia and abroad. The academic orientation of the course is not neglected, however, as students are also expected to become a part of an academic community as well, probably continuing their education on higher levels of education.

As is the case with most Serbian non-philological tertiary educational institutions, FL instruction is provisioned by philologists with no expertise in the subject area. Hence, the initial drawbacks in terms of the EHT instructor’s lack of knowledge, skills or experience related to the students’ filed of speciality were anticipated. In addition, the primary appeal of the study programme related to its uniqueness imposed some challenges. There were no

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1 This research has been partially funded by the Ministry of Education, Science and Technological Development of Serbia under programme activity “Development of Higher Education no. 612-01986/2017-06”.

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models to follow, nor was there the academic tradition to serve as a base. Theoretical and pedagogical literature, although very informative, did not provide an adequate foundation for syllabus design. Available course books and ready-made teaching materials to benefit from were scarce and lacking the orientation towards this specific niche. The content of ESP courses might be relatively easy to determine depending on what special purposes are (Stryker and Leaver, 1997, p. 4), while the theoretical knowledge along with previous teaching experience was highly beneficial. However, the ESP practitioners chose not to make decisions regarding syllabus arbitrarily and based on their own assessment and intuition, since the creation of EHT syllabus as an effective ground for instruction requires an objective and rational approach. Contesting the claim that it was necessary for these particular ESP practitioners to enter into a dialogue with content teachers in order to make enlightened choices, we focused our study on the collaboration in the process of the EHT syllabus design.

In our opinion, the current study could be beneficial in three respects. First, it could contribute to raising academic staff awareness of the need to work together, and in turn to fostering collaboration. Second, it could fill this ESP niche and be useful not only to ESP practitioners in similar fields but also to a wider population engaged in FLSP syllabus design, to novice teachers faced with emerging FLSP niches, in particular. Third, from the theoretical point of view, it could contribute to overcoming the existing insufficiencies in the literature pointed to in the proceeding section.

TEACHER COLLABORATION AND SYLLABUS DESIGN

In their major study, Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) hold the view that collaboration between ESP teachers and content teachers is a continuum ranging from low to high interaction with three levels of collaborative practices suggested:

- team-teaching, a case of high interaction, that involves a conjoined work in the classroom where each educator provides his/her own expertise;
- collaboration, the second level interaction, which plans for a more direct involvement of the subject teacher to validate the syllabus content by devising common materials; and
- cooperation, the first level interaction, which refers to the language teacher taking the initiative and enquiring about the students’ fields of specialisation to know how English fits into their courses and what the department and students see as priorities (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998, p.p. 42–48).

Team-teaching along with collaboration have been found in the focus of numerous studies e.g. Almagro and Vallejo, 2002; Chien et al., 2008; Coppolino and Cianflone, 2009), whereas the first level of collaboration has not been regarded as an inspiring subject of research. Clearly, it is intrinsically connected with the investigation of students’ needs related to FL learning.

Although the views and approaches to ESP have been changing since its developments in the late 1960s, needs-orient edness has been repeatedly stressed as its invariable feature. In fact, ESP emerged as an endeavour to offer effective language courses in full compliance with students’ special’ needs viewed in linguistic terms as the language needs required for successful performing of tasks in workplaces. As Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p. 19)
pointed out “ESP is an approach to language teaching in which all decision as to (the) content and method are based on the learner’s reason for learning”. Thus, the common thread throughout the literature on ESP is that an effective course is based on students’ needs for learning the language (Mićović, 2014, p. 130). Accordingly, needs analysis, or needs assessment as these terms have often been used interchangeably (e.g. Brown, 1995; Hutchinson and Waters, 1987), which includes techniques and procedures for collecting information to be used in syllabus design (Nunan, 1993, p. 13), is regarded one of the basic prerequisites (Richards, 2001, p. 32).

In the current approaches to FL curriculum development, syllabus design is considered one important component of this complex process along with methodology and evaluation (Brown, 1995; Graves, 2008; Nunan, 2015; Richards, 2001) and materials development (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987). Also, there is consistent agreement that syllabus design includes a specification of the content of a course and the arrangement of what needs to be taught in a methodical way (Nunan, 2015, p. 6; Richards, 2001, p. 2). Therefore, syllabus focuses on the selection and grading of content and is, in fact, a plan for what is to be learned in a particular course of study (Graves, 2008, p. 147). Several categories typically specified by a syllabus (grammatical structures, functions, notions, topics, themes, situations, activities, and tasks (Nunan, 2015) substantially overlap.

Various stakeholders have needs that may also be relevant for FL teaching and learning (Brown, 1995, p. 20) and, thus, possibly included in sound needs analysis. This implies that in the process of the syllabus design ESP instructors should draw on all available sources of knowledge and informed judgment (Richards, 2001). For this reason, we argue for a triangular approach: an efficient EHT syllabus should be based on the comprehensive view of students’ needs that should be viewed from the perspectives of three most important stakeholders, i.e. students, content teachers and employers, as these target groups are expected to provide different perspectives on needs. For the purposes of the present study, we investigated only one source of information, i.e. content teachers whose views on students’ needs should also be included in curriculum design (Đorović and Mirić, 2011). We have not encountered the research focused on the needs perceived by content teachers, which provides justification to the conducted analysis. In addition, no study we are aware of dealt with the EHT although numerous studies depicted various needs analyses conducted among students or employers in the different tourism industry sectors (e.g. Aldohon, 2014; Pešić and Radovanović, 2016; Prachanant, 2012).

The study adopted an ends-means model of syllabus design, which starts with a determination of the kinds of FL skills the students need in order to accomplish professional or vocational tasks and roles and then sets out the language needed to get there (Richards, 2001, p. 40). Based on the concept of needs analysis that enquires into professional information about the learners, the survey largely focused on target needs in the objective sense (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987, p. 55) and target situation analysis (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998, p. 125).

**STUDY**

**Aims and objectives**

The general aim of the study was to explore whether and how collaboration between ESP practitioners and content teachers could contribute to an effective EHT syllabus design to accommodate the students’ linguistic and professional needs. The concomitant aim was to
offer an example of the approach to syllabus design that draws on content teachers’ involvement.

Therefore, the first objective was to carry out the survey among the content teachers, which intended to provide the ESP instructors with a theoretically motivated idea of what the students need to learn from the content teachers' point of view. Bearing in mind that the main purpose was not to produce a complete inventory of the target needs, we expected to gather relevant information indicative of the syllabus contents and teaching materials development. The second objective was to analyse the obtained results and to depict the benefits and challenges.

**Methodology**

*Procedure and participants.* This small-scale survey was carried out in November 2017 among the Faculty academic staff members engaged in the undergraduate Health Tourism study programme. Of the total of 32 content teachers of different academic ranks, only 16 (50%) took part in the survey.

*Instrument and methods.* A survey questionnaire was used as the research instrument to collect the data. Based on the review of relevant literature, the questionnaire was designed to quest for content teachers’ perceptions, evaluations and suggestions indicative of the students’ needs related to the English language usage.

The questionnaire comprised 36 enquiry items of different types. It was based mostly on the sets of structured items, whereas only the last set contained open-ended questions. Following the set of 4 demographic questions, 2 ranking questions based on a 5-point scale ranging from ‘the least relevant’ to ‘the most relevant’ addressed the relevance of the language skills and elements. The next set of 3 questions was an investigation of the target professional tasks frequency. Thus, a 5-point rating scale ranging from ‘never’ to ‘very often’ was applied to 26 tasks and activities the students would be using English for. To address other relevant elements, the next set of 3 questions was created. After the question that asked the participants to do judgmental ratings regarding the perceived proportion of vocabulary to be included in the EHT instruction, 2 open-ended questions tended to elicit suggestions regarding topics and themes and relevant electronic sources. At the end of the questionnaire, the respondents were invited to provide information that could be relevant but unaddressed by the questionnaire.

The questionnaire was administered and collected online by means of Google Docs Forms. The invitation to participate containing a link to the anonymous survey was emailed to the academic staff members.

The study employed descriptive and quantitative, statistical methods.

*Data analysis.* All the obtained data were assembled into a spreadsheet format and entered into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). The statistical devices used in the analysis were Mean (M) and Standard Deviation (SD). The results based on these basic statistical parameters were taken as indicative of the English language needs: the higher

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2 For the purpose of this paper, the questionnaire has been translated from Serbian into English and provided in the Appendix.
mean scores suggested the stronger needs in English. Spearman’s rank-order correlation was also used to analyse the data as the variables were not normally distributed and the sample size was small.

RESULTS

Of the participants who completed the questionnaire (n=16), 56.3% are male and 43.8% are female. 43.8% of the respondents are aged between 23 and 34. 25% are between 35 and 44, 18.8% between 45 and 54, and 12.5 are over 55 years old. The academic staff of each rank at the Faculty took part in the survey as follows: full professors (12.5%), assistant professors (37.5%), associate professors and teaching assistants (25%) each. Academicians from the field of Social and Humanistic Sciences were in the great majority (75%), followed by the ones from the field of Natural and Mathematical Sciences (12.5%), whereas Technological Sciences and Medical Sciences academicians were only a minority (6.3% respectively).

Questions (Q) 5 and 6 were asked to identify the most relevant language skills and elements at a gross level. As the results presented in Graph 1 illustrate, the central language skills (speaking and listening, reading and writing) were rated as needed. The strongest need was perceived for speaking and listening skills (M 4.75 SD .577), which was followed by reading (M 4.25 SD .856) and writing (M 4.19 SD .655). As might have been expected, a positive correlation was noted between writing and translation (.734*). In terms of specialised vocabulary, which was also estimated as needed (Graph 1), the primacy was given to the tourism and hospitality terms (M 4.63 SD .619) over the medical terminology (M 4.19 SD 1.167) (Graph 2). Good grammar command was rated as the least important language element (M 36.9 SD 1.014). Interestingly, a statistically significant positive correlation was noted between this element and academic rank (.502*).

Graph 1: English language skills

![Graph 1](Image)

Graph 2: English language elements

![Graph 2](Image)

As the general goal of ESP is to prepare learners to carry out a specific task or set of tasks (Richards, 2001, p. 33) and activities, these featured as the units of analysis in the questionnaire items grouped into 3 questions according to the language skills that are most
attended. As Table 1 shows, the prospective health tourism employees were expected to engage most frequently in spoken transactions (Q 7) slightly more often carried out with non-native (Q 7.10) rather than with native speakers (Q 7.9). Whereas personal communication with guests was viewed as the most frequent activity (Q 7.5), transactions with professional associates were perceived as mostly related to business meetings, judging from positive correlation (.867**) between the results of Q 7.3 and Q 7.4. The frequency of transactions established in writing did not fall significantly behind (Q 9).

Table 1: Frequency of Professional Tasks and Activities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>7. Speaking and listening</th>
<th>8. Reading</th>
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<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.1 Participating in conferences and seminars</td>
<td>3.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.2 Delivering presentations</td>
<td>3.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.3 Participating in meetings</td>
<td>4.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.4 Professional communication with colleagues</td>
<td>4.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.5 Personal communication with guests/clients</td>
<td>4.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.6 Conducting negotiations</td>
<td>4.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.8 General conversation (informal communication)</td>
<td>4.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.9 Providing services to guests/clients</td>
<td>4.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.10 Communication with native speakers</td>
<td>4.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.11 Communication with non-native speakers</td>
<td>4.38</td>
</tr>
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Source: Authors’ own work
In Q10, we asked for content teachers’ evaluations regarding the proportion of the specific purposes of the language students would use or encounter in the professional setting. Judging from the results presented in Table 2, the material for the EHT should mainly focus on General English and English for Tourism and Hospitality, yet English for Medicine and Healthcare need not be neglected.

Table 2: The Specific Purposes of EHT

<table>
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<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
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<tr>
<td>General English</td>
<td>4.31</td>
<td>.946</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English for Tourism and Hospitality</td>
<td>4.25</td>
<td>1.183</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English for Medicine and Healthcare</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>1.360</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Authors’ own work

Question 11 tended to identify the most relevant themes from the content areas in order to lay the grounds on which the EHT syllabus is to be built. It resulted in 27 suggested themes and topics including health tourism destinations, health tourism, spa tourism, wellness tourism, medical tourism, elements of marketing mix, customer satisfaction, etc. When asked to suggest the relevant sources publicly available online that could be used for EHT materials development (Q12), the participants were not that productive and the overall response was beyond expectations. Of 56.25 respondents who provided answers, most suggested textbooks they themselves use for lecturing, not necessarily available online. There were no responses to the final question.

**DISCUSSION**

Given the aim of the study, the low response rate of only 50%, which is a major limitation of the study, can be considered the first indicative result. This response rate was even more surprising given the previous findings revealing that the greatest level of collaboration between content teachers and ESP practitioners is most evident in ESP curriculum and syllabus development (Mirić and Đorović, 2015). Interestingly, no correlation between the response rate and academic rank was noted as exactly 50% of the content teachers of each rank took part in the survey. This clearly points to the underdeveloped awareness of the main purpose of collaboration with ESP practitioners that should result in the integrated development of students’ academic and linguistic competences, i.e. their simultaneous improvement on a cognitive and communicative plan (Mirić and Đorović, 2015, p. 511). The responses to the open-ended questions indicate that the response rate could be attributed to the lack of interest in cooperation.

In this regard, our study confirms the findings from the previous research on collaborative practices in Serbian tertiary institutions (Đorović and Mirić, 2011; Mirić and Đorović, 2015). It also provides support to the perceived opposed views of the concept of collaboration between ESP practitioners and content teachers (Mirić and Đorović, 2015). For ESP teachers, it is aimed at fostering educational process, whereas for content teachers it is perceived differently (see Mirić and Đorović, 2015, p. 513). As LSP teachers generally tend to provide purposeful courses closely linked to the subject of the disciplines they serve, it is necessary to design courses and syllabi through the cooperation between the FLSP teacher and subject teachers (Mirić and Đorović, 2015, p. 508). In this regard, our study clearly indicates that the collaboration is yet to be fostered to yield beneficial results advantageous to all included in the educational process.
On the other hand, the results provided by those willing to participate in the survey confirm the initial assumption that the information obtained from content teachers regarding students' needs is valuable for ESP syllabus design. The amalgamated responses to the first 3 sets of questions provide the information that the syllabus designer should gather. Hence, the target situation analysis framework (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987, p. 59) for the EHT can be summarised as follows.

Why is language needed? - for professional purposes; - for academic purposes (to a much lower extent, though);

How will the language be used? - medium: speaking, writing, reading; - channel: telephone, face to face; - types of texts or discourse: informal conversations, technical manuals.

What will the content areas be? - tourism and hospitality - healthcare and medicine

Who will the learner use the language with? - non-native as well as native speakers; - relationship: customer/client, colleague;

Where will the language be used? - health tourism professional settings; - human context: on telephone, meetings, etc.; - linguistic context: both in own country and abroad;

The survey has the impact it was designed to have as based on it a profile of the students' language needs can be developed, which in turn facilitates making decisions regarding the syllabus contents. The results presented in Graphs 1 and 2 clearly point to the strongest need for speaking and listening skills, as these are critical for the communicative events in which students are expected to participate most frequently (Table 1). Consequently, the EHT syllabus should centre on these skills, but not neglect writing and reading skills, primarily in the context of business correspondence, which were also assessed as needed (Table 1, Q 8.2 and Q 9.1). The findings presented in Table 1 exactly match those observed in earlier studies that jobs in the tourism industry involve both oral and written tasks (Adorján, 2013; Pešić and Radovanović, 2016). They also support the previous research pointing to the importance of four language skills for tourism industry employees (Aldohon, 2014; Pešić and Radovanović, 2016; Prachanant, 2012). In contrast to earlier findings (Prachanant, 2012), the results revealed the need of engaging in general conversations (Q 7.7). This complies with the results obtained on the relevance of the General English knowledge presented in Graph 1 (M 4.19 SD .655) as well as the ones related to Q10.

Judging from responses to Q10 summarised in Table 2, the ‘kinds of Englishes’ (Richards, 2001, p. 28) to be covered by the EHT instruction include English for General as well as for Specialised Purposes with the priority given to English for Tourism and Hospitality but not to the detriment of English for Medicine. These results present a valuable contribution along with the responses to Q11 that revealed sound topics and themes from a disciplinary point of view. As health tourism is a multifaceted niche with numerous miscellaneous job prospects, an efficient EHT syllabus should cover as many topics relevant to the industry as possible and preferably be enriched with the state-of-the-art topics covered by other specialised courses at the Faculty. From the ESP instructor’s perspective, the suggested
themes are adequate for FL learning as they offer communicative language exploitation. As they are also purposeful in terms of material development, we expect that the obtained information will prove valuable for creating materials that could facilitate the students’ engagement in EHT classes for language sake.

However, this is not the case with the answers to Q12 whose purpose was twofold. It intended to address the potential sources for teaching materials, on the one hand, and to elicit the suggestions regarding the texts or language samples that would be used for a corpus-based lexical analysis, on the other. Thus, the results were to provide the basis for vocabulary selection, which refers to the decision of what should be selected from the total corpus of the language and incorporated in textbooks and teaching materials (Richards, 2001, p. 4) and lays the foundations for syllabus design. Yet, the obtained results do not provide a sound basis for building the relevant corpus and conducting word frequency analysis.

Pedagogical implications

The EHT syllabus designed by taking into account the analysed data is expected to ultimately provide fruitful results in various respects. Firstly, coordination among EHT courses and other subject courses is enabled, which diminishes the previously indicated practice of providing ESP instruction in isolation without clear connections with other subject courses (Đorović and Mirić, 2011, p. 27). Also, the vertical coordination among the EHT courses is achieved. The EHT classroom is made an effective ground for learning as the syllabus is aimed at developing language skills students will actually need and the quality of the instruction provision is improved as the initial drawbacks have been overcome. Also, the level of students’ motivation and in turn their active participation is expected to increase as they can easily forge links between specific subject knowledge and language skills. Importantly, the students’ linguistic competence can be developed parallel with developing professional knowledge, which ultimately leads to the increased overall professional competence and thus contributes to tourism development (Radovanović and Pešić, 2017).

CONCLUSION

Given the interdisciplinary nature of ESP courses, the necessity for collaboration between content teachers and ESP practitioners has been widely recognised. Yet, in Serbian tertiary education institutions, it is rather underdeveloped. Therefore, we set out to investigate collaborative practice involved in the EHT syllabus design. We have claimed that the creation of EHT syllabus requires an objective and rational approach.

As regards ESP syllabus design, unanimous agreement is that one of the basic prerequisites is conducting needs analysis. We have argued for a triangular approach including content teachers as one source of relevant information. Thus, the study was designed to determine whether and how collaboration between ESP practitioners and content teachers could contribute to the design of an effective ESP syllabus.

The first major finding of the questionnaire survey carried out among the content teachers is related to the low response rate (50%), which provides support to the previous research pointing to the lack of ESP practitioners and content teachers cooperation (Đorović and Mirić, 2011; Mirić and Dorović, 2015). In this regard, our study has shown that the collaboration is yet to be fostered to yield beneficial results advantageous to all included in the educational process.
On the other hand, the results obtained have confirmed the initial position that the information on students’ needs obtained from content teachers is valuable for ESP syllabus design. In sum, the analysis has served the purpose. The results give a relatively good representation of language skills needs, and are indicative of the most frequent professional tasks and activities and preferable themes and topics. More importantly, they are also relevant for determining priorities regarding ‘specific Englishes’ to be covered by the instruction. In addition, the information obtained could prove useful for the material design. Regrettfully, the results do not provide the basis for the prospective corpus-based word frequency analysis.

Generally, this is one of rare, if any, studies reporting of the collaboration in the ESP syllabus design and dealing with this specific ESP niche. A number of important limitations need be considered, though. The information obtained from content teachers is useful but it needs to be subjected to further evaluation and interpretation especially in terms of comparison with the data obtained from other sources, which paves the way for some future research. Further, as any one method of needs analysis is likely to provide incomplete or partial information, the information obtained by means of questionnaire might be viewed as superficial or imprecise. This indicates that follow-up could be required, which could possibly shed a new light on the obtained results and drawn conclusions.

In conclusion, the evidence from this study has demonstrated that content teachers can provide a significant contribution to an effective ESP syllabus design but that they are unaware of their beneficial role of collaborators with ESP instructors. There is, therefore, a definite need for future efforts in the direction of devising ways to foster ESP practitioners and content teachers’ collaboration.

REFERENCES


Using ELF: A Study of Identities among Erasmus Exchange Students

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Abstract: Identity has been investigated from various perspectives in Second language acquisition (SLA) research. In second language (L2) motivation research, Dörnyei (2005, 2009) considers learners’ L2 self-concept based on future possible selves (Ideal L2 self). Jenkins (2007) suggests that the use of English as a lingua franca (ELF) has led to multiple identities among users which are not affected by ‘native speaker’ norms. Kalocsai (2009) proposes that ELF speakers create identities within communities in which they use ELF. The aim of this study was to investigate various aspects of Erasmus students’ L2 identity, including their Ideal L2 self, English speaking self-efficacy, and ELF identity. The results indicate that Ideal L2 self was not a central element of students’ self-concept, their level of self-efficacy regarding ELF usage was high, there was use of accommodation among Erasmus students which helped create a group identity, and ELF was considered a unifying instrument among students.

Key words: L2 identity, ELF identity, Erasmus students

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In Second language acquisition (SLA) research the concept of identity has been studied from numerous viewpoints. The study of SLA from a psychological framework (Saville-Troike, 2012) includes a focus on individual differences, including second language (L2) motivation. Research in L2 motivation has considered identification with the target language community (Gardner, 1985, 2001) as a key element of motivation, while more recent research has considered learners’ self-concept as conceived by a future possible self, the ideal L2 self, as an important factor in learner behaviour (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009). Researchers in SLA who view language learning from a social perspective take into consideration the social context when considering the concept of identity. In particular, the sociolinguistic perspective suggests that learners have numerous identities, in addition to a learner identity; moreover, these multiple identities are not static, but rather, are dynamic in nature (Ellis, 2008). Jenkins (2007) argues that the use of ELF (English as a Lingua Franca) in various contexts necessarily entails the emergence of multiple identities among its users. Kalocsi (2009) proposes that ELF speakers create identities within communities in which they use ELF and suggests communities of practice approach to situated language learning. The general aim of this paper was to follow-up on a research previously carried out by the authors which focused on various aspects of Erasmus exchange students’ L2 motivation, attitudes, and ELF identity (Martinović & Dumančić, 2016). The present study focused on a small sample of Croatian students who took part in the Erasmus exchange programme in various European countries.

LITERATURE REVIEW
IDENTITY AND L2 MOTIVATION RESEARCH

Early L2 motivation research was headed by W.E. Lambert and R.C. Gardner who based their studies on a social psychological approach to SLA. One of the underlying assumptions in their approach included the notion that an individual’s attitudes toward an L2 and an L2 community, along with their ethnocentric orientation, are major factors in L2 learning behaviour (Gardner & Lambert, 1972). Another underlying principle of Lambert and Gardner’s approach is the idea that increased proficiency in a L2 “involves greater involvement with cultural features of the other language group and greater involvement of the self” (Gardner, 2010, p. 7). When language becomes automatic, language and self become interconnected, that is, an individual is able to think in the language. For Gardner, the initial stages of language learning, the learning of vocabulary and structure, is a cognitive activity. However, in language learning there is also an implicit affective aspect that entails identification with an individual’s own community and that of the target language community (Gardner, 2010). Gardner identified this concept as ‘integrativeness’ which is a key feature in the socio-educational model (Gardner, 1985). Many studies in L2 motivation have shown that integrativeness plays an important role in the motivation of L2 learners (Gardner, 1985; Gardner & Lambert, 1959, 1972).

However, Dörnyei (2005) suggested that the concept of integrativeness, which implies some sort of identification with the L2 community, needed to be re-interpreted particularly with regard to English language learning. Since English has become the world language, identification with the L2 community can be viewed within a global context, that is, identification in terms of “a non-parochial, cosmopolitan, globalized world citizen identity” (Dörnyei, 2005, p.97). Using Norton’s (2001) concept of ‘imagined community’ which entails an ‘imagined identity,’Dörnyei (2005) proposes that various world English identities
which have developed are related to membership in a virtual language community. In other words, it is possible to consider integrativeness in terms of a desire to integrate into an imagined L2 community. Furthermore, this world English identity is connected with instrumental factors such as knowledge of computing and the Internet. Through the media, TV, and especially the Internet, young people today are developing a ‘bicultural identity’ (Arnett, 2002), whereby part of an individual’s identity is entrenched within one’s own particular culture, while another part is affiliated with a global community.

In an attempt to synthesize the concepts of personal identity and integrativeness, Dörnyei turned to self and motivation theories in psychology. Recent developments in personality psychology, self theories in particular, have attempted to take into account the dynamic nature of the self-system, which has led theorists to link self-representation with behavioural characteristics. Dörnyei (2005) has suggested that Markus and Nurius’ (1986) theory of possible selves provides a valid link between an individual’s self-perceptions and future action. In addition to this theory, the L2MSS was influenced by Higgins’ (1987, 1996) self-discrepancy theory which proposes two types of possible selves: an ideal self, and an ought self. Dörnyei reconceptualised the concept of integrativeness in terms of an individual’s ideal self as related to an L2. Specifically, rather than identifying with L2 speakers (who are absent in most foreign language contexts), an individual identifies with an idealized L2 speaking self. In other words, ideal L2 self, the major component of the L2MSS, can be described as an individual’s ideal self as related to an image of oneself as a proficient L2 speaker. Individuals will be motivated to learn an L2 in order to decrease the disparity between one’s actual and ideal self. Linking Norton’s (2001) concept of ‘imagined community,’ Dörnyei (2005, p. 102) proposes that “our idealized L2-speaking self can be seen as a member of an imagined L2 community whose mental construction is partly based on our real-life experiences of members of the community/communities speaking the particular L2 in question and partly on our imagination.” Thus, ideal L2 self can be considered a motivational factor in contexts where there is no contact with L2 ‘native speakers’, particularly in situations when the L2 is studied only in the classroom, as well as explaining motivation to learn World English which has become an inherent aspect of global culture.

**COGNITIVE AND AFFECTIVE FACTORS**

According to the psychological approach to L2 learning, there are many cognitive and affective factors that can affect an individual which in turn may affect one’s identity as an L2 learner. Although self-efficacy has mainly been considered a cognitive construct, recent research has focused on the interwoven relationship among personal, behavioural and social factors (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). Albert Bandura, who developed self-efficacy theory, has described perceived self-efficacy as a personal belief in one’s capabilities while attempting to reach a specific goal (Bandura, 1997). Moreover, according to Bandura, “efficacy beliefs are the foundation of human agency” (Bandura, 2001, p. 10). Self-efficacy can have an impact on the type of activities an individual chooses, the extent of effort to be applied, and the amount of perseverance in executing the activity (Schunk, Pintrich & Meece, 2010). A person with low self-efficacy will probably evade doing a task; on the other hand, if a person who believes they can perform a task (high self-efficacy) they will most likely participate in it. Thus, self-efficacy beliefs can have a strong impact on individuals’ willingness to learn an L2 and engage in communication.
An important affective variable that has been considered in L2 learning and communicating is L2 anxiety (Horwitz, 2001; MacIntyre, 1999; Oxford, 1999). L2 anxiety can be described as the “the worry and negative emotional reaction aroused when learning or using a second language” (MacIntyre, 1999, p. 27). Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986) identified foreign language anxiety as a separate situation-specific anxiety concept which is different from general types of anxiety. According to Clément (1980), L2 self-confidence entails a complex relationship between language anxiety, motivation, and an individual’s self-perceptions of one’s L2 proficiency. Moreover, research studies have indicated a connection between L2 performance and language anxiety. (Horwitz, 2001; MacIntyre, 1999; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994; MacIntyre, Noels & Clément, 1997; Oxford, 1999). On the other hand, Gregersen and Horwitz (2002) found an association amongst anxiety and perfectionism, where as Dewaele (2002) noted the influence of introversion and anxiety.

ELF AND IDENTITY

The fact that English has become the world’s lingua franca, in other words, a second language that is utilized by people with different first languages in order to communicate with one another, has affected attitudes and norms. Jenkins (2007) suggests that attitudes toward ELF are closely related to identity due to the inseparable bond between language and identity. Moreover, Jenkins states that English’s global status affects learners’ linguistic identification with ‘native speakers’ (NS) of English. However, recently a shift in power relationships has occurred, Jenkins argues, which has resulted from the increased use of ELF among non-native speakers of English (with the absence of the NS of English), thus affecting ELF communication.

ELF communication among non-native speakers (NNS) of English takes place in various contexts whereby “ELF speakers are not only given the legacy to adapt the language to new contexts, but are expected to do so” (Kalocsai, 2009, p. 28). Speakers use various strategies, accommodation, and negotiation of meaning in their attempts to communicate (Jenkins, 2005). It has been found that language users fall back on communication strategies (e.g. accommodation), which are used in contact situations to facilitate negotiation of meaning (Jenkins, 2007; Baker, 2015). Similarly, ELF users may also assume the role of learners as they seek out ways to improve their competence through various forms of social interaction, such as asking for feedback (Kaypak & Ortaçtepe, 2014). The importance of using the correct grammar or proper pronunciation is another issue related to ELF communication (Jenkins, 2007). Grammatical accuracy, for example, is not underscored in an ELF setting (Seidhofer, 2011; Kaypak & Ortaçtepe, 2014) as error-free grammar is not key to successful communication. Performance-wise, focus has oftentimes been placed on proper pronunciation, as there has been a tendency to adhere to the NS norms (Jenkins, 2007). On that note, the mark of the first language (L1) on ELF use has often been viewed as detrimental to communication. However, some studies (Jenkins, 2009) have shown that it is acceptable to allow NNS use of their own regional accents and that NS pronunciation forms can sometimes create difficulties.

ELF AND ERASMUS STUDENTS

The introduction of the Bologna process among European universities has encouraged cooperation through various exchange programmes such as the Erasmus exchange programme. It appears that the language of communication used among students during their exchange programme is English. Several studies have been carried out focusing on Erasmus
students and their use of ELF. For example, Kaypak and Ortaçtepe’s study (2014) focused on Turkish exchange students’ beliefs about English language learning and their study abroad experiences in ELF contexts. The results show that students’ study abroad experiences did not change their overall beliefs in English language learning possibly due to firstly, their short stay and, secondly, due to the limited usage of ELF in cases where the local people did not speak English and students had to use the local language. Students came to realise the importance of the experience for practicing their English, and their attitudes toward error-free grammar became more relaxed with the realisation of the primary role of ELF as a means of communication. In another study, Kalocsai (2009) focused on the way in which Erasmus exchange students socialized into their new communities of practice. The study found that Erasmus students were able to practice ELF in their new communities of practice and that they learned new modes of speaking and developed new identities; however, they failed to gain access to local peer groups. Furthermore, students found that in ELF interactions successful communication was more important than adhering to NS norms, and they used strategies of accommodation, negotiation, and cooperation to achieve this goal.

In a recent study conducted by the authors of this paper, analyses were carried out on 155 university students who participated in Erasmus exchange programmes throughout Europe (Martinović & Dumančić, 2016). The results showed that students’ motivational, affective, and cognitive dispositions were quite positive toward English language learning and use. Students intended to exert effort in learning English, had a relatively strong ideal L2 self, high self-efficacy, and low levels of L2 anxiety. In addition, it was found that students saw themselves as global (international) citizens and educated individuals when using ELF; moreover, their EU identity was tied to the use of ELF since it made them feel part of a larger community and connected them to other non-native speakers. With regards to the relationship between their L1 and ELF, it appears that they were not bothered by the influence of their L1, generally stating that they accepted and embraced linguistic and cultural differences. In addition, students stated that their communicative competence was not deterred by the mark of their L1; in other words, they believed there was more to being competent than just sounding native-like. Students’ responses revealed that their L1 identity was quite strong as its influence was not perceived as detrimental to good communication, in fact, students stated that they were proud of their L1 background. By and large, using ELF in an intercultural setting was seen as a motivating factor and opportunity to gain new knowledge, expand one’s skills and grow as an individual. In this study, follow-up interviews were carried out with Croatian students who participated in the Erasmus program during the same academic year.

**METHODOLOGY**

**AIM**

The aim of this study was to investigate L2 motivation and L2 English usage among Croatian Erasmus exchange students. In particular, it explored various aspects of self-concept such as Ideal L2 self and self-efficacy, affective factors related to using English, as well as attitudes towards using ELF during their stay at their host countries in an attempt to reveal various aspects of students’ English language identities.

**RESEARCH QUESTIONS**
The study focused on the following broad research questions:
1. What is the motivational disposition of students with regards to their English ideal L2 self?
2. What are some of the cognitive and affective elements related to students’ English-speaking identity?
3. What are student’s attitudes toward using ELF abroad?

METHOD

Sample. The sample consisted of four graduate students of English who were in their fifth year of study (average age: 23 years) at the University of Zadar. The students had taken part in the Erasmus exchange program in the previous semester. Their host countries included: Czech Republic, France and Estonia. The participants were found suitable due to their language of study (English majors), their first-hand experience with using English at the university and at home, as well as in a study-abroad programme with other non-native language users. A smaller sample is indicative of a qualitative nature of the study, alongside the fact that the participants were available to the researchers.

Instruments. Semi-structured interviews were used in the study. The scope of the interview covered various aspects pertaining to their motivation to learn English, their feelings with regards to the English language, and attitudes toward the use of ELF abroad. It also included a segment aimed at obtaining general information about the exchange program.

Procedures and data analysis. The participants were told about the study and its goals after their return from the exchange abroad. Additionally, they were informed of the voluntary nature of the study and assured that their identities would be protected. The following step involved explaining the format of the interview. An opportunity to ask questions before starting was given, as well as a chance to be apprised of the results of the study. All interview sessions were recorded, and the data was transcribed verbatim. The analysis entailed several readings of the text followed by initial coding of selected pieces of data. Various common patterns emerged from students’ responses indicating several sub-categories. These sub-categories were further coded into general themes. The researchers independently created initial codes and took memos, noting possible categories and themes. Codes and categories were then compared, and a consensus was reached on the final themes.

RESULTS

The participants’ responses with regard to their motivation to learn English, their feelings toward the English language and their attitudes towards the use of ELF were grouped under general categories and then into several sub-categories. The results are given below.

MOTIVATION TO LEARN ENGLISH

Ideal L2 Self. In an effort to discover students’ identity as related to motivational factors, in particular, the Ideal L2 self, questions were based on the Taguchi et al.’s (2009) motivation questionnaire. For example, students were asked how they imagined themselves when speaking English with international friends or colleagues, or if they could imagine themselves living abroad and communicating in English. Interestingly, students’ first replies were related to their self-efficacy beliefs (see results below). As students of English
language studies, they took for granted the fact that they could see themselves in the future speaking English with others during their exchange programme. When asked this question one of the students responded in the following way: “Yes. That’s part of the reason why I decided to go.” With regard to their image of themselves in the future as proficient speakers, one of the students stated that “I see myself as a proficient speaker,” however, all of them stated that they would like to improve their English, “Yes…I would like to become more fluent,” “I think my English can grow more,” “I mean, I think that all of us who are studying English are trying to be native speaker-like….” However, although they were striving to constantly improve their English, they were aware that they will never be ‘truly’ native-like. One of the students stated that “I’m aware of the fact that it (proficiency level) can never be…, well, it can native-like, but… I don’t think there’s any way to achieve the actual ‘native speaker’ proficiency in any language, so I’m just…looking to get as close as possible to…native proficiency.” Another student accepted the idea that her pronunciation will never be native-like: “I would like to…. I would like to become …as fluent as a ‘native speaker’, but I know that my pronunciation and….my…speaking will not be that good as, ah the natives…” Another student stated that she could see herself as becoming “proficient enough.”

COGNITIVE AND AFFECTIVE FACTORS

Self-efficacy. Self-efficacy emerged as a theme based on sub-categories which were related to student’s confidence in using English, the fact that they considered English as a mother tongue, as well as comments related to their proficiency levels. All the participants, who were students of English, were confident in their use of English. For instance, one participant reported to have felt confident about her English usage abroad stating that “I’m pretty confident with my English with everyone...”. Similarly, another participant felt confident speaking in class and this confidence was due to a relaxed environment and the teachers’ behavior. She stated that “I felt more confident because of that, because of their attitudes towards us.” Interestingly, confidence was found in relation to the level of proficiency, where one participant felt more confident because “my English level was higher than theirs [other classmates]”, while her colleague felt good because “my level of proficiency is good, maybe even higher than the, of my friends who do not study English but they also speak well.” One participant particularly noted that she thought she would identify with them (NNS) “…maybe I felt more confident because my English level was higher than theirs”. Another notion worth considering was viewing English as a second mother tongue. According to two participants, “it’s (English) just like another mother tongue”, and “...it's still common in Croatia and among us, we already feel like it's our mother tongue....”

Other cognitive factors. Additionally, thinking in English also came into focus as the participants found themselves either having ‘English thoughts,’ owing to an early start in learning the language “well because I started learning English…when I was…seven, so I also, actually, really often think in English, even when I’m at home…”, or using broken Croatian, which was due to a second language interference “…I kind of keep catching myself speaking stupid Croatian because of my English influence and it gets all kind of broken.” When comparing the English and Croatian languages, one of the respondents stated that, “…I also catch myself thinking in…. an English kind of way, in an English structure when I want to say something in Croatian…..” When they heard English spoken or used it in various settings, the participants noted that they felt quite natural using it – almost to the point of English being second nature to them. When asked about hearing English spoken, one respondent said that “it sounds so natural, so, um, it’s not a problem at all”, while one
of her colleagues, when asked about the difference in using English at home or abroad, revealed that “It was, I mean, I’m a student of English, so everything is natural and everything is conventional by now.”

L2 anxiety. The results primarily indicated an absence of L2 anxiety when using English in different settings and with different interlocutors, however, one respondent did mention feeling apprehensive on two separate occasions. When communicating with the instructors abroad, the participants were united in their responses, stating that “…it was very natural for me to speak English…” or “…I didn’t feel any, again, no strong emotions, no anxiety.” Similar responses, revealing no anxiety, were observed when looking at their feelings when volunteering answers in English during their classes abroad – “I was really relaxed in the classroom…” or “As long as I knew the answer, I’m fine.” In the same vein, the respondents felt “fine because all of them [classmates] are English students and we didn’t have any problems there” when communicating in English with their classmates at the host University. On the other hand, feelings of anxiety were reported by one respondent, who felt uneasy before traveling abroad because of her less developed speaking abilities, “…I was really, really kind of scared of speaking English. Writing is fine, reading is fine, easy to understand, but when it comes to speaking, you’re always kind of afraid what it will happen.” Also, connected to speaking, when asked how she felt when communicating with international friends or colleagues, she responded that speaking with a ‘native speaker’ made her uncertain “… Maybe I’ll make some grammar mistakes and I need to know why I did that and it’s kind of awkward.”

Interest in English. Interest in English was portrayed through displays of various emotions, showing appreciation or curiosity about the language itself, or idiosyncrasies that stem from English being compared to or affected by another language. One respondent expressed her interest in English by being motivated “to read more in English, to read more books….to speak English actively…” She went on to describe her emotional state when using English with a ‘native speaker’. “And I feel happy when I’m communicating with a ‘native speaker’ because I know, you know, with a ‘native speaker’ we can actually discuss, we can have a nice English conversation.” Another interest-related aspect was feeling intrigued when hearing a new variety of English. The respondent mentioned the language variety her professors used abroad by saying she “…found it interesting…it was fun to hear it because I didn’t have…chances to hear it…”, while the variety itself was described as “…pretty, I could say melodic. They have some sounds that go up, up, up…and their English would sound like that.” Besides the professors abroad, interest in English was also shown by fellow classmates, who exhibited positive emotions when getting a chance to use English, “Because when the Czech people would hear us speaking English, they would become happy because they could use English. So, they wanted to sometimes speak English with us.” With regards to observing English in comparison to another language, one respondent addressed the structures and tried to find common patterns, “…I keep catching myself…finding similarities in structures and maybe more than anything else it’s probably the roots and similar things. It’s fun that I can notice it.” Her colleague, on the other hand, focused more on the language use and the emotion it evoked, “I like…English…I like when people can speak English… I like the way it sounds, I like the language itself…” Similar to this was another respondent’s report where she stated that “I really love English…I’m glad I’m studying it,” moreover, “…now when I see some interesting facts about language like that, I really like…to listen to English, to the pronunciation…”
**Attitudes toward use of ELF.** Attitudes toward English in general were favorable, though there were differences in opinion when it came to aspects such as language structure, complexity, difficulty or use. In comparing English with Croatian or some other languages (e.g. Russian), half of the participants stated that it is less complex or demanding. “English is not that complex as a language since I study Russian and there are other languages which we can say have more complex grammatical structures…” Though seen as less challenging or complicated, it was considered a more pleasing and smooth language. One respondent said that “…English, maybe, is easier [than Croatian]… maybe it’s more, I wouldn’t say poetic but… Croatian is not so smooth when it comes to words and syntax in general.” When asked about the importance of sounding native-like in their interactions with other non-native speakers, two respondents agreed that the “‘native speaker’” standard was not a priority in such a context. One student added that it might have a deleterious effect on communication, “…with other non-native speakers especially when their proficiency level is lower it’s really not important and it can, it can maybe even confuse them.” On the other hand, another student felt it was important to reach the “‘native speaker’” level, claiming that “…I mean this is my main goal to sound native-like and, yes, I think that, for me, it is important…” Speaking of the English speech being marked by L1, the respondents’ views were disparate. One saw it as a common occurrence, saying “Um, well, that’s completely natural,” while another claimed it was interesting in terms of noticing a new way of speaking forming within a group. A notion of judging others by their L1 marked speech was also mentioned, “I know it may be kind of rude to say that but I feel that you instantly feel that it is not very good English they are using, because of that accent,” but the student finished on a different note holding “…but it is often not the case, it’s just their pronunciation.”

Students primarily felt more comfortable using English in a foreign setting, with the exception of one student who claimed, “I've been communicating with people from different countries abroad, so there’s not much difference.” Lastly, when asked about using ELF with the locals, a commonly shared opinion was not positive. All the respondents reported encountering different forms of resistance, whether it be related to national pride, “But I think they were rather not willing to speak. I mean, they’re really proud of French and everything and I think that’s the reason…” or lack of knowledge, “We didn’t communicate in English with local residents because they don’t speak English. Basically, older people, when you would go to store or something we would communicate in Czech.” However, it is important to point out that two respondents mentioned members of the younger generation speaking English well, “Estonians, um, and younger generations are really fluent in English.”

**Means of communication.** All the respondents confirmed that English was the official language at the University abroad (e.g. administration business), as well as the means of communication with their colleagues, classmates, and friends. Before attending the Erasmus exchange program, one respondent claimed to have used English effectively before with foreign speakers, “…especially the Scandinavians, they use English a lot and it’s also natural for them, so it really felt good to be able to communicate in English…” Speaking of the exchange itself, using English was seen as a normal, yet necessary requirement, as one respondent claimed that “abroad everyone is using English…I mean, it’s the language of communication, so, I mean, you have to use English, there is no other option if you want to communicate…” Other than in aforementioned contexts, English was also used or attempts were made with local residents or members of local communities. The respondents unanimously confirmed that using English with the local residents abroad was extremely difficult, if not almost impossible, as mentioned above. Various reasons, such as age “…and the elderly people, ah, it was impossible because they did not know English and we would
just switch to Russian...”, unwillingness to use another language, “But I think they were rather not willing to speak. I mean, they're really proud of French and everything and I think that’s the reason...” or “I was going to buy my bus ticket, ah, I was trying to speak English and they told me: ‘Ne, ne! Česki, Česki.’ And that was it.”, or demography, “...yes, because of SSSR and I believe there is around 30% of populations, population that is Russian, like the, they are true Russian” were mentioned. Despite the reasons listed, exceptions were seen in younger generations who were able to use English but to varying degrees, for instance, “Estonians, um, and younger generations are really fluent in English,” or younger people from urban places, “some younger people...who were traveling more...I think they’re more used to English. I had a conversation with one girl...she said that Parisians are also more open to English. I guess they are more urban or something.”

Accommodation. Accommodation or language adaptation, as the respondents labeled it, was evident in communicators with different interlocutors, but was mainly used for the same reason – to overcome language obstacles (e.g. lack of proficiency) and relay the intended message. The respondents found themselves consciously adapting their speech by modifying the tempo, pronunciation, choice of words, etc. in various situations. For instance, when communicating with international students or colleagues, two respondents related their accommodation to their interlocutors’ proficiency, “I noticed in instances where the other person is not really proficient in English, I tend to, kind of assimilate my English to their level.” or “…I adapt my speech a lot and I notice that especially with...Italian friends...French as well...I just feel it will be easier for them to understand...” In communication with their classmates, accommodation was brought up in different contexts. Firstly, it was used to facilitate communication with lower-level non-native classmates, “But yes, I would definitely speak in a very...similar...simple...simple words, and I would use very simple sentences.” One respondent mentioned a similar case, but with the non-native speakers accommodating them (herself and colleague), “…we would ask someone Russian to...so that they explain it to us and they tried it in Russian, they slowed it down. If we were still confused...they would say it in English.” Interestingly, a case where one of the interlocutors refused to accommodate was mentioned in that the respondent realized their [her French colleagues’] English was not good, so she attempted to use French, “…even though I tried French... to be honest...they didn’t want to adapt their speech. One of the students explicitly told me that he doesn’t want to speak...slowly.” In terms of communicating in English with colleagues from other non-speaking English countries, a similar behavior was noted where the respondent would “…use simple sentences, be careful with my vocabulary.” What was also noteworthy was the fact that such accommodation did not pertain solely to spoken, but also written discourse (corresponding online), “…sometimes I forget this [her interlocutors’ inability to follow her train of thought] and then I just have to always stop and read the sentence, and then delete and start again to make it simpler.”

ELF speech. Categories such as the influence of the mother tongue, ‘native speaker’ norms and proficiency levels emerged in connection to ELF speech. Starting with the influence of the mother tongue on English use, the respondents disclosed perceiving it in their dealings with both classmates and professors abroad. One respondent distinctly remembered hearing a ‘native speaker’ of Russian using English and commented that she, “…sounded very Slavic...just like they imitate in the movies, that Russian accent, which was pretty funny.” Such an accent revealed her L1 background, as well as her nationality. Similar to this was a case of a student from Italy, whose mother tongue influence was prominent in that, “…her accent was really strong but I think all, all of them [other students] had...” Another clear-
cut, yet more positive example of such an influence was with the Estonian professors that one of the respondents had already mentioned. According to her, the mark their L1 left on the use of English was “completely natural” and “interesting”. She went on to further explain that it had no detrimental effect on their proficiency, given that they “spoke very, very….I mean, excellent…”

Next, when looking at the ‘native speaker’ norm, the respondents’ answers varied. The majority stated they would like to continue developing their language skills and increase their proficiency, but it was highly unlikely they would attain a ‘native speaker’ level. One respondent said that “I would like to become as fluent as a ‘native speaker’…. I would like to try towards it, but I know it’s not possible to achieve that level…” Following the same line of reasoning, another respondent touched upon her proficiency and stated that, “I can only see it advancing since I’ve been using English more and more…” but on the topic of seeing herself as a ‘native speaker’, she responded, “Well, that’s not in accordance with my belief, so, because if you’re a ‘native speaker’, you’re a ‘native speaker’”. Contrary to these statements, one respondent felt differently and wanted to attain a ‘native speaker’ plateau, “Well, yes, definitely. I mean, I think all of us who are studying English are trying to be ‘native speaker’-like”. Additionally, she hypothesized that, if she ever came to an English-speaking country and somebody asked if she were native, she “…would be very happy”. The same person brought up a compelling notion of ‘native speaker’ norm expectancy’, in which people in your surrounding expect you to be native-like in the least. In her words, “…we, as English students, are always expected to sound really, really good and…then we always want to present ourselves as a very good native-like speakers”.

Lastly, when it comes to proficiency levels, they varied amongst the students abroad, which was evident from the various accommodation strategies used by the respondents (see above). It was also suggested that the use of English depended on proficiency level, in that conversation could easily be carried with higher proficiency students, while with lower-level students, it needed adjusting or persevering until the message was delivered, “…we’ll [her and her friend from Slovakia] be speaking in English because this was the best way for our communication, but her competence is not that good and sometimes it’s really hard to express… she was trying to tell me something but she couldn’t or I was trying to tell her something but she wouldn’t understand…”. In addition, proficiency was also discussed with regard to in-group language use and implication was made that speakers with different proficiency levels diverge in their pronunciation, choice of words, etc. .

**Group identity.** Based on the respondents’ statements, group identity can be discussed in terms of all the Erasmus exchange students being connected by certain factors or a certain group of students sharing common characteristics and operating in their own manner. Coming from different countries and backgrounds, the Erasmus exchange students had one thing in common – English. The fact that they were required to use it on a daily basis brought them together and gave them an opportunity to establish communication, “…we were actually…from all over the world, which was…interesting…it was...like English was binding us together…” Students would get to know one another, “Well, it was always a quite normal, where are you from…and there was a lot of conversation about language itself…” and found common interests that facilitated communication, “…I met some Czech people who are studying English and they actually, kind of, they liked talking to us because they could speak to someone….they don’t speak English with their classmates, but with us they could speak English…”
Another curious aspect of group identity can be found in the case of a small group made up of students who had come from different countries, “…Polish, Slovak, French, and, well, Croatian people…”, but who adopted distinct language characteristics that separated them from the rest of the exchange students, “…and they were all kind of sounding the same, although they are from very different areas of Europe…” The similarities they shared mostly pertained to pronunciation and following the same structures, “…they used the same structures, their pronunciation was the same, they, it seemed like it was the, the version of English language used by this group.” What struck the respondent as unusual was the fact that their [the members of the group] speech varied in different situations and with different interlocutors, “…they did sound different in the beginning and if you talked to them…separately, individually, they had their own accents, but when they’re all in this big group, they’ll kind of, they make the same mistakes, their accent is the same.” Following up on making the same mistakes, the respondent suggested that it might have been due to “their proficiency level was… I won’t say low, but maybe intermediate and I think they found it easier to communicate between themselves if they have this common language…” Even though she knew better, the respondent found herself using this inaccurate, French-influenced, structure inadvertently, “…I even caught myself a few times…saying something I wouldn’t usually say or in a way I wouldn’t usually say it.” Her rationale was that association with the group and the frequent use of the structure, “But everyone kept using it!” led to her adopting it. The same group speech, on the other hand, was not found with more proficient groups, “…it didn’t happen with other, maybe more proficient groups…so that’s why I said it’s maybe linked to the proficiency level.”

**DISCUSSION**

In a quantitative study based on a sample of 155 Erasmus students from varying areas of study, the results showed relatively high average means on the Ideal L2 self scale (Martinović & Dumančić, 2016). Qualitative analysis in this study also showed that students’ identity entailed a relatively strong ideal L2 self. Furthermore, they appeared to be highly motivated to continue to learn and improve their English. Many studies have shown that ideal L2 self plays an important role in L2 motivated behavior (Csizér & Kormos, 2009; Ryan, 2009). Nevertheless, a richer picture of students’ self-concept pertaining to the ideal L2 self was revealed in the interviews, that is, imagining themselves speaking English in various contexts was assumed to be ‘normal’ among these highly proficient students and it didn’t appear to be the most important factor in motivating them to use English. They could imagine themselves as becoming more proficient speakers, and although they were aware that they will never be ‘native-like’ in the strict sense of that concept, they seem to accept this fact and were not burdened by this.

In an attempt to reveal some of the layers of students’ L2 identity, one of the common factors apparent in all the students’ responses was their confidence in using English; in other words, they appeared to have high levels of L2 self-efficacy. All of them stated that English was like a ‘mother tongue’ for them, some stated that it was ‘natural,’ and others said that they ‘think’ in English. Thus, the identification process with another language, as proposed by Lambert and Gardner (Gardner, 2010), seems to have taken place since, for these language learners, using English had become an intricate part of their self-identity. Moreover, recent studies in L2 motivation have suggested that motivation needs to be investigated as it develops in interactions between the self and context (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). In this study, it would appear that students’ confidence and motivation in using English abroad was tied to the context they found themselves in as they felt that their proficiency level was
higher compared to their non-native speaker colleagues. This is in contrast to Kaypak and Ortaçtepe’s (2014) study on Turkish exchanges students’ beliefs which showed that some of them felt insecure about using English at the start of their study abroad experience. This difference might be due to educational, social, and economic factors. Namely, English is taught at beginning levels in schools in Croatia, it is readily accessible in various media (TV shows, movies are not ‘dubbed’), and Croatia is heavily reliant on tourism which calls for knowledge of foreign languages, including English.

The self-confidence that the students’ reported to have is indicative of the lack of L2 anxiety. According to MacIntyre (2017), L2 anxiety has been one of the most researched affective aspects in L2 acquisition, and many studies have shown it to be an important factor in L2 learning (Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002). In this study, most of the students felt no anxiety when communicating in English. Interestingly, one student stated that she didn’t have any emotions when reflecting on her English-speaking experiences abroad stating that using English was ‘natural’ for her. It is possible that for this student, English language learning encompasses mainly cognitive components of the self. Although one student did indicate that she felt less confident in speaking English with ‘native speaker’s; nevertheless, she also stated that she thought she had an advanced level of English, that it was like a mother tongue for her, and that she was more confident with speaking English with other people who had lower levels of English. The low L2 anxiety is most likely related to the fact that all the students were English language majors and, as a result, were confident in their English language abilities.

In an attempt to understand students’ affective attitudes towards English, one of the themes that became apparent was their interest in English. The concept of interest has both cognitive and affective elements: “…the notion of interest also involves a salient cognitive aspect – the curiosity in an engagement with a specific domain – as well as a prominent affective dimension concerning the joy associated with this engagement” (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 93). Some of the students showed interest in their desire to learn English better, felt ‘happy’ when talking to a ‘native speaker’ and other English-speaking majors, and said that they ‘liked’ and ‘loved’ English. Moreover, listening to other people speak English and noticing similarities and differences between English and their L1 was described as ‘fun.’ The positive attitudes could be related not only to their confidence in their ability to speak English, but also because it was a language that ‘bound’ them together with other people within their own ELF community, as well as the World English community as will be commented on below.

With regard to attitudes toward ELF usage, all of the respondents agreed, regardless of the host country that they visited, that English was the language of communication at the administrative level. In addition, most of the communication with their host professors was in English as well as with their classmates and other Erasmus exchange students. On the other hand, all of the students agreed that speaking English with the locals was a challenge as many of the locals didn’t know how to speak English or were not willing to speak it. They found they had to resort to the local language, including Czech, French, Estonian, and Russian, although it seemed that younger people knew how to speak English. Similar to both Kaypak and Ortaçtepe’s (2014) and Kalocsai’s (2009) studies, it appears that languages other than ELF are used by students as a means of socializing in the local community.

When speaking ELF with other exchange students, the participants in this study said they needed to accommodate or adapt their speech in order for communication to be successful.
They simplified their language, slowed down their speech, and adjusted their pronunciation according to the level of their interlocutors’ proficiency level. Conversely, when attempting to speak one of the local languages (Russian) the interlocutor translated the sentences into English so that the student could understand. In the situation where French was the local language, the interlocutor refused to accommodate their language, thus making communication more difficult for the student. Similarly, students in Kalocsai’s (2009) study also found that they used accommodation strategies, negotiation, and cooperation in order to successfully communicate. Jenkins (2005, 2007) and Baker (2015) also suggested the importance of accommodation to help in the negotiation of meaning.

Categories such as the influence of the mother tongue, ‘native speaker’ norms and proficiency levels emerged in connection to ELF speech. Starting with the influence of the mother tongue on English use, the respondents disclosed that they perceived it in their dealings with both classmates and professors abroad. A variety of L1 backgrounds was noted, such as Italian, Estonian, Russian, etc., and the effect of those systems on the English usage was perceived differently by the respondents. While some found it melodic and interesting, others thought of it as less desirable and believed the ‘native speaker’ standard should be followed. Such ambivalence was also reported by Timmis (2002) and Jenkins (2007). Jenkins’s study on attitudes and beliefs toward ELF showed that some of the participants wanted to adopt a ‘native speaker’ identity, accompanied by the native pronunciation, while others felt L1 should be overtly displayed in their pronunciation.

Next, when looking at the ‘native speaker’ norm, the respondents’ answers varied. From the data obtained it can be observed that they were aware of the differences between native and non-‘native speaker’ and the majority stated they would like to continue developing their language skills and increase their proficiency, but it was highly unlikely they would attain a ‘native speaker’ level. Though some expressed a positive outlook on being compared to a ‘native speaker’, it was clearly asserted that becoming one was not a goal. Contrary to this view was one student’s statement claiming they wanted to attain a ‘native speaker’ plateau. Mixed feelings regarding these standards can also be seen in Kalocsai’s (2009) study, whose participants were also aware of their own speech and its divergence from the ‘native speaker’ s’. They wanted to establish themselves as members of the Erasmus milieu, which is not something ‘native speaker’ strive for. Most Erasmus students prided themselves in belonging to the community and being willing to learn new repertoires, though there were those in pursuit of the ‘native speaker’ standard who were not inclined to accommodate. Such individuals, as Kalocsai points out, are often excluded and sometimes mocked.

Lastly, when it comes to proficiency levels, they varied amongst the students abroad, which was evident from the various accommodation strategies used by the respondents. It was also suggested that the use of English depended on proficiency level, in that conversation could easily be carried with higher proficiency students, while with lower-level students, it needed adjusting or persevering until the message was delivered. Accommodation, being a common occurrence in ELF communication, was often used by the respondents in this study. They reported using it to primarily ensure better understanding in communication with lower-level students, and they would accomplish it by adapting their English to their interlocutor’s level. This is in line with Jenkins’s (2009) research in which she delineated different types of motivation that underlie the use of accommodation. Some ELF users, for example, may be driven to accommodate out of affective reasons, such as attempting to maintain positive social relationships during casual conversations. This is also in accordance with Cogo (2007) and Kordon (2006), who suggested that accommodating in this regard could signal

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the establishment of rapport. Others, during information exchange, accommodate to be more intelligible and find their production should be more target-like. While Croatian respondents put stress on the information exchange aspect, it could be explained that they wanted to establish a rapport as well, seeing how some of them referred to their fellow colleagues as ‘French or Italian friends’.

Based on the respondents’ statements, group identity can be discussed in terms of all the Erasmus exchange students being connected by certain factors or a certain group of students sharing common characteristics and operating in their own manner. Coming from different countries and backgrounds, the Erasmus exchange students had one thing in common – English. The fact that they were required to use it on a daily basis brought them together and gave them an opportunity to establish communication. The cooperative efforts of Erasmus communities are quite interesting given that they denote shared attempts at negotiating the meaning within group and sharing common characteristics. Kalocsai (2009) reported that in-group interpersonal relationships facilitated better and more efficient communication, helped with break-downs and created positive atmosphere among the students.

Another curious aspect of group identity can be found in the case of a small group made up of students who had come from different countries, but who adopted distinct language characteristics that separated them from the rest of the exchange students. The similarities they shared mostly pertained to pronunciation and following the same structures. What struck the respondents as unusual was the fact that their [the members of the group] speech varied in different situations and with different interlocutors. Kalocsai (2009) has also reported on this occurrence, claiming that the respondents’ attitudes toward this emergent ‘Erasmus English’, comprising elements from various mother tongues, was truly positive. Despite them being aware of its inaccuracy and strange, non-standard, pronunciation, they felt it strengthened their bond and helped them communicate successfully.

CONCLUSION

Motivational, cognitive and affective aspects of students’ English identities were investigated. In the case of the motivational domain, respondents’ ideal L2 self was linked to an image related to increasing proficiency levels rather than attaining ‘native speaker’ standards. Students’ self-efficacy beliefs were quite strong, and they had confidence in themselves as proficient users of English. Their identification with the English language appears to have become an intricate part of their self-concept as they stated that they ‘think’ in English. In terms of L2 anxiety, the respondents reported that it was not an issue as they found using English in a foreign setting quite natural. Moreover, their interest in English was tied to positive affective emotions, such as happiness and love of using it. Thus, it may be stated that students’ English identity entails both positive cognitive and affective elements.

Identity in an ELF setting can be discussed with regard to the use of ELF and sense of belonging to a global community, identifying oneself with or departing from the speaker norm, as well as group identity. Certain fluidity was noted in the respondents’ identity construction as they were protective and proud of their L1 background, but were also willing to embrace elements from their L2 setting. The use of English was considered a bonding agent which unified all the exchange students under the same ELF flag. Another form of
group identity was observed in a small group of students who had arrived from different countries and used the same structures and pronunciation. This distinguished them from the rest of the exchange students. As regards to the respondents’ attitudes toward using ELF abroad, they were generally favorable; however, it is clear they started moving away from error-free grammar, seeing ELF as a means of communication. The respondents also found the majority of their colleagues abroad to be less proficient, and their speech marked by their L1, which, in turn, required them to accommodate, and keep the communication flowing. This study has attempted to illustrate the nature of identity construction of Croatian university students in a multicultural backdrop and the factors governing their use of ELF. Despite interesting and noteworthy findings obtained, the study should be replicated on a larger sample in order to ensure a richer source of data.

REFERENCES


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Using ELF: A Study of Identities among Erasmus Exchange Students
Managerial Skills of English Language Teachers in Classrooms at Tertiary Level: A Turkish Pedagogical Case Study

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Abstract: In order to examine the leadership skills of English teachers, Management teachers' competency scale (Guntaku & Meesala, 2013) was administered to 50 English teachers instructing at an Aegean State university in Turkey (30 females and 20 males). Its reliability was very high (Cronbach alpha = .969). Their average age was M = 34.14 (SD = 8.70) and their average teaching experience was M = 8.46 years (SD = 7.75). Results show that, on average, their leadership skills were estimated at M = 3.90 (on 5-point scale). Gender differences in managerial competencies were not statistically significant. However, the five domains of teachers' leadership skills were in statistically significant correlations with each other. Interestingly enough, number of years of professional experience was in negative relationship with total scores linked to English teachers' managerial competencies. In the end, some advantages and disadvantages of the present study and several recommendations for subsequent studies were listed.

Key words: English teachers, leadership, educational management;

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INTRODUCTION

Leadership in education (or management in education) is a contemporary and popular topic. As a CEO in a corporation is a chief manager of his organization, a teacher is a chief manager of his/her class, too. Teachers are those who are responsible for their students and who lead their own group of students. Apart from teaching, they solve problems in classrooms, manage the relationships among students, and try to make learning environment rich and stimulating for students and themselves. Hence, it is obvious that they need lots of practical skills in order to establish a sort of school atmosphere that is suitable for achieving positive learning outcomes.

In general, managers/leaders should possess the following skills (Whetten & Cameron, 2011): personal skills (managing personal stress successfully, solving problems creatively and analytically, and developing self-awareness); interpersonal skills (motivating others, managing conflicts, gaining influence and power, and building relationships by communicating supportively); group skills (building effective teams, leading positive change and empowering as well as delegating); and specific communication skills (conducting meetings and interviews as well as making oral and written presentations). Harrison and Killion (2007) listed and explained ten roles typical for teachers-leaders: resource provider, instructional specialist, mentor, learning facilitator, classroom supporter, curriculum specialist, data coach (planning teaching instructions based on the analysis of data they collected before), learner (in terms of lifelong learning), school leader, and catalyst for change. According to Muijs and Harris (2006), there are two categories of teachers’ leadership roles: formal (e.g. head of department, key stage co-ordinator, subject co-ordinator…) and informal ones (coaching, setting up action research groups, leading new teams…).

In addition to the previous considerations, there are four broad domains or aspects of teachers’ training that are relevant to educational management. Those are: knowledge, skills, attitudes and awareness known as the KASA framework (Freeman, 1989). Thus, teachers should possess a certain level of knowledge in their domain (in our case – in the English language). Next, they should be able to develop communication and teaching skills. They also have to have positive attitudes toward their profession working with students and broadening their own knowledge as well as professional skills. Finally, teachers have to develop their sense of self-awareness. In other words, they ought to be aware that they are managers in education with greater degree of domain-specific knowledge compared to students and with various responsibilities when making decisions relevant to students, implementation of a curriculum and working with other colleagues.

Speaking more generally, there are four functions of management (Conkright, 2015): planning, controlling, leading, and organizing. In the case of English teachers, planning refers to teachers’ activities that include: designing each lesson (recapitulation of the previous lesson, introduction of a new topic, review, etc.), planning subject matter for a semester or a school/academic year (the amount of grammar, vocabulary, writing, speaking, listening, that should be acquired by students) etc. Teachers also control the process of learning and teaching as well as students’ behavior, motivation and activity during the class (teachers observe students and use pedagogic methods to create positive learning atmosphere and produce acceptable learning outcomes). Consequently, they are leaders who set most of the rules in the classroom and who want to enhance students’ efforts and
participants during classes (they encourage students to speak in English, to do their homework and to behave properly). In the end, they are organizers of different learning tasks, group activities, midterm and final exams, facultative activities. There is also a term distributed leadership, that can be used for explaining teaching strategies, activities and their influences on educational process. According to Lambert (1998), distributed leadership is the ability of teachers to work with others within a school along with constructing knowledge and meaning collaboratively and collectively.

In their professional domain, English teachers should manage subject learning process first. Short and Echevarria (2004) listed the following demands and recommendations that refer to English teachers: identifying the language demands of the content course (i.e. examining curriculum from the language perspective); planning English language objectives for all lessons and making them explicit to students; activating and strengthening students’ background knowledge; promoting oral interaction (with extended academic talk); emphasizing academic vocabulary development; reviewing content and vocabulary concepts; establishing discussion routines among students (i.e. encouraging them to paraphrase, to be self-confident English speakers and to be active listeners); and giving students feedback on their English use in class. Teachers’ leadership is closely linked to their professional development. In the domain of TESL (Teaching English as a second language), Dove and Honigsfeld (2010) highlighted several important responsibilities/roles of well-experienced English teachers who are not only leaders of students, but leaders of other teachers/colleagues who are younger with less experience and who need support in their classroom and other professional activities. Those are as follows: mentoring new teachers; providing input for evaluating teacher performance; acting as in-class literacy coach; providing strategies to meet English language learners’ (ELL) needs; establishing regular avenues of communication; observing and modeling in-class lessons etc. (Dove & Honigsfeld, 2010).

There is a lack of research on teachers’ leadership abilities, traits, behaviors and strategies (especially in English language teaching – ELT). Thus, some findings of several studies will be provided carried out during past years. Dady and Bali (2014) analyzed gender differences in leadership behaviors and styles among heads of schools in Tanzania. Their study revealed that both males and females showed great degree of task oriented leadership behavior (such behaviors were to a certain extent more frequent in females). Kent, Blair, Rudd and Schuele (2010) reported similar findings after they had conducted a study on leaders in Germany: in general, female and male leaders do not differ from each other in their leadership patterns (in fact, males scored higher compared to females; however, the difference in their average scores was not statistically significant). Larson (2008) examined the correlation between years of teaching experience and several aspects of effective school leadership. His study revealed low, negative and statistically insignificant correlations between these variables. According to a study conducted by Sallee (2014), teachers who had more than 10 years of teaching experience reported greater level of leadership quality compared to those who had 5-10 years of teaching experience. However, this study yielded statistically insignificant differences with regard to comparisons between other groups of teachers (based on their years of experience) in leadership quality. Hence, the relationship between years of teaching experience and effective leadership is not clear. On the other hand, positive and statistically significant correlations were found among different aspects/domains of leadership and some other relevant variables. For instance, Kilınç, Cemaloğlu, and Savaş (2015) found positive and statistically significant correlations among teacher leadership,
collaboration among colleagues, professional improvement, institutional improvement and teacher professionalism.

The aim of the current study is to examine leadership abilities of English language teachers in Turkey. With regard to previous studies and their findings, the three following hypotheses were made:

1. Gender differences in five categories of teachers’ leadership skills (teaching career development; students’ career domain; students’ personality development; teachers’ delivery; and teachers’ personality) are not statistically significant.
2. All categories of teachers’ leadership skills are in positive and statistically significant correlations with each other.
3. Teachers’ years of professional experience are neither in statistically significant correlation with self-reported managerial skills nor with participants’ scores on Management teachers’ competency scale.

Methodology

Sample and Procedure

This study was carried out among 50 English teachers who teach this subject at various Turkish universities. Participants were recruited by using the convenience sampling methodology. There were 30 female (60% of the total sample) and 20 male (40%) teachers. Their mean age was $M = 34.14$ (with the standard deviation calculated as $SD = 8.70$). The youngest participant was 24 whereas the eldest one was 54 years old.

This study was a correlational one and because leadership skills of English teachers in Turkey were investigated, this can be classified as a case study of a particular geographic region and specific culture. The Management teachers’ competency scale (Guntaku & Meesala, 2013) and some sociodemographic questions were administered. It takes them approximately 10 minutes to provide estimates and answers related to the instruments utilized in this research.

Instruments

The first three questions were related to the following sociodemographic factors: participants’ gender, their age and their professional experience (in years). The fourth question (more precisely, statement) is a self-report measure of participants’ leadership competence and skills (“I possess a high level of leadership competences/skills.”). It was administered to teachers along with a five-point Likert scale (1 – totally untrue, 2 – untrue, 3 – neither true nor untrue, 4 – true, 5 – completely true). The higher score on this scale, the higher subjective estimates of teachers’ leadership competence and skills.

The main instrument of this study was the Management teachers’ competency scale, created, developed and validated by two Indian researchers, Guntaku & Meesala (2013). It consists of 36 items, divided into five subscales: Teaching career development (five items that represent teachers’ habits of reading, acquiring domain knowledge, and upgrading teaching and research skills), Students’ career domain (seven items; encouraging students to read, write, do assignments and exams, improve their analytical skills etc.), Students’ personality development (eight items that include: encouraging students to be open-minded and dedicated to learning and developing leadership qualities, etc.), Teachers’ delivery (seven items; referring to giving practical/real-life examples, checking the students’ understanding of learning units/topics, innovating teaching methods…), and Teachers’ personality (nine
items, related to teachers’ self-discipline, creativity, proactivity, positive relationship with students…). In the current study, the reliability (more precisely, internal consistency) of this scale and its subscales was examined. It was expressed as Cronbach alpha coefficient. The reliability of the whole scale was calculated as $\alpha = .969$. Because this value was very high, the internal consistency of this scale was very good to excellent. Similarly, the reliability of each subscale is satisfactory or very good: $\alpha = .767$ (Teaching career development), $\alpha = .787$ (Students’ career domain), $\alpha = .873$ (Students’ personality development), $\alpha = .889$ (Teachers’ delivery), and $\alpha = .905$ (Teachers’ personality). As for the form of this instrument, each item has a five-point Likert scale, which helps participants estimate their degree of agreement with the contents of these statements (1 – totally disagree, 2 – disagree, 3 – neither agree, nor disagree, 4 – agree, 5 – absolutely agree).

Findings

First, descriptive statistical values (number of participants – $N$, minimum score - $Min$, maximum score - $Max$, mean value – $M$, and standard deviation – $SD$) were shown (Table 1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>$N$</th>
<th>$Min$</th>
<th>$Max$</th>
<th>$M$</th>
<th>$SD$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Years of professional experience</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>8.46</td>
<td>7.75</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-report measure of leadership skills and competence</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.80</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>0.56</td>
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<tr>
<td>Teaching career development</td>
<td>2.12</td>
<td>4.75</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>0.65</td>
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<tr>
<td>Students’ career domain</td>
<td>1.57</td>
<td>4.71</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>0.73</td>
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<tr>
<td>Students’ personality development</td>
<td>1.89</td>
<td>4.89</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers’ delivery</td>
<td>1.92</td>
<td>4.67</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Teachers’ personality</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Total scores on the Management teachers’ competency scale</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen in Table 1, the average number of years of teaching experience was $M = 8.46$ ($SD = 7.75$). The least experienced participant has been teaching English for a year whereas the most experienced teacher has been teaching English for last 30 years. As for self-report measure of leadership skills and competence, the mean value was calculated as $M = 3.90$ ($SD = 0.76$), thus, it was above the average value. Participants’ scores were between two and five. Taking subscales of the Management teachers’ competency scale into account, it can be noticed that teachers scored above the average on all of them (because the theoretical mean of these subscales and of the whole scale was equal to three). The lowest mean value was that of Teachers’ delivery ($M = 3.83$) whereas the highest one was that of Teaching career development ($M = 3.97$). The mean value of participants’ scores on the Management teachers’ competency scale was calculated as $M = 3.89$ ($SD = 0.61$). Hence, English teachers from our sample perceived themselves as very good leaders in general and with regard to their professional role.
Tables 2–8 show data related to independent-samples t test, which was conducted in order to examine the statistical significance of gender differences in five aspects of leadership skills and competences.

### Table 2. Gender differences in self-report measure of leadership skills and competence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>M_diff</th>
<th>SEM_diff</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

However, the difference between their mean values ($M_{diff} = -0.25$) was not statistically significant ($t(48) = -1.14, p > .05$). As can be noticed in Table 2, females’ scores on self-reported measure of leadership skills and competence were somewhat higher ($M = 4.00$) compared to males’ scores ($M = 3.75$).

### Table 3. Gender differences in Teaching career development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>M_diff</th>
<th>SEM_diff</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>p</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4.05</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Similarly, the average value of females’ scores on Teaching career development subscale was higher ($M = 4.05$) than the mean of males’ scores ($M = 3.86$), but this difference ($M_{diff} = -0.19$) was not statistically significant ($t(48) = -1.15, p > .05$; Table 3).

### Table 4. Gender differences in Students’ career domain

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>M_diff</th>
<th>SEM_diff</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As for students’ career domain subscale (Table 4), the similar pattern can be noticed (females: $M = 4.03$ vs. males: $M = 3.84$). As in the two previous cases, the difference between mean values ($M_{diff} = -0.19$) was statistically non-significant ($t(48) = -1.19, p > .05$).

### Table 5. Gender differences in Students’ personality development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>M_diff</th>
<th>SEM_diff</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>3.99</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Regarding the results for Students’ personality development subscale (Table 5), females, on average, scored $M = 3.99$ whereas males scored $M = 3.76$. The difference between these two values ($M_{diff} = -0.23$) was not statistically significant ($t(48) = -1.22, p > .05$).

### Table 6. Gender differences in Teachers’ delivery

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>M_diff</th>
<th>SEM_diff</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Likewise (Table 6), Teachers’ delivery subscale mean score of females was calculated as $M = 3.96$ and that of males $M = 3.63$. The difference between them ($M_{\text{diff}} = -0.33$) was statistically non-significant ($t(48) = -1.60, p > .05$).

Looking at Table 7, similar figures can be noticed (females: $M = 3.97$ vs. males: $M = 3.67$; $M_{\text{diff}} = -0.30$).

Table 7. Gender differences in Teachers’ personality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>$M_{\text{diff.}}$</th>
<th>SEM$_{\text{diff.}}$</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Hence, it is not surprisingly that gender differences were not statistically significant ($t(48) = -1.54, p > .05$).

Table 8. Gender differences in total scores on the Management teachers’ competency scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>$M_{\text{diff.}}$</th>
<th>SEM$_{\text{diff.}}$</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Finally, gender differences in total scores on the main scale (instrument) of this study were not statistically significant (females: $M = 4.00$ vs. males: $M = 3.74$; $M_{\text{diff}} = -0.25$, $t(48) = -1.45$, $p > .05$). Therefore, there are no statistically significant gender differences in managerial competence and skills of English teachers in Turkey.

Next part of findings refers to the magnitude, direction and statistical significance of relationships between different types of teachers’ managerial skills and competence (Table 9 & 10).

Table 9. The relationships among five subscales of the Management teachers’ competency scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Teaching career development</th>
<th>Students’ career domain</th>
<th>Students’ personality development</th>
<th>Teachers’ delivery</th>
<th>Teachers’ personality</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teaching career development</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.893*</td>
<td>.841*</td>
<td>.847*</td>
<td>.836*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students’ career</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The figures in Table 9 show that all coefficients of correlation were statistically significant at the .001 level. Furthermore, all of them denoted strong positive correlations. The strongest one was calculated between participants’ scores on Teachers’ delivery subscale and Teachers’ personality subscale \((r(48) = .914, p < .001)\). The weakest relationship was that between Students’ career domain subscale and Teachers’ personality \((r(48) = .833, p < .001)\).

Hence, all five subscales of the Management teachers’ competency scale were mutually correlated. Their relationships were strong, positive and statistically significant.

Table 10. The relationships among teachers’ years of professional experience, self-report measure of leadership skills and total scores on the Management teachers’ competency scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years of professional experience</th>
<th>Self-report measure of leadership skills</th>
<th>Total scores on the main scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>-.396*</td>
<td>-.468*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.784**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. * \(p < .01\); ** \(p < .001\)

Interestingly, the number of years of teachers’ professional experience was in negative, moderate and statistically significant correlations with self-report measure of leadership skills \((r(48) = -.396, p < .01)\) as well as total scores on the main scale of this study \((r(48) = -.468, p < .01)\). On the other hand, self-reported measure of leadership competence and skills was in a strong, positive and statistically significant correlation with total scores on the Management teachers’ competency scale \((r(48) = .784, p < .001)\).
DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The figures in the first table showed that English teachers’ level of leadership skills and competence is above the average (for the whole scale $M = 3.89$). Taking into account this finding, it can be said that our results are in accordance with those of Guntaku and Meesala (2013), i.e. the authors of the first study where the Management teachers’ competency scale was administered. Of course, the nature of these measures should be taken into account. In other words, the scales that were administered were self-report measures. That is, they are to some extent subjective and influenced by general self-image of teachers.

Figures in Tables 2-8 allow us to conclude that the first hypothesis was confirmed. There were no statistically significant gender differences in teaching career development domain, students’ career domain, students’ personality development domain, teachers’ delivery domain, neither in teachers’ personality aspect of leadership. Finally, the differences in males’ and females’ total scores on the Management teachers’ competency scale were not statistically significant ($t(48) = -.45, p > .05$). These findings are in accordance with the results of Dady’s and Bali’s study in Tanzania (2014) as well as with findings reported by Kent, Blair, Rudd and Schuele (2010). Despite this, there is a clear pattern in average results of males and females. Female teachers had slightly higher scores compared to men. This is probably because female English teachers are greater in number than English teachers who are males. Teaching languages is mostly considered to be one of the females’ profession (Lahelma, 2000). Hence, women probably feel more self-confident because they outnumber men and perceive their occupation as part of the professional identity. Additionally, most people think that females have greater verbal intelligence compared to males (e.g. Miller & Halpern, 2014). These factors presumably have impact on females’ professional self-esteem and consequently on their positive estimate of leadership skills and efficacy.

Looking at the figures shown in Table 9, strong, positive and statistically significant correlations can be noticed. Therefore, teaching career development, students’ career domain, students’ personality development, teachers’ delivery and teachers’ personality were mutually correlated. The coefficient of correlation between teaching career development and students’ career domain was $r = .893 (p< .001)$ whereas the relationship between teaching career development and teachers’ personality was calculated as $r = .836 (p< .001)$. Students’ career domain also correlated with students’ personality development ($r = .851, p< .001$), teachers’ personality ($r = .833, p < .001$), and teachers’ delivery ($r = .878, p < .001$). Students’ personality domain significantly correlated (apart with the previously described variables) with teachers’ delivery ($r = .904, p < .001$) and teachers’ personality ($r = .893, p < .001$). Lastly, teachers’ delivery significantly correlated with teachers’ personality ($r = .914, p< .001$). Therefore, all aspects of teachers’ leadership skills/competency have a considerable amount of common variance. In other words, it was confirmed that they are facets of the same hypothetical constructs. Similar results were obtained in the study of Kılınç, Cemaloğlu, and Savaş (2015), when authors used different instruments that measured similar constructs relevant to teachers’ leadership skills and strategies. These part of findings lead to conclusion that the second hypothesis was completely confirmed.

Interestingly, years of professional experience negatively correlated with self-report measure of managerial skills ($r = -.396, p < .01$) as well as with total scores on the main scale of this study ($r = -.468, p < .01$). Therefore, the greater professional experience, the lower degree of managerial/leadership skills in English teachers, and vice versa. This result
is somewhat counterintuitive; however, some explanations can be provided. Firstly, teachers’ leadership is a recent topic that was not considered enough in the past. Hence, younger teachers are more informed about this field of educational sciences compared to teachers who are older (so-called “old-school teachers”). The second explanation could be the following one: teachers with longer professional experience are more realistic than teachers who do not have sufficient experience at their working place. Thirdly, younger teachers probably want to show that they are good at time management and successful while dealing with different professional problems. They have greater degree of vitality and agility in comparison to older teachers. Thus, they can manage their professional and private duties better and faster than older teachers. Despite Larson’s study (2008) revealed negative correlation between years of teaching experience and managerial skills (as we did), the correlation coefficients in his research were not statistically significant. Moreover, Sallee (2014) reported differences in levels of leadership skills between teachers with less than 10 and those with more than 10 years of professional experience in favor of the second group of teachers. To sum up, the current study and the two aforementioned studies yielded different (ambiguous) results. This kind of divergence in findings could be the effect of some specific factors such as nationality (cultural background of teachers), school/academic course/subject that is taught by a teacher (English, Mathematics, Music, Physical Education, Science…), and the type of educational institution (private/state elementary/high school or university).

The chief advantage of the present study is the application of a reliable and valid instrument that comprises wide range of leadership skills, strategies and competences in educational context. The second positive side of this study is the investigation within the frame of a current topic such as management in education. Of course, there are some limitations of this research. For example, it is a small sample of participants. In addition, lots of teachers probably provided socially desirable responses (impression management/embellishment of self-image).

The conclusions based on the results of the present study can be summarized in the following way (in the same order as hypotheses were given before): Gender differences in all five domains of teachers’ leadership/management competency were not statistically significant. All aspects of English teachers’ managerial/leadership skills were in high, positive and statistically significant correlations with each other. The years of teaching experience were in moderate, negative and statistically significant correlations with self-reported measure of managerial skills as well as with total scores on the Management teachers’ competency scale.

Finally, there are some recommendations for future studies in this field. Teachers’ management skills and competence have to be examined and estimated by e.g. three independent evaluators. In addition, several important criteria should be used for this purpose. The mean value of their estimates on all previously defined criteria will be the indicator of teachers’ leadership competence and skills. The correlation between teachers’ management skills and their professional self-esteem can be examined. Relationships between teachers’ leadership skills and their personality traits can be researched as well. Differences between natural-science and social-science teachers’ leadership competence may be examined. The relationship between English teachers’ leadership competence and their English knowledge and skills can be examined as well. Other researchers could concentrate on a single segment of teachers’ leadership skills and explore it in a in-depth manner.
REFERENCES

Kazakhstani Secondary School Science Teachers' Challenges in and Strategies for Implementing Content and Language Integrated Learning Approach

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Abstract: This paper investigates Kazakhstani secondary school teachers’ experiences of applying the Content and Language Integrated Learning model in science subjects. In order to gather data, a case study approach of four science teachers (chemistry, biology, physics and information technology) of the eighth grade in a state secondary school in Almaty was conducted. The findings of the study revealed that although the science teachers constantly improve the level of English, they face challenges in applying the CLIL approach, such as lack of requisite language proficiency and teaching materials, as well as insufficient institutional support.

Key words: CLIL, language, teachers’ experiences, science lesson, challenges

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INTRODUCTION

Globalization has led to a process of reformation in the education system of most countries in the world. Kazakhstan is also in the state of advancing school education in order to correspond to global trends. Therefore, the country has started the process of implementation of the trilingual education with the purpose to ensure that citizens of the country are multilingual and multicultural, who are knowledgeable and can apply their skills in science, equally with the citizens of developed countries (Nazarbayev, 2007). The President Nursultan Nazarbayev emphasized in his speech that young generation of Kazakhstan must be able to speak three languages: Kazakh, Russian and English, in order to become competitive in globalized world (Nazarbayev, 2007).

As of 2007, within trilingual education program, the government proposed to implement the Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) approach, which appeared “as a suitable option in this dilemma in how to educate bilingual students because it is a dual-focused educational approach in which an additional language is used for the learning and teaching of both content and language” (Coyle, Hood, & Marsh, 2010, p.1).

The development of CLIL in education has encouraged research on language learning, and content integrated language learning. However, CLIL is an innovative practice in Kazakhstani Secondary Education system, therefore not much research has been done in this area.

CLIL (CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING)

CLIL is an innovative learning approach which involves teaching different school subjects (Content Learning) through a foreign language (Language Learning). David Marsh, a leading expert in Content and Language Integrated Learning, defines the educational approach as “situations where subjects, or parts of subjects, are taught through a foreign language with dual-focused aims, namely the learning of content and the simultaneous learning of a foreign language.” (Cekrezi, 2011, p.2) This definition is supported by Coyle et.al (2010):“it is a dual-focused educational approach in which an additional language is used for the learning and teaching of both content and language.” (p.1), and Dalton-Puffer (2007) explains CLIL as “educational settings where a language other than the student’s mother tongue is used as medium of instruction” (p.1). These statements emphasize the language of instruction and of learning which refers to a foreign language or a language other than a mother tongue. According to these definitions, CLIL is utilized to help teachers and students to learn content as well as develop language through improving fluency, especially in a foreign language. However, Wolff (2009) argues that “The CLIL approach is based on the well-known assumption that foreign languages are best learnt by focusing in the classroom not so much on language – its form and structure – but on the content which is transmitted through language” (p.545), since in the classroom, content is acquired from a conceptual comprehension of the subject and focuses on learning concepts, theories, and content-specific vocabulary.

As reported by Eurydice (2006), CLIL comprises two goals – to facilitate local languages, and to intensify teaching and learning foreign languages, as well as focus on the content results in the improvement of a methodological approach in which a non-linguistic discipline is taught not only in a foreign language but with and through it. On the whole,
CLIL is an approach to education that works as an integration of language teaching and subject learning with the teaching of school subjects. CLIL aims to achieve two objectives: firstly, students acquire knowledge of curriculum subjects, and secondly improve their proficiency in a foreign language.

**SCIENCE EDUCATION THROUGH CLIL**

The framework of modern pedagogy includes bilingual and scientific education. The CLIL approach takes into account some strategies to increase motivation and positive attitude towards science, since CLIL and science have some common pedagogical features. These aspects are inter-related and create an optimal learning model, in which formative assessment in the learning process is promoted, creative and critical thinking strategies are developed (Moore & Dooly, 2010) as well as general performance in science is improved (Grandinetti, Langellotti & Ting, 2013). Having been focused on the aspects of CLIL in science lessons, the researchers have paid much attention to cognitive and linguistic implications (Escobar & Evnitskaya, 2014; Evnitskya & Morton, 2011). The communication process in science lessons is set from questioning about environment and natural world, making hypothesis, finding evidences and drawing conclusions in the line with scaffolding techniques and cooperative work design (Chen, Wang & Lin, 2015).

The results of some empirical studies have shown some advantages of CLIL science education for learning both content and target language, and regarding motivation, since CLIL has positive impact on L2 and covers all competencies which will be useful for learners in future (Gabillon & Ailincai, 2013). Nevertheless, some studies have revealed negative sides of implementing CLIL in science, such as lack of clear guidelines in Europe, thus in CLIL courses science teachers feel insecure with the use of second language for science lessons (Bartika, Maertenb, Tudork & Valked, 2010).

**CHALLENGES OF TEACHING THROUGH CLIL**

With the world experiencing such rapid globalization, many pedagogues face challenges in fulfilling the current educational demands. Frigols et al. (2007) claim that “to move closer to a knowledge-based society, Europe needs an innovation strategy within which to foster investment. Future oriented designs and new approaches to learning are essential ingredients of such a strategy” (p. 34). To address this issue, the European Commission has accepted CLIL as an educational alternative. However, the lack of stakeholders’ knowledge with regard to aims, which are “intimately linked to those who are in charge of implementing CLIL: teachers’ is one of the obstacles in implementing CLIL approach” (Banegas, 2012, p.47). CLIL teachers may not be aware of the necessity to cooperate with foreign language teachers. According to Banegas (2012), Mehisto (2008) uses examples to confirm that content teachers used second language through needless translation. The fact that teachers saw themselves as either content teachers or language teachers, led to a full integration of components and teachers’ unwillingness to incorporate materials coming from content or language classes. Thus, team teaching is one of the potential obstacles in teaching through CLIL.

Banegas (2012) also reports low proficiency of second language and lack of content knowledge and theoretical training on CLIL methodologies to be drawbacks of CLIL: “Results showed that teachers believed their practices could be enhanced should they
develop a more proficient command of English, a concern also reported in Pavón Vázquez and Rubio.” (2010, p.51). Furthermore, in Butler’s (2005) study, which adds that “teachers’ lack of content and language knowledge affects CLIL success” (p.47). Banegas (2012) continues to list some stumbling blocks in implementation of CLIL, such as dearth of CLIL material as course books: “With reference to materials, Ballman (1997, p.183-184) claims that publishers need to produce course books that are related to learners’ lives in their contexts. This lack of CLIL materials is also one of the major drawbacks encountered by educators, as it implies a greater workload for teachers” (p.48). Mattheoudakis (2017) also agrees that “main problems that all CLIL teachers seem to encounter is the lack of CLIL teaching material and the absence of teacher training targeting the needs of a CLIL teacher-to-be” (p.17). Mattheoudakis (2017) also mentions the challenge for CLIL teachers to work more on designing their own material as well as linguistically and cognitively adjust material to learner’s needs and competences it in order to follow their own way instead of tracing prescribed textbook and syllabus.

The problem of examinations also needs to be addressed, since the educational and examinations have different aims and agenda. Banegas (2012) points out that “With reference to this concern […] there are no research studies which investigate complete teaching and learning processes so as to see what principles and decisions are to be found in classrooms.” (p.48).

However, there are various strategies that can be help to address the aforementioned issues. According to Mattheoudakis (2017), in order to map the syllabus, CLIL teachers need to cooperate with EFL teacher, therefore team teaching might be required. Next, in order to involve learners in interactive process it is necessary to design the appropriate CLIL material for the age and grade of learners.

**CLIL AS PART OF EDUCATION REFORM IN KAZAKHSTAN**

The integration of language teaching and subject learning in formal education (Content and Language Integrated Learning approach) has been followed in European countries and all over the world (Banegas, 2012, p.111; Coyle, Hood, & Marsh, 2010, p.1; Dalton-Puffer, 2007, p.1). Kazakhstan also attempts to apply multilingual education for attaining linguistic proficiency in three languages among the population in the process of trilingual policy dissemination. In 2007 the President Nursultan Nazarbayev initiated the cultural project “Trinity of Languages”: “Trilingualism in Kazakhstan: presence of Kazakh as the national language, Russian as the language of interethnic communication, and English as the language of successful integration in the global economy” (Nazarbayev, 2007, p.38).

The cultural project “Trinity of Languages” presents English as a third language of instruction at schools, colleges and universities. English has always been a foreign language in Kazakhstan, and it is seen as a language that promotes integration of the nation into the global community (Mehisto et al., 2014, p.152). Moreover, one of the main aims set for young people in the State Programme of Functioning and Development of Languages for 2011-2020 is to learn “Russian and English equally well as Kazakh” (Government of Kazakhstan, 2011). According to the Minister of Education and Science of Kazakhstan, Erlan Sagadiyev, “the future of knowledge, science, information, and the competitive ability of any nation, will depend on the knowledge of the English language. This must start from school and gradually increase the amount of English language in order to start school subject
teaching at the senior school” (Sagadiyev, 2016). Consequently, the CLIL approach has been implemented gradually to create trilingual education environment in Kazakhstani secondary schools and in higher education, and to maintain linguistic proficiency of Kazakhstani students in the three languages.

According the State Program for the Development of Education and Science in the Republic of Kazakhstan for 2016 - 2019, CLIL approach is promoted to teach science subjects in the conditions of multilingualism in Kazakhstan. Ministry of Education and Science reports that 10% of teachers are expected to teach Sciences and Mathematics in English by 2015 and 15% by 2020 (MoES, 2010, p. 19). However, the study conducted by the Nazarbayev University Graduate School of Education project in 2013 shows that Kazakhstani schools need more school teachers who are adequately trained in aspects of trilingual education and CLIL (Mehisto, P. et al., 2014, p.164). Moreover, scientists who did research on CLIL in other countries claim that educators across the world face challenges in applying the CLIL approach, such as lack of language proficiency and teaching materials, dearth of institutional support and cooperation between subject and language teachers (Banegas, 2012; Mattheoudakis, 2017; McDougald, 2015). In addition, since CLIL approach is brand new and still developing in secondary education system in Kazakhstan, not much research has been done in this field. MoES launched special CLIL courses for science teachers in 2016 and teacher training for the implementation of CLIL program has been proceeding. Nevertheless, there is an issue that science teachers in secondary schools have started to apply CLIL approach in their lessons, but there is no qualitative evidence on how they use CLIL and how they address its possible obstacles.

METHODOLOGY

Aiming to explore the science teachers’ challenges in and strategies for implementing CLIL in secondary education, a qualitative case study research design was used for this research. The site is a secondary linguistic school - lyceum, which is one of the schools of Almaty city, where CLIL implementation is being piloted. That means, the school teachers were prepared for applying the CLIL approach in their lessons. In the period from March to June 2017, science teachers of the school attended TKT: Content and Language Integrated Learning course, and English language course organized by National Center for professional development “Orleu”. At the end of the course teachers passed exams and obtained certificate of TKT: Content and Language Integrated Learning. In addition, the teachers studied English and prepared for FCE (First Certificate of English) exam, and after taking exam were awarded Cambridge English Entry Certificate in ESOL International, B1 English level certificate. The four science teachers of grade 8 of the school took part in the study. Semi-structured interviews and lesson observation were employed as tools for data collection in the current research.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

CLIL TEACHING STRATEGIES

Analysis of the interview and lesson observation revealed main strategies all participant teachers utilize for applying CLIL method in their lessons. The common approach among all four practitioners is co-operation, receiving support from English language teachers, from colleagues who teach science and from the school administration. According to García
(2009), CLIL programs contain teaching of the target language as a tool for content learning, and “[…] in secondary education, though not all, this involves different teachers who work in tandem, a language teacher and a subject teacher who conveys the content through the same language as that used by the language teacher” (p.210). Accordingly, all the practitioners cooperate with foreign language teachers and CLIL teachers in order to fulfill their linguistic needs and methodological practices.

The findings further revealed that all the participant teachers practice activities such as pair work and group work in order to develop peer communication and cooperative learning, since language in CLIL is a tool for interaction and for the acquisition of knowledge and described as “learning to use language and using language to learn” (Coyle et al., 2010, p.54). IT teacher, for instance, conducted group work: at the beginning of the lesson the students were divided into groups of four or five, then the groups chose the name of their team, and students competed with each other making questions in Russian and English, answering the questions of the other teams in Russian and English. As can be seen, communication takes place in science lesson, since it is a relevant aspect in a CLIL lesson which provides learning of the target language in a natural way, and “offers opportunities for authentic communication” (Dalton-Puffer, 2007, p.201).

It is important to note that in order to apply CLIL “teacher must consider a range of strategies to scaffold their input. This could involve the use of visuals – static or animated, graphic organizers, textual support through glossaries, highlighted key words/expressions and technology” (Vazquez & Ellison, 2013, p.74). Such strategies were observed among all the teachers in this study, since all utilize technology such computers, Internet and interactive boards in their lessons to show presentations and videos in English and Russian. Moreover, in IT classroom the computer programs are set in English language therefore students can practice the target language working on the computer in the lesson. In addition, the four teachers use visual materials such as diagrams, tables as well as handouts with terms and definitions and tasks in English and Russian languages.

Furthermore, the data indicated that unlike other participants, biology teacher and chemistry teacher develop students’ cognitive thinking in science lessons. Biology teacher, for instance, gave different problems and asked students to provide solutions or explain the problem: “The man ran to the fifth floor, and his pulse increased. Why?” Chemistry teacher asked the students: “Why helium does not react with oxygen?” (TC-LO) They have shown that complex and analytical questioning such as “why?”, “how?” and “what evidence is there?” are added to concrete thinking in CLIL model. Following a CLIL approach, students can practice some of the thinking skills as investigation and evaluation of new information classified by Bloom as Higher Order Thinking Skills (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001, pp.67–68). Moreover, it has also been revealed that all the practitioners activated prior knowledge by asking questions about what students already knew about the scientific theme: “Give me different facts about water. What do you know about water?” (Chemistry teacher) This indicates that learning takes place with the learner’s prior knowledge as the starting point; thus, the students’ knowledge is connected between previous learning and the new content (Piaget, 1963).

Another interesting finding to emerge from the analysis is the participant teachers’ assessment strategy. In fact, the teachers give higher grade for answer in English language. Moreover, IT teacher practices students’ self-assessment and physics teacher gives two grades for answers: one for terms in English and the second grade for solving problems.
Since the teachers try to assess both content and language, these results are broadly in line with recommendations reported by a leading expert in CLIL, Marsh (2012), who claims: Performance assessment of CLIL/EMILE learner performance has to be sensitive to the subject-language duality inherent within many models. Integrated pedagogical classroom learning needs to be assessed using similarly integrated assessment tools. Viewing and examination text from a solely language or subject point of view negates the trans-disciplinary characteristics of CLIL/EMILE. Testing and assessment apparatus need to be introduced which allow learners to show the breadth of their knowledge and skills in relation to both content and language. (p.221)

Overall, the findings of the study shed light on the main strategies secondary school science teachers utilize for applying CLIL method in their lessons. The common strategies among all the four practitioners are teacher collaboration, using the target language in the lesson, developing peer-communication and cooperative learning, employing technology and visuals as well as activating prior knowledge by asking questions what students already know about the scientific theme. It is important to note that unlike other participants, biology teacher and chemistry teacher use the strategy of developing students’ cognitive thinking in science lessons. Another finding was that the teachers assess students’ knowledge and skills concerning both content and language, since they give higher grade for answer in English.

**CHALLENGES IN TEACHING CLIL**

Regarding challenges, the research findings revealed various difficulties secondary school science teachers face in applying the CLIL method in their lessons. The most obvious challenge all four practitioners faced was spending a great deal of time on lesson planning and preparation. They all complained about finding, translating and adapting material to the curriculum as well as writing a lesson plan in two languages Russian and English. For this reason CLIL lesson preparation appears to be more time-consuming than regular lessons. These findings are consistent with previous studies in Spain, the Netherlands, Argentina and Greece, wherein the teachers experienced similar issues (Ballman, 1997; Banegas, 2012; Guillamón-Suesta & Renau Renau, 2015; Mattheoudakis, 2017; Mehisto, 2008).

Furthermore, the lack of special computer programs and equipment as a challenge for implementing CLIL was reported by IT teacher. Since some Kazakhstani secondary schools began to pilot CLIL approach only in 2017, practitioners may experience difficulties with lack of teaching material and equipment. Although the teachers were given experimental textbooks in English and Russian languages in the second term of school year, they have to find additional resources and adapt the material to the curriculum.

Another important finding was that the teachers suffer from lesson time deficiency, since the lesson duration is 40 minutes. They reported in the interview and the lesson observation showed that the teachers have to conduct activities which develop listening, reading and speaking skills in accordance with CLIL approach. As a result, the lesson time is not enough to complete all the activities during 40 minutes. The first reason for this may be that CLIL goes beyond a simple lesson plan, so that participant teachers used various activities to “promote the linguistic competence of students with a communicative end goal, and whose objective is not to teach “things”, but to teach to understand, retain and use” (Vazquez & Ellison, 2013, p.71). The second factor may be overcrowded classes. The findings of the
study revealed that the teachers had to teach from 25 to 38 students in a class therefore they could not manage to complete the last task and gave it as homework.

On the question of challenges, this study found that physics teacher and IT teacher face difficulties teaching science in English. They both greet students in English as well as give terminology, translation and pronunciation of new words. However, new themes, instructions and questions are given in Russian. Moreover, IT teacher gives tasks students to retell, ask questions and answer them in English, so that the learners speak in the target language more than the teacher. The findings are directly in line with previous findings that also report low proficiency of second language to be a drawback of CLIL (Banegas, 2012; Guillamón-Suesta & Renau Renau, 2015; Mehisto, 2008; Vazquez & Ellison, 2013).

A further overriding finding is assessment in CLIL. Due to the dual focus in CLIL – language and content, the teachers face difficulties in assessing students’ knowledge. They do not know how to assess the content in English and in Russian. This finding supports the previous research of Guillamón-Suesta & Renau Renau (2015), in which the teachers reported about challenges assessing students’ performance in CLIL lesson. The main problem is “the extent to which language and content assessment are integrated, that is, they are assessed at the same time and through the same tasks and activities” (Richard Kiely, 2011).

To conclude, the findings of the study underscore the main difficulties science teachers face in implementing CLIL method. They are: spending much time on lesson preparation - finding material, translating and adapting to the curriculum, lesson time deficiency, overcrowded classes, language difficulties in teaching science and assessment of students’ knowledge. The challenge of spending much time on lesson preparation due to lack of adapted teaching material cut across all the participant teachers.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The analysis of the findings that teachers provided when accounting for their classroom practices in relation to CLIL implementation in science lessons, revealed some recommendations for being better prepared to use the CLIL approach to support science education. The most important considerations common among all the participant practitioners are teaching material support and adaptation of CLIL program to the curriculum. The teachers reported that providing them with adapted material would help to save time and reduce work load. These findings support the previous research of Mehisto (2008), in which participant teachers were asked in the interviews about factors that helped successfully realize CLIL program. The teachers ranked teaching materials as one of the most significant factors in CLIL program.

Another important recommendation provided by all the participant teaches of present study is support in language training. Although the teachers obtained Cambridge English Entry Certificate in ESOL International, level B1 of English, they said that attending short language course was not enough to start to speak fluently in the target language. In addition, the practitioners reported about the lack of opportunities to improve their level of English. In their view, it would be helpful if the language course was aimed at developing content teachers’ linguistic skills. A similar conclusion was reached by Butler (2005) who claims that “teachers’ lack of content and language knowledge affects CLIL success” (p.47). This
is consistent with what has been found in previous research done by Banegas (2012): “Results showed that teachers believed their practices could be enhanced should they develop a more proficient command of English, a concern also reported in Pavón Vázquez and Rubio” (2010, p.51).

In short, the findings of present study suggest that teaching material support and the adaptation of CLIL program to the curriculum will help to successfully implement CLIL approach in science lesson. Moreover, providing content teachers with language training is one of the most important considerations among all the participant teachers, since “CLIL contexts require linguistically-aware teachers, whether they are specifically working on language or content” (Marsh, 2012, p.62).

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

As the findings revealed, science teachers experience major challenges in finding materials, translating and adapting it to the curriculum. There is a variety of CLIL teaching material published and available on the Internet. However, since CLIL is implemented differently in various contexts, it is difficult to transfer those materials to Kazakhstani educational context. Therefore, teachers should be provided with training which will “include training for material design based on CLIL principles and the 4C framework proposed by Coyle (1999)” (Matthaioudakis, 2017, p.18). Moreover, content teachers struggle with the issue of assessing the students’ knowledge, since they are not aware of ways how to assess students’ answers in the target language and in L1. CLIL stakeholders should provide teachers with training which will contain training for assessment and evaluation in CLIL in order to teach educators to apply assessment and evaluation procedures and tools in CLIL lessons.

Secondly, it was found that content teachers face language difficulties and suffer from the lack of opportunities to improve their level of English. Although, the teachers attended language course and obtained Cambridge English Entry Certificate in ESOL International, level B1 of English, short course duration was not enough to attain high proficiency language level. In order to increase science teachers’ language awareness, long-term language training should be organized by CLIL stakeholders. This training should aim at developing content teachers’ linguistic skills and provide educators with academic language to reach the level of linguistic competence for CLIL.

Furthermore, lesson time deficiency and overcrowded classes affect negatively on successful CLIL implementation. Ministry of Education should consider these issues and take steps to tackle them to ensure successful implementation of educational reforms regarding the CLIL approach.

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Kazakhstani Secondary School Science Teachers' Challenges in and Strategies for Implementing Content and Language Integrated Learning Approach


Language Peculiarities
– a Hurdle to be Bridged, or a Cultural Bequest to be Cherished -

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Abstract: Globalization has had its antithesis epitomized in the increased interest for one’s one cultural roots and one’s own inherent identity, assuming that the things people say and do, their social activities and procedures, are products or offshoots of their culture. Every language is transferred from one generation to the next via the human faculty of cognition and learning, and each has a unique history. Once embraced, those two facts can help us explain why there are so many languages – around 5000 by the conventional count – and the vast number of varieties in many of them. This diversity is contingent upon numerous factors, which, in turn, do have an impact on the human capacity to communicate in, arguably, the most sophisticated and effective manner on the planet. Virtually all European countries have a history of discriminating against linguistic minorities (Coulmas 1991), furthermore so since a subtle and yet portentous change has taken place in the past two centuries – namely languages changed ownership – from being possessed by those who used them they became property of nations – a feature wrought with mentality implications and other facets of cultural and traditional embodiment. Every language has its own stylistic conventions and preferences in using certain textual patterns, that is, cohesive devices, thematic patterns, and parallel structures. Accordingly, it would transpire that culture is not “a material phenomenon”, consisting of “things, people, behavior, or emotion” (Goodenough 1964, 39-40). Instead, it is an organization of these things since words only have meaning in terms of the culture in which they are used, and although languages do not determine culture, they certainly tend to reflect a society’s beliefs and practices. Streamlining the differences is a desirable outcome by some, and a feared setback by others.

Key words: language, linguistics, grammatical patterns, contrastive analysis, culture

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INTRODUCTION

There are nearly 7,000 languages spoken across the world today. Only a fraction of these languages (359) are truly global, spoken by millions of people. These include Mandarin Chinese, English, Spanish, and Hindi. The remaining 6,550 languages have a much more limited scope, and many are in danger of being lost entirely. In other words, 94% of the world’s population speaks 6% of its languages, while 6% of the world’s population speaks 94% of its languages. Each language has its own way of seeing the world and is the product of its own particular history. Those histories, however, are in the peril of extinction. Traditionally, our dichotomist views on language as it relates to diversity are that it has often been used as an instrument of repression for the utter purpose of establishing and perpetuating systems of domination and hierarchies between and among groups.

On the one hand having a lingua franca can facilitate certain aspects of life, most notably mobility and trade. On the other hand, however, that convenience engenders unequal gains and losses. To some, the streamlining of languages brings unprecedented power; to others it deprives them of power and inner being.

Traditionally, the crucial factor for the instituting of a global language is that it is spoken by those who have power. Consequently, language has in many cases throughout our society’s history, lent itself to propel the status of certain groups while designating others to a status of inferiority. This is best seen in the case of indigenous groups whose homelands have been taken for economic development. Deprived of their ancestral lands, and with their way of life disordered, they lose their self-governance and self-esteem; unable to amend to altered economic conditions, they fall into scarcity and meagerness, thereby undercutting any future attempt of linguistic diversification. One of the phenomena it can lead to is the so called diglossia, which occurs when speakers of the minority language use their mother tongue only with intimate interlocutors, while the higher class language is used in more formal and more socially prestigious situation (Ferguson 1959).

When used in this manner, language has systematically helped to undercut and denigrate certain groups and validate the ensuing patterns of segregation, abuse and maltreatment. When cultural dominance is perpetuated without sensitivity to, and respect, for indigenous ways of life, it is imperialistic and expansionist, feeding on its own success. If a global language policy is to be pursued conscientiously, aspiring to become useful as a lingua franca, it ought to strive to become a common language that enables people from diverse backgrounds and ethnicities to communicate on a more or less equitable basis, rather than imposing rules and annihilating differences.

MULTILINGUALISM IN EUROPE

It may sound strange, but there are about 225 spoken native languages in Europe. The five languages spoken by most people in Europe are, by number of indigenous speakers, Russian, German, English, French and Italian. Most European countries, however, normally operate with several languages. People of Europe typically often think that their continent has an exceptional number of languages, particularly when compared to North America or Australia. Yet, only 3% of the world’s total, some 225 languages, are indigenous to Europe. Most of the world’s languages are spoken in a broad area on either side of the Equator - in
southeast Asia, India, Africa, and South America. What is a particular feature of Europe is the attempt to merge 28 nations (many of which have their own languages) in a political union. How should the European Union manage its multilingualism? The 28 partner countries speak an unwieldy 23 languages.

Conflicts and competitive struggles are frequent and the major languages English, French and German win them more often than the smaller ones. (Taalunie 1999:2). To enable more shared modes of expression, some people have even suggested that every child in Europe should learn at least two foreign languages. Others frowned at this as nonsense. Many argued that it would be far more practical if all European matters were simply conducted in English.

Why not let the most popular language spread to every corner of Europe—and, indeed, the rest of the world? Native English-speakers make up less than a fifth of the EU’s population. And, awkwardly, English is the official language of the one country that has had a successful referendum to quit the EU entirely.

In the European Union, the citizens have the right to communicate in one of the official languages (Article 8d of the EC Treaty), which has considerable organizational and financial implications as a great number of translators is required to assure the communication with these citizens. This would certainly seem more practical than teaching every European child two more languages. But mandating English might also serve to undermine loyalty to the EU. There are too many Europeans who would rather not have English dominate political affairs. Through the work of the Council of Europe, two important international instruments came into force in 1998. The European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages is in force in 22* member states; the UN Framework Convention for the Protection of National Minorities which includes some provisions for minority languages, is in force in 39* member states (*ratifications in 2007). Even though EU officials at the Commission use French, English and to a lesser degree German as working languages (Labrie 1993: 111), the member states do not seem to be willing to accept one of these languages or another language as the lingua franca for the EU and to give up their national language (De Swaan 1999: 15).

The European continent has more native German-speakers, including four countries where German is an official language than English. There does not seem to be enough political will, neither among the political elite nor the population of the EU, to reduce the number of official languages (Mamadouh 1999: 122). French has as many native-speakers in Europe, too, and is official in three countries (not to mention Europe’s de facto capital, Brussels). This may lead to an increase in the number of required translators and interpreters if German and French gained the same status as English (particularly bearing in mind that Native English-speakers make up less than a fifth of the EU’s population). The fact that there are not only EU translators for written communication, but also EU interpreters who assure oral communication in the official languages at all EU institutions (Labrie 1993: 88-135) shows that multilingualism in the EU also applies to oral communication. These factors have so far only been superficially contemplated, never given a serious consideration.

**LANGUAGE DIVERSITY - BENEFITS VERSUS SHORTCOMINGS**

All languages have their individual identity and value, and all are equally adequate as modes of expression for the people who use them. We know from comparisons of the rates at which children learn to speak that no language is intrinsically more difficult or superior than any
other language. Acknowledging the importance of all languages, big or small, may seem idealistic, but when it comes to arguments about language, as with trade, emotion is often crushed by necessity. This kind of supremacy typically emerges in international trade and industrial development beyond individual borders when promoted by a powerful country.

Countries which fall prey to excessive foreign contributions find themselves heavily in debt. If we accept Nida’s definition of culture as “the total beliefs and practices of a society”(2002, 157), it would transpire that cultural invasion is particularly noticeable in developing countries where certain cultural aspects of the donor of aid suffuse the receiver, closing the eyes to the latter's own culture. The most notable effect of cultural invasion can be seen in economically dependent countries whose economies had to resort to welcoming international financial organization (typically the Word Bank and the International Monetary Fund). Wherever cultural invasion occurs the most prominent and likely mark for the next-in-line loss is that of the indigenous language. Hard facts may be a good reason to, say, shut an old outdated factory that cannot survive competition. Language, however, is not a rusted factory - much more is in jeopardy - not just people's wellbeing, but their identities and cultural diversity itself.

Europe’s growing anti-EU parties would be elated if the EU unwise sidelined national exceptionalism for an English supremacy. Many would reasonably claim that, in the fields of business, academics, science, computing, education, transportation, politics and entertainment, English is already established as the de facto lingua franca, and telling 26 of 28 EU countries that of course they can keep their languages, notwithstanding that all portentous matters (legislation, science and jurisprudence) must be done in English, is asking them to accept second-class linguistic citizenship.

There is so much overwhelming evidence that the preeminence of English is beyond questioning, and consequently, speaking, reading and writing it are critical skills for workers in the global economy. Languages that are not used for science or business fail to develop the up-to-date vocabulary and style needed to do so. To further corroborate this, we can also use research results published by Labrie (1993), Lopes Sabino (1999), Mamadouh (1995, 1999) and De Swaan (1999) who explain how, when and why actors in the EU use one or more languages. Over time, if neglected, such languages shrink to fewer and fewer domains. In the long run, they may be spoken only at home or between close friends, like Swiss German or Scottish Gaelic. Consequently, when new countries join the European Union it is not inconceivable that, for reasons of an utilitarian and financial-economic nature, there will be a shift in favor of the exclusive institutional use of English in the long term. Already today, in liberal and pro-American countries where English ability is exceptional, like Denmark or the Netherlands, people fear that their languages are considered fit for fewer and fewer fields.

**IS THERE SUCH A THING AS LANGUAGE CHAUVINISM?**

Many Europeans may think that a monolingual way of life is the norm. But between a half and two-thirds of the world’s population is bilingual to some degree, and a significant number are plurilingual. Plurilingualism is much more the normal human condition than monolingualism. Pioneering work of Bourdieu and Boltanski (1970) on this subject centered upon on the process of social selection through education. Education is just one of the avenues for language multiplicity to set in, both individually and in society.
Exclusivity of language use in education is often invigorated by populist and xenophobic parties, the kind that say Europe crushes any notion of national uniqueness, and feed on this fear. In the focus of the aforementioned work is the belief that schools contribute to social inculcation of domination through acquisition of foreign languages and cultural patterns. It would be far better to encourage every European schoolchild to learn a second foreign language after English. It could be a big one, like German, for work reasons. (This would help European labor mobility, a big shortcoming in the single market.) Successful communication, as the common erudition points out, relies not only on language skills but on an understanding of other people’s cultures, as it could also help Europeans cross borders and build the kind of friendly interactions that fabricate fellow-feeling and gradually push Europe’s old enmities further into the past.

Europe is prosperous enough to devote some of its resources to that amiable idea of unity in diversity. A case study carried out by Loos (2000) analyzes how advisers at the European Parliament, belonging to different political groups and originating from different national cultures with distinct mother tongues succeed in producing - without support of translators and interpreters - compromise motions for resolutions to be adopted at the plenary session in Strasbourg each month. The French have a law stating that if public signage is translated into another language, it must be into at least two other languages. This not only precludes English from dominating French signage, it also enhances the visibility of other languages. It may seem as a languages tampering when it attempts to reduce the use of English words and conceal them out of the public eye, but the country’s approach to translating signs is not a bad one, and not a bad model for wider thinking about language.

CONCLUSION

All things considered, language protectionism is a somewhat delayed attempt at slowing down the rate of language disappearance. Those who strive to protect languages, simultaneously contribute to protection of culture. Culture is not a material phenomenon, consisting of things, people, behavior, or emotion (Goodenough 1964, 39-40). Instead, it is an organization of these things since words only have meaning in terms of the culture in which they are used, and although languages do not determine culture, they certainly tend to reflect a society’s beliefs and practices. It isn't easy or cheap, but already in some multilingual countries (like Luxembourg) three languages are expected for national cohesion. The investment is worthwhile as the diversity of languages and of cultures, as in the case of biodiversity, is increasingly being seen as a good and beautiful thing in itself. There is a need to increase popular knowledge and understanding of the diversity of the languages of Europe, and of the factors affecting their maintenance and growth. There is a need to generate a greater interest in and curiosity about languages. Likewise, there is also a need to enhance linguistic tolerance within and between nations. These were just some of the aims of the European Year of Languages 2001, which was organized by the Council of Europe and the European Union. On the eve of the closing event of the Year of Languages, the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe decided to declare the European Day of Languages to be celebrated on 26th September each year, with similar objectives. Developments like these, instill hope that language diversity will continue to be a cultural bequest to be cherished rather than a hurdle to be bridged.
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Focus on Feedback: Techniques for Constructive Writing Feedback

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Abstract: Most teachers recognize a need for providing corrective feedback for student writing, but they should consider how they are providing this feedback and supporting students in becoming autonomous correctors. This paper provides four simple techniques that can be used for providing feedback and suggestions on the best situations in which to use them. Additionally, the use of “awareness activities” to go along with corrective feedback is described and promoted in order to foster student awareness of their errors and build student confidence in being able to correct their own errors.

Key words: writing, corrective feedback, error correction, selective feedback, student autonomy, student awareness

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INTRODUCTION

While serving as an English Language Fellow in Uzbekistan, I have encountered students and teachers asking for assistance in improving their writing and in teaching writing. This quick shift to a need to improve writing skills comes as more and more students take IELTS exams and find their writing score to be their lowest band score and as teachers are faced with high stakes related to salary and job stability regarding their scores on standardized tests. Improving writing skills is a complex process and may not have the quick fix that people are looking for, but I have found many teachers and students to be open to new ways in teaching writing and in examining their own written work.

The problems with development of writing skills probably stems from various issues, including lack of access or exposure to authentic materials of appropriate genres, lack of experience with the task, a solely “product” approach and little or no exposure to a process approach, a reliance on quick fixes, and the high workload placed on teachers that may prevent them from giving the attention needed to their students, not to mention mixed level classes and other issues.

With that in mind, since tackling the issue of improving writing skill is so complex, where do we begin? One area in which we can start is in the common interaction about writing between student and teacher: corrective feedback. I would be hard-pressed to find a teacher who doesn’t provide some sort of corrections for students. This process would seem to be an important one for improving writing as it brings attention to areas for improvement. Although corrective feedback is not the only type of feedback or needed area for improvement, it is one area in which teachers may be able to grow and support their students’ growth as writers.

SHOULD WE BE CORRECTING OUR STUDENTS’ GRAMMAR MISTAKES?

There have been supporters of a “no grammar correction” approach. Truscott (1996) advocated for no grammar correction in second language courses (as cited in Ferris & Hedgcock 2013). The rationale behind this viewpoint is that too great a focus on achieving perfect grammar takes away from students’ development of ideas. Another reason for speaking out against grammar correction is the fact that many students do not actually use the feedback that they receive from their teachers in a constructive way (Ferris & Hedgcock 2013). Many teachers will spend large amounts of time providing written feedback, but their students will only glance at the corrections and make little to no use of them toward their learning.

Despite Truscott’s valid points, most teachers believe that some sort of corrective feedback in grammar should be provided to students in order to aid their learning of structures. According to Ferris & Hedgcock (2013), teachers recognize that there are gaps in student knowledge of grammar and a lack of exposure that could result in learning through intuition. Additionally, grammatical errors may interfere with the message being conveyed or be irritating to readers (Ferris & Hedgcock 2013). Because of these issues, corrective feedback from teachers can bring these issues to light for students and serve as a valuable teaching tool. However, the issue of how we provide this feedback and in the ways we have students

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engage with their errors must be addressed to take full advantage of this learning opportunity.

FOSTERING AUTONOMY THROUGH AWARENESS BUILDING

The key to making corrective feedback meaningful is through fostering students’ ability to avoid or find and correct their own errors. If we as teachers spend time correcting students’ work or pointing out their grammar deviations, it should be as meaningful and useful to the student as possible; otherwise, it’s a waste of precious time. Most teachers in EFL contexts don’t have extra time to devote to checking work, and they also may have a large number of students’ papers to check at one time. Because students turn in work for different purposes throughout a semester, including hometasks and continuous and final assessments, one size does not fit all for providing feedback. The purpose of the feedback needs to be taken into account, along with scaffolding students’ autonomy through adjusting the level of support and also the potential to apply corrections through awareness activities and writing multiple drafts.

AWARENESS ACTIVITIES

In some cases, it may be appropriate to simply hand back our feedback for students and hope for the best, but in the experience of many teachers, most students need some instruction as well as structure in how they review corrections or feedback from the teacher and how they apply what they can potentially learn from feedback. Implementing awareness activities into a lesson that promote the practice of reviewing and applying the corrective feedback given by the teacher will maximize the potential learning that comes from corrective feedback, and since providing feedback takes precious time from the teacher, the value of it should be maximized to its fullest potential.

An awareness activity is one that brings attention to and fosters understanding of an individual student’s own strengths and weaknesses in their production of language. By making students aware of their strengths and weaknesses, they can better learn to apply corrective feedback as well as learn what to look for in their future writing, thereby promoting learner autonomy. Without guiding students to build awareness, the students may not know what to do with corrective feedback and may not actually learn from the process unless they are taught these types of strategies.

FOUR SIMPLE TECHNIQUES FOR PROVIDING CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK

Below are some techniques for providing written corrective feedback as well as “awareness activities” that can be used along with these techniques to foster autonomy and help students gradually take more control of their improvement in grammatical accuracy.

1. Correct it. In this technique, the instructor indicates the error in the text and provides the correct form:

   wakes
   She wakes up early every day.

This technique will be most useful when correcting tests and evaluations to justify student marks. It can also be used with an awareness activity that brings student attention to errors.
This can include identifying types errors (articles, spelling, verb form, etc.), noticing common errors, and recording errors in an error chart like the one below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Error</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Correct Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>She wake up early every day.</td>
<td>Third person, present simple Subject-Verb agreement</td>
<td>She wakes up early every day.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. **Code it.** In this technique, the instructor uses symbols to indicate types of errors, but does not provide the correct form:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S-V</td>
<td>Subject-verb agreement</td>
<td>makes He makes watches for a living.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This technique is most useful when used with an awareness activity that guides students to correct their own errors. It is also useful for helping students identify the types of common errors that they make. It is worth noting that this technique works best for grammatical structures or other mistakes that the student already knows how to correct. It may not be useful feedback when students are dealing with unknown grammar points. Additionally, it is necessary to provide a cheat sheet for your coding system that includes the symbol, an explanation of the symbol, and an example. Before expecting the students to utilize this feedback easily, they should be trained and guided in how to decipher your coding system.

3. **Point it out.** The teacher indicates the location of the error but does not provide a correction.

She wake up early every day.

This technique should be used after students have had more experience in identifying and correcting their errors. Their common mistakes can be indicated using this technique. It should not be used for new or unknown structures.

4. **All of the above.** The teacher indicates the error, providing the coding symbol and the correct form.

S-V (wakes)

She wake up early every day.

This technique is best used sparingly. It could be used to introduce a new or unusual error, to indicate errors missed after editing, as an early support method in which students are gradually given less information over time, or used as selective feedback.
CONSIDERATIONS
It is important to consider the purpose of the feedback and most importantly, how students can apply the feedback. Teachers should also consider “selective feedback” rather than attempting to correct every error. In making selective feedback, teachers can choose those errors that are “global” or “serious” (affecting meaning), “frequent,” or “stigmatizing” (not appropriate or irritating for the reader) (Ferris & Hedgcock 2013). This more mindful correction may help students focus on learning how to correct the most important errors instead of being overwhelmed by a multitude of markings on their papers. Most importantly, teachers should keep in mind that they are fostering autonomy through this process and providing students with the tools and responsibility to search out and correct their own errors.

REFERENCES
Ethno-Cultural Cognition in Teaching the Kazakh Language: Spatial Relations

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Abstract: Language and cognition, perception and analysis are the results of a human nature and the universality of the language as a cognitive tool. The number of typological, areal and genealogical factors can determine the features of the language-cognition at the intersection of social relations, semantic units, and their functionality. It reflects the shape and content. Conceptual category of any language platform combines both framing the content and structure of the model. Thus, the cognitive-conceptual basis of linguistic material forms is the paradigm of conceptual imagery and susceptibility, which create an imagination and fancy of language learners. This format not only compliments of the inner and the outer shell of nominative units but also helps us to understand their functionality and pragmatism through traditions and values, to envision a special trait of thoughts. Today, a cognitive paradigm in language function is accumulative. Since is a complex of knowledge, experience, and memory. Spatial relations in the Kazakh language are also given many features where space is considered as a category of ideas and knowledge about it, composed on the basis of certain words and language combinations. The sample for the analysis of the linguistic material is structured in terms of a social, psychological and cultural section. We draw on ethno-cultural cognition in teaching the Kazakh language for deeper understanding the mentality and values of the Kazakh people with disclosing their inside world. The specific content of a language teaching procedure can enrich and expand student’s interaction with ethno-cultural outputs and consequences. The Kazakh language spatial relations characterize the main structural layer of the connection between the human mind and space.

Keywords: spatial relations, cognitive linguistics, cultural sociology, conceptual basis of teaching.

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INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this paper is to describe spatial relations in the Kazakh language as a consolidation of historical events and modern social relations and also as a cultural tool of language teaching procedure. According to the conception of Miguel F. Ruiz-Garrido, Juan C. Palmer-Silveira, and Inmaculada Fortanet-Gómez, «Specialized languages usually refer to the specific discourse used by professionals and specialists to communicate and transfer information and knowledge» (Miguel F. Ruiz-Garrido, Juan C. Palmer-Silveira and InmaculadaFortanet-Gómez, 2010). It means that content of each language with their specific purposes create the core of knowledge and transmitted information, including specific corpora of cultural values and feelings. Intrinsically, the sense of spatial category provides an overview of different conceptions. In that case, ancient lifestyle and ideas are thoroughly and robustly presenting in the classification of spatial meanings in the Kazakh language and literature. More subtly they can attract the holistic functional grammar and cognitive-semantic features, emphasizing the uniqueness of the Union of language and cognition. An analysis of ethno-cultural and ethno-psychological factors behind the linguistic units of spatial relations actualizes concepts such as language picture of the world, social dimension, the semantic relativity and the ratio of universality and national language. Go spatial relationships in non-spatial, the creation of new figurative expression through metaphor, selection of semantic contextual contents are based on integrated approaches. The Kazakh language spatial relations characterize the main structural layer of the connection of the human mind and the world. Absorbing the foundations of cultural conceptualization and national integrity, spatial relations in the Kazakh language are the subject of an interdisciplinary category. Review of the principles and categories of language model space in a position of an anthropocentric organizer is not only the theoretical question of the research but also concentrates the core issues that require attention. Such a way of thinking about the objective world through the knowledge and perception of reality creates a fruitful and productive base of spatial relationships recorded in the Kazakh language units of life and consciousness. Selection of vocabulary and text material will be compared nominative feature of language units and also their functional and semantic characteristics in the process of development and use.

According to the conception of the Kazakh linguist Akhmet Baitursynov (Baitursynov, 1989: 225), «... A man is the harmony of the two worlds: the inner world and the outer world. Mind, spirit, and imaginations are the embodiment or personalization of man's inner world where spirituality becomes the main criterion. Everything else - the surrounding people, material values - are the result of the external world». It means each product of our mind is a creation of our imagination, spirit and external conditions. With the help of this definition, the spatial relations in the Kazakh language are acquired the self-sufficient system of interdisciplinary analysis and synchronic-diachronic studies. As Irina Nevskaya mentioned, «Space and time are the most important referential parameters of our world. Spatial concepts expressed by means of language are a unique reflection of physical space. They form part of the ideoethnic world picture, a language model of reality» (Nevskaya, 2006: 91).

As a prerequisite of our searches, we underline the necessary dimension of the unit of history, society, psychology in language teaching. In that case, the phrase «landscapes of meaning» (Reed, 2011) is a profound core of using it as an explanation of these connections.
The intersection of «theory and fact» as a meaning-systems evolves the idea that, «the intellectual disciplines dedicated to the study of meaning can work in its various social contexts» (Reed, 2011: 19). It is really true, that «it would make room for variations in landscapes across (linguistic) space, but also because it would incorporate an understanding of language, and therefore interpretation, as a practical and historically changing activity» (Evren Savcı, 2017: 57). One of the main and important functions of any language teaching procedure is a possibility to calculate any dynamical example of ethnic development and cognition or, in other words, it can be a power «strengthened by historical and social contextualization» (Evren Savcı, 2017: 58).

**SPACE FOR THE KAZAKH ETHNICITY**

Kazakhstan is situated in the heart of Eurasia. «Its territory occupies 2, 724, 900 square kilometers (1,049,150 square miles). It is the CIS' second and world's ninth largest country. Kazakhstan borders with China, Kyrgyzstan, Turkmenistan, Uzbekistan and Russia. The total length of the borderline is 12,187km» (Retrieved 1). From Ancient Time through Bronze Age, Saka Tribes & Ancient States, with The Great Silk Road and in whole periods of development (Retrieved 2) Land, Space, Spatial relations are very important concepts for Kazakhstani people now. Spatial relations for Kazakh people are the center of their cognition and mentality. The Major part of their traditions and national concepts was created by the philosophy of the great steppe. Earth and sky were and are the main sources of cognitive understanding of life and humanity. It formed the first cosmic & spatial understanding of measurements of time, distance and human nature. For them, space is the symbol of independence, openness and kindness. The breadth of thought and image comparisons always relate to the long steppe and the distance to the skies. Therefore the national flag and emblem have the historical twist of colors and symbolic meanings. The national flag of the Republic of Kazakhstan is blue as sky and infinity. It is the best way of understanding the morality and peaceful strategy of the country. The sun with 32 rays in the center symbolized life and strength of spirit and energy, because, according to the law of heraldry, the sun is a symbol of wealth and prosperity. Additional information, people in nomad period determined time by the movement of the sun. Also, steppe eagle was the important detail of nomad’s lifestyle. Today the eagle represents the heart of the steppe peoples and broad soul. It is a symbol of independence and resistance. The idea of the emblem concentrates on the eastern outlook, where the circle is the element of eternity. In the middle of the emblem are shanyrak, uyk as «open spaces of the steppe and mountains» (Retrieved 3). The pair of horses with a crescent moon on the forehead and golden wings has symbolized reliability and courage, security and loyalty. In the Kazakh legend they are called spyrakh. Each element of the national symbols has historical root and cognitive explanations with an ancient style. Currently, Kazakhstan has called «The Land of the great steppe». In the Kazakh version steppe is called Great dala.

In Kazakhstan «the steppe extends more than 2,200 km from the area east of the Caspian Depression and north of the Aral Sea, all the way to the Altai Mountains. It is the largest dry steppe region on earth, covering approximately 804,500 square kilometers. The Kazakh Steppe lies at the southern end of the Ural Mountains, the traditional dividing line between Europe and Asia. Much of the steppe is considered to be semi-desert, grading into the desert as one goes further south. The Turan Lowland lies in the southwestern part of the steppe, but elevation increases as one travel east or to the northern parts of the steppe, with a few exceptions» (Retrieved 4). Therefore, it is fair to say, that space in a heart, space in a mind of Kazakh people is a basis of all their communication processes and knowledge creation.
Space in a house is important for them as a space in streets and a distance between cities and villages. In social aspects, it is also necessary to know the distance of far relations and close communications. Today, spatial relations create a valuable experience of searching and understanding. Driven by these credos, we have a vested interest to analyze the synchronic development and diachronic way of this category in linguistics. As the element of cultural, psychological and political sociology space content formed the harmony of intra-linguistic and extra-linguistic analyses with inspiring historical argues. It has become an accepted truth, that the structure or grammatical features of lexical vocabulary in each language have a deep connection with social or cultural interpretations. Because by the conception of Lionel Wee «Sociolinguistics is the descriptive study of the effect of any and all aspects of society, including cultural norms, expectations, and context, on the way language is used» (Wee,2011).

SPACES IN INTRA-LINGUISTIC AND EXTRA-LINGUISTIC ANALYSES

The science of languages with special procedures creates it’s theoretical and practical basis of analysis of processes inside and outside. Furthermore, many linguistic conceptions have a core of structural analysis and analysis of connection with society, mentality, anthropology and ethnicity. Like this, the Kazakh language spatial relations are transmitted via separate lexical units and also people's cognitive concepts. Most often, the semantic meaning of spatiality in languages is given by auxiliary words or adverbs of places, spatial predicates and syntactic constructions and so on. «The semantic field of space is constituted by three main functional subsystems: the situational /static location/, the topological /geometric forms of localizer/ and the egocentric /a subject of observation as the deictic center/ ones» (Neuskaya,2006: 92 - 96). The main function of these spatial meanings in the Kazakh language has softly pronounced lexical meaning and gives an additional meaning to words standing next. For example, the words aldý /front, arty /behind, mangý /close, deýn/ up in conjunction with the individual words have the syntactic function. Additionally, these auxiliary words complement the spatial value of the words which stand near. So lexical units ishil/ inside or in, kasy/ close, arasyyl/ between are the subject specifications of movement in a space. It is possible to understand with the help of the following phrases - uidynghish - inside the house, auyldynghkasy – close or near village, ormannyngish - in a forest, etc. Also, the authors of the academic grammar, published in 1967, gave the semantic explanation of some auxiliary words. Clearly, in the sense of "to" deýn /sheýn has defined the boundaries. The auxiliary word taman has the spatial meaning "close to", etc. As a result, the Kazakh language has special auxiliary words for giving spatial relations in a connection with other lexical words. On the other hand, we found it very interesting that the words of the spatial meanings as tauly/mountain, tobely peak, dalaly steppe, ordaly city, kent/ town, aralyl island formed the toponymical names too. For example: Temyrtaul/ iron + mountain, Aktobely write + peak, Kyzylorda red + city, Usharalll three + island, Aktau/ write + mountain and so on. These words created the category of connecting words of the lexical part and, indeed, are the objects of the structural or intra-linguistic analysis.

Otherwise, as an object of structural linguistic adverbs of place in the Kazakh language have morphological and syntactic characteristics and can form new phraseological combinations (Kenesbayev, 1987; Kaidar, 2004; Syzdykova, 2004). Examples: «ishialtn, syrty kumis», which means «clever or good character». Here «altyn» is gold and «kumis» is silver. In direct translation, it is a person who is gold inside and silver outside. The next one is «tonnyngishkibauyndai» - as a rope in a fur coat – in the Kazakh language, this phrase is used in meaning close like family. «Ak pen Kyzyl arasyndar» - between white and red – it is
a description of the sunset time. «Demningarasynda» - between breathes – very quickly. In the Kazakh language, phrases have their historical legends of prehistory with cultural philosophy. Especially, it would seem logical to assume that spatial category has assessed as the corporate position of deep connection of intra-linguistic and extra-linguistic analyses. By the way of illustration, it is possible to consider some examples. For Kazakh people, a dog is a valuable pet, because as a fast horse /zhuirik at/ a dog is a significant element of an existence from nomad’s time. It is well recognized that hunting, guarding the home herd ancient people can be realized with the help of dogs. Therefore, as a part of seven values of the Kazakh people, with the word «it»/dog has created some phrases. «It olgenzher/it arkasykiyandao» - it means far from here, because, according to the stories of the old generation, dogs do not show where to die. The assertion of well-known Kazakh linguist K. Zhubanov, who was executed in the years of repression in the 30 years of the twentieth century, and justified in the period of independence, that «Science is a result of a mental ability and an experience of a human being» based on the true (Zhubanov, 1999: 44). Therefore, the general assumption has been that lexical elements of each language argue the strong support of social, historical, cultural issues. In fact, taken together, linguistic categories underpin the aspiration to understand lexical and grammar roots of words and their equal combination with extra affected factors.

**REVIEW OF THE HISTORICAL COGNITION AND COGNITIVE LINGUISTIC CONCEPTS**

«The mind is not just photos, any shape seen getting into the mind will create and human thought, and spirit ... Linguistic facts must be examined in conjunction with the spheres of linguistic life. It is important, to define language alliance with social development, economy, social structure, and ideology» (Zhubanov, 1999: 406). As a core of the Kazakh traditional impacts to the renewal lexical processes in the language, spatial meanings had interesting explanations in past and significant definitions now. To expand the cognitive aspects of any explanation helps to enhance the link between language and ethnicity and to understand the meaning of the words. The calculation of some spatial concepts and dimensions can provide logical comprehension of an ancient lifestyle of Kazakh people with their traditional values. What involves cognition? They are some functional characteristics how scientific searches can use the platform of cognitive-conceptual senses and consequences. Firstly, it is a tool for transforming information through the different periods. Secondly, it is an instrument of elaborating information with some priority positions. It can be social context or psychological effect or maybe a cultural explanation. Thirdly, it can be informed of cultivating or storing. In addition, information has been recovering. Gathering historical issues and lexical vocabulary, ultimately, discloses the strength of social and cultural outputs. In an interaction with society and history, it is possible to sink true identity meanings of spatial words. For example, some spatial phrases in the Kazakh language have a deep connection with Nomad’s period and material features of that time (see Appendix). It also justifies the argue solution of the historical period to measure the usefulness and effectiveness of these combinations. Spanish philosopher Unamuno clarifies that «national scale» is not only to educate countrymen but also, and above all, to stir their souls». And as the main «instrument of stirring, awakening, and renewal of souls he underlined the power of the word – the spoken and written word» (Jose Ferrater Mora, 2003). The viable benefits of this conception concentrate on the significance of a national identity and cultural value. It normally involves procedures of cognition and analysis, thinking, and understanding, reviving and saving.
Spatial relations in the Kazakh language in the impact of their valuable nature create the significant list of cognitive concepts. For Kazakh people «land» is more than geographical measure, it is their history, grandparents, childhood and mother. This also means that Motherland in a heart of each Kazakh has special associations and passionate meanings. For example, «native land» has different comparisons and descriptions as atakonsy – a land of the ancestors, babalaramanaty – a mandate ancestors, darkhandala – a wide steppe, altynbesyk – a golden cradle, altynyula – a golden nest, kasiyettemeken – a valuable land, kasiyetyturak – a valuable shelter and so on. A human being as a member of society and social relationships has a link of cultural and social perceptions. «Today human emotions and its issues can be the result of not only biological evaluation but also an indicator of social group’s or national or professional group’s cognition. Children of a different age can show their emotions differently. People from different historical periods transmit their experiences and feelings also differently» (Rogov, 2001). The best way of understanding this concept is that people with same physiological nature create their own associations or definitions according to national traditions, social norms of behavior or capital of experiences. A number of reasons and consequences follow from. Among them, scientists analyze a living environment, a medium of upbringing, a level of education, the influence of the environment, social institutions, a confession or religious denomination. Currently, the theory of cognition has a collaboration of different sciences and essential comprehensions as a collection of nontraditional approaches. Cognitive linguistics is only one part of these outputs. E. Kubryakova maintains two directions of language concepts: firstly, to consider information about the whole world, secondly, to calculate contextual or mental information. Most significantly, differences between «notion» and «cognition» pertain to the leverage of meanings as a result of objective perception or as a mechanism of understanding cultural nature and structure. Therefore, a notion is the object of logic and philosophy, a concept is the object of math logic, cultural sciences, and cognitive linguistics. This link of comprehensions entails the cognitive explanations of the words. In the Kazakh language proverbs with the words of spatial meanings justifiably illustrate the common cultural morality and historical society of generations. For example,

1) *Otansyz adam – ormansyz bulbul* - The man without a country like a nightingale without woods. It has the same variant in English «Every bird likes its own nest».
2) *Baska zherdyng otyman tugan zherdyng tutyny artyk* - Smoke of native place is more valuable than flame of a foreign country
3) *Ozgeyelde sultan bolgansa, oz yelyngde ultan bol* - to be simple in homeland is better than a sultan in a foreign country
4) *Tuganzher – tugryrynk, tuganyel – kydyryn* – thenative land is the base and support, the native people is the prophet like a talisman. *Here the comparison word «kydyr» has important meaning. Kydyr in the Arabic language is Khizir. Indicates a prophet. According to the scriptures in the Holy Book Quran, he is a teacher of the Prophet Musa and all those who need an assistant.*
5) *Tuganzherdyngtasy da tanys* - even the stone of a native land is familiar
6) *Arkynnyng oz zheryn zhumak* - for each person own native land is a paradise
7) *Akku kolyn angsaiddi, adam tugan zheryn angsaiddi–a swan misses his lake a man misses his native land*

Concepts are just one scientific idea of cognitive linguistics. One might assume that there are the kinds of intentions contribute to analyzing words sense. Also, category, frames, gestalts, metaphors, cultural constants are elements of discovering inside strength of words. According to the Raymond W. Gibbs, «The cognitive linguistic research has demonstrated
that metaphor, in addition to metonymy and several other relations, provides an important process by which the different senses of words are linked together to form linguistic representations (Brugman and Lakoff, 1988; Lindner, 1983; Rice, 1992; Sweetser, 1990) (Gibbs, 1996), these meanings range in mentality and rationality. The general consensus has been that cognitive notions extend «the dynamic picture of logic operations in a cognitive mind and create a model of a new idea or thought» (Amirbekova, 2006).

COGNITION IN TEACHING THE KAZAKH LANGUAGE

Cognition is the subject of different scientific paradigms. As a tool of thinking and analyses around, cognition provides the unit of subjective dimension and objective core of explanations. Ultimately, the science of cognition discloses an interaction of social, cultural, psychological and anthropological procedures. This attraction of verity maintains the development of the social cognition, psychological cognition, cultural cognition, and language cognition. In the 1956 year, the report of Cambridge scientists A. Newell and H. Simon substantiated the new ideas about logic theory. And step by step, cognitive science has a definition as the system, studying the processes of the mind and thinking based on information-theoretic models and «in the first half of XX century epistemological notions of human cognition and cognitive processes experienced a dominant influence on the part of the sociological and cultural conceptions, as well as in the field of metamathematics research and logic of structural linguistics, linguistics, social anthropology, and in the second half and especially in the last decade - the theory of biological evolution, human genetics, cognitive science (cognitive psychology and research in the field of artificial intelligence), neuropsychology, etc.» (Merkulov, 2005). Therefore, the science of cognition had extended in different conditions of «knowledge, cognition, information, mind and biological nature of brain» (Kubryakova, 1996: 90). Occasionally, scientists engage interdisciplinary approaches for essential analyses, such as a comprehension of cognitive structures with their social and cultural features. It goes to show, that words as an element of thinking process also pertain to the processes of perception of around world changes and evaluation. We strongly believe, that «all languages have similarities and differences in a condition of their social experience» (Amanzholov, 2002: 54). It means all situations in a past and present contributes the strength of language potential and language vocabulary. For example, the spatial category in the Kazakh language creates not only semantic meanings but also profoundly emphasizes the mentality and values of the local people. Intrinsically, cognitive linguistics can help to expand the dissemination of some phrases with understanding their deep explanations. It is a tool of an excellent combination language and mind. One of the major principles of cognitive review is conceptual core, which encourages traditional dimensions of cultural values. The concept is «an active content element of a reflection of the world and a system of mentality and memory in human consciousness» (Kubryakova, 1996). According to the R. Pavilenis, all concepts have a connection with the familiar, perceived or mental information of individuals. They can be deductive or inductive information. For that reason, at the beginning of the 1928 year, S. Askoldov determined it as «thought structure» (Askoldov, 1997: 2) and then the linguist Y. Stepanov added that concepts are «the calculation of associations and cognitive meanings» (Stepanov, 1997: 49). These explanations entail functional and feasible mission of any language. They contribute to determining the sense of language tools as a part of needs analyses (Brown, 1995), goals and objectives of the pedagogical mission, teaching program, and evaluations. The content of the studied language should be a set of functional and necessary information, which makes it possible to understand the mental and cultural characteristics of the native speaker of the language. The content of the studied language should be a set of functional and
necessary information, which makes it possible to understand the mental and cultural characteristics of the native speaker of the language. Cognition in the teaching of language has a complex character of perception and development. With the help of metaphorical sayings and frame tasks, students learn not only to feel the surrounding world subtly, but also to learn their inner features. Concepts form a special world of colors and formulas of life in the mind of the learner.

CONCLUSION

The science of languages is one of the significant achievements of a human being. The universality of it is stirring all features of a human nature. A language is a tool for communication (Orazbayeva, 2009), an instrument of socialization, and strength of cognition. Each category in language has its historical roots and modern renewal because they distinguished the scale of evaluation and development. As the best way of understanding any social, cultural and psychological procedure in a man’s mind and memory cognition could be invested in different scientific directions. Currently, the spatial relations in the Kazakh language illustrate most significant components of an ancient lifestyle and essential argues of nowadays. In fact, all aspects of interdisciplinary analyses underpin the aspiration to create a viable and valuable linguistic capital of the Kazakh language. Focuses on the sociocultural challenges facing in the scientific searches today can help to examine receiving outcomes and to assess the connection between more subtle issues. Moreover, the next benefit is that spatial relations in the Kazakh language create the category of concepts in a distance of associations and comparisons (Orazaliyeva, 2007). For Kazakh people, space is the valuable content and mental representation of Motherland, steppe, land of ancestors, and candle of roots.

REFERENCES

Appendix 1: Categorizing spatial category in the Kazakh language with material characteristics of nomad’s period

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>№</th>
<th>spatial phrases</th>
<th>material characteristics</th>
<th>translations in English</th>
<th>additional information: explanations &amp; examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1  | kamshysaly mzheimer | kamshy – a whip | Phraseological combination has the main association of a spatial measure «as a distance of a whip» | In association with a whip as an everyday using tool, Kazakh people created many interesting phrases, for example: 1) «kamshybolu» - contribute, help, fillip; 2) «kamshysyna keluge zharamady» not be able to do something, helplessness /in this context «kamshy» - a whip is a part of the power, strength and courage/.
| 2  | tayaktastam zher | tayak – a stick | In this case, the idea concentrates on the meaning «like a distance of thrown stick» | It has the same meaning «near».
| 3  | audemzher | audemzher – distance of a voice | It creates from nomad’s lifestyle. When people can call each other only with the help of their voices. And as we know it will be possible just in a short distance. | It is the variant of meaning «place not far from here»

For Kazakh people, the spatial distance historically has some associative explanations with horse riding as an example of ancient lifestyle. Today we can hear these phrases rarely in a context of our grandparents.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>2-spatial dimension explanations</th>
<th>Unit</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
<th>Measurement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5 Byr/one/karys</td>
<td>«byrkarys»</td>
<td>is a distance between thumb and little finger of adult</td>
<td>It can be nearly 15 – 18 cm.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 byr/one/kulash</td>
<td>«byrkulash»</td>
<td>means «a distance of adult’s wide-open arms»</td>
<td>It is near 1.5 – 1.8 meters.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 byr/one/arkan</td>
<td>arkan – a lasso</td>
<td>On average, it was 15 - 18 meters.</td>
<td>It is a distance as the length of the lasso. Lasso one of the main attributes of nomad life. 1 arkan = 10 kulash 1 lasso = 10 adult’s wide-open arms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 byr/one/kadam/ady m/</td>
<td>kadam/adym/ – step</td>
<td>It is the distance of one adult step.</td>
<td>It is near 60 – 70 centimeter.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Correlation Between Achievement Levels and Motivational Types of Values of Pre-service Language Teachers

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Abstract: Most social scientists view values as deeply rooted and abstract motivations that guide, justify or explain attitudes, norms, opinions and actions. Values are basic orientations presumed to underlie and influence individual variation on many of the constructs that researchers from different disciplines wish to study. Since 1950s the main features of the conception of basic values implicit in the related literature are:

1. Values are beliefs, cognitive structures that are closely linked to affect.
2. Values refer to desirable goals. For example, social equality, fairness and helpfulness are all values.
3. Values transcend specific actions and situations. Obedience and honesty, for example, are values that may be relevant at work or in school, in sports, business and politics, with family, friends or strangers.
4. Values serve as standards or criteria.
5. Values are ordered by importance relative to one another. Cultures and individuals can be characterized by their systems of value priorities. Among all the scales, The Schwartz Value Survey (SVS) (1992) is currently the most widely used by social and cross-cultural psychologists for studying the individual differences in values.

Schwartz derived ten, motivationally distinct, broad and basic values from three universal requirements of the human condition: needs of individuals as biological organisms, requisites of coordinated social interaction, and survival and welfare needs of groups. These ten basic values are intended to include all the core values recognized in cultures around the world (power, achievement, hedonism, stimulation, self-direction, universalism, benevolence, tradition, conformity, security). To primarily showcase whether there is a correlation between the success levels of the pre-service teachers and their motivational type of values, 120 pre-service English language teachers participated in the study and The Schwartz Values Questionnaire was administered. The study is expected to yield insight into the pursuit of the correlation between the proficiency levels of the language teachers and their motivational types of values.

Key words: types of values, cross-cultural psychologists, motivationally distinct, correlation

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INTRODUCTION

The past twenty years have witnessed a large body of second language research targeting language learning strategies (Chamot et al. 1999; Cohen 1998, 2002; O’Malley et al. 1985; O’Malley and Chamot 1990; Oxford 1990, 1996). While some of this research has explicitly sought to push the theoretical understanding of language learning strategies forward, the majority of the work in the learning strategy literature had more practical goals, namely to explore ways of empowering pre-service teachers to become more self-directed and effective in their learning.

This article presents an overview of the Schwartz theory of basic human values. It discusses the nature of values and spells out the features that are common to all values and what distinguishes one value from another. The theory identifies ten basic personal values that are recognized across cultures and explains where they come from. At the heart of the theory is the idea that values form a circular structure that reflects the motivations each value expresses. This circular structure that captures the conflicts and compatibility among the ten values is apparently culturally universal.

Values have been a central concept in the social sciences since their inception. For both Durkheim (1897/1964) and Weber (1905/1958), values were crucial for explaining social and personal organization and change. Values have played an important role not only in sociology, but in psychology, anthropology, and related disciplines as well. Values are used to characterize cultural groups, societies, and individuals, to trace change over time, and to explain the motivational bases of attitudes and behavior.

Application of the values in the social sciences during the past century suffered from the absence of an agreed-upon conception of basic values, of the content and structure of relations among these values, and of reliable empirical methods to measure them (Hitlin & Piliavin, 2004; Rohan, 2000). Recent theoretical and methodological developments (Schwartz, 1992; Smith & Schwartz, 1997) have brought about a resurgence of research on values.

The recent theory concerns the basic values that people in all cultures recognize. It identifies ten motivationally distinct types of values and specifies the dynamic relations among them. Some values conflict with one another (e.g., benevolence and power) whereas others are compatible (e.g., conformity and security). The "structure" of values refers to these relations of conflict and congruence among values. Values are structured in similar ways across culturally diverse groups. This suggests that there is a universal organization of human motivations. Although the nature of values and their structure may be universal, individuals and groups differ substantially in the relative importance they attribute to the values. That is, individuals and groups have different value “priorities” or “hierarchies.”

The value theory (Schwartz, 1992, 2006a, 2012) adopts a conception of values that specifies six main features that are implicit in the writings of many theorists:

(1) Values are beliefs linked inextricably to affect. When values are activated, they become infused with feeling. People for whom independence is an important value become aroused
if their independence is threatened, despair when they are helpless to protect it, and are happy when they can enjoy it.

(2) Values refer to desirable goals that motivate action. People for whom social order, justice, and helpfulness are important values are motivated to pursue these goals.

(3) Values transcend specific actions and situations. Obedience and honesty values, for example, may be relevant in the workplace or school, in business or politics, with friends or strangers. This feature distinguishes values from norms and attitudes that usually refer to specific actions, objects, or situations.

(4) Values serve as standards or criteria. Values guide the selection or evaluation of actions, policies, people, and events. People decide what is good or bad, justified or illegitimate, worth doing or avoiding, based on possible consequences for their cherished values. But the impact of values in everyday decisions is rarely conscious. Values enter awareness when the actions or judgments one is considering have conflicting implications for different values one cherishes.

(5) Values are ordered by importance relative to one another. People’s values form an ordered system of priorities that characterize them as individuals. Do they attribute more importance to achievement or justice, to novelty or tradition? This hierarchical feature also distinguishes values from norms and attitudes.

(6) The relative importance of multiple values guides action. Any attitude or behavior typically has implications for more than one value. For example, attending church might express and promote tradition and conformity values at the expense of hedonism and stimulation values. The tradeoff among relevant, competing values guides attitudes and behaviors (Schwartz, 1992, 1996). Values influence action when they are relevant in the context (hence likely to be activated) and important to the actor.

**SCHWARTZ VALUES CLASSIFICATION**

Schwartz categorizes all motivational values into ten in the following way:

**Benevolence** is about preserving and enhancing the welfare of those with whom one is in frequent personal contact (the ‘in-group’). Benevolence derives from the basic requirement for smooth group functioning (Kluckhohn, 1951) and from the organismic need for affiliation (Maslow, 1965). Benevolent people emphasize voluntary concern for others’ welfare. Such people are helpful, honest, forgiving, responsible, loyal with true friendship and mature love. They have a sense of belonging, meaning in life, and a spiritual life. Benevolence and conformity values both promote cooperative and supportive social relations. However, benevolence values provide an internalized motivational base for such behavior. In contrast, conformity values promote cooperation in order to avoid negative outcomes for self.

**Universalism** is concerned with understanding, appreciation, tolerance, and protection for the welfare of all people and for nature. This contrasts with the in-group focus of benevolence values. Universalism values derive from survival needs of individuals and groups. But people do not recognize these needs until they encounter others beyond the extended primary group and until they become aware of the scarcity of natural resources. People may then realize that failure to accept others who are different and treat them justly will lead to life-threatening strife. They may also realize that failure to protect the natural environment will lead to the destruction of the resources on which life depends. Universalism combines two subtypes of concern—for the welfare of those in the larger society and world and for nature. Those with universal values are broadminded who care
about social justice, equality, world at peace, world of beauty, unity with nature, wisdom, protecting the environment.

**Self-direction** is concerned with independent thought and action—choosing, creating, exploring. Self-direction derives from organismic needs for control and mastery (Bandura, 1977; Deci, 1975) and interactional requirements of autonomy and independence (Kluckhohn, 1951; Kohn & Schooler, 1983). People with a high sense of self-direction are creative, free, curious, independent and they choose their own goals.

**Stimulation** is about excitement, novelty, and challenge in life. Stimulation values derive from the organismic need for variety and stimulation in order to maintain an optimal, positive, rather than threatening (Berlyne, 1960).

**Hedonism** deals with pleasure or sensuous gratification for oneself. Hedonism values derive from organismic needs and the pleasure associated with satisfying them. This value is all about pleasure, enjoying life, and being self-indulgent.

**Achievement** is about personal success through demonstrating competence according to social standards. They are competent in generating resources to reach their objectives. As defined here, achievement values emphasize demonstrating competence in terms of prevailing cultural standards, thereby obtaining social approval. High achieving people are ambitious, successful, capable, and influential.

**Power** deals with social status and prestige, control or dominance over people and resources. The functioning of social institutions apparently requires some degree of status differentiation (Parsons, 1951). A dominance/submission dimension emerges in most empirical analyses of interpersonal relations both within and across cultures (Lonner, 1980). Both power and achievement values focus on social esteem. However, achievement values (ambitious) emphasize the active demonstration of successful performance in concrete interaction, whereas power values (authority, wealth) emphasize the attainment or preservation of a dominant position within the more general social system.

**Security** is about safety, harmony, and stability of society, of relationships, and of self. Security values derive from basic individual and group requirements (Kluckhohn, 1951; Maslow, 1965). Some security values serve primarily individual interests, others wider group interests (national security). Even the latter, however, express, to a significant degree, the goal of security for self or those with whom one identifies.

**Conformity** is concerned with restraint of actions, inclinations, and impulses likely to upset or harm others and violate social expectations or norms. Conformity values derive from the requirement that individuals inhibit inclinations that might disrupt and undermine smooth interaction and group functioning. Conformity values emphasize self-restraint in everyday interaction, usually with close others. Conformist people are obedient, self-disciplined, polite, honoring parents and elders, loyal, and responsible.

**Tradition** is about respect, commitment, and acceptance of the customs and ideas that one's culture or religion provides. Groups everywhere develop practices, symbols, ideas, and beliefs that represent their shared experience and fate. These become sanctioned as valued group customs and traditions. They symbolize the group's solidarity, express its unique worth, and contribute to its survival (Durkheim, 1912/1954; Parsons, 1951). They often take the form of religious rites, beliefs, and norms of behavior. Traditional people have high respect for conventions and rituals; moreover, they are humble and devout.
METHOD

Participants
Participants are 120 pre-service teachers studying at the department of Language Education at a western state university. Their ages range from 20 to 22.

Instrumentation
The Schwartz Value Survey: The first instrument developed to measure values based on the theory is now known as the Schwartz Value Survey (SVS; Schwartz, 1992, 2006a). Respondents rate the importance of each value item "as a guiding principle in my life" on a 5-point scale labeled 5 (very important), 4 (important), 3 (undecided), 2 (not important), 1 (not very important - opposed to my values). People view most values as varying from mildly to very important. The alpha reliability is found to be .86 for these respondents in this study.

DATA RESULTS

To primarily showcase whether there is a correlation between the success levels of the pre-service teachers and their motivational type of values, 120 pre-service teachers participated in the study and The Schwartz Values Questionnaire was administered to the pre-service teachers. There are 25 males and 95 females in the research.

Table 1. Independent Samples Test for Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Levene's Test for Equality of Variances</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>total</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>assumed</td>
<td>.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>not assumed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 shows there is no relation between gender and their values. Both females and males have similar ratios in terms of values.

Table 2. Values and Ages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>90,161</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>30,054</td>
<td>,210</td>
<td>,889</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>7454,054</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>143,347</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>7544,214</td>
<td>55</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2 highlights age has no bearing on the values of pre-service teachers. Although their ages vary between 20 and 22 and they are undergraduate pre-service teachers at the university, this does not affect their penchant for ten values categorized by Schwartz. The descriptives showcase that the learners are very traditional and they do not have high universal values. Their self direction values are low. When the subtypes of values are analysed, the list is as follows: power, tradition, conformity, stimulation, achievement, security, hedonism, self-direction, benevolence, universalism. For Schwartz, benevolence, universalism, and self-direction values are most important; besides, power and stimulation values are least important, with which the respondents heredisagree (2012). This hierarchy provides a baseline to which to compare the priorities in any sample.

Table 3. Descriptives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Values</th>
<th>Means</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Benevolence</td>
<td>1.96</td>
<td>1.6786</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Universalism</td>
<td>1.41</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-direction</td>
<td>1.62</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stimulation</td>
<td>2.07</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hedonism</td>
<td>1.67</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achievement</td>
<td>2.15</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Power</td>
<td>2.84</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Security</td>
<td>1.71</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conformity</td>
<td>2.40</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tradition</td>
<td>2.72</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The corelation between achievement and motivational types is high (.71).

**DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION**

Individuals differ substantially in the importance they attribute to these ten values. Across societies, however, there is surprising consensus regarding the hierarchical order of the values. It is contentious that across representative samples, using different instruments, the importance ranks for the ten values are quite similar. Benevolence, universalism, and self-direction values are most important. Power and stimulation values are least important. However, the fact that the responses of pre-serviceteachers show that for them power and tradition are more important highlights the current view that these pre-serviceteachers might wish to have power as they feel powerless and helpless in this trajectory. Moreover, they are very devoted to their own cultural values and traditions. This hierarchy provides a baseline to compare the priorities in any sample. Such comparison is critical for identifying which, if any, of the value priorities in a sample are distinctively high or low. A sample may rank benevolence highest, for example, but compared with other samples the importance rating of this value may still be relatively low.

It is socially functional to legitimize gratification of self oriented needs and desires as long as this does not undermine group goals. Individuals must be motivated to invest time and effort to perform productive work, to solve problems that arise when working, and to generate new ideas and technical solutions. Unlike the other groups who showed some
congruence with Schwartz’s theory, the respondents of the study prefer the opposite value beliefs. Despite this, they strive hard to get high scores. Their commitment to studying harder and clinging to their own interests and cultural traditions might be in conflict with the universal values all pre-service teachers are supposed to have, however, one should remember that the current trend in the world is not liberalism but conservatism.

Security (6th) and conformity (3rd) values also promote harmonious social relations. They do this by helping people to avoid conflict and violations of group norms. But these values are usually acquired in response to demands and sanctions to avoid risks, control forbidden impulses, and restrict the self. This reduces their importance because it conflicts with gratifying self-oriented needs and desires. The respondents here show conformity in the third on the list but security is the sixth. As Schwartz says (2012), people everywhere experience conflict between pursuing openness to change values or conservation values. They also experience conflict between pursuing self-transcendence or self-enhancement values. Conflicts between specific values (e.g., power vs. universalism, tradition vs. hedonism) are also near-universal, which is also present in this study. However, it is striking that as technology prevails, people start to become more conventional and closed, straying away from the universal values and benevolence.

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The Kazakh Language for Specific Purposes: Kazakh for Business

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Abstract: In the last decade of the last century, there has been a growing tendency to classify the Kazakh for Special Purposes (KSP) as an academic subject because of the economic situation in the country. The intensive development of modern Kazakhstani society has resulted in a high level of competition, so the future specialists must demonstrate higher levels of socio-economic and professional mobility and communicative competence. Teaching KSP has begun at universities, as well as at language training centers. Development of all language skills (reading, writing, speaking and listening) is carried out in a professionally oriented and business focused model. Therefore, the emergence of new models of language education has appeared, with the use of modern methods and technologies in universities resulting in the increase of students’ future professional competence, and comprehensive knowledge. Nazarbayev University, which is the youngest university in Kazakhstan, is an international university dedicated to creating a special educational environment for young students from Kazakhstan and abroad based upon the best international practices. For this reason, the students have an English-language environment on campus and the faculty draw upon scholar-teachers from all around the world. At the same time, this University has a large department dedicated to the Kazakh language. In order to meet the strategic goals of the University, we, the instructors of the Kazakh language department prepared a policy of the Kazakh language. Yet, the need for a conceptual and holistic approach to the problems of the Kazakh language teaching in English medium environment remains relevant. The Department offers General Kazakh language courses, as well courses for Specific Purposes to fulfill professional needs of Kazakh language learners. Methodology. The study uses descriptive and analytic methods. This paper observes the development of Kazakh for special purposes (KSP) and its subcategories, such as Kazakh for Business (KB). The development of KSP, as well as Kazakh for business was described in comparison with the history of ESP. This study aims to assess the practice of researchers, instructors, and certain scholars. Project goal and objectives: defining the steps to designing a Kazakh for specific purposes (KSP) course at NU, results of needs analysis, data gathering, analyzing student learning outcomes. The analysis of the practical activity of higher education confirms the growing need for the education of a critically thinking person. In connection with this, we would like to share our practice in teaching experience using the elements of the Critical Thinking technology in KB classes.

Key words: CLIL, language, teachers’ experiences, science lesson, challenges

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INTRODUCTION

Today innovative processes in all spheres, including education, characterize Kazakhstan. Political, socio-economic and cultural changes, including in the field of education, have increased the role of Kazakh language in Kazakhstani society. Modern reality requires specialized training to succeed in the professional sphere and the competitive labor market in Kazakhstan. Intensive development of modern Kazakhstani society has resulted in a high level of competition, so the future specialist must have elevated levels of socio-economic and professional mobility, and communicative competence. More and more, languages are treated as commodities and this new role has been changing into service units “providing skills additional to the core capacities required by other areas of professional activity” (Phipps & Gonzalez 2004: 8).

Especially after Kazakhstan achieved independence and Kazakh language was recognized as the official state language, Kazakh as a foreign language and, as a second language, was taught and studied actively inside and outside of the Republic of Kazakhstan. The Kazakh language has been learned as a first, as a second, and as a foreign language since the end of the last century. Knowledge of this language is a benefit to one’s personal career. The Kazakh language is a beautiful and rich language, and it has become useful for professionals in different fields. The modern education system in the country is characterized by serious changes in the educational paradigm, among which can be named the following: the rejection of the leading role of theoretical knowledge in the content of teaching, the replacement of the explanatory-illustrative way of submitting the educational material with heuristic conversations, creating problem situations. Also important are attempts to change the role of the teacher, so that they cease to be the predominant source of knowledge in the classroom and become, instead, the students’ partners in the creative search for optimal solutions to emerging educational, scientific and global problems.

The Ministry of Education and Science of the Republic of Kazakhstan approved the order 17.06.2011 №261, a compulsory education standard "Professional Kazakh (Russian, English) language", where Kazakh language became a mandatory subject in two credits as a full-fledged and up to date course in the professional field. The course "Professional Kazakh language" has been included in the curriculum of all undergraduate majors in the cycle of general disciplines since 2013 and has been introduced from fifth semester in all non-linguistic institutions. The implementation of this curriculum is a significant measure to provide for a wide range of use of the state language.

METHODOLOGY

This paper observes the development of KSP and its subcategories, such as Kazakh for Business. The development of KSP, as well as Kazakh for business was described in comparison with the history of ESP. This study aims to assess the practice of researchers, teachers, and certain scholars. The theoretical and methodological basis of the study are the works of well-known scientists in this field, such as Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998), Hutchinson and Waters (1987), Robinson (1991), Carter (1983) and others. In this paper, the categories of Kazakh language courses will be defined and the Kazakh for business learners and KB tutors identified. In critical thinking technology, ideas and methods of working in groups help to develop synthesized learning. Because of this method’s fitting
pedagogical technique, we successfully use it to teach native and non-native students professional Kazakh language as F1 and F2.

The initiation of KSP training (business language being a part of it) in Kazakhstan is related to the background history of the development of Language (English) for Specific Purposes (ESP). Tom Hutchinson and Alan Waters (1987) state that, after the Second World War, English language became the accepted international language of technology and commerce to satisfy the demands of an increasingly modernized world. A similar economic situation developed after the Republic of Kazakhstan achieved independence, which increased the need for and importance of Kazakh language in our community.

BACKGROUND KNOWLEDGE ABOUT THE KSP

Professional orienteered Kazakh language (POK) is a branch of the global field of language teaching for specific purposes, an area of applied linguistics that has become a new field over the last two decades or more in all Kazakhstani academic institutions. When teaching Kazakh language, it is necessary to remember that the main purpose of education is to acquire and further develop professional language competence (Orazbayeva, 2009), including the knowledge and skills necessary for adequate and effective communication in various fields of professional and scientific activities (International relations, Medicine, Technical sciences, Anthropology, IT sciences etc.). One of the main indicators of specialists’ competitiveness is advanced knowledge of the state language and the ability to apply it to their field of their specialty. Referring to this, KSP focuses on the analysis and teaching of language to meet the specific needs of all Kazakh language learners, who are studying it as their second language or, even, working to master it as their first language. In the last decade of the last century there has been started a new tendency towards the POK as an academic subject according to the economic situation in the country. Teaching of the POK has begun at universities, and as well at language training centers. Development of all language skills (reading, writing, speaking and listening) acquires professionally oriented and business character. Therefore, the emergence of new models of language education has appeared, with the use of modern methods and technologies at University trainings has been increased the student’s future professional competence, and their comprehensive knowledge (Qadaşeva, 2001). The starting of POK training (business language a part of it) in Kazakhstan brings close to the background history of the development of Language (English) for Specific Purposes (ESP). Tom Hutchinson and Alan Waters (1987) state that English Language became after the Second World War the accepted international language of the technology and commerce to satisfy the demand of a Brave New World, and the similar economic situation appeared after the independence of the Republic Kazakhstan what increased the urgency of the Kazakh language in our community.

CATEGORIES OF KAZAKH LANGUAGE COURSES AND KAZAKH FOR BUSINESS

About the statement “Business English is recognized as an important branch of English for specific purposes” (Ellis & Johnson, 1994; Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998), we would like to consider Kazakh for Business as a part of KSP, and we categorize all branches of Kazakh language courses:

Category I: General Kazakh
Category II: Kazakh for Specific Purposes
   Subcategory I: Academic Kazakh (AK), Academic writing (AW), Kazakh for Oral communication (KOC), etc.
   Subcategory II: Kazakh for occupational Purposes: Kazakh for Business, Kazakh for Medicine, Kazakh for Biology, IT technologies, Political sciences, etc.

The most popular and the first subcategory of KSP was Kazakh for Business (KB), because at the beginning of the move towards teaching KSP, developing the KB course was considered the first priority (the most important aspect of the program), due to its wide range of content. From 2013 and onwards, KSP was classified as a learning subject of a professional language in the standard of all specialties at the undergraduate level, therefore new and different subcategories of POK developed very rapidly, such as Kazakh for IT, Kazakh for Political sciences, Kazakh for Biology etc.

THE LEARNERS OF KB COURSES

Learners of KB can be divided into two general types: pre-experience learners and work experienced learners (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998). Work-experienced learners are current working people, who want to develop certain skills in a very short time. In my work experience, I have had several students from a bank, who wanted to enhance their oral presentation skills in Kazakh language. Therefore, I had to design a special program to satisfy their needs. Examples of pre-experience learners would be the students of the current majors of the Nazarbayev University, their purpose is to gain knowledge and skills for their future specialties and then become professionals in their chosen fields within a 3 or 4-year time period. Usually students of different majors, such as International Business and Economics, Anthropology, Political sciences, World languages and others, choose to study Kazakh for Business. The medium of instruction is English in our institution; therefore, the student’s need is mainly focused on learning goals, such as increasing their oral skills, writing skills, and debating in the Kazakh language. The pre-experienced students who are enrolled in Kazakh for Business are graduates from Kazakh departments and schools with Russian language instruction. Their level of Kazakh language must be at least upper-intermediate to take this course, as KB is an advanced course of study.

THE INSTRUCTORS OF KB COURSES

We agree that the teachers of business based language courses should have knowledge of the subject material (The Encyclopedia of Applied Linguistics, 2013), rather than just a language specialty, since the instructor should handle different ranges of genres and conduct activities with economic terminology, business notions, and concepts. This will result in productive classroom interaction and achieve the teaching outcomes of the course. Therefore, the instructor must have additional knowledge of economics, reading, and be well prepared for the class. In this situation, the teacher will play the role not only of language consultant (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998) but also of an instructor who focuses on practical strategies for engaging students and improving their learning. We would like to highlight the role of any language teachers as Mark Waistellsimply demonstrated how hard the work of the teacher of the CLIL system is. It is necessary to be an expert literally in everything. Further:
- a priest (to give students support and advice);
- the commander (be able to organize the whole process of training);
- an actor (playing 10 different roles, even the role of a cheerleader on Monday morning);
- motivator (constantly telling students that they can do everything they need);
- a prostitute (because you are hired and paid you!);
- an advertising agent (to sell and promote their knowledge and skills);
- troubleshooter. We fully agree with the above-mentioned opinion and continue to consider our challenges in teaching the Kazakh language for business; we want to add that the KB teachers should also be writers, masters for preparing material for the class and translators to eliminate shortages of ready-made materials in the Kazakh language.

**CRITICAL THINKING APPROACH IN KAZAKH FOR BUSINESS CLASSES**

In learning activity, memory ceases to dominate thinking, and the learning process itself is "technologically" transformed into a kind of industrial-technological process with a guaranteed result.

A number of critical methods have been analyzed in more recent studies of LSP. One of the earliest examples of this orientation within LSP is Benesch’s (2001) work on critical needs analysis. She defines the term needs as ‘rights’, and presents a new model of needs analysis called Critical Needs Analysis. According C. M. Tardy (2014): “Needs analyses is as an approach to language teaching, LSP has often been described as needs driven. That is, the needs of students within the target context, using the target language, are a starting point for course design”. The goal of the analysis of critical needs is to transform the situation by asking students to participate in the discovery and implementation of opportunities for change.

The theory of intelligent learning through reading and writing is based on the technology of forming critical thinking, as well as the ideas of D. Dewey, J. Piaget and L.S. Vygotsky on the creative cooperation of the student and the teacher, the need for development of students’ analytical and creative approaches to any materials. Vygotsky writes that "... all meditation is the result of an internal dispute, as if a person were repeating in relation to himself those forms and modes of behavior that he used earlier to others.”

(Vygotsky, 1984: 243).

Technology focused on the "Development of critical thinking" has been developed by the International Reading Association of the University of Northern Iowa and Hobart and William Smith Colleges. The authors of the program are Charles Temple, Ginny Steel, and Kurt Meredith. This technology is a system of strategies and methodologies designed for use in various subject areas, types and forms of work. The theory of critical thinking development has become known in post-soviet countries since 1997 and has become prominent with the support of the Democratic pedagogy of the Consortium and the International Reading Association in the framework of the "Open Society" Institute project entitled "Reading and Writing for Critical Thinking". Since 2002, the project in Kazakhstan has been developing independently. The analysis of the practical activity of higher education confirms the growing need for the education of a critically thinking person. The formation of critical thinking in students at modern universities will allow future specialists to adapt flexibly to the modern job market, and the ability to understand and analyze information in a different language is critical for the achievement of this goal. In connection with this, in the higher professional educational system it is necessary to promote the development of critical thinking while simultaneously teaching a foreign language, in our case while teaching Kazakh language to non-native speakers. Structurally, the technology for developing critical thinking skills consists of three stages: the stage of challenges, the semantic stage and the stage of reflection. The fundamental goal
of this educational technology is the development of students’ cognitive skills, which are necessary not only in classes, but also in everyday life. In critical thinking technology, ideas and methods of working in groups in order to develop synthesized learning. Because of this method’s fitting pedagogical technique, we successfully use it to teach native and nonnative students professional Kazakh language, as K1 and K2. Because of its application, students learn to work independently with information sources, analyze various aspects of phenomena, and make adequate, analytic decisions. At the same time, they form their own attitude toward the facts, while also learning to understand others’ opinions and find rationality in them. Based on these abilities, they are able to solve problems cooperatively. Thus, during the learning process, cognitive and metacognitive skills of students are developed and improved. We have no doubt about the value of reproductive skills, which demonstrate that students have a certain amount of actual knowledge, but we focus on ensuring a productive level of language proficiency. In the teaching process for professionally oriented language classes, the text is one of the most important teaching tools. In linguistic terms, it represents the unity of content and form. As a means of teaching a foreign language, the text can focus on either form, content, or both (Aldambergenova G. (2002). Work on texts in the classroom should not only be limited to the retelling of the text. Therefore, in our training materials, simple paraphrasing tasks based on textual contents are not available. The proposed tasks are usually complicated by additional conditions: changing the tense, rewriting the events described in the text on behalf of different participants, while taking into account their personal characteristics, etc. For example:

Transform the text, which deals with power and leadership in organizations, into a dialogue between employees of different firms.

Answer these questions:
How do you feel about the authoritarian style of leadership in the management system?
In what form of leadership can you easily achieve the goal?
What leadership qualities in a person can you name?

In the course of working with our teaching materials, students develop the following skills at a productive level:
- The ability to use the knowledge learned in the classroom in new situations (transformation of skills);
- The ability to carry out linguistic and semantic analysis of the text (identifying hidden allusions and assumptions, finding errors in the logic of reasoning, a distinction between causes and effects, etc...);
- The ability to synthesize the knowledge obtained (writing an essay, drawing up a plan, an algorithm of actions aimed at solving the task);
- the ability to assess the actions and statements expressed in the text being studied, critically assess their own learning activities and actions in everyday life, as well as the behavior and statements of others.

For example:
1. Read the text. Check if the statement matches with the content. If not, give the correct option. The "find an error" task leads students to the level of analysis, that is, to a higher level of thinking activity;
2. Based on the text, students talk about the difference between agro tourism and eco-tourism in Kazakhstan, the difference between pilgrimage and ethnic tourism (productive thinking operation "comparison");
3. Based on the text "Lack of clean water is a global problem," students make a list of ways to save water in everyday life (making a mental transition from general to, selecting and
regrouping factual information, building on this basis a text with a new logical and semantic structure);
4. Read the text "Franchising in Kazakhstan" and search for such brands and explain the developing history of franchised brands in the Kazakhstan market. They compare their current state with the real situation of the Almaty trade market (comparison, evaluation).
5. Work on the text "Business language is English, pros, and cons". Analyze the language situation and requirement in Kazakhstan. (Formation of skills to identify the main problem, clarify the situation, analyze the reasons and arguments in the information).

Moreover, here we consider it is important to note that students in the process of solving such educational problems themselves create metacognitive skills and use them, thereby developing the ability to self-education, independently obtaining knowledge without the help of a teacher. Using the CTT technologies in KBare multifunctional, it will affect the growth of students' intellectual and personal skills, and contribute to the development of their reflective abilities.

CONCLUSION

In his article “A glance at the future: modernization of public consciousness”, that appeared on 12th April 2017” President singled out several directions for modernizing the consciousness of both the society as a whole and every Kazakhstani citizen. He highlights competitiveness as the important factor in the success of the nation. Therefore, the program "Digital Kazakhstan", the trilingual program: Kazakh as a state, Russian as the langue Franca, and English as the language of the international communication and the program of cultural and confessional consent are part of the preparation of the all Kazakhstani citizens for life in the 21st century. He mentions it as the part of the competitiveness. According to this, we are sure that the knowledge of the Kazakh language in business is one of the crucial parts of one’s competitive abilities in modern Kazakhstani life.

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Perceptions of Integrated Performance Assessments among Beginning Spanish College Students: A Preliminary Study

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Abstract: The latest trends in foreign language curricular design point to the need to provide opportunities for students to engage in meaningful tasks and assessments with the aim of fostering the development of their performance in the three modes of communication: interpretive, presentational and interpersonal. Emerging research on Integrated Performance Assessments (IPAs) at the K-12 and college level has shown that these are viable assessments for the foreign language classroom. The purpose of this study was to investigate beginning Spanish as a foreign language college students’ perceptions of IPAs. Results of the study showed that, overall, students had positive perceptions of the IPAs. Results also revealed several implications for instructional design and implementation, including the benefit of incorporating well-designed assessments that evaluate students’ performance in the three modes of communication: interpretive, interpersonal and presentational.

Keywords: integrated performance assessment; motivation; college students’ perceptions; foreign languages; curricular design.

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INTRODUCTION

Learning a foreign language in today’s day and age has become of paramount importance. Globalization has prompted an increased interest in the development of intercultural competence and linguistic proficiency in foreign/additional languages, in which foreign language education plays a major role. The American Council on the Teaching on Foreign Languages (ACTFL) highlights the benefits of studying a foreign/additional language and learning about other cultures: “[l]earners who add another language and culture to their preparation are not only college- and career-ready, but are also “world-ready”—that is, prepared to add the necessary knowledge, skills, and dispositions to their résumés for entering postsecondary study or a career” (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, n.d.).

This increased emphasis on the development of interculturality and communicative proficiency in other languages has created a challenge for foreign language teaching professionals to develop curriculum and create opportunities for students to be able to increasingly become proficient in a foreign/additional language and ultimately “communicate effectively and interact with cultural understanding” (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, n.d.). Developed at the national level in the United States through a collaborative effort among a variety of American associations of teachers of various languages and other language-related organizations, the World Readiness Standards for Learning Languages (The National Standards Collaborative Board, 2015) guide the foreign language profession by providing a set of five interrelated goal areas that “establish an inextricable link between communication and culture” (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, n.d.).

An integral part of a curriculum design for the L2 classroom that uses the World Readiness Standards for Learning Languages as a framework should include multiple opportunities for students to use the target language in the three modes of communication. Additionally, assessments implemented in the L2 classroom should ideally be performance-based, giving students opportunities to demonstrate what they can do with the language, rather than what information they know about the language. This type of desired assessment aligns with the idea of alternative assessment, which includes “assessment tasks which are authentic, meaningful and engaging; assessments that mirror realistic contexts, […] focus both on the process and products of learning; and moves away from single test-scores towards a descriptive assessment based on a range of abilities and outcomes” (Sambell, McDowell & Brown, 1997, p. 352).

Integrated Performance Assessments (IPAs) are an innovative type of authentic assessment that resembles real-life contexts and provides students with the chance to demonstrate performance in the three modes of communication within one assessment, and therefore become an attractive assessment option for the L2 classroom. Scholars have investigated students’ perceptions of IPAs, but research into this topic is still scarce. Moreover, prior research at the college level has focused on students’ perceptions of IPAs implemented as part of a major curricular overhaul in a college beginning language sequence (Zapata, 2016), but studies are still needed that investigate more in depth the impact of IPA implementation on students’ perceptions. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to contribute to the extant literature on IPAs through a detailed investigation of college students’ perceptions, following
an instructor-initiated, exploratory implementation of this innovative type of assessment in a beginning Spanish language course.

LITERATURE REVIEW

World Readiness Standards for Learning Languages
The World Readiness Standards for Learning Languages (The National Standards Collaborative Board, 2015) highlight five interrelated goal areas that guide curriculum development in foreign languages: Communication, Cultures, Connections, Comparisons, and Communities. Each goal area is composed of two or three Standards. Below is a summary of the goal areas and standards.

The Communication goal emphasizes the importance of developing communicative proficiency in three modes: (a) interpersonal mode, which refers to two-way communication, either through speaking, writing or signing, which includes interaction and negotiation of meaning between two or more people; (b) interpretive mode, which refers to comprehension and analysis of information obtained through audio, video or written sources; and (c) presentational mode, which refers to presentation of information through oral, video-recorded or written media (The National Standards Collaborative Board, 2015). The Cultures goal highlights the need for learners to be able to “interact with cultural competence and understanding” (The National Standards Collaborative Board, 2015, p. 1) by using the newly-acquired language to “investigate, explain, and reflect on the relationship between practices and perspectives of the cultures studied [as well as] between the products and perspectives of the cultures studies” (The National Standards Collaborative Board, 2015, p. 1).

The Comparisons goal encompasses the idea of learners developing the necessary skills to compare and contrast their own language and culture to others. This process allows them to develop a better understanding of their own language and culture. Discovering patterns and parallelisms learners analyze similarities and differences, avoiding judgment (The National Standards Collaborative Board, 2015).

The Connections goal focuses on the importance of creating opportunities for learners to use the target language to enhance their knowledge of different content areas, with topics related to other disciplines integrated into the instructional design of the foreign language course. In addition, this goal emphasizes the notion that, by developing their language proficiency and cultural competence, learners also “access and evaluate information and diverse perspectives” (The National Standards Collaborative Board, 2015, p. 1).

Finally, the Communities goal underlines the notion that opportunities need to be created so that learners can develop their language proficiency and cultural competence by using the language “within and beyond the classroom to interact and collaborate in their community and the globalized world” (The National Standards Collaborative Board, 2015, p.1). Moreover, this goal urges instructors to create opportunities that will allow learners to engage in reflection about the impact of their foreign language learning experience on their aims, whether academic or personal (The National Standards Collaborative Board, 2015).

Integrated Performance Assessments: What they are
The idea of Integrated Performance Assessments (IPAs) emerged from a “research initiative sponsored by the U.S. Department of Education International Research and Studies Program” (Adair-Hauck, Glisan, Koda, Swender, & Sandrock, 2006, p. 359) as an innovative way to connect assessment practices to performance-based instruction within the context of the Standards for Foreign Language Learning in the 21st Century (NSCB, 1999), the precursor to the World Readiness Standards for Learning Languages (NSCB, 2015).

Focused on the integration of the three modes of communication within one assessment, the design of Integrated Performance Assessments “reflects the way in which communication occurs in the real world, as described in the standards framework: it is a multi-task assessment, based on the three modes of communication [interpretive, interpersonal and presentational] and framed within one thematic context” (Glisan, Uribe & Adair-Hauck, 2007, p. 44). IPAs embody what Doolittle (1997) described as “whole and authentic activities, or activities that involve applying learned knowledge and skills in the completion of a real-world task within a meaningful cultural context, as opposed to activities that reduce mental functioning to a decontextualized component skill” (pp. 85, 87; emphasis in original).

Thus, these innovative types of authentic assessments are crucial in providing language educators with viable means to assess “the progress language students are making in building their proficiency through the World-Readiness Standards” (Center for Advanced Research on Language Acquisition, n.d.) in a foreign language within a meaningful thematic context. As Glisan, Uribe and Adair-Hauck (2007) expressed, “as instructors implement standards-based instruction using authentic materials from the real world, assessment becomes more reflective of the types of communication in which students are likely to engage outside the classroom” (pp. 42-43).

IPAs are composed of three tasks: first, students complete an interpretive task, in which they typically read, listen to or view authentic texts and analyze their content; second, students complete an interpersonal task, in which they engage in two-way communication with their peers about a topic related to the one analyzed in the interpretive task; and third, students complete a presentational task, in which they present in writing, orally or through a multimedia presentation, information related to that in the previous tasks (Glisan et al., 2007).

Integrated Performance Assessments: Prior research
Researchers have investigated the implementation of IPAs at various instructional levels (Adair-Hauck & Troyan, 2013; Davin, Troyan, Donato & Hellman, 2011; Glisan, Uribe & Adair-Hauck, 2007; Kissau & Adams, 2016; Martel & Bailey, 2016; Zapata, 2016), including K-12 and college levels. In one study conducted at the K-12 level, Davin et al. (2011) investigated elementary-school students’ performance on an IPA, as well as their perceptions of the IPA. Participants in this study were 30 fourth and fifth grade students who had studied Spanish for four years (with a total of 15 minutes of daily Spanish instruction). The IPA included a contextualized scenario in which students imagined they were travel reporters and would write an article about the Caribbean. For the interpretive task, students watched a video and completed a comprehension task. For the interpersonal task, students completed an information gap task in which each one received a picture of the main character in the video and had to describe the picture to their partner in detail to identify differences in the pictures. For the presentational task, students were asked to write a magazine article on the Caribbean. Results of the study showed that students’ performance
was best on the interpersonal task, while students’ weakest performance was seen in the interpretive task, with twenty-two of the thirty participants not meeting expectations. The researchers also investigated the correlation between students’ performance and their perceptions of the difficulty of each task. Results showed that there was a negative correlation between students’ perceptions and their performance regarding the presentational and interpretive tasks: “as the students’ perceptions of task difficulty increased, their performance decreased” (p. 612). Participants’ perceptions were also gauged regarding suggestions for improvement of the IPA: researchers concluded that, based on their responses, “participants engaged in a reflective process that allowed them to become aware of what they need to know and be able to do to use Spanish in a purposeful and meaningful way” (p. 617).

Adair-Hauck and Troyan (2013) expanded research on IPAs within K-12 settings, focusing on feedback provided within the interpersonal subtask of an IPA. The participant in this case study was one high school student of French as a foreign language enrolled in a twenty-student, multi-level (3, 4, and 5) French course, which met for ninety minutes every other day during one academic year. Following a discourse analysis methodology framed within the IPA feedback loop framework (Adair-Hauck, Glisan, & Troyan, 2013), which ranged from teacher-directed (monologic) to student-led (dialogic), the researchers analyzed data elicited from the learner, who was asked to view and rate his/her own performance on an IPA implemented the prior year, discussing his/her rating within the context of the performance descriptors for each category on the rubric. Results of the study indicated that “the discourse features used by the expert (teacher) encouraged the apprentice to participate, self-reflect, and think throughout the feedback session” (p. 35). Researchers concluded that a co-constructive approach to feedback within the framework of IPA implementation is beneficial to help both teachers and students develop awareness as the expert provides scaffolding to the apprentice through appropriate questions.

A recent study related to IPA implementation has focused on decisions related to the incorporation and assessment of the three modes of communication in K-12 settings (Kissau & Adams, 2016). The mixed methods study was conducted in a private K-12 school and aimed to investigate how often students’ performance in the three modes of communication was assessed in high school beginning classes, as well as why teachers made those instructional decisions. Participants were six Chinese, German, Spanish and French 6-9 grade instructors teaching levels I and II, as well as seven of their students. Results showed that teachers implemented IPAs, but that, on average, assessment of the three modes was not equal. In terms of the interpretive mode, less than 20% of all assessments focused on interpretive listening both in level I and II classes, whereas approximately 25% focused on interpretive reading in level I and close to 40% in level II. Regarding the interpersonal mode, interpersonal writing was not assessed at all, whereas interpersonal speaking assessments represented less than 15% of the total in both level I and II classes. The presentational mode of communication was assessed differently in level I and II classes: presentational writing represented about 30% of assessments in level I, whereas it decreased in level II (23%); in turn, presentational speaking was assessed at a much lower rate, with only 13% in level I and 8% in level II. The researchers concluded that implementation of assessment of the three modes of communication was not balanced (p. 118), and that, there was a discrepancy between teachers’ beliefs and their actual practice. Specifically, teachers had stated that the focus in lower level classes should be the development of interpretive listening and the interpersonal mode, their practice did not reflect this belief. Another discrepancy was found regarding teachers’ beliefs about the presentational mode and their practice; in this sense,
although teachers expressed that presentational writing represented the highest challenge for beginning students, their assessment practices included this mode with high frequency. The researchers concluded that training and professional development are valuable when innovation in curricula is desired but, in the case of this study, teachers’ beliefs did not match their assessment practices.

Researchers have also conducted studies investigating the implementation of IPAs at the college level. Glisan et al. (2007) investigated performance on an IPA task among students in the US Air Force Academy. Twenty-nine students enrolled in an advanced Latin American culture and civilization course participated in the study, which involved the implementation of an IPA as a regular class component. After completing the IPA task, students’ performance was assessed on various domains, including “comprehensibility, comprehension, language control, vocabulary use, communication strategies, and cultural awareness” (p. 49). Results of the study showed that, overall, students demonstrated their best performance in the oral presentational task and their worst performance in the interpretive video task, in which the number of students exceeding expectations was the lowest of the three tasks, and with even some students not meeting expectations. Regarding students’ weak performance on the interpersonal task, researchers hypothesized that this might have been linked to lack of frequent opportunities to participate in face-to-face interactions in normal classroom practice. Further analyses were performed to examine the correlation of students’ previous experiences studying Spanish at the middle and high school level with their performance on the IPA. Results showed a positive correlation between number of years of language study at the middle school level and students’ scores on the interpersonal sub-task, whereas results showed a negative correlation between years of language study at the high school level and performance on the three sub-tasks: in other words, the more years of study in 9-12, the worse students’ performance. The researchers hypothesized that this might be linked to the traditional teacher-centered, textbook-driven, grammar-based approach these students experienced when taking Spanish in high school.

In a recent study conducted within a higher education setting, Zapata (2016) investigated students’ perceptions of IPAs. The study included data collected from 1236 college students enrolled in level 1, level 2 and level 3 Spanish classes. The classes were taught by different instructors who had participated in two workshops designed to train them in the use and implementation of IPAs. After completing the IPA tasks, students were asked to rate their experience by answering three five-point Likert scale survey questions. The researcher also conducted between-subject tests. Results showed that, when asked whether they liked the format of the IPA, level 1 and 2 students had overall positive responses, and the means for these two levels did not differ significantly. The mean response obtained from level 3 students, however, was significantly lower than the other two means, indicating that these students had a more negative perception of the IPA format. The second question was aimed at finding out whether students thought the IPA instrument design reflected classwork, while the last question asked whether students thought the extra activities they completed aligned with the IPA, with overall positive responses at the three instructional levels for both questions. Although responses to open-ended questions were mostly positive, Level 1 students had more overall positive perceptions, while among Levels 2 and 3 students, responses varied depending on who the course instructor was: “Some students’ comments suggested that their instructors had not followed the curricular change mandate, noting that course content and activities differed considerably from those required during IPAs, and, not surprisingly, the students in these classes perceived a lack of connection between classroom instruction and assessment” (Zapata, 2016, P. 99). In addition, the researcher
highlighted the issue of grading and the impact of the IPA tasks on students’ grades, as well as the need to clarify expectations and have a more uniform implementation of the curricular innovation across levels and course instructors. The researcher concluded that IPAs are a feasible pedagogical approach to assessment in foreign language instruction, as this type of task “links learning, assessment, and the use of the target language in real-world tasks” (p. 102).

Students’ perceptions
Researchers have studied motivation from various perspectives, including theories focused on self-efficacy (Bandura, 1994, 1997; Zimmerman, 2000), self-determination (Deci & Ryan, 1985), and expectancy value (Eccles, Adler, Futterman, Goff, Kaczala, Meece & Midgley, 1983; Eccles & Wigfield, 1995; Eccles & Wigfield, 2002; Wigfield, 1994; Wigfield & Eccles, 2000, Wigfield & Cambria, 2010) among others. Broadly, motivation has been defined as “the direction and magnitude of human behavior, or, more specifically (i) the choice of a particular action, (ii) the persistence with it, and (iii) the effort expended on it” (Dornyei & Skehan, 2003, p. 614). In a classroom setting, curricular design can impact students’ motivation and thus influence whether they will choose to engage in the task, whether they will complete the task, and how much effort they will devote to completing the task.

Students’ perceptions of assessment also play an important role in their learning process, as their “perceived assessment requirements seem to have a strong relation with the approach to learning a student adopts when tackling an academic task” (Marton & Saljo, 1997, as cited in Struyven, Dochy & Janssens, 2002, p. 3) and are also connected to students’ self-efficacy, as “self-efficacious students participate more readily, work harder, persist longer, and have fewer adverse emotional reactions when they encounter difficulties than do those who doubt their capabilities” (Zimmerman, 2000, p. 86).

In addition, other researchers have indicated that assessment preferences seem to be related to students’ academic performance. Struyven, Dochy & Janssens (2002) posited that students with good learning skills, who have high confidence in their academic ability, tend to prefer the constructed response type of assessment over the multiple choice one [and] students with poor learning skills, who tend to have low confidence in their academic ability, prefer the choice over the constructed-response type of assessment” (p. 4).

Therefore, it becomes essential to investigate students’ perceptions of any type of assessment, especially one that is innovative and is not the typical type of assessment students are used to completing, such as Integrated Performance Assessments. Hence, there is a need to conduct more research on the implementation of IPAs as alternative assessments to be implemented in the foreign language classroom. This study aimed to contribute to the extant literature on IPA research by investigating college students’ perceptions of this innovative form of assessment. Specifically, the purpose of the present quasi-experimental mixed methods study was to investigate the following:

• What are the perceptions of beginning college students enrolled in a Spanish as a foreign language course of Integrated Performance Assessments?
Perceptions of Integrated Performance Assessments among Beginning Spanish College Students: A Preliminary Study

METHODOLOGY

Participants and context
Twenty undergraduate students participated in this study. Participants were enrolled in an intact first-semester Spanish as a foreign language course in a major university in the South Eastern United States. This course was the first one in a four-course beginning language sequence, which is frequently required of students pursuing a Bachelor of Arts in various disciplines such as Communication and Psychology, among others. Typically, students enrolled at this level have had some exposure to a foreign through coursework prior to entering college, but not necessarily Spanish. Students at this level begin to develop their ability to use the target language to communicate in common informal settings using memorized vocabulary, phrases and expressions, among others, producing mostly isolated words and phrases, and, in some cases, sentences and strings of sentences. As part of the class students were expected to complete two traditional paper-based tests, reading assignments, compositions, as well as oral assessments. Students took the two tests and, instead of completing separate reading, speaking and writing assignments, they completed an IPA.

Procedure: Integrated Performance Assessments
Once in the middle of the semester participants completed an IPA, designed by the principal researcher, aligned in theme and content with the textbook chapters students had just completed. The IPA was designed to be completed in three class sessions, with feedback in between tasks, following the guidelines for the creation of IPAs proposed Adair-Hauck et al. (2006) and therefore included tasks addressing the three modes of communication: interpretive, interpersonal and presentational. The IPA included an overview, or learning scenario, as well as a description of the three tasks, and a conclusion.

For the interpretive task of the IPA students first completed a pre-reading subtask and then read an authentic text about college students who decide to study away from home. As part of the pre-reading subtask, students answered a series of questions, which included reading the title and predicting what the text would be about, as well as identifying word meanings from context. The reading subtask required students to answer comprehension questions about an article providing information about a foreign student association and its services for students studying away from home. The questions prompted students to identify the main idea of the article, read for specific information, and make inferences based on the information provided. The interpretive task also included a video clip depicting a group of students studying abroad in Spain discussing their experience. For the pre-viewing subtask, students matched key vocabulary words from the video with their meanings. For the viewing task, students filled in blanks on a video script with specific information from the clip, and then completed the first part of a think-pair-share, discussing in writing with which student they identified the most and why, what they missed the most from home, as well as the benefits and challenges of studying away from home. For the interpersonal task, students paired up and discussed the challenges and fears they faced when they moved from home to study in college, benefits related to that move, what they missed the most being away from home, benefits and challenges of studying abroad, as well as what they liked, liked the most and did not like about the idea of studying abroad. Their interaction was recorded with a secure software through our course management system. Finally, for the presentational task, students formed groups of four, and they discussed their thoughts, forming consensus regarding the top three benefits of studying away from home, the top three challenges of
studying away from home, and the three top “missed things” from home. As part of this task, students were asked to design a brochure about the top three benefits of studying away from home, the top three challenges of studying away from home, and the three top “missed things” from home, to be shared with international students visiting campus. Students completed the three IPA tasks over three class sessions, with instructor feedback on each completed task between sessions.

Soon after, students filled out a survey about their perceptions of the IPA.

Survey Instrument
The survey was adapted from the survey originally in AUTHOR (2009) and consisted of 11 seven-point Likert-scale questions focused on gauging students’ perceptions of the IPA task design. Possible responses ranged from strongly disagree (=1), to strongly agree (=7), with four indicating a neutral response. In addition, five open-ended questions that provided opportunities for students to give details about what they liked the most and least about completing the IPA task, as well as whether they would want to take a class that included IPAs in the course design and whether they would recommend taking such a class to others. A Cronbach Alpha based on standardized items was conducted to determine the reliability of the survey instrument. The analysis yielded a coefficient of .945, showing high internal consistency.

Data Analysis
The quantitative data were analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 24.0 program. Descriptive statistics were calculated for all the items in the survey. A one-sample t test was conducted for each Likert-scale item. A value of 4 was selected as the comparative mean for the one-sample t test because this value would represent a neutral perception. In other words, if students considered that the IPA had no effect on their perception, they would choose 4 as their response (“Neither agree nor disagree”).

RESULTS

What are students’ perceptions of the IPA tasks design?
In order to investigate students’ perceptions about the IPA tasks design, descriptive statistics were computed on the Likert-scale data obtained through the survey (1=strongly disagree; 4=neither agree nor disagree; 7=strongly agree). Table 1 depicts mean and median values for survey items related to IPA tasks design, with results showing a somewhat positive attitude towards the IPA tasks design. Specifically, the values for the mean and median responses for all questions were higher than the mid-point value of 4 (= neither agree nor disagree), which would indicate a neutral response.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1</th>
<th>Students perceptions of IPAs: Mean and median values for task design questions</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I had the Spanish skills needed to complete the IPA tasks.</td>
<td>5.30*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall, the layout of the IPA tasks made them easy to use.</td>
<td>5.30*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The learning objectives of the IPA tasks were easy to understand.</td>
<td>5.30*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The amount of work involved in the IPA tasks was reasonable.</td>
<td>5.70*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The time allowed for each part of the IPA tasks was reasonable. 5.60* 6 1.31
The IPA tasks offered more varied content than printed materials alone (such as textbooks, handouts, etc.) 4.90* 5 1.31
I would recommend my experience completing the IPA tasks to other students. 5.05* 5 1.73
I enjoyed completing the IPA tasks. 4.65 5 1.84
I enjoyed working with my classmates during the IPA tasks. 5.95* 6.5 1.53
If I were to take another Spanish class, I would like it to include IPA tasks. 4.90* 5 1.81
The class was more interesting because of the IPA tasks. 4.50 5 1.93

*p < 0.05

In addition, one-sample t tests were computed for each of the questions in the survey to investigate if there was a statistically significant difference between participants’ responses and a neutral value of 4. Significant differences (p<0.05) were observed for most questions (marked with a star in Table 1), indicating that participants’ responses to those questions were significantly positive. Specifically, participants had significantly positive responses on all the questions except on the question that asked about the enjoyment of completing the IPA, and whether the class was more interesting because of the IPA.

A further analysis was conducted to divide participants’ responses into percentiles, which allowed the researchers to identify the top 75th percentile, the midpoint at the 50th percentile, and the bottom 25th percentile (see Table 2).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 2</th>
<th>Students’ perceptions of IPAs: Percentiles for IPA task design questions</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I had the Spanish skills needed to complete the IPA tasks.</td>
<td>4.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall, the layout of the IPA tasks made them easy to use.</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The learning objectives of the IPA tasks were easy to understand.</td>
<td>4.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The amount of work involved in the IPA tasks was reasonable.</td>
<td>5.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The time allowed for each part of the IPA tasks was reasonable.</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The IPA tasks offered more varied content than printed materials alone (such as textbooks, handouts, etc.)</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would recommend my experience completing the IPA tasks to other students.</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I enjoyed completing the IPA tasks.</td>
<td>3.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I enjoyed working with my classmates during the IPA tasks.</td>
<td>5.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If I were to take another Spanish class, I would like it to include IPA tasks.</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The class was more interesting because of the IPA tasks.</td>
<td>3.25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Results showed that responses within the 25th percentile were mostly neutral (=4), with responses to two questions at the value of 3.25 and some even at the value of 5.25, whereas responses within the 50th and 75th percentiles were higher than four, indicating a positive perception.
STUDENTS’ VOICES

In the last part of the survey students answered open-ended questions that gave them the opportunity to voice their opinions and express their perceptions about the experience of completing the IPA task.

Language use in real-life contexts
One theme that emerged from the analysis of the qualitative data was that IPAs provide opportunities to see the language used in a real-life context. As one student stated, “What I liked most about the assessment was the experience I got from it. It was good practice toward learning to have a conversation in Spanish with a person”. Another student stated: “I liked being able to actually practice speaking Spanish and decode the texts on my own. Most Spanish classes teach you Spanish but you leave still not being able to speak it”, and “Also it gives a better feel for how the language is truly written/spoken”.

IPAs as viable means of assessment

Another theme, mentioned by several students, was that IPAs were viewed as viable forms of assessment. As one student mentioned, “it [IPA] really does assess where every student is at in the class and evaluates each student’s ability.” Another student stated: “I also liked that it wasn’t just another normal written test. I thought it was enjoyable and I learned along the way. I was able to use skills I don’t use on a normal test.” Another student expressed: “It was more of an assessment rather than an exam. It evaluated our comprehension, writing, and speaking skills in comparison to just having or not having the right answer on an exam”, indicating that students see performance-based assessments such as IPAs as a more valid type of assessment of their proficiency development than exams that test students on discreet activities with right/wrong answers. Another student echoed this thought: “I would [recommend a class that included IPAs] because it puts into practice everything you have learned in class.”

One student referred to the IPA as less-stressful type of assessment and one that can accurately assess students’ communicative abilities rather than knowledge of specific discreet content: “What I liked the most was I felt much less pressure to make sure my Spanish was perfect. The activity was more about just using what you know to the best of your ability.”

Collaboration
Another theme that emerged from the analysis was the collaborative nature of the IPA task. Several students mentioned that the IPA gave them the opportunity to work in groups, which they enjoyed. When asked what s/he liked most about the IPA, one student highlighted more in depth the type of collaboration that took place within groups: “I liked the group portion of the Integrated Performance Assessment because what one person didn’t the other may have known. We were able [to] bounce off of each other”. Another student stated: “I really enjoyed being able to work with a partner on part of the assessment.”

Metacognition
A crucial aspect of the learning process is reflection on one’s own learning. Students commented on the fact that the IPA fostered metacognition and helped them reflect on their own learning progress in the course. One student expressed: “The IPA was fun and enjoyable [...] This task allowed for a new way to make sure I understand the language”; another
student mentioned: “The IPA gives me an idea of how I’ve grown over the course of this class.”

Challenge
Several students referred to the challenge presented by the IPA, both when discussing what they liked the most and the least about IPAs. For instance, when asked what s/he liked the most about the IPAs, one student mentioned: “I liked trying to figure things out for the integrated performance.” Another student indicated: “I liked reading the article and figuring out what it meant on my own. This part was challenging at first because I did not know many of the words however the more times I read the article the more I started to understand.” When asked whether s/he would recommend taking a Spanish that included IPAs to other students, this student said: “I would take the class, because it is challenging and tests what I know in a non traditional [sic] way.”

When asked what they liked the least about the IPA, some students mentioned that it posed challenges related to the content and the types of tasks students were asked to perform. One student mentioned: “What I liked the least about the assessment was that I couldn’t answer the questions in the assessment solely off of what I learned in class.” Another student indicated: “That it challenged me to think more. It frustrating [sic] having to come up with answers using words that I did not know in Spanish.” Another student referred to the process s/he went through as s/he completed the assessment, most likely in terms of the interpersonal speaking portion: “I was scared I was going to be put on the spot in front of the class, which I wasn’t. It was much easier than I expected.”

DISCUSSION
In addition, as Kissau and Adams (2016) expressed, “the decision to adopt an IPA protocol represents a deep philosophical and pedagogical change” (p. 121) and, therefore, it becomes relevant to explore the viability of this type of curricular innovation from the perspective of one group of major stakeholders, students themselves, before embarking in major curricular overhauls.

Prior studies have indicated that IPAs are a viable assessment tool in foreign language instruction (Adair-Hauck & Troyan, 2013; Davin, Troyan, Donato & Hellman, 2011; Glisan, Uribe & Adair-Hauck, 2007; Zapata, 2016). Researchers have investigated the effectiveness of IPAs by analyzing students’ performance scores on the three IPA tasks (Davin, Troyan, Donato & Hellman, 2011; Glisan, Uribe & Adair-Hauck, 2007) and the effect of constructive feedback on an IPA task (Adair-Hauck & Troyan, 2013). Zapata (2016) also posited that “when investigating the implementation of IPA it is essential to consider learners’ views, as they can affect the success of the approach as a learning tool” (p. 94). Thus, in her recent study on IPAs, she investigated students’ perceptions of completing an IPA task as part of a curricular innovation that integrated IPAs as the sole assessment approach. Although the ideal approach would be for programs to engage in a full curricular overhaul that includes IPAs as the sole assessment approach, this might not be feasible for some programs, which may have more restrictive curricula, and the profession would benefit from studies that investigate students’ response to the incorporation of IPAs as alternative forms of assessment in settings that offer less flexibility, such as the ones described above. This study aimed to address this gap by investigating students’ perceptions of IPAs implemented in a course that incorporated a traditional approach to assessment, which included quizzes and exams focused on grammar and
vocabulary, and in which IPAs replaced reading, speaking and writing assessments typically implemented as stand-alone assessments in this course. Considering students’ perceptions of a potential instructional innovation is crucial, as low perceptions could negatively affect students’ performance. The present study addressed this issue by investigating students’ perceptions of IPAs following implementation in a course in which traditional quizzes and tests were the main form of assessment. The quantitative findings of the study demonstrate that, overall, participants had high perceptions of the IPA as a viable form of assessment.

In turn, the qualitative data suggested that students perceived that the IPA task provided enhanced opportunities to complete assessments that resemble real life situations, which aligns with the literature on alternative assessments, among whose characteristics is the fact that they should “mirror realistic contexts” (Sambell, McDowell & Brown, 1997, p. 352), also echoing Glisan, Uribe & Adair-Hauck’s (2007) statement that IPAs are a type of assessment that “reflects the way in which communication occurs in the real world” (p. 44). In addition, the qualitative suggested that students embraced the challenge presented by the IPAs implemented in this course, and saw value in completing them.

In terms of enjoyment of and interest in IPA assessments, previous research (Zapata, 2016) found that students enjoyed completing IPA tasks and that they noticed the connection (or lack thereof) of the IPA task and class work. The results of the present study partially echo these findings as they indicate that, overall, students saw the value of IPAs as viable forms of assessments and their connection to classwork, but they had an overall neutral response in terms of their enjoyment of and interest in the IPA, perhaps because of the fact that it was an assessment.

CONCLUSION AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

The findings of this preliminary study on the impact of Integrated Performance Assessments on students’ perceptions have several implications. First, the results show that participants had high perceptions of the IPA task, which points to the conclusion that IPAs can be a viable curricular innovation that allows teachers and instructors to incorporate authentic materials and real-life contexts into their assessment practices, providing opportunities for students to engage in the three modes of communication within one assessment.

As indicated before, ideally IPAs are incorporated into foreign language instruction as part of a major curricular overhaul, as was the case described in Zapata’s (2016) study. However, the results of this study have shown that students enrolled in a course that includes traditional forms of assessment (such as exams and quizzes) had overall positive perceptions of IPAs, which might encourage foreign language programs that follow a more traditional approach to assessment to incorporate IPAs as part of their assessment program. This is especially encouraging for teachers and instructors who are willing to incorporate innovation into their curricular design at a slower pace and not make drastic changes to their assessment practices all at once.

Overall, this study shows that IPAs are contextualized assessment instruments that promote the use of the target language within meaningful contexts and challenge students to use the language in situations that resemble real life, which was perceived positively by participants in this study. Authentic materials make all tasks, even assessments, more interesting and
realistic because they are to outcomes and goals focused on what students should know and be able to do in the target language. Although changes encounter resistance, we found promising connections between the IPAs and students’ motivation, and thus recommend this type of assessment approach at all levels of foreign language instruction.

Future studies should focus on investigating more broadly the impact of IPAs on foreign language students’ motivation. More studies are needed that investigate the impact of IPAs on college students’ performance, to contribute to the emerging body of work investigating impact of IPAs on students’ performance (Davin et al., 2011; Glisan et al., 2007), as well as studies that focus on investigating more comprehensive curricular innovations with IPA components and their impact on students’ perceptions and performance.

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Abstract: This paper addresses the issue of developing foreign language teachers’ professional competences while teaching specific subjects. In terms of theory, that has been analyzed in this paper relates to the teaching method - Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) which was introduced by David Marsh in the mid of 90s. This article states the importance of gaining a set of professional competences of foreign language teachers; define the notion “CLIL”; suggests components and content of integrated teaching.

Key words: professional competence, CLIL, foreign language teacher, integrated learning.

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Developing Foreign Language Teachers’ Professional Competences Through Content and Language Integrated Learning

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INTRODUCTION

In modern society where globalization is a dominating tendency, the role of education has been changed completely. The rapid development of modern technology as well as demands of community has identified new strategies and methods of learning and teaching processes. In the light of this fact, as one of the core components of the education system the role of teachers has been changed as well. In comparison with traditional way of teaching, in modern teaching process teacher is a facilitator and mentor rather than being conveyer of knowledge. The vital step to shift above mentioned education strategy to upgrade professional competence of teachers. This article deals with foreign language teachers’ professional competences especially intercultural -communicative competence.

WHAT IS CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING?

CLIL is simply the teaching of subjects to students in a language that is not their own. So we have two elements to look at here: The subject: This can be anything from academic subjects like physics and history, to even life skills taught in a classroom context. The medium of instruction: This is the language used inside the classroom to explain the subject. So, for example, in a class of Kazakh students, a CLIL class could involve: Mathematics in English; Automotive engineering in German; Culinary arts in French; History in Chinese. Just as “integrated” suggests, a CLIL class hits two birds with one stone: the subject matter and the target language. But we should make a clarification about the CLIL that it is not language class. It’s a subject class taught in a certain tongue. While students are learning about the subject matter, they’re also learning a new language alongside it. Because a foreign language is used, students might have a disorienting experience initially, which is to be expected. For all intents and purposes, it’s really just a subset of the learning experience. There will be times when students may hug a foreign language dictionary like their life depended on it, or they might just be going off of gestures and visual aids during the initial lectures. Because over time, in the process of researching and learning about the subject, working the assignments, talking with classmates and generally going about the usual coursework, new linguistic competencies rise to the surface...[1]

The role of a teacher in a CLIL classroom is extremely important. The CLIL teacher should have the qualities that Whitty (1996: 89–90) enumerates, namely: “professional values, professional development, communication, subject knowledge, understanding of learners and their learning”. Additionally, the CLIL teacher should have the ability to teach one or more subjects in the curriculum in a language other than the usual language of instruction and moreover, teach that language itself (Eurydice 2006)...[2] Teachers involved in CLIL should also recognize the need to change established habits which might be used in the L1 when teaching the same content in L2. In the following article, I am going to discuss the role of a teacher in a CLIL classroom. I strongly believe that apart from the CLIL learner, the CLIL teacher is a central ‘element’ in determining success in learning subjects through another language. Firstly, I will enumerate the main features of a CLIL teacher. Secondly, I will present the methods and instruments of data collection and discuss the results of the study. All the schools which took part in the study are situated in the southern part of Poland (Silesia and Little Poland)...[3] The total number
of teachers who took part in the study was 31. Finally, I will draw some conclusions and provide suggestions concerning the improvement of bilingual education in Poland.[4]

**LANGUAGE IS LEARNED NATURALLY**

CLIL not only provides the context for learning, but it does so naturally and in a way that mimics how we learn our first language as kids. It’s important to be reminded that when kindergarten students arrive for the very first day of school, they’re already fluent in their first language. They can communicate with each other, and can tell the teacher what is wrong or what it is they want. This competence was acquired sans any grammar lesson. In CLIL, there are hardly any grammar lessons. It doesn’t concern itself with surface forms like sentence structure or verb conjugation. Proper observance of rules come far second to the comprehension of language. That’s just how we learned as children. That’s why there are plenty of native speakers who have a hard time explaining the rules of grammar of their native tongue, because they didn’t learn it that way. They acquired their language in the normal course of life, interacting with mom and dad, listening as adults talk to each other, watching cartoons. It was not formalized training; it was a very practical socialization. A CLIL class offers that same scenario to students—to see language in action, being used to communicate in a concentrated and relevant context. In addition, CLIL understands that in learning any language, errors, guesses and negotiation of meaning are all part of the journey. Although not explicitly stated, mistakes are part of the curriculum. It’s this active involvement with the language and the engagement of critical thinking skills that make CLIL so effective. It’s not some passive, pie-in-the-sky thing. Language is not some future occurrence that students gets ready for in case they encounter it. Language is alive and in their face, and they’ll have to do something about it, wrestle with it and use it.[5]

**LANGUAGE IS INNATELY TIED TO MOTIVATION**

What is great about a CLIL class is that it efficiently uses students’ innate motivation for the subject matter (like history, chemistry or math) and indirectly channels it to a target language. Because subject matter and medium of instruction are inseparable and intertwined, the target language ultimately benefits from the natural interest a student has for the topic. For example, a student who is incredibly interested in the Spanish painter Pablo Picasso might take an entire course about him, in Spanish. Although learning about Picasso is his ultimate driving force, learning the Spanish language becomes a desirable collateral damage to this passion. In a way, CLIL starts with the student’s passion and uses that to fuel learning. Again, students won’t be asking, “Why am I studying this? Where will I use this?” They will have already answered those questions for themselves. As language teachers, when we’re looking for illustrations to help explain a point, we try to look for examples or illustrations that students will find interesting, something that will resonate with them or perk up their attention and pique their curiosity. Well, CLIL starts off with a really big hook—the very topic that interests the student, thus warding off many of the motivational issues in learning the language. Nobody’s saying that the journey will be easy, especially when the first language is rarely, if at all, referenced. What CLIL hopes is that by integrating language and content, students will go over the natural hurdles of learning with more motivation and greater interest.[3]
A CLIL TEACHER

Teachers involved in CLIL recognise the need to change established habits which might be used in the L1 when teaching the same content in L2. What is evident is that a professional teacher will recognise that the CLIL context means that it is not only the teacher’s linguistic competence which is of importance, but also that of the learners. This leads directly to the notion of methodological shift. The main characteristic of this shift lies in the movement from teacher-centred to learner-centred methods. It is also very important for those teachers who know that their linguistic skills are limited to adapt their content and methods accordingly. Marsh et al. (2001: 78) claim that “this is where code-switching and preparation become crucial”. On the other hand, Hall (2001: 120) states that “it is very important to remember that being able to use a L2 does not mean being able to teach in that L2 in a given situation”. If a CLIL teacher is to teach extensively in the L2 it is essential that she/he has sufficient command of the language. Marsh et al. (2001: 78–80) outline the ‘idealised competencies’ required of a CLIL teacher:

a) LANGUAGE/COMMUNICATION
   – sufficient target language knowledge and pragmatic skills for CLIL,
   – sufficient knowledge of the language used.

b) THEORY
   – comprehension of the differences and similarities between the concepts of language learning and language acquisition.

c) METHODOLOGY
   – ability to identify linguistic difficulties,
   – ability to use communication/interaction methods that facilitate the understanding of meaning,
   – ability to use strategies (e.g. repetition, echoing etc. …) for correction and for modelling good language usage,
   – ability to use dual-focused activities which simultaneously cater for language and subject aspects.

d) THE LEARNING ENVIRONMENT
   – ability to work with learners of diverse linguistic/cultural backgrounds.

e) MATERIALS DEVELOPMENT
   – ability to adapt and exploit materials,
   – ability to select complementary materials on a given topic.

f) ASSESSMENT
   – ability to develop and implement evaluation and assessment tools.

CONCLUSION

Recent discussions have maintained that CLIL offers opportunities to improve the process of language learning and language teaching. “CLIL theoreticians and teachers claim that the learning environment created by CLIL increases the learner’s general learning capacities, his/her motivation and interest” (Wolff 2005: 9). There is much discussion about the global spread of English as a medium of education. There have been major achievements over the last twenty years in how to teach English as a second/foreign language.
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Literary Translation as Breaking Through Linguacultural Codes

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Abstract: Mismatching cultural codes in a case of a literary translation from one language into another as a cross-cultural communication act, fails to impart appropriate adequacy to the target text. In this regard, the obtainable product is just an approximated variant of the source text. The author of the original and the translator being the exponents of dissimilar cultures with a set of embedded codes, behavioral, attitudinal, social, and, most of all, linguistic, translation is ever defaulted. Linguacultural foundations and associative power of the original meaning as it is seamlessly ingrained into the texture make a translation a formidable effort of breaking through the hierarchy of codes to attain a more or less tenable and sustainable text in the translating language. Poetic translation is most challenging affair. Through analysis of some translated poems which are renderings from English into Russian and from Russian into English, some understanding how similar inadequacy takes place is reached.

Key words: Cultural codes, inadequate translation, source text, target text, poetic translation

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Translation now means not only inter-lingual crossing but, in a broader view, translation of cultures. We certainly aware of the fact that language and culture are implicationally two parts of the one whole, as the both are inherent and interrelated to such extent what it is physically impossible to separate them. Literary translation is just a centerpiece of a subtle interaction of the twain.

The central goal in view of the translator of a literary (poetic text) is conveying the literary and aesthetic values of the source text when re-creating an estimable literary work in the target language (Культурологические и социологические аспекты перевода STUDENTENGLISH.RU) However, the goal sometimes proves unattainable.

The paper puts forward the following assumptions:
1. Linguacultural codes have to be overcome
2. Author and translator are exponents of different cultures
3. Translator has to “travel over to another cultural shore”
4. Differences in SL and TL are underpinned by different cultural backgrounds
5. Translator has to adroitly manage losses in literary (especially poetic) translation

Linguacultural code is formulated as a system of symbols brought together by general thematic settings, endowed with a single metaphorical foundation, exercising signifying function and underpinned by language designators. (Т.Н. Ефименко Взаимодействие лингвокультурных кодов в процессе межкультурной коммуникации https://www.isuct.ru/e-publ/gum/en/node/467)

I.I. Kireyeva in her published summary of the thesis on “Structural-semantic and pragmatic characteristics of the English linguacultural code “Flora”” assumes that (linguacultural code) is “so-called symbiosis of verbal and cultural codes, the result of an expansion of culture into natural language” (Киреева И.И. Структурно-семантические и прагматические характеристики английского лингвокультурного кода «Флора»: автореф. на соиск. уч. степень)

So, the translator has “to break himself/herself” on his/her own linguacultural belonging, to adapt, to adjust, and attune to the linguacultural affiliation of the source text.
What is like to translate? It means to traverse over the dividing encoded expanse to a foreign cultural domain, resting primarily on its linguistic expression. Indeed, we being born into our native culture with its implicational network, symbolism, purports and intents, idiosyncrasies, etc., while attempting a translation, have to switch on another track finding tenable analogies and plausible counterparts to create a flavour of the target product/text as it were of its original make.

Imagine two cultures, even belonging, for instance, to the same civilizational pattern like that of Europe: there must be intrinsic modes of behavior, specific thinking modes though mutually customized overtime, phraseology drawing in particular on popular wisdom, language expression which in its peculiar way has created a canvas of the world, etc. And what about dramatically different cultures, primitive and developed, for example?

According to Yuri Lotman, “certain supplementary restrictions imposed on the text compel us to perceive it as poetry. As soon as one assigns a given text to the category of poetry, the
number of meaningful elements in it acquires the capacity to grow and the system of their combinations also becomes more complex. (http://www.azquotes.com/quote/1224333)

It follows, that poetry as it acquires meaning through a specific organization of texture and ideas, is not merely a finite sum of signs and ideas, but an exponentially incremental organization.

Literary/poetic translation is likely to be fraught with a) challenges of deficiency as defaulted target text cannot take pride in its fullness and b) partial de-aesthetizing when the aesthetic value of the translation may prove falling short of the original counterpart. The latter can rightly describe translation of poetry.

It is no longer a discovery that a poem can be commonly built on a (sustained) metaphor. Imagery being another linguacultural barrier for the receiving culture and has to be somehow rendered in the target language.

Figurative thinking of any ethnos is reflected in artistic images, artistic specifics of the form, that is tracks which in translation should be replaced by such images so that not to cause contradictions in the perception of a reader – speaker of another language. It means a translator has to maintain a ‘balance’ between cultures. (Nyyazbekova Kulyanda, Beisenbekova Gulnaz LINGUISTIC AND CULTUROLOGICAL ISSUES OF TRANSLATION/http://gisap.eu/ru/node/999)

Presumably, poetic expression is too weird to grasp even by native speakers, not to say of foreigners. Imagery mostly can be translated, yet there exist some “blind spots”. Linguacultural reference frames can be incompatible with different cultures. Poetry expresses personal subjectivity, which is often “thrown over” in the translation.

Now, when I have discussed the issue suggesting a set of ideas and assumptions, let me refer to practical examples. Given below are my own translations of the extracts from the two poems.

Firstly, Russian made English. Hence, what comes to mind is Vladimir Nabokov’s valuable approach he explicated in his commentary on his translation of Pushkin’s “Eugene Onegin”, particularly, his “ideal of literalism” to which he “sacrifices everything (elegance, euphony, clarity, good taste, modern usage and even grammar) that the dainty mimic prizes higher than truth.” (http://thelectern.blogspot.com/2010/03/eugene-onegin-5-translations-and.html). My task being much easier, however, what I have sacrificed/added is obvious.

Translation effort Ru-En

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ЕвгенийЕвтушенко</th>
<th>Yevgeny Yevtushenko</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>НадРоссией слышатся шаги</td>
<td>The Footfalls Are Echoing For Russia</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Над Россией слышатся шаги. | The footfalls are echoing for Russia. |
| Туфелькистучат ↓ и сапоги, | Pumps, high boots, kids’ sandals, |
| Детские сандалии, | Trainers and the like – |
| кеды так и далее – у высотных зданий и тайги. | By the high-rise buildings and taiga. |
| А куда наш следующий шаг? | Where to shall we be heading next? |
| Страшно, если мы шагнём не так. | It is scary, if we wrong step take. |
| Пусть нам всем шагается | Let us stride on to appropriate |
|                          | To the tune of our beating + hearts! |
In the original and the translation extracts, I highlighted by horizontal line some direct equivalents physically found in the both texts, by italics followed by the downward arrow ↓ – the omissions. I had to use specialization when rendering ‘steps’=шаги footfalls and followed these by echoing (which is, I believe, is a more appropriate association) instead of ‘are heard’. Pumps for туфельки seems to be only an approximate equivalent, perhaps there exist some meaningful gap between such. Where to shall we be heading next? for Акуданасследующийшаг? is an attempt at complex reorganization/modulation for the sake of English “phrasiness”. The pair шагается = stride on is also equivocal, as the English counterpart more relates to широкомушагу. The dropped стучат↓ can be inferred from слышатся by proxy, and the translation, as the requirement of cadence and rhythm suggests, “shines” this lacuna. В такт corresponding to the tune has slightly different reference frames. So, the resultant product is a bit different grammatical phenomenon and, respectively, amended linguistic meaning.

It analogously goes with the translation of the English poem into Russian. To make it a true poetry, I had to “increase” the original form making necessary additions and developments of meanings. My interpretation bears some changes, which, on a small scale offset the original ideas, whereas investing the source text with some additive sense. Possibly, for a start, the translator should make a word-for-word rendering; then go on to hone it to reach a more or less desirable output.

Translation effort En-Ru

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A.E.Stallings Blackbird Etude</th>
<th>А.Э. Стэллингс Этюдсчёрнымдроздом</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>For Craig</strong></td>
<td><strong>Посвящается Крейгу</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The blackbird sings at the frontier of his ↓music.</td>
<td>Запоёт чёрный дрозд на фронтире от музык.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The branch where he sat marks ↓ the brink of doubt,</td>
<td>Эта ветвь, где сидел он, как + кромка</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>is outpost of his realm, edge from which to rout</td>
<td>сомненья, как кордон его царства</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>encroachers with trills and melismatic runs sur-passing earthbound skills.</td>
<td>полоскою узок, +∞</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>где пределы он ставит, +∞</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>всем проникновеньям, +∞</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>разрушая их трелями,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>мелодистическими ?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>переливами +?, что пре</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-восходят критически +∞</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>все земные (-) искусства.</td>
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</table>

If you pair off the equivalents, it is possible to make almost the same conclusions given above on the Russian-English translation. By horizontal line I show approximate equivalency, by italics the reworded vocabulary, by virtue of the latter(+/?∞) points out to
some developed (overtone) meaning; by the interrogation mark (?) some “blind spots” I could hardly cope with; by (-) I indicate a loss of the original meaning in the translation. I believe there is some chemistry between Russian and English language enabling the translator to work as an intermediary between them. Nevertheless, remembering that what you speak and how you speak in your native tongue and what you make of a foreign culture employing your native lingual and cognitive modes is a matter of such unfathomable conundrum so that translating efforts will ever be inadequate.

What does the poet say on the issue?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Евгений Евтушенко</th>
<th>Yevgeny Yevtushenko</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>O переводах</em></td>
<td><em>On Translations</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Не страшен вольный перевод. Why fear free translated verse?
  Ничто не вольно, если любишь.
- Но если музыку погубишь,
  То это мысль всю переврёт.
- Я не за ловкость шулеров,
  Я за поэтов правомочность.  There are savants’ poor pedantries
  Есть точность жалких школяров,
  Но есть и творческая точность.
- Не дай школьярством себя стеснить!
  Побольше музыки, свободы!
- Я верю в стихи.
  Не верю в просто переводы.
- Why fear free translated verse?
  Nothing is free, if you’re in love.
  But if you can destroy the music,
  The sense’s likely to be perverse.
  I’m not in favour of sharpeners tricksy,
  I stand to poets’ competency.
  There are savants’ poor pedantries
  And there’s creative accuracy.
  Don’t let the pedant hem you in!
  May be more music and more freedom!
  I just believe in verse.
  And put no trust in renderings.

**CONCLUSIONS (HARDLY FINAL):**

1. Translating in its linguistic sense is a translation of cultures when both source and target ones get inter-penetrable like the two pipes braced in the pipework with the liquid flowing sometimes unhindered, another time encumbered, along their walls.

2. Linguacultural codes native to different cultures have to be broached and approximated to their counterparts in various literary (poetic) translation acts to arrive at an intermediate fabrication, i.e. target text.

3. There is no assumedly ideal translation of a poetic text, there is singularly an invariant translation, which the translator holds in view and strives to more or less attain its elusive perfection.

4. Numerous efforts of translating poetry are, despite some obvious unattainable benchmarks in going over “to the other side”, praiseworthy and getting a due approval.

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