Editorial

Vážené čtenářky, vážení čtenáři,

je mi nesmírným potěšením představit vám v pořadí již druhé číslo časopisu CASALC Review, které jsme pro vás připravili v odborném týmu Centra jazykového vzdělávání Masarykovy univerzity (CJV MU). Pravidelní čtenáři časopisu jistě zaznamenají, že se jedná o další díl čtení o začleňování inovativních metod do výuky jazyků na vysokých školách tak, jak je nabízejí učitelé z našeho pracoviště společně se svými evropskými kolegy.

Zřejmě nejvýraznějším tématem, které se proplétá celým tímto číslem, stejně jako profesními životy asi všech učitelů jazyků, je autonomie studentů a jejich motivace k učení se cizích jazykům. K této základní přízi zde často připlétáme nitku využití technologií ve výuce, vlákno mezikulturní komunikace následované sdílením "jinakostí" tak, abychom celek mohli nakonec protkat tématem odborného jazyka a spolupráce jazykářů s kolegy z odborných kateder a olemovat zkušenostmi českých testerů.

Číslo otevírá kolegyně z CJV MU svým článkem o autonomii jako motivačním prvku. Následují články o motivaci v podobě pro studenty atraktivního blended learning a zavedení kurzů CLIL. Další autoři posléze popisují, jak se o zájem studentů jazyků ucházejí také využíváním videokonferenčních a jiných inovativních technologických prvků ve výuce. Následuje tematický okruh, který míří k profesním jazykům právníků, politologů a mediků. V něm autoři z různých částí Evropy sdílejí své zkušenosti s výukou angličtiny, němčiny, řečtiny a latiny pro specifické a odborné účely. Závěrem se pak krátce vrátíme k autonomii studentů, a to v kontextu Booster week ve Velké Británii a přeneseme se také na jih Evropy k popisu specifik fungování nového jazykového centra. Závěr čísla potom patří čtyřem článkům na téma testování jazykových úrovní studentů francouzštiny, češtiny a angličtiny.

Pevně věřím, že mi čtenáři dají zapravdu, že vzor utkaný z příspěvků kolegyň a kolegů z Brna, Pardubic, Prahy, Bratislavy, Maďarska, Lotyšska, Portugalska, Velké Británie a Černé Hory je ve výsledku pestrobarevný, ale zároveň také harmonický a velmi příjemný.

Poutavé a inspirativní čtení vám jménem CJV MU tentokrát přeje

Alena Hradilová

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Psychological and creative approaches to language teaching

Motivating Through Autonomy: Theoretical Framework Illustrated

Lenka Zouhar Ludvíková

Abstract: Students come to universities not as *tabulae rasae* but as mature learners with a past. They are expected to have experience and metacognitive skills that help them take control of their learning and reflect on the learning process. When their autonomy is encouraged, they can develop into independent learners who will not learn for school but for life. This is also evident in their motivation, which this paper aims to look at.

Our course English Autonomously (EA) has shown in the last three semesters significant progress in language competence, metacognition, learning strategies and also in motivation. This paper introduces some theoretical constructs of motivation with a focus on autonomy within and illustrate them with authentic examples provided by the students.

Key words: autonomy, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation

Abstrakt: V rámci kurzu Angličtina autonomně (English Autonomously) studenti během sebereflexe poměrně často hovoří o zkušenostech a o motivaci. Právě toto téma se příspěvek snaží uvést do teoretického rámce a zároveň jednotlivé koncepce ilustrovat autentickými příklady studentských postřehů o motivaci. Ty byly sesbírány v průběhu 3 semestrů kurzu, kdy studenti nejvíce hodnotí svůj vývoj v jazykových dovednostech, metakognici a strategiích pro učení se cizímu jazyku. Autorka se snaží objasnit vztah mezi motivací a autonomií v jazykovém vzdělávání na pozadí teoretických konceptů, které jsou blízké autonomii a motivaci.

Background

Motivation has been of a major concern among teachers and scholars for centuries. Therefore the term itself, the word or the concept of motivation is something all of us understand. Its translation into many languages resembles the English term – French *motiver* or German *motivieren* are just like the English *motivate* and they all have the same meaning. Searching for an academic definition the interpretations are practically unanimous:

- "... the driving force which gives purpose or direction to human and animal behaviours (operating at a conscious and subconscious level)..."

 (URL: psychologydictionary.org)
- "... the person's willingness to exert physical or mental effort in order to complete a goal or set aim..." (URL: psychologydictionary.org)
- "... the state or condition of being motivated or having a strong reason to act or accomplish something..."

(URL: http://dictionary.reference.com/browse/motivation)

Despite the fact that we all understand and experience motivation in many forms, it is difficult, if not impossible, to study and uncover as it is of intangible and immeasurable character. Psychology has been trying to capture, reveal and understand the secret of motivation, nevertheless, only some scholars have succeeded.

Autonomy, on the other hand, was for a long time a political and philosophical term. The concept of autonomy or self-direction in one's learning is present in Rousseau's work. However it only received more attention from the educational theorists in the 20th century; Dewey, Rogers, Illich and Vygotsky are only some of them (Benson, 2011). The role and impact of autonomy in learning can be seen in most of the educational theories and learning theories, e.g. behaviourism, cognitivism, socio-cognitivism, humanism, constructivism and positive psychology (Bertrand, 1998, Jarvis, 2010, Benson & Voller, 1997).

Methods

This paper aims to present several theoretical constructs of motivation and the role of autonomy within it. To prove and illustrate the different taxonomies of motivation in the language learning environment, some evidence of the different forms of motivation are taken from the counselling sessions and written reflections of the students in the course English Autonomously (EA), which are used throughout the text. The students' perceptions have been collected over the past three terms, wherein 81 students finished the course out of 100 who attended.

The students in the course wrote their language learning history in the beginning of the term, had three individual counselling sessions, wrote a learning log and wrote a final reflection. Evaluation forms were also one of the sources of data. All these materials provide plenty of self-reflective data of both qualitative and quantitative character. Nevertheless, only several comments and quotations from different students have been selected for the purpose of this paper to illustrate some of the theoretical terms and concepts. They demonstrate the students' insight into motivation, determination and language learning. The intention is to prove the theories that are introduced here.

Theory

One of the psychologists who devoted their work to motivation was Abraham Maslow. His hierarchy of needs (see Fig. 1) is known and taught and is essential for many scholars in the field. It is also the keystone for some of the theories discussed in this paper.

In his theory, Maslow claims that in order to concentrate on a higher level of needs we have to satiate the levels below. The basic needs, therefore, create a foundation for higher needs, which Maslow illustrated in a pyramid shaped

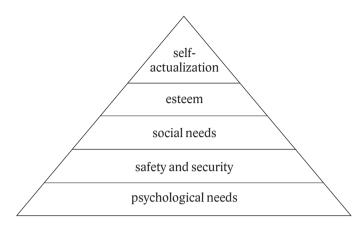


Fig. 1: Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (Adapted from http://www.researchhistory.org/2012/06/16/maslows-hierarchy-of-needs)

diagram. Physiological needs are represented by air, water, food, etc. Safety and security equal shelter and other requirements of a material nature. Social needs stand for relationships with other people – one's family, friends, social group, love, etc. Esteem reflects achievements and confidence. Finally, self-actualization shows spontaneity, realization and creativity that come from within an individual.

In learning and teaching situations, in school environments we expect the lowest levels to be satiated and taken for granted to a certain extent, even though we have to open windows to get some oxygen into our students' brains from time to time and we want to offer them the feeling of security too. The upper three levels of Maslow's hierarchy of needs are the basis for a significant direction in psychology – the Self-Determination Theory (SDT). It was introduced in the 1970s, but its main focus then was not education. The will to get well after an illness and the determination to run a marathon were some of the issues and applications of the SDT and the studies focused on the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Deci and Ryan, the founders of SDT work with psychological needs that resemble the three upper needs from Maslow's pyramid. However, they have given them different labels: autonomy, competence and relatedness (or belonging). They believe that these needs are the building blocks for the desire to grow and for well-being (i.e. for self-motivation) (Deci and Ryan, 2002).

They understand the *competence* as a sense of confidence that drives people into challenging activities that are appropriate to their skills and capacities. Their term *relatedness* refers to caring and feeling connected to others. It is the need to be accepted by others, belonging to others. The third need, *autonomy*, represents the capacity or urge to be the agent in one's own life and lead towards harmony and

integrity. This basic needs theory can be seen as a sub-theory within the SDT. The authors are aware of the fact that not all motives function towards well-being and some might distract or side-track the individuals from their goals, because the personal motives and desires are often beyond their categorization (Deci, Ryan, 2002, pp. 6–8), nevertheless, that is beyond the concern of this paper.

For Deci and Ryan (Deci, Ryan, 2002, pp. 13–14), the need for competence, autonomy and relatedness play an important role in intrinsic motivation. However, the latter is probably not as strong as the former two, which they illustrate on some activities that people can do alone, in solitude but still be intrinsically motivated. When we apply their theory on language learning though, relatedness is immensely important. Interaction with others is an inseparable part of communication and therefore language learning. Thus in ELT, the need for relatedness is as relevant as the need for autonomy or competence, if not more so.

The SDT and its basic needs theory in some aspects resembles Pink's factors, which lead to better performance and personal satisfaction: mastery, purpose and autonomy (Pink, 2009). Even though his perspective is more business-oriented, it can be applied to second language acquisition too. He sees autonomy as the human desire to direct oneself, one's life and to be engaged in what is going on. Mastery, or challenge, is the urge to get better at something that matters, to make a contribution. Purpose can be seen as one's ambition to do something larger than oneself. These three factors also influence the performance of any language learner. These three elements empower the motivation on a level that is very different from the system of external rewards (e.g. good results in the exam). It is these three elements that determine intrinsic motivation that comes from within. When learning itself is considered to be the reward, people tend to do their best for themselves and learning is deeper.

The three factors interact, which in language learning can be illustrated by what one of the EA students said: "Reported speech was really challenging for me. I had difficulties in the beginning because the rules in the textbook were strange. But then I saw the goal, I really had a reason to try and use the reported speech because I heard it in a film. And I realized that I want to use it too. I didn't want to make mistakes. So I started using it and it started to make sense. And I wanted to use it more and now it is natural and I'm proud of myself." This student describes how she learnt a certain grammar concept and how she applied it in her speaking. She was missing the purpose in the textbook but then found it in an authentic situation and began to use it on her own, without anybody telling her. She also describes how the challenge changed into something she was proud of (i.e. mastery).

Gardner focuses on language learning and defines the following three components of motivation (Gardner, 1985, p. 10)

- the effort to achieve the goal (how much?)
- the desire to achieve the goal (how strong?)
- the attitudes toward learning (how positive?)

Apart from these, he also introduces a theoretical motivational construct that distinguishes between the instrumental and integrative orientation of one's learning that begins to question the reason or purpose of why people learn a language. The former covers the pragmatic goals, such as getting a job; the latter is related to interaction with other speakers of the language and communication, therefore, is social and emotional. There is an obvious difference between these two students:

M. at a counselling session: "I've had two semesters of Medical English but I need more. And not only medical terminology. I want to apply for an internship in a hospital in Great Britain, so I really have to be good at English. It's a must, if I want to work abroad. And I do."

A. in his language learning history: "My older brother had a friend in the US and I wanted to have friends in other countries too. And now, I want to apply for Erasmus and I want to improve my English before I go. I want to speak to other people and to my teachers, write essays in English and to be involved / be part of the class."

Both of these students are motivated at a rather general level – they mention the long term goal. They both have the desire to achieve their goals and willing to put effort into their learning, even though the extent is unknown; however the attitude is unidentified. Both, instrumental and integrative motivation show a certain degree of external agent in themselves, as will be explained below.

Ushioda is very clear in her explanation of why intrinsic motivation in learning is so important: "... we need to encourage in students the awareness that learning is motivating in itself, rather than merely the vague belief that their learning today will somehow be instrumental to unspecified educational or vocational goals tomorrow..." (Ushioda, p. 19). Intrinsic learning motivation is connected with such positive feelings of enjoyment, pleasure and satisfaction. Among other areas, such as personal control, autonomy, skills and mastery, intrinsic learning motivation also generates its own rewards, which means that it is self-sustaining (Ushioda, p. 51).

The term intrinsic motivation unsurprisingly resonates with all the scholars. Sometimes, only intrinsic motivation is considered to be the true motivation, which might be even stronger in the context of autonomous learning. We may be misled into believing that extrinsic motivation is not autonomous. Organismic Integration Theory (Deci, Ryan, 2002), which is another SDT sub-theory, shows that even extrinsic motivation can be autonomously accepted by an individual. The extent to which the autonomy interacts is shown in a self-determination

continuum, which Ryan and Deci constructed (see Fig. 2.). It illustrates the four forms of extrinsic motivation that lie between intrinsic motivation on one end and amotivation on the other end of the continuum. The extrinsic motivation in this theory is classified according to the degree of autonomy that is present in the motivation (Deci, Ryan, 2002, pp. 16–22).

Self-determined

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	Amotivation		Extrinsic	Motivation		Intrinsic Motivation
Regulatory style:	Non- Regulation	External Regulation	Introjected Regulation	Identified Regulation	Integrated Regulation	Intrinsic Regulation
Source of motivation:	Impersonal	External	Somewhat External	Somewhat Internal	Internal	Internal
Motivation regulators:	No intention Incompetence Lack of control	Compliance External rewards or punishments	Ego- involvement Approval from others	Valuing an activity Endorsement of goals	Congruence Synthesis with self	Interest Enjoyment Inherent satisfaction

Fig. 2: The Self-Determination Continuum (adapted from Deci, Ryan, 2002, p. 16)

Non self-determined

- amotivation L. in an email: "I need to cancel my enrolment because I don't have the course in my Learning Agreement and I don't need the credits. I want to focus on other things than learning English."
 - after 5 weeks in the course, this student realized that learning English was not what she wanted to do lack of motivation, no intention
- external regulation D. in his final reflection "I took the course because I thought it could be a good way how to get 2 credits."
 - this pragmatic student seems to be interested in the reward, i.e. the credits, more than the learning itself; however, it has to be noted here that his attitude changed during the term and he later commented on the change in his motivation and declared that he "... enjoyed learning this way."
- introjected regulation V. at the counselling "My boyfriend speaks English, like, really well. We want travel in summer, so I want show him that I can also be like good."
 - approval from her boyfriend is a strong motivation for this student
- identified regulation P. at the counselling: "I plan to write my thesis in English and I need somebody to help me with that, that's why I'd like to take the module on academic writing."
 - the goal, represented here by the thesis, determines the motivation and is personally important

- integrated regulation E. in her language learning history: "I've chosen presentation skills because I need to give presentations because I want to be good at presenting."
- intrinsic regulation M. at the counselling: "Learning English is my favourite way of procrastination. It's so much more fun than learning other things! Making mind-maps and wordlists is like my new addiction now."

This continuum demonstrates even more variety of motivation and there could be many more theories and constructs listed here. However, the researcher's (i.e. theoretical) point of view is only one side of the coin; the other side shows the practical perspective of a teacher or the learners themselves. Furthermore, the examples so far illustrate the motivation for learning the language in general, i.e. why people learn the language or why they want to focus on a certain skill. Nevertheless, it is important to realize that in spite of this long-term goal in motivation the learners have to overcome lots of ups and downs on an everyday basis. This large and often distant goal, therefore, has to be broken up into smaller short-term goals that will lead the learner step by step towards their aim. This will enable them to see the progress which maintains the motivational thinking.

Ushioda suggests developing effective motivational thinking in order to achieve self-motivation. She is very explicit when she states that "... autonomous language learners are by definition motivated learners..." (Ushioda,1996, p. 2). Autonomy therefore could be the key to self-motivation and the desired intrinsic motivation. More specifically, she speaks about:

- personal control of one's motivation (engaged in learning)
- positive self-concept, believing in oneself as a learner / user of the foreign language (self-reflection)
- successful experience (external feedback)
- minimizing the negatives (classroom climate...)
- motivational autonomy (no blaming the school, teacher...)

Some of these are independent and autonomous; however, others relate to external agents and variables. In any learning environment, we cannot avoid the impact of the family members, peers in and out of class, members of the L2 community or teachers. These are human variables that together with other agents, such as learning and teaching materials, influence motivation in language learning.

Noels conducted research in language learning that concentrates on the impact that the teacher's communication style has on the learners (Noels, 2001) and her findings support what Deci and Ryan introduced (Deci and Ryan, 1985). They claim that if the teacher's communication style is controlling, mediated by threats, deadlines and rewards, the intrinsic motivation is undermined. On the other hand,

the autonomy-supportive styles tend to encourage the learner's intrinsic motivation. The feedback from the teachers should therefore be compassionate, positive and informational rather than critical and negative. This undermining or supporting of learners' intrinsic motivation might correlate with extrinsic motivation, however this requires more research in the field.

Ushioda's motivational thinking as well as Deci and Ryan's autonomy supportive teaching style reflect Dornyei's motivational teaching practice – Fig. 3 (Dornyei, 2001).

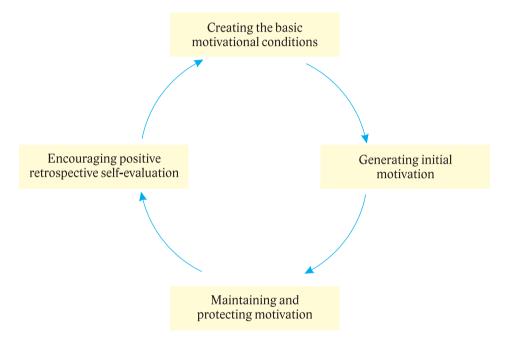


Fig. 3: Motivational Teaching Practice (adapted from Dornyei, 2001, p. 29)

This diagram only outlines the model of components that are present in L2 classrooms. Its detailed version is an inspiration for anybody who aims for autonomy support in language classes. Dornyei's studies go into more detail where he also introduces more constructs. This one, however, completes the motivational thinking that Ushioda speaks about.

Conclusion

The students of the EA course, where the teaching is autonomy supportive, where the teachers are merely facilitators of the learning process and the students have to accept the responsibility for their learning, report progress in many areas: they cover their language skills which are dependent on the choice of the modules but also change in the field of metacognition and in their personal growth. The change in motivation and in attitudes towards learning and L2 learning is often mentioned in their evaluation forms, final counselling sessions and written reflections. This progress is going to be analysed in more detail and on a larger sample in further research.

The key question now seems to be whether or not the teachers can motivate their students and pupils. Deci's famous TED talk concludes with a clear message about motivating other people: "We should not ask how to motivate other people; we have to think about it in a different way and ask how to create the conditions within which others will motivate themselves" (Deci, 2012). This is a paraphrase of Einstein's quote "I never teach my pupils, I only attempt to provide the conditions in which they can learn." What is described in these quotes is a teacher's role in the motivation process which Ushioda refers to as motivational thinking (see above) – autonomy supporting.

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Bionote

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Developing a Blended Learning strategy: Motivating university students to learn English by implementing blended learning activities (instructional media and pedagogical considerations)

Neda Radosavlevikj

Abstract: The switch from the traditional face-to-face to an online model implementing technology in the classroom affects students' motivation. By applying blended learning approach in class I introduced the concepts of synchrony (integration of learning environment) and elasticity (integration of instructional media with instructional strategies) to ensure the right mix is attained. In my blended learning class I combined modes of web-based technology with various pedagogical approaches to produce an optimal language learning environment. In attempting to achieve the optimal learning environment I employed a variety of activity types with group work and pair work, collaborative learning and independent learning to engage my learners in communicative language practice. As a teacher I try to address the need for personalized learning through the introduction of self-study resources designed for independent study.

The participants in this study are students from different faculties, attending Basic English skills sessions (pre-intermediate, intermediate and upper-intermediate courses). Students completed a questionnaire designed to determine: 1) if blended learning activities done in and outside the classroom could enhance their learning of English; 2) what factors might motivate students to perform tasks; 3) what were possible underlying factors which affect students' motivation, especially in stimulating students' practical work, and enhancing their language learning achievement at the earliest stage of their university education. This study investigates the influence of competence-based learning in motivating students to learn English as a foreign language.

Key words: blended learning approach, attitude & motivation, blended learning activities, constructivism

Abstrakt: Účastníky této studie jsou studenti z různých fakult, navštěvující lekce základní angličtiny Basic English skills (pre-intermediate, intermediate a upper-intermediate). Studenti vyplňovali dotazník za účelem zjištění: 1) zda smíšené vyučovací aktivity v učebně a mimo ni mohou zlepšit jejich studium angličtiny, 2) jaké faktory mohou motivovat studenty k provádění úkolů, 3) jaké jsou případné skryté faktory, které ovlivňují motivaci studentů, zejména při praktických cvičeních a zlepšování výsledků při studiu jazyka v raném stadiu univerzitního vzdělávání.

Článek prezentuje současnou teorii a vysvětlení smíšené výuky a popisuje přínosy smíšené výuky v učebně v prostředí vyššího vzdělávání. Autorka uzavírá popisem, jak ona sama aplikovala výsledky průzkumu ve své vlastní učebně tak, že pro dosažení správného poměru zavedla koncepty synchronie (integrace studijního prostředí) a elastičnosti (integrace instruktážních médií s instruktážními strategiemi).

Introduction

Blended learning, an approach that includes a mixture of online and face-to-face communication, is an increasingly popular method of content delivery in higher education, often also called hybrid learning. The primary advantage of blended learning is the potential to incorporate the strengths of synchronous and asynchronous learning (Ho et al., 2006; Vaughan, 2007). For instance, some learning is completed in the classroom and some in a digital context away from the classroom. The approach encourages a community of inquiry that allows learners to connect and collaborate with their peers and to create "a learning environment that integrates social, cognitive and teaching elements that in a way will precipitate and sustain reflection and discourse" (Garrison & Vaughan, 2008, p. 8). Students in blended leading classes generally have two weeks of online work time in between face-to-face meetings. There is ample time for reflection in readings and online contributions by classmates. Additional modes of communication and participation can lead to an increase in student motivation (Ho et al., 2006).

The intention of Blended learning classes is that students are motivated to learn, thus they will learn more quickly and achieve language success. The process in blended learning classes is effective because using a combination of technology, on-line and face-to-face classes seems to make the time pass quickly since the students are engaged in collaborative activities, participate more and thus are more eager to learn. Blended learning courses have advantages for both students and teachers because they provide flexibility of time, meeting different students' needs and learning styles, and teachers have more time to reflect on students' writings.

Blended Learning: Transformative Potential in Higher Education

Blended learning uses a variety of learning resources that can help students choose their preferred learning style and become more autonomous in acquiring English as a second language. For instance, blended learning allows for students to explore more deeply many topics than could be presented in a lecture. In higher education, this could be important because online learners can work together or apart and connect anytime and anyplace.

The challenge for the university instructor in applying blended learning is to predict possible drawbacks, difficulties, and obstacles such as how the institution and administration will support this approach of learning.

In a higher education setting blended learning focuses on the learner and the learners' need. Instructors can support students in understanding what it is they are expected to learn, the choices they have available for them and how can they assist them in developing the necessary skills of reflection, self-direction, self independence and self-management.

The learner-centred construction of blended learning helps learners choose what and when to blend, so that it can be manipulated and controlled by learners rather than teachers. In addition, through effective facilitation, blended learning is based on transforming higher education in rethinking and restructuring the potential of the learning experience. This approach has the potential to enhance both the effectiveness and efficiency of meaningful learning experiences. The following figure (reprinted from Rosenberg, Marc, 2009, p. 1) shows the paradigm comparing instructor vs. learner controlled learning.

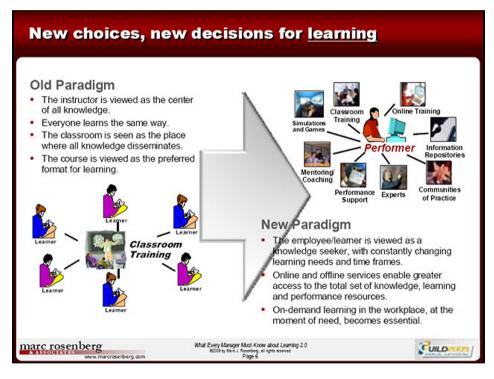


Fig. 1: reprinted from Rosenberg, Marc, 2009, p. 1

It is a fact that Internet Information and communication technologies have the major influence on transformative innovation for higher education in the 21st century (Garrison and Kanuka, 2004, p. 95). In the traditional model the instructor is viewed as the center of all knowledge, students learn the same way in the classroom where in the modern classroom the learner is viewed as a knowledge seek-

er constantly changing learning needs using online resources to learn in a new interesting way.

Arguments that higher education should consider are:

- 1. Blended learning builds an effective community of inquiry that provides a stabilizing, cohesive influence that balances the open communication and limitless access to information on Internet. These communities of inquiry provide the condition for free open dialogue, critical debate, negotiation and agreement. Blended learning has the capability to facilitate these conditions and adds a reflective element with multiple forms of communication to meet the specific learning requirements. Whether face-to-face or online, communities of inquiry consist of three elements: cognitive, social, and teaching presence (Garrison and Anderson, 2004, p. 97)
- 2. The sense of community must be on a cognitive and social level that requires consideration of the different cognitive and social characteristics in order to achieve higher levels of learning. The focus is given on the teaching presence that facilitates learning experiences. Blended learning offers a distinct advantage in supporting higher levels of learning through critical discourse and reflective thinking, as shown in Figure 2 below.
- 3. Blended learning facilitates critical thinking and higher-order learning. (Hudson, 2002) argues, for example, "that the very basis of thinking is rooted in dialogue, drawing on a socially constructed context to endow ideas with meaning" (p. 53). The emphasis must shift from assimilating information to constructing meaning and confirming understanding in a community of inquiry. To be a critical thinker means to take control of one's thought processes and gain metacognitive understanding of these processes (i.e., Learn to learn) as described in the chart Figure 2: *D. R. Garrison, H. Kanuka (2004, p. 98)*.
- 4. Blended learning can provide independence and increased control essential to developing critical thinking as well as encourage scaffolded acceptance of responsibility for constructing meaning and understanding.

Blended learning approach: Why a Focus on students' attitudes and motivation matters

Motivation is considered a very significant factor for language learning success. I investigated students' success in learning English as a second language. The key factors that determine students' success or failure are students' enthusiasm, commitment and persistence.

In his socio-educational model Gardner (1982), notes "motivation is composed of three elements: effort, desire and affect. Effort refers to the time spent studying the language and the drive of the learner. Desire indicates how much the learner

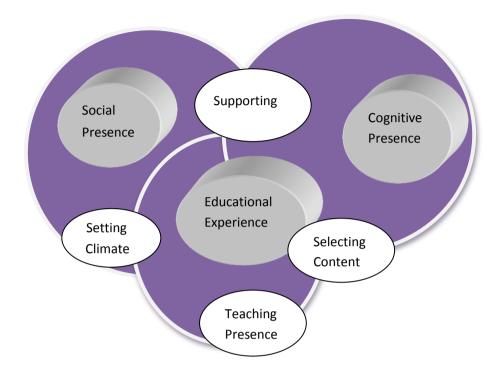


Fig. 2: Community of inquiry Garrison, Kanuka (2004, p. 98)

wants to become proficient in the language, and affect means the learner's emotional reactions related to language study". (p. 906).

Although important, it is very difficult to find exact method for motivating students because what may work for some students may not work for others.

The level of motivation is very important in an EFL classroom. In order to stimulate students' progress, the teacher should possess some specific qualities, consider his/her personal characteristics and behaviour, classroom management practices, and the materials and tasks used in the classroom. These motivational techniques affect students' behaviour, their engagement, success and overall relaxing atmosphere. Other ways that motivate students include positive behaviour of the teacher, appealing activities and technology used in the classroom as well as effective classroom management.

A motivating teacher should offer conditions for students to feel free and cooperate to make classes interesting where activities are based on creativity, humour and friendly competition.

Teachers need to explore the factors that motivate students to perform tasks and what affects students' motivation in learning English as a second language as well as encourage students' practical work, enhancing their language learning achievement at the very earliest stages of their enrolment in the first year. Furthermore, motivation is an important component in the learning process. In order to achieve something learning and motivation have the same importance: we gain new knowledge and skills in learning and motivation helps us go through this process.

In conclusion, motivation is a very important quality of blended learning that stimulates students' progress in an online environment as well as help learners achieve their desired goals.

Creating effective opportunities for learning English as a second Language: Why this matters for offering a blended learning approach to university students

"Learners in the twenty-first century have been Web consumers for much of their lives, and are now demanding online instruction that supports participation and interaction. They want learning experiences that are social and that will connect with their peers." (West and West as shown in Figure 3, 2009, p. 2)

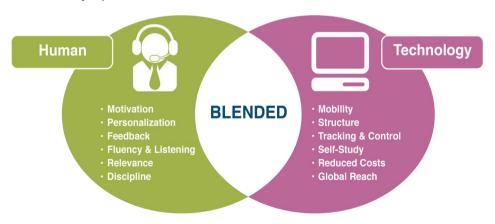


Fig. 3: Blended learning environment. West and West, 2009

Engaged learning is active learning that involves constructivism and problembased learning all of which emphasize student-focused learning with instructor as a facilitator. Learning theorists such as Bruner, Vygotsky and Piaget all embraced the philosophy that humans do not learn in a vacuum but rather through interaction. Bruner in his work with (Bornstein, 1989) stated that "development is intrinsically bound up with interaction" (p. 13), which builds on his earlier definition of reciprocity as the "deep human need to respond to others and operate jointly with them toward an objective" (Bruner, 1966, p. 67).

Vygotsky 1981asserts that "instruction is effective only if it stimulates the individual potential ability when working with an adult or more advanced peer and helps learner across the zone of proximal development". Piaget's philosophy emphasized "that learning must be connected to the learner in order to be meaningful". He described engaged learning as knowledge build on prior experiences and affected by new experiences. Development would be more likely to occur when two equal partners collaborated in finding a solution than when a more skilled partner dominated the task. He believed that effective discussions are possible if there is a symmetrical power between discussants. "Peer-to-peer discussion was more valuable than adult-child discussion because equals were more likely to resolve contradictions between each other's views than partners of equal authority" (Piaget, 1969).

Engaged learning is closely related to problem-based learning. A problem is posed to learners who work together in teams to define the nature of the problem and determine its resolution. Through this process learners can "develop intellectual curiosity, confidence, and engagement that will lead to lifelong learning" (Watson & Croh, 2001, p. 21). This process is based on interaction and meaningful learning.

Constructivism considers interaction essential for learning and addresses epistemology within the context of the individual and within social constructs. According to Smith and Ragan (1999, p. 15), the key assumptions of individual constructivism are the following:

- Knowledge is constructed from experience.
- Learning results from a personal interpretation of knowledge
- Learning is an active process in which meaning is developed on the basis of experience
- Learning is collaborative with meaning negotiated from multiple perspectives.

The collaborative acquisition of knowledge is one key to success for creating an online learning environment. Activities that require student interaction and encourage a sharing of ideas promote a deep level of thought.

In his summary of social constructivism, (Weigel, 2002) focused on content acquisition that defeats the overall purpose of education: "Content is the clay of knowledge construction; learning takes place when it is fashioned into something

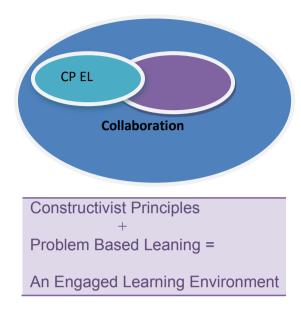


Fig. 4: An engaged learning model

meaningful." "Creativity, critical analysis, and skillful performance are inextricably linked to the process of creating more viable and content knowledge structures" (p. 5). In an online environment the focus is on the learner being engaged in collaborative activities that allow the clay to take form and have meaning for the learner.

Figure 4 illustrates the combination of constructivist and problem-based learning within a collaborative result in an engaged learning environment. Engaged learning is primarily based on the learner and each learner's actions contribute not only to individual knowledge but to overall community knowledge. According to Collison, Elbaum, Haavind, and Tinker (2000) "There is strong evidence to suggest that learners learn best when constructing their own knowledge."

Findings and results

According to Parson and Brown, to be "an effective educator one must be an 'active participant' in the classroom, observing, analysing, and interpreting information about student learning and then using this information for planning and decision making" (p. 34).

The survey research was designed to measure students' interest in a hybrid approach so that the instructor can design objective learning goals when creating the course. Fifty students at SEEU from different departments with mixed ability

skills in English as a foreign language completed a survey aimed to find out about their preferences in learning English, such as whether they preferred learning via a digital environment. Although the blended learning model is not well known to students at South Eastern European University (SEEU), students still expressed a preference to communicate from home (60 percentages) rather than to come to class regularly. They relied on the knowledge management system LIBRI and they expressed interest in using Discussion Forums (32 percentages), more than Face-to-Face discussion only (26 percentages).

The majority of these students indicated that they use computers 2–5 hours a day (62 percentages) when completing their assignments. Students showed more interest in taking the courses on line than coming to class (80 percentages answered positively). They also agreed strongly (70 percentages) that it will be better if they have combined classes, for instance 50 minutes in class and 50 minutes in a computer lab.

Moreover, students agreed that technology plays an important role in the society today and that it could be useful to use the Internet in order to improve their English skills (86 percentages). They felt comfortable to use the materials online (82 percentages), and indicated that it would be easier for them to complete the assignments at home on the computer (54 percentages) than come to class.

Furthermore, students thought that it would be very useful to receive feedback from their peers online (70 percentages), and attend scheduled classes face-to-face once per week instead of coming to class two or three times per week (64 percentages).

Students said that they would like to be assessed on weekly basis (42 percentages), by self-assessment (20 percentages), weekly quizzes (28 percentages), weekly assignments (8 percentages), and combined on line work (2 percentages).

Overall, the results of the survey show that students would value a blended or hybrid learning approach. They are ready to try something new. Based on their feedback, the instructor can design a course with objective learning goals. In my blended learning class the combination of the traditional face-to-face and online modern model motivated students to perform the tasks and stimulate their practical work.

Conclusion

Blended Learning courses are very useful because they implement active learning strategies as well as variety of pedagogical approaches that help students learn the course material easily. Furthermore, by combining modes of web technology students discuss online which encourages reflections and in that way they reach maximum participation. As a result, the face-to-face time can be used more ef-

fectively, with students extending the material beyond what might be achieved in a conventional face-to-face course.

The students in a blended course make more and richer connections between what they are learning and what they already know.

Svinicki (2004) points out that one of the most effective things we can do as instructors is to help our students encode information in their long-term memories is to help them build an organizational structure for the material: "It is worth your while as an instructor to spend time thinking organizationally about your course's content and to design instruction around that organization" (p. 31). Well-organized knowledge is easier to connect to prior knowledge, and therefore easier to retrieve when needed.

Blended learning has a transformational lifelong learning effect in the lives of many university students. It helps students develop the desire and skills to continue learning throughout their lives by giving students' more control over their learning and teaching them skills they need to acquire, organize, and incorporate new information into their understanding of the world.

In my blended learning class I try to combine the traditional face-to-face and online modern model by implementing technology. Moreover, I use various motivational techniques to motivate them to perform the tasks and stimulate their practical work. I have based my instruction on the results of the survey described above. Every second class in the week for 50 minutes students had a chance to practice activities in a computer lab at SEEU-Skopje. I manage to achieve the optimal learning environment by using variety of activity types: group and pair work as well as engage learners in collaborative and independent activities in communicative language practice. As a teacher I try to address the need for personalized learning through the introduction of self-study resources designed for independent study.

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APPENDIX

BLENDED LEARNING QUESTIONNAIRE

SECTION ONE

1. How much do you use computers daily?		
\bigcirc	1 hour	
\bigcirc	2–5 hours	
\circ	more than 8 hours	
2. V	Vould you like to take courses on computer?	
\bigcirc	Yes	
\bigcirc		
	Maybe	
0	I don't know	
	Vould you bring your computer in the classroom?	
\bigcirc		
\bigcirc		
	Maybe	
0	I don't know	
	Vould you like to take on-line courses?	
\bigcirc	Yes No Maybe	
\circ	No	
\bigcirc	Maybe	
0	I don't know	
	re computers useful at SEEU?	
	Yes	
\bigcirc	No	
	Maybe	
0	I don't know	
	o we have enough computers at SEEU?	
	Yes	
\bigcirc		
	I don't know	
\circ	Maybe	
7. H	low important are today computers in our society?	
\bigcirc	Extremely important	
0	Very important	

\circ	Not important
\circ	I don't like using computers
0.1	
_	Vould you like to take combined classes 50 min. in class, 50 minutes on computer lab?
0	Yes No
0	
0	Maybe I don't know
0	1 don't know
SE	CTION TWO
9. V	Vould you like to be able to select your own courses in English?
0	Yes, very much
\circ	No
\circ	Maybe
\circ	I don't know
10	Would you like to take elective courses after the required English courses?
0	Yes, very much
0	No
0	Maybe
_	I don't know
11	What would you like better?
\bigcirc	courses on-line
_	courses in class
-	combined model (in-class and on-line)
	I don't know
0	1 don t know
12.	Would you prefer to communicate from home on a computer than come to class regularly?
\circ	Yes, very much
\bigcirc	No
\bigcirc	Maybe
\circ	I don't know
13.	What would you like the most?
	Discussion Forums
	Writing e-mails
	Workshops/Seminars
	Face-to face communication
14.	What courses would you like to take as electives?
	Drama

П	Computer related courses
$\overline{\Box}$	Academic English
\Box	Public Speech
$\overline{\Box}$	Language and Culture
	Basic English Skills
SE	CTION THREE
15.	Can internet improve your English skills?
\bigcirc	Yes
\bigcirc	No
\bigcirc	Maybe
\circ	I don't know
	Do you think that courses can be improved by creating assignments or lectures by the use of ernet?
\bigcirc	No
\bigcirc	Yes, but I haven't tried that yet
\circ	Yes, but at home I don't have internet
\circ	Yes, I have tried this
17.	Do you use computers to complete your assignments?
\bigcirc	Yes
\circ	Only for my purposes
\bigcirc	I often copy-paste from Internet
\circ	No, I do my assignments individually without the use of Internet
18.	Do you think it will be more useful to have materials on-line?
\circ	Yes, I am comfortable using it
\bigcirc	No, I am not comfortable using it
\circ	I don't know
	Do you agree with the statement 'It is more important to be able to use teaching materials one instead of coming to class'?
\bigcirc	Strongly agree
\bigcirc	Agree
\bigcirc	Disagree
\circ	I don't know
20.	Do you think our programs in English are well organized?
\bigcirc	Yes, very much
\bigcirc	No
\bigcirc	should be improved

\circ	I don't know
21.	Blended learning is:
\circ	combined learning applying traditional and modern technology
0	traditional way of teaching
\circ	modern way of teaching
\bigcirc	I don't know what it means
22.	Would it be better if you have classes once a week (per group) instead of 2, 3 times per week?
\circ	Yes
\circ	No
\circ	Maybe
\circ	I don't know
	Can we make the process of learning easier by using Blended Learning? (combined-traditional modern on-line learning)
\bigcirc	Yes
\bigcirc	No
\bigcirc	Maybe
\circ	I don't know
24.	Do you think it would be better to take the exam on the computer?
\circ	Strongly agree
\circ	Agree
\bigcirc	Disagree
\bigcirc	I don't know
	Do you think it will be better if the time for the class is scheduled on line, students don't have come to class?
\circ	Strongly agree
\circ	Agree
\circ	Disagree
\circ	I don't know
26.	Would you like to receive feedback from another student on-line?
\circ	Yes
\bigcirc	No
\circ	Maybe
\bigcirc	I don't know
27.	What kind of materials would you use on-line?
	Lesson Plans
	Discussion Forums
28	Psychological and creative approaches to language teaching
40	i sychological allu citative appidacijes to langdage teathing

	useful websites
	Facebook
28.	How would you like to be assessed?
You	may choose more than one answer
\bigcirc	on weekly basis
\bigcirc	self-assessment
\bigcirc	weekly quizzes
\bigcirc	weekly assignments
\bigcirc	collaborative on-line work
29.	Would you like to have more classes in computer lab than in the classroom?
\bigcirc	Yes
\bigcirc	No
\bigcirc	Maybe
\circ	I don't know

Bionote

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Promoting Dynamic CLIL Courses in Portuguese Higher Education: From design and training to implementation

María del Carmen Arau Ribeiro, Manuel Moreira da Silva, Margarida Morgado, Margarida Coelho

Abstract: This article demonstrates the method, procedures and results of a national research project aiming to implement Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) courses in Portuguese higher education (HE). ReCLes.pt, the Network Association of Language Centres in HE in Portugal, carried out a review of the literature and an extensive needs analysis based on interviews with administrators and subject teachers to substantiate this need for CLIL in HE. The first 10-hour CLIL teacher training pilot courses, conceived of as Communities of Practice, involved learning to deal with approaches to teaching language and content by scaffolding and applying a terminology-based approach, all of which was systematized in a collaboratively written training guide. Data gathering instruments were created for observation, questioning and documenting, which served to analyse the results and assess the sustainability of the interrelated objectives of creating further CoPs so that more and better CLIL modules can be implemented across the country.

Key words: CLIL, Portuguese Higher Education, Communities of Practice, Terminology, Scaffolding

Resumen:

Preparación para profesores, creada en Portugal, ha originado cursos CLIL en enseñanza superior. El curso en una Comunidad de Práctica ya ha sido testado por todo el país, basado en una larga investigación teórica aliada a un estudio nacional de las necesidades y un manual de capacitación escrito de forma colaborativa. La implementación de módulos de CLIL acentúa incluso *scaffolding* y terminología.

Abstrakt: Tento příspěvek představuje metodu, postupy a výsledky národního výzkumného projektu zaměřeného na zavádění kurzů CLIL do portugalského vyššího vzdělávání (VV). ReCLes.pt, Síťová asociace jazykových center VV v Portugalsku, provedla recenzi literatury a rozsáhlou analýzu potřeb založenou na rozhovorech s administrátory a oborovými učiteli, aby doložila nezbytnost CLIL ve vyšším vzdělávání. První desetihodinové pilotní lektorské kurzy CLIL, zahájené pod názvem Communities of Practice, zahrnovaly učení se postupům výuky jazyka a obsahu vytyčením a aplikováním terminologického přístupu, což bylo systematizováno ve společně vytvořené instruktážní příručce. Pilotní kurzy byly evaluovány a získané výsledky budou využity při zavádění dalších modulů CLIL v zemi.

Introduction

The goals of increasing plurilingualism and internationalization, including enrolment by foreign students, are conditioned by heavy international competition for

ERASMUS+ foreign students, staff mobility programmes and research funds across Europe. The common response to these contemporary challenges in higher education has been English as an international language (Wilkinson & Walsh 2015: 10). By unifying multilingual course programmes and strengthening intercultural relations, English as a medium of instruction (EMI) is a common solution in the classroom and across Europe (Bowen, 2014; Margić, 2014; Guarda, 2014; Wilkinson, 2014).

Contrasting EMI with Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), however, Morgado and Coelho (2011) found that EMI does not offer support for simultaneous language and content learning. Notably, in Portuguese polytechnic institutes there is less EMI (Morgado et al., 2013) as well as a total lack of experience with Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) at any level of instruction (Morgado and Coelho, 2011). This combination has motivated ReCLes.pt member institutions that are interested in filling this gap with teachers whose efforts are sustained in a viable approach for learning both language and content.

The dual objective in HE in Portugal in the long term, then, is to teach subject specialist teachers how to apply CLIL, using scaffolding and a terminology-based approach, so that they, in turn, can successfully implement CLIL modules in their own classrooms. With guidance, this practice will eventually be extensive to the full semester, as teachers and students alike become accustomed to the approach and more aware of the benefits. These CLIL subjects aim to be more attractive at an international level and, simultaneously, provide opportunities for the Portuguese students to learn English as they learn the subject-specific material.

The common finding in recent research on successful CLIL in HE indicates that teachers must be trained in accordance with the social conditions proscribed by a specific HE context along with teaching strategies for subject-specific language (Dafouz et al., 2007; Chang, 2010; Airey, 2011; Jensen & Thøgersen, 2011). In any CLIL approach, however, the cultural challenge of learning remains since the construction of knowledge differs across languages (Wilkinson & Walsh, 2015: 10; cf. Boroditsky, 2011). Subject teachers need to acquire the specific culture of learning in English so that they can move beyond EMI, the mere translation of the subject teacher's regularly planned class. This culture of learning in a FL involves a broad range of organizational and communication practices related to research and its results as well as the specific terminology and the respective norms for contextualization and collocation.

In the phase of the ReCLes.pt CLIL national study to be discussed in this article, the aim was to determine, through questionnaires, learning logs and interviews, whether the creation of Communities of Practice could serve the purposes of learning how to apply CLIL approaches like scaffolding and how to use a terminology-based approach in a CLIL module taught by subject specialists.

Methods

The initial needs analysis in this three-year study established quantitatively and qualitatively that CLIL should indeed be introduced into participating polytechnics. Further orientation of the design of the study came from the review of the literature and the construction of a bibliographic reference guide. National debates and workshops as well as compromises reached with the specific presidents and directors of the schools/faculties allowed the study to advance.

The six participating polytechnics formed communities of practice of between four and ten subject specialists (for a total of 29) with one to four language specialists (for total of 10) responsible for orienting the training periods. The pilot version of the 10-hour ReCLes.pt CLIL Teacher Training course, which took place in the first semester of 2014–2015, was generally divided into four or five sessions of two to two and a half hours.

The draft version of the *CLIL Training Guide: Creating a CLIL Community in Higher Education* (Morgado et al., 2015) provided the common practical support for developing the activity in the communities of practice. In addition to practical orientation, the materials of the training guide include instruments for assessing the study at every crucial turning point. A 28-question survey based on a six-point Likert scale designed by Arau Ribeiro (2015: 64–65, in Morgado et al., 2015) was completed both before and after the full training course for a comparative and quantitative assessment of the study. Interviews and qualitative learning logs, to be completed by subject specialists and language specialists, were completed after every specific session as tools applied to assess the feedback on the Communities of Practice.

Scaffolding materials were designed by each participating subject specialist for their specific CLIL modules, which took place after and even during the training course. The development of these materials, which took another 20 hours, was developed collaboratively with language specialists, who gauged difficulty and appropriateness of the digital and print activities to be implemented. Further tools created to assess activities implemented by the subject specialists included open-ended written assessment by the students and a teaching log to be completed by the subject specialist.

Results and Discussion

Vital to the decision-making process of the governing bodies of the collaborating polytechnic schools/faculties was the preparation of the collaboratively written *CLIL Training Guide*, which included the materials and evaluation instruments for the pilot training course and subsequent CLIL modules. By facilitating the creation of CLIL modules and materials adapted to particular course areas and preferred

collaborative modes, the guide traces the philosophy, methods, skills, content-based approaches, genres, tools and implementation methodologies. In addition to sustaining the perceived need for CLIL in the participating polytechnics, the needs analysis had determined that the specific contexts, needs and expectations varied across campuses. As a result, although the communities of practice were established and taught with reference to the training guide, flexibility was not only accepted; it was encouraged.

The inevitable sense of shared responsibility of a social constructivist perspective like that of a community of practice considers not only the diverse subject areas but also their specific frames of reference and respective values. Learning the terminology, creating a symbiosis with CLIL pedagogy and accepting a FL as a mediator for content while providing appropriate support in the language itself takes time. All of the participants indicated that 10 hours was simply not enough time and that they were actively learning and contributing to their respective communities of practice.

The long-term benefits were described as optimal learning of social and academic discourse in terms of both language and content. Three Cs were commonly pointed out in the activities of contributing, comparing and contrasting together create an interaction-rich environment. Taken as a subset of the widely known set of four Cs (Coyle 1999; Coyle, Hood & Marsh, 2010), content, cognition, communication, culture, these aspects covered the defining requirements of learning a FL with the CLIL approach. Language users who were given clear opportunities to communicate effectively and interculturally while managing information related to content were asked, simultaneously, to use their cognitive skills to deal with that information.

Scaffolding (Vygotsky, 1934; Walqui, 2006), the visual construction metaphor that describes the temporary support from more competent colleagues and teachers, served to enhance the possibility for acquiring more advanced competencies. By building on their previous competencies and attitudes, scaffolding in this study, has been shown to foster creative and critical thinking, as suggested by Mehisto, Marsh and Frigols (2008).

The subject specialists noted that by highlighting the learning paradigm which focuses on the language learner as a *language user* (Cook, 2002; Morgado & Coelho, 2013; Arau Ribeiro, 2015a), they were less inclined to separate the subject from the linguistic paradigm in their CLIL modules. Focus on the learner as a language user was, however, a clear challenge since, despite the Bologna-instructed guidelines for learner-centred instruction, many subject teachers continue to lecture classes focused on content.

The 33 subject specialists carried out their CLIL modules in a number of areas, specifically Education (two modules), Business (fifteen), Food Science & Hospitality (four), Computer Science (four), Engineering (six) and other Humanities & Social Sciences (two). Eleven of these modules have been thoroughly analysed and students consistently pointed out that, through CLIL, they had been given more realistic opportunities to actually use the language to carry out meaningful tasks more frequently and to manipulate tools in the subject area for tangible objectives. Students noted new teacher behaviour and activities that involved, for example, repackaging information in terminology-based activities, restating classroom instruction in more accessible language and responding more constructively to their different learning styles. Having experienced the benefits of participating in a scaffolded learning environment during the training course, subject teachers readily identified the usefulness of a scaffolded learning environment for themselves and, subsequently, they tended to see the clear advantage of acquiring a variety of strategies to better deal with their own students.

Overall, students described feeling more confident about using English and valued this evidence of the acquisition of competencies in the subject. Some students had never worked with a financial statement in Accounting, for example, yet they successfully completed and presented this essential financial instrument at a simulated meeting in English at the end of the CLIL module. Others noted that seeing images of ecological settings in Environmental Engineering which represented the terminology to be learnt helped them make the visual-verbal connection that is so important in language learning, although it is often pushed aside, deemed too infantile for higher education. Computer Science students faced the task of designing a customised database for a fictitious English monolingual, embodied by the collaborating language specialist throughout the CLIL module; these students were pleasantly surprised to have spontaneously worked out misunderstandings with this difficult client and reported feeling more confident.

Incorporating and justifying the *Communities of Practice* (Wenger 1998) was a further innovation in the ReCLes.pt CLIL study. Commitment to uniting both language specialists and subject teachers in a community of practice is sustained in research specifically in the area of CLIL (Gajo, 2007, in Moore & Dooly, 2010: 76). Like these researchers (Moore & Dooly, 2010; cf. Moate, 2010), all participants also claimed that these local communities of practice provided the ideal conditions for shaping knowledge through the simultaneous negotiation of form and meaning. Teachers especially commented on an improvement in social relations and shared meaning-making with the students themselves, most notably after assessing their own CLIL modules (Arau Ribeiro, 2015b). Rather than a unidirectional teaching environment where the leader/teacher would simply give an activity for the language users/students to carry out, the shared space provided a platform

for discussing personal background, motivation and objectives and identifying the preferred means toward their achievement.

Along with communities of practice and scaffolding, a terminology-based approach – TerminoCLIL – was conceived and adopted. The previous experience of some of our researchers in terminological work was adapted for CLIL purposes and environments, focusing on the collection, description, processing and systematic representation of concepts and their designations within the specialized domain. In the CLIL learning environment, with strong linguistic and extra-linguistic inputs, terms stand out as one of the most important means for students to access and acquire knowledge and competencies. Through the use of that knowledge in a scaffolded process of three different but connected stages (Silva & Albuquerque 2014), the new knowledge is dealt with via strategies of retrieval/organization, application and visualization of knowledge and, subsequently, the progressive acquisition and management of terminology for CLIL.

To support teachers' activity and help accomplish the objectives of acquiring specialized knowledge, a Learning Activity Plan (LAP) based on the approach was also created. Thus, as an initiation to a specialty area, the use of concept maps, word clouds and glossaries was reported to have helped to link concepts and know-how to actual discourse. Both TerminoCLIL and the LAP consider Bloom's Taxonomy of Learning (Silva & Albuquerque, 2014; Bloom, 1956), with terminologically-oriented activities suggested for each level of learning, from Knowledge to Comprehension then Application and Analysis followed by Synthesis and Evaluation. Currently, both the theory and application are being adapted to Bloom's New Taxonomy of Learning based on results in this ReCLes.pt CLIL study.

The CLIL students, who were dealing with a new specific domain in a foreign language, were provided with a way to anchor this knowledge in the domain's terminology. Because TerminoCLIL can be adapted to any given specialized context, teachers particularly found that students were more readily prepared to learn the subject and specialized languages required in their respective areas. Given the dialogical relation of the subject-specific knowledge and language, the mutual benefits resulted first from better access to terminology. Then, managing and manipulating this specialized knowledge through TerminoCLIL activities, the student became notably more organized, structured and classified. Civil Engineering students, for example, who had access to a word cloud based on the European Standard for their area were equipped with the appropriate terminology to engage in conversation about the foundations of buildings. As a result, their discourse about this specialized knowledge was perceived as less ambiguous and more efficient.

Through the blending of strong linguistic and extra-linguistic inputs in the scaffolding activities, students indicated that they were learning to value specific terminology as a means to access and acquire both knowledge and communicative competencies.

Conclusion

ReCLes.pt is in the throes of establishing a well-respected and sought after training programme built upon strong theoretical foundations. By creating a Community of Practice for FL teachers and subject teachers who, due to limited human resources in a financially-restricted country, cannot always count on teaching in conjunction with a language teacher, these subject teachers have been prepared to teach courses with a CLIL-approach, highlighting scaffolding and terminology. The response of the students, the subject specialists and the language specialists has been overwhelmingly positive and the participating faculties have indicated their interest in implementing the training course on a regular basis to guarantee the ongoing teacher training in CLIL in higher education so that students will be able to learn more and more effectively.

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English Language as a Cultural Tool for Intercultural Communication

Zdeněk Janík

Abstract: The article emphasizes the theoretical concept of English as international language extensively used in intercultural communication and presents practical implications of the concept for intercultural learning and teaching. More specifically, the article brings an overview of a course of Intercultural Communication designed for international students at Masaryk University with the goal to facilitate their intercultural communication through development of communicative and intercultural competence.

Key words: English as international language; intercultural communication; intercultural communicative competence

Abstrakt: Článek zdůrazňuje pojetí angličtiny jako mezinárodního jazyka široce užívaného v interkulturní komunikaci a zaměřuje se na praktického využití tohoto pojetí ve výuce interkulturní komunikace. Konkrétněji článek prezentuje předmět interkulturní komunikace vyučovaný na Masarykově univerzitě pro mezinárodní studenty, kteří se učí interkulturní komunikaci v anglickém jazyce prostřednictvím rozvoje komunikativních a interkulturních kompetencí.

Klíčová slova: angličtina jako mezinárodní jazyk; interkulturní komunikace; interkulturní komunikační kompetence

1 Communicative Competence and Culture

Communicative competence was traditionally limited to language proficiency: the knowledge of language, particularly grammar rules, was considered sufficient for a successful exchange of messages. Communication is not, however, so straightforward; it is rather ambiguous. The exchange of messages in communication does not equal the exchange of the same meanings as participants in communication may attach different meanings to the same message.

The ambiguity of language can be quite accurately illustrated by the following story: a businessperson from the United States, having enjoyed a conversation with his counterpart from Hong Kong, said "We must get together and have lunch sometime" when saying goodbye to his colleague from Hong Kong. While the businessperson from Hong Kong was ready to put down the lunch date to his diary, the US American had no such an intention. He meant the words just to indicate that he enjoyed the conversation and that their encounter is about to end. In no way did he feel committed to meet his friend from Hong Kong for lunch (Scollon et al., 2011, pp. 10–11).

The two business partners assigned different meanings to the same message. They relied on their knowledge of English and assumed that the same words in English would be interpreted similarly by both parties in conversation. In doing so, they failed to recognize that they attached their own meanings to the same message. In addition, they did not pay attention to the context of communication, they did not recognize their cultures, and they were not aware of how their own cultural perceptions guided interpretation of the message. Because if they had known the culture and cultural conventions of their business partner and if they had been aware of how their interpretation differed, they would have given a similar meaning to the message "We must get together and have lunch sometime."

Meanings are not given and are not transmitted from one person to another unaltered but rather they are "jointly constructed by the participants in communication" (ibid., p. 11). What makes communication effective is then a sufficient overlap in the meanings: we interpret the messages similarly and thus are able to minimize misunderstandings (Gudykunst, 2004, p. 28). It should be clear by now that communicative competence is incomplete without our knowledge of the cultural context of the participants in communication.

Culture and communication are indeed inseparable, they work in tandem (Samovar & Porter, 2003, p. 7) and "all communication, whether verbal or non-verbal, occurs within cultural frameworks" (Johnson, 2003, p. 194). But what is culture? Following the idea of interdependence of culture and communication and the construction of meanings in communication, this paper emphasizes the concept of culture as a group of people who create and share certain meanings based on their experience, beliefs, worldviews, values and mental patterns (Samovar & Porter, 2003; Scollon et al., 2011). Simply said, members of a cultural group are characterized by patterns of meaning, thinking and behaving, and understanding these patterns will help us become competent in communication with the members of the cultural group. It then follows that language learners, in order to develop their communicative competence in the target language, should become conscious of other cultures, their values and cultural practices (Kostková, 2012, p. 65) and they should enhance their "capacity to understand culturally specific ways of speaking" (Barro et al., 1998, p. 80).

It has become an intrinsic goal of foreign language teaching to introduce the learners to the cultures of the countries where the language is spoken. Students take part in various mobility programmes abroad with the objective to become acquainted with the culture and thus improve their foreign language use. Yet this presupposes that the target culture (i.e. the culture of the speakers of the language in question) is one homogeneous national culture whose members speak the same national language.

But in light of today's global integration and cross-cultural migration, the equation "one native speaker, one language, one national culture" is no longer valid (Kramsch, 1998, p. 26). Consider English language use: there is no single entity such as Anglo-Saxon culture, but diversity of English speaking countries and cultures whose members speak different varieties of English. What is more, as Kramsch has observed, it is becoming more and more difficult to associate English language use with geographically and culturally delimited native speakers of English as English has become an international language, "the *lingua franca* between people who do not speak each other's national languages" (ibid., p. 23). Consequently, learners of English cannot "model themselves on native speakers with respect to the learning about and acquiring an understanding of another culture" (Byram et al., 2011, p. 5). Given the plurality and diversity of English language and the cultural contexts in which English is used, whose cultural practices should English language learners acquire to be communicatively competent? To answer this question, the context of English language use needs to be redefined.

2 English as International Language in Intercultural Communication

We have agreed that English is an international language (EIL). For speakers of other languages, EIL is a *cultural tool* they borrow to interact with people from different cultures (cf. Scollon et al., 2011). Communication between people from different national cultures is called intercultural communication (Gudykunst, 2002, p. 179). The context of intercultural communication varies depending on the participants in conversation, their relationships and their membership in particular cultural groups.

Let us take into closer consideration the question of group membership. It is believed that membership of a national culture is the predominant factor defining intercultural communication (Byram&Fleming, 1998; Gudykunst, 2002, 2004). Intercultural communication therefore focuses on cultural identity - the self-concepts of individuals as having certain cultural traits (e.g., a set of beliefs about the world, values, thought patterns) that characterize them as members of a national culture vis-à-vis members of other national cultures. It is assumed that participants in intercultural communication view themselves and others primarily as Czechs, Chinese, or Americans and the similarities and differences they see in one another are attributed to their membership in their national culture. Yet we simultaneously participate in many groups based not only on our nationality, but also gender, age, profession, family background and so forth. We should not, therefore, presuppose that it is always cultural identity derived from membership in a national culture that predominates in intercultural communication, because the enactment of a particular identity by participants in communication depends on their specific relationships in the situation. It could be their personal identity characterized by individual traits they share or social identity derived from their membership in the same profession that can guide their interaction in a given situation (Janík Z., 2014).

In order to develop their communicative competence, EIL learners need to recognize the rich and diversified context of intercultural communication. Their EIL use must be supplemented by learning how different group memberships and relationships give rise to different cultural practices of interaction and different interpretations. Thus the learners, as intercultural speakers of English, will develop their intercultural competence.

3 Intercultural Communicative Competence

Let us summarize the main ideas so far: the way we construct and interpret messages is a function of our multiple group membership and relationships with others in interaction. What meanings we assign to messages depends on how we see ourselves and others, their behaviour and the way they send messages to us. Intercultural communication is effective when misunderstandings are minimized and a sufficient overlap in meanings is reached.

Intercultural communicative competence (ICC) sets the path towards effective intercultural communication by emphasizing the concept of otherness and appreciation of differences: the ability "to interact with others, to accept other perspectives and perceptions of the world, to mediate between different perspectives" (Byram&Fleming, 1998, p. 5) should help us recognize and understand others and their meanings. Recognition of other realities, rather than the assumption that we are all the same, coupled with knowledge of multiple cultures and identities will enhance our capacity to "discover and relate to new people from other context" (ibid., p. 12).

Awareness of others' perspectives and styles of communication will enable us "to select those forms of accuracy and those forms of appropriateness that are called for in a given social context use" (Kramsch, 1998, p. 27). It would be wrong, however, to infer that ICC strictly means knowing which conventional expression to use in a specific situation. Given the complexity of the context of intercultural communication, ICC implies awareness and recognition of varieties. In Begley's words, "understanding that greetings vary according to culture helps us speak with people from diverse backgrounds" (2003, p. 409).

Recognition and understanding of otherness is not accomplished by means of "mere exposure to experience of a different culture" (Byram et al., 2001, p. 4). Contact and identification with otherness must involve awareness of similarities and differences, knowledge of others' cultures, use of skills that will clear up misunderstandings, attitudes that will lower communication barriers and support

competent foreign language use. What is being connected here is development of intercultural competence – cultural awareness, knowledge, skills, and attitudes (Byram, & Fleming, 1998, 2001) with development of communicative competence in a foreign language.

The goal of foreign language learning is then two-fold: improving learners' communicative competence (1) and developing their intercultural competence (2) (Kostková, 2012, p. 65). Communicative and intercultural competence are interdependent and by developing both the competences learners attain intercultural communicative competence (ibid., p. 107).

4 Developing Intercultural Communicative Competence in the Course of Intercultural Communication

This chapter describes the components of intercultural competence and explains how the students in the course of Intercultural Communication deepen their cultural awareness, acquire knowledge, utilize appropriate skills, and develop desirable attitudes in order to become competent intercultural speakers of English.

The course of Intercultural Communication was created to help international students studying at Masaryk University integrate into the international community at the university. Knowing that vast majority of the students communicate internationally in English I followed the goal to train the students in communicative competence with an emphasis on the intercultural context of their communication. Development of intercultural communicative competence lies in the centre of the training. The course takes place every semester on a weekly basis in the form of a two-hour seminar, which limits the class capacity to thirty students. Since 2010 almost two hundred students have participated. The students come from countries across the globe but most of them are European students on Erasmus mobility enrolled in different study programmes at the faculties of Masaryk University. This year the course has been opened to Czech students, reflecting the need for their inclusion in an intercultural environment that will enhance their intercultural competence along with communicative competence in English.

4.1 Cultural Awareness

Although all the components of intercultural competence – cultural awareness, knowledge, skills and attitudes – are interrelated, i.e. one will not contribute to intercultural communicative competence without the other, it is the component of cultural awareness that sets the basis for and augments the development of the other components (Kostková, 2012, p. 75).

Cultural awareness means becoming aware of our own culture and how this influences our communication behaviour (e.g. the choice of style of communication)

and interpretations of realities, including views of others. We are normally not aware of our own culture in context that is familiar to us: we presuppose that the members of our group share the same meanings of values and worldviews and express them the same way as we do. But when we encounter members of other cultures we start noticing differences between their and our own culture. This is because we unconsciously use our own cultural frame of reference to interpret new or unfamiliar behaviour and meanings arising in intercultural communication. Shortly said that we see the others through the lenses of our culture.

Cultural awareness has been understood as an ability to critically evaluate "perspectives, practices and products in one's own and other cultures and countries (...) by making learners' values explicit" (Byram et al., 2001, p. 7). Prior to evaluating other cultures, one must reflect on (i.e. make explicit) one's own culture (identities, values, cultural perceptions, etc.) in order to relate one's own culture to cultures of others. We first need to be aware of how our culture influences us and our perceptions of others in intercultural communication and how our culture accounts for the differences in meanings exchanged in intercultural communication. Only then can we approach learning about and critically evaluating others' cultures.

In the class of Intercultural Communication the students become aware of their own culture through activities designed to reveal more about how they view themselves (self-concepts) when interacting with others. Since all the students are international, and they are seated in the classroom so that none of them speaks with a classmate of the same language group or national culture, their group or pair-based discussions in English are truly intercultural. Through reasoning about their identities the students come to realize their multiple group memberships and that they have unique personality traits (personal identity), for instance, being enrolled in different classes (social identity of a student) or coming from different countries (cultural identity). Having acknowledged their multiple identities, they then can see how they enact their identities in intercultural communication. Their first encounters and conversations mostly start with the question 'Where are you from?' (Z.Janík 2014). By asking this question they look for geographical links, searching for meanings by exploring their commonalities and differences across their cultures. It is precisely the cultural identity that guides their interaction here: the students are driven by curiosity and interest in learning about other cultures. Gradually, their communication will be guided by their social identities, when they exchange messages and share meanings as students of the same major or residents of the same dormitory, and eventually it can be their personal desires and interests as well as their personal traits that they will reveal to others in communication. The goal is to make students aware of how their identities affect choice of meanings they assign to messages exchanged in intercultural communication. The students will, among others, realize that misunderstanding might not have its cause in personality differences (she does not speak much because she is shy and perhaps she can't even speak English well) but in cultural differences (she is rather quiet and does not express her views as openly as I do because she comes from a different culture).

The students further conceptualize their awareness of cultural identity by exploring their perception of cultural differences. For example, the students describe (first alone, then in groups) incomplete and sketchy drawings of people involved in various activities (see Hofstede et al., 2002, pp. 8–11) and find out how their perceptions of the same picture differ as a result of their culturally-induced interpretations. They learn how their ethnocentric perspectives make them see others' cultures as different. Awareness of one's own culture intrinsically entails awareness of one's own ethnocentrism – cultural filters leading us to judge others' cultures from the perspective or centre of our own culture¹ – and is the precondition for learning about and evaluating others' cultures in relation to our culture.

4.2 Knowledge of cultures

Knowledge of cultures implies the knowledge of cultural practices and products in one's own and in one's interlocutor's culture (Byram et al., 2011, p. 6). Attaining such knowledge will shed more light into cultural misunderstandings arising in communication between interlocutors of different cultures (ibid.).

Before teaching the students about other cultures, the course of Intercultural Communication first explains the *cognitive* aspect of learning about other cultures. It builds on the students' cultural awareness, including awareness of their ethnocentric attitudes, to bring the students to a realization of what they first notice when encountering others. They mostly see differences in language use and communication behaviour: for example, turn-taking is indicated by long or short pauses, different non-verbal signals are used to express agreement, some cultures tolerate silence in conversation more than others, and some interlocutors communicate rather indirectly. In short, they see the external culture of others. However, the objective of culture learning in the course is to go under the surface of the visible culture and study cultural values that explain why people communicate and behave the way they do².

The students study the cultural roots of behaviour and communication patterns of members of other cultures by means of exploring others' cultural values, worldviews, and believes. Guidance in their exploration is provided by Geert Hofstede's theory of cultural dimensions (Hofstede et al., 2002). The following is just a brief

 $^{^{1}}$ For a definition of ethnocentrism, see for example Samovar & Porter, 2003, pp. 6–17; Begley, 2003, pp. 406–411.

² Compare with the Iceberg Analogy of Culture (Morgan, 1998, pp. 224–241).

overview of the theory, as it would be beyond the scope of this paper to present the cultural dimensions in detail. The cultural dimensions - identity, hierarchy, gender, truth, virtue - have been applied in many studies as cultural variability explaining similarities and differences across national cultures (e.g., Gudykunst, 2004). Each of the dimensions has its two opposites: for example, the dimension of identity on the one side is expressed by collectivism, its opposite conveys individualism; hierarchy signifies large power distance, whereas its opposite small power distance, and so forth. The assumption is that most of the world's national cultures inclines to one of the dimension opposites. Following the dimension of identity and hierarchy, Japanese culture tends to collectivism, which in terms of values is defined by giving preference to a group and group harmony over single individuals and their needs and interests, and large power distance, which means respecting authority based on age (seniority) or socio-economic status. US national culture, on the other hand, moves towards the opposite extreme of identity, encompassing individualism with its values of independence, self-reliance, and the privilege of individual before the group. Likewise, the US value of contract based, rather than authority based relationships suggest that the national culture as a whole is characterized by small power distance (for more see Hofstede et al., 2002, pp. 91–113; Gudykunst, 2004, pp. 59–67).

The students use their knowledge of cultural dimensions as a tool to understand the events in external culture, mainly differences in communication behaviour across cultures. So far they have learnt that miscommunication might not have its roots in incompetent English language use, but in their assigning different meanings to messages or using different styles of communication. They further learn that as members of a collectivistic culture they are conditioned to use high--context communication or, they may come from individualistic culture in which low-context communication is more valued³. The students then go under the surface of external culture to find out that it is the cultural value of group harmony and priority of group over an individual that does not allow the members of collectivistic culture to stand out and express their thoughts and opinions directly as the individualistic culture of English speaking countries, with its emphasis on direct style of communication and expressing personal opinion, would have them to do.4 Similarly, the students will recognize that long pauses in turn-taking among English speakers from collectivistic culture (e.g. Japanese) do not necessarily signify incapacity in English language use; rather, the pauses might point to

³ High-context communication very simply means preferring implicit code, that is not expressing ideas directly in words but deriving meanings of messages from the context and having internalized understandings of messages and their meanings. In low-context communication interlocutors rely on the explicit code and express ideas and meanings directly (Hall, 1976).

⁴ This approach to acquiring knowledge of cultures is inspired by Gudykunst's theory combining Hofstede's cultural dimensions with Hall's concept of high-context and low-context cultures (Gudykunst, 2004, pp. 57–79).

the Japanese value of silence, an indirectly conveying agreement or disagreement in high-context communication (Janík, 2013).

The students thus immediately apply their knowledge of cultures (namely cultural values as conceptualized in the theory of cultural dimensions) to understand cultural differences in verbal and non-verbal communication and to clarify misunderstandings. In short, the students do not just acquire new knowledge of cultures but operate that knowledge by means of certain skills that help them overcome barriers in communication.

4.3 Skills

Imagine a situation in which a Japanese student asks his American classmate out for dinner. The American student will get confused because she expects her counterpart, based on her knowledge of Japanese collectivistic culture, to communicate indirectly. What is more, the American will evaluate her classmate's behaviour as impolite, believing that there must be something wrong with her classmate to express her thoughts so openly and in a way that is out of the Japanese cultural norm. Yet the Japanese decided to communicate directly precisely because this is the norm in the American individualistic culture. Knowledge of their corresponding cultures did not prevent the two from misunderstanding.

Therefore, besides cultural awareness and knowledge of cultures, intercultural speakers of English "need to be able to see how misunderstandings can arise, and how they might be able to resolve them" (Byram et al., 2001, p. 6). They should develop their skills of interpreting an event from another culture, to explain it and relate it to events from their own culture (ibid.).

Before the students reach this stage of Intercultural Communication learning, they become aware of how their cultural perceptions and ethnocentric perspectives can affect their interpretation of other cultures. Further, having gained new knowledge of cultures, they create expectations of members of other cultures and their behaviour. The next step for the students is to realize that not all of the people who belong to one culture are the same and that such stereotyping may create barriers in intercultural communication, as the misunderstanding between the American and Japanese student exemplified. Likewise, becoming aware of their multiple-group membership and acknowledging multiple identities in others, the students see that they are not fully defined by membership in one single group and develop an ability to be flexible in their opinions of others and to be ready to adjust their expectations.

The intercultural communicative skills the students develop are the following: an ability to be mindful, to tolerate ambiguity, and an ability to empathize (Gudykunst, 2004, pp. 253–263). When in intercultural communication, the students try

to be mindful of the communication process per se, rather than focusing on the outcome that incites their expectations of others' interpretations. They are open to new information and perspectives, rather than let themselves to be constrained by stereotypes. Lastly, they are empathetic by striving to see the world from others' perspectives. The students are then able to more accurately assess which differences lead to misunderstandings.

The students minimize misunderstandings by clarifying meanings during conversation. Therefore, the skills are developed along with communicative competence in English. Following Gudykunst's strategies of effective listening (2004, pp. 184 to 185), the students paraphrase in their own words what others say in order to be sure they do not misinterpret others' meanings (1); during intercultural conversation they are encouraged to ask probing questions and use phrases such as 'I want to make sure I understand what you're saying...' (2); they learn how to indicate verbally (using listener-noise such as 'hmm', 'yeah', 'I see') and non--verbally (through body posture and eye-contact) that they are involved in the conversation and interested in what other participants say (3).

It is essential that the students have reached cultural awareness, gained better insight into other cultures, understood the influence of multiple identities on their enactment in intercultural communication before they practice the skills designed to make their intercultural communication effective.

4.4 Attitudes

Attitudes involve "curiosity and openness, readiness to suspend disbeliefs about other cultures and belief about one's own", which means for one to have a will "to relativize one's own values, beliefs and behaviours" (Byram, 2001 et al., p. 5).

The course of Intercultural Communication does not 'teach' attitudes desirable for the development of intercultural communicative competence, believing that prompting the students into adjusting their attitudes may inhibit their autonomy in development of intercultural communicative competence. Therefore, the course of Intercultural Communication only facilitates the students' curiosity about other cultures and relativizing their cultural perspectives with the goal to develop self-respect and respect for otherness.

Most of the students come from countries across the globe and while studying at Masaryk University they experience intercultural communication in English on a daily basis: in classrooms, the canteen, the dormitory, when shopping, asking for directions, and so forth. In the class of Intercultural Communication the students study the theories that help them reflect, analyze, and interpret their intercultural experience. This method of experiential learning enables the students to apply knowledge from the classroom immediately in their intercultural reality. The students keep a record of their experiential learning in Reflective Journals – written assignments they are asked to write and submit throughout the course. In the Reflective Journals the students observe the development of their intercultural communicative competence. For instance, in the first Reflective Journal they deepen their cultural awareness by paying attention to their identities and how these guide their intercultural communication. Based on the relevant theories they answer the following questions: How do you see yourself when you communicate with members of other cultures? Is it your personal, social, or cultural identity that guides your communication? How do your identities influence your intercultural communication? In other journals the students' task is to focus on their ethnocentric perspectives and write how ethnocentrism affects their intercultural talks, or they reflect on their stereotypes and what they do in order to decrease the effect of stereotypes on intercultural communication. In the last Reflective Journal the students systematically apply the skill of mindfulness and empathy to see whether they can minimize misunderstandings. Finally, on concluding their study of Intercultural Communication, the students in final essays evaluate how their reflections of intercultural experience described in their Reflective Journals have contributed to the development of their intercultural competence. Such introspective learning leads the students to questioning and perhaps also changing their attitudes towards a greater appreciation of differences and recognition of otherness.

Conclusion

Learning English as an international language does not emphasize acquiring knowledge of grammar rules; rather, the goal of EIL learning is an appropriate use as well as development of English as a cultural tool in communication with members of other cultures. In the context of intercultural communication English learners develop their communicative competence only if they simultaneously develop their intercultural competence, namely awareness of one's own and others' cultures and their influence on intercultural communication (1), knowledge of the deep structures of one's own and others' cultures that explain the outer behaviour and patterns in communication (2), skills to minimize and resolve misunderstandings arising in intercultural communication (3), and attitudes encouraging self-respect and respect to others and their cultures (4).

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Bionote

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Videoconferencing in ESP Classes: Learner-Centred Approach

Judit Háhn and Irena Podlásková

Abstract: The integration of videoconferencing (VC) into ESP education provides an opportunity for the combination of collaborative learning, autonomous learning and cross-cultural communication via social media and ICT implementation. Videoconferencing encourages students to take responsibility for their own learning in order to achieve a successful outcome of the whole session and enables them to apply varied project-based concepts. Instructors usually remain in the background during the lesson but take an active role in the preparation. The focus is on student-student interaction both in the VC classroom and in social media activities.

The authors describe their first-hand experience as teachers of joint VC Business English sessions arranged between the University of Pardubice, Czech Republic and the University of Pécs, Hungary. By sharing the lessons learnt, they aim to help teachers interested in organizing similar, cross-cultural ESP sessions. Students' views are presented on the learning experience, discussion topics, and recommended modifications. The authors show the outcomes based on students' feedback, and provide some suggestions as to the suitability of the videoconferencing concept for ESP classes.

Key words: videoconferencing, learner-centred approach, collaborative learning, autonomous learning, cross-cultural communication

Abstrakt: Integrace videokonferenčních modulů do hodin odborné angličtiny (ESP) nabízí možnost kombinace kolaborativního i autonomního učení spolu s prvky interkulturní komunikace prostřednictvím sociálních médií. Autorky popisují své zkušenosti z videokonferenčních hodin, prezentují výsledky na základě zpětné vazby studentů a nabízejí doporučení týkající se vhodnosti videokonferenčního konceptu pro výuku odborné angličtiny.

Introduction

Videoconferencing (VC) is not a new concept in the field of education. Interactive videoconferencing has been integrated into traditional practices from kindergarten to post-graduate levels since the 2000s (cf. Invite project 2006–2008; O'Dowd, 2006; Anastasiades, 2010; Wu et al., 2011; Hradilová and Chovancová, 2012; Denksteinová and Podlásková, 2013; Jung, 2013; Bensafa, 2014; Eguchi, 2014; Hopper, 2014). With the help of a camera, microphones, loudspeakers, screens and IP connection, learners can have joint live lessons with another group of learners at a distant location. Owing to its interactive potential, videoconferencing seems to be a tool that could widely be applied in foreign language education. It offers scope for international collaboration in both EFL and ESP settings.

In the spring of 2014, joint ESP lessons were arranged for the second-year BA students studying at the University of Pardubice, Czech Republic and the University of Pécs, Hungary.¹ The lessons were integrated into Business English courses with the aim to provide an opportunity for the students to practise English, to meet other cultures and to experience participating in VC held in a foreign language. Two mixed nationality groups of students were formed and three VC sessions were organized for each group. All participating students were asked to fill in a questionnaire allowing them to critically reflect on the benefits and drawbacks of VCs. The goal was to explore whether VC sessions were seen as beneficial learning environments by the students. In addition, the respondents were encouraged to recommend topics that they would find suitable for such discussions, and make suggestions on how the sessions could be made more efficient.

In this paper, the authors will first discuss the application and benefits of videoconferencing in teaching English based on previous research and practices. After that, they will present their own findings.

Videoconferencing in EFL and ESP

Regarding the practice of EFL, videoconferencing can break the traditional routine of classroom teaching. Students can meet either native or non-native speakers, which can increase their motivation and help envision themselves as members of a cosmopolitan international society (Dörnyei, 2005). English is a world language so the motivation for language learning can originate from meetings with non-native speakers so that a 'cosmopolitan, globalized world citizen identity' can develop (Dörnyei, 2005: 97). Research on EFL videoconferences with native speakers (Wu et al. 2011) and non-native speakers (Jung, 2013) has proved that these sessions raised students' confidence and motivation levels.

The results of the EU-funded Invite project (Leonardo da Vinci Programme) also support the benefits of videoconferencing in the teaching of English as a foreign language. The project, which was initiated by Masaryk University, Brno, in the Czech Republic and the University of Wales in Aberystwyth, UK, aimed at developing an innovative, comprehensive programme for the application of videoconferencing in the cooperation of professional and educational environments and cultures (Invite 2006-2008). One of its main goals was to provide teaching methods, guides, and learning materials for VC sessions. The results were disseminated at several conferences (cf. Morgan et al., 2007; Budíková et al., 2008; Hradilová et al., 2008; Morgan, 2008; Štepánek and Hradilová, 2008), and also shared on the

 $^{^{}m 1}$ The cooperation between the University of Pardubice and the University of Pécs started as a modification of the videoconferencing model previously carried out between the University of Pardubice, Czech Republic and Haaga-Helia, University of Applied Science in Helsinki, Finland in 2013. The authors adapted the concept for their joint VC Business English sessions.

website of the Invite project (http://invite.cjv.muni.cz/index.html). The outcome of the project fills a gap in VC methodology since it also comprises handbooks with sample VC lesson plans, tasks for videoconferencing skills training courses and quick guides on the structuring and management of the sessions. The booklet written by Hradilová, Chovancová and Vincent (2012) takes a similar, practical approach by sharing videoconferencing exercises developed for the students of law.

Videoconferencing offers a learner-centred approach (Denksteinová & Podlásková, 2013): it supports learner autonomy, independent learning, and collaborative learning. The focus is on the language learner, who needs to seek, collect, organize, present and share information in a foreign language, using online and live digital connection. The teacher is mostly a facilitator in this process. This does not mean, however, less work and preparation. O'Dowd (2006) suggests that the success of videoconferencing sessions is largely determined by the time and energy devoted to the preparation and planning of activities. He also emphasizes the importance of creating pre- and post-videoconferencing tasks, with the aim to make participants get to know each other before the actual sessions and let them reflect upon the experience after the meetings.

Videoconferencing provides a platform for both collaborative learning and project-based learning (cf. Dooly, 2007 and Hopper, 2014). Each group member takes individual responsibility in the accomplishment of the given assignment and contributes with the output of his work to the success of the project. There is interdependence between the members: they take responsibility for their part and are aware that their performance influences the final, joint outcome (cf. Dooly, 2007). When collaborative learning is combined with the application of ICT tools, the situation will be close to workplace experience (Dooly, 2007: 217). In addition to practising the foreign language, students will acquire skills that are more and more in demand in the job market: creative thinking, planning, time-management, synchronous and asynchronous workgroup collaboration, and joint problem-solving via the use of technology (cf. Dooly, 2007). Collaboration with members of another culture towards a common goal also enhances the development of intercultural understanding and tolerance (Allport, 1979, cited in O'Dowd 2007: 5).

Reports on cross-cultural EFL videoconferencing have confirmed that these discussions can trigger active communication in English. Based on the comparison of uni-cultural and cross-cultural VC meetings, Eguchi (2014) found that the lack of information about the other culture can motivate students to participate and ask questions.

Especially in ESP, videoconferencing has great potential. On the one hand, it can offer a solution to practising professional or vocational meetings in English. Stu-

dents can meet both native and non-native speakers, groups of fellow students, professionals or experts that are located at a distance. On the other hand, it can also provide an opportunity for international, cross-cultural experience. Technology-enhanced ESP has further benefits; Butler-Pascoe (2009), for instance, point outs that it supports critical thinking, and utilizes authentic materials in an interactive, collaborative way.

Research aim and questions

Thus, it can be assumed that interactive videoconferencing is an ideal alternative to traditional, classroom-based language learning. It is a learner-centred and collaborative approach, with the teacher acting mostly as a planner and facilitator. However, the authors were interested to know whether students with no previous experience in videoconferencing agreed with the beneficial aspects after participating in three sessions. The purpose was to explore if the students themselves saw VC sessions as a good way of practising English and felt that they could learn more than in a traditional Business English lesson. The students were asked to describe what they liked the most and the least about videoconferencing and recommend modifications for improvement and topics for future discussions.

The research questions were as follows:

- 1. Do students find videoconferencing a good way of learning English?
- 2. What do students like the most and the least about videoconferencing?
- 3. What topics would students suggest for discussion?
- 4. How do students think the sessions could be more efficient?

The authors believe that the findings may be useful for teachers who are interested in organizing similar sessions in the future.

Preparation

Three videoconferencing sessions were planned for the spring term of 2014, each comprising two sixty-minute meetings involving approximately 8 students on each side. Several months before the first videoconference, the authors met via Skype regularly to discuss the number of sessions, dates, timing, bookings, content and specific instructions. Facebook was chosen as the communication platform for student-to-student and teacher-to-student interaction and a page called ParPecs was set up. This page contained two closed groups, and both Czech and Hungarian students were invited to join the relevant mixed nationality groups using their current Facebook accounts before the first VC session. The preparation stage also included the introduction of the videoconferencing concept in the preceding face-to-face classes dealing with the chairperson's role, discussion rules, politeness

issues and intercultural aspects. In accordance with the suggestions of O'Dowd (2006), the teachers felt it essential to start planning in advance and to provide guidelines for the participants beforehand.

The three VC meetings focused on introductions and university matters, problem solving and intercultural communication. Before the first videoconferencing session the students were asked to prepare their brief personal introduction on Facebook, together with one question relating to their partners' university (see Figure 1). The questions were subsequently answered and further discussed during the initial session.



Fig. 1: Profile example from the first videoconference

For the second videoconferencing session students had to find a problem they faced at their own university which they would like to be solved. They prepared a short presentation explaining the problem and asking the other side for a solution or some suggestions. The presentation was uploaded to Facebook before the second videoconferencing session. Both sides familiarized themselves with the relevant problem, prepared some suggestions and presented them during the sessions. These suggestions were either accepted or refused by the presenting side and many proposals provoked further discussion. The second VC was thus a platform for joint problem-solving with the aim to simulate real business meetings and to facilitate intercultural understanding and tolerance (cf. Allport, 1979, cited in O'Dowd 2007: 5).

The final videoconferencing session dealt with intercultural issues. Each student in the group prepared one question dealing with various cultural aspects, e.g. humour, education, cultural heritage and others. The list of questions was uploaded to Facebook and answers to these questions were given during the session.

Methods

A questionnaire of 13 questions was given to students at the end of the final VC session. The main background variables were the place of studies, gender, and the knowledge of English (listening, writing, reading, and speaking skills) based on self-evaluation.

The first main section of the questionnaire focused on students' agreement with seven statements on the beneficial aspects of videoconferencing. The first three focused on the aspect of the language learning experience: (1) *VC sessions are a good way of practising English*, (2) *I was more active in VC lessons than in a traditional lesson*, (3) *I could learn more in VC lessons than in a traditional lesson*. The next two involved statements on the assistance received during the preparation phase: (4) *I received enough help and guidance from the teacher before the VC sessions*, (5) *The Facebook group helped me prepare for the sessions*. The final two statements focused on the intercultural experience and students' willingness to participate in other VC sessions the future: (6) *VC sessions are ideal for meeting and learning about cultures*, (7) I *would be ready to participate in more VC sessions*. Students had to rate the statements on a Likert-scale from 1 to 5 (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree).

In the second section of the questionnaire, open-ended questions were raised on what students liked the most and the least about videoconferencing, which session they enjoyed the most, what topics they preferred, how they believed the sessions could be made more efficient, and what suggestions they had for the topics to be discussed. They also had to rate their overall impression of videoconferencing on a scale from 1 to 5 (1 = very bad, 5 = very good).

Student feedback

All the students came to the videoconferencing sessions without any previous experience in similar meetings conducted either in their mother tongue or in English. The responses were thus made only on the basis of their experience from the three meetings.

The students' general impression of videoconferencing was good, rated at 3.9 on average. With regard to the beneficial aspects, the students agreed that videoconferencing was a good way of practising English; they found the sessions also ideal for meeting and learning about new cultures. Most of them agreed with the

Tab. 1: Students' rate of agreement with statements on videoconferencing (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree)

Beneficial aspects	Rate of agreement
VC sessions are a good way of practising English	4.3
I was more active in VC lessons than in a traditional lesson	3.1
I could learn more in VC lessons than in a traditional lesson	2.9
I received enough help and guidance from the teacher before the VC sessions	4.4
The Facebook group helped me prepare for the sessions	3.9
VC sessions are ideal for meeting and learning about other cultures	3.8
I would be ready to participate in more VC sessions	3.6

statement that 'I would be ready to participate in more VC sessions'. Regarding the efficiency of learning and active participation, however, they seemed to be undecided in judging whether they could learn more or were more active than in a traditional lesson. Table 1 illustrates the rate of their agreement with the statements.

The results suggest that students did not necessarily feel that videoconferencing increased the level of their activity or provided a better language learning experience. Regarding the background variables, it was found that students who assessed their speaking skills as being poor agreed slightly less with the statements about the benefits of videoconferencing sessions than students who stated they had good or very good speaking skills in English (see Table 2).

Tab. 2: Speaking skills and students' rate of agreement with statements on videoconferencing (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree)

	Beneficial aspects	
Rate of agreement	Poor speaking skills	Good speaking skills
VC sessions are a good way of practising English	4.1	4.5
I was more active in VC lessons than in a traditional lesson	2.6	3.5
I could learn more in VC lessons than in a traditional lesson	2.7	3.3
I received enough help and guidance from the teacher before the VC sessions	4.1	4.6
The Facebook group helped me prepare for the sessions	3.9	4.0
VC sessions are ideal for meeting and learning about other cultures	3.4	4.1
I would be ready to participate in more VC sessions	3.1	4.1
Total average	3.4	4.1

Although those with not so strong English speaking skills also agreed that videoconferencing was a good way of practising the language, they did not feel that they had been more active than in a traditional lesson and most of them were undecided about whether they would be ready to participate in more sessions. Students with good or very good speaking skills felt that they had been more active and agreed that they would be interested in more VC sessions. In general, they were more in agreement with the benefits of videoconferencing, especially with the statement that it is a good way of practising English.

In their answers to the question 'What did you like most about VC sessions?', the intercultural and interactive aspects were mentioned by most of the students. They enjoyed being able to practise English in a relaxed atmosphere, by talking to fellow students from another country. The fact that they found themselves in a new learning environment, working autonomously and collaboratively to prepare for the lessons, was a new experience. As one of the students noted, 'We had to organize ourselves without the participation of the teacher'. The chance to practise English without the stress of being corrected was also mentioned as an advantage: 'we didn't have to speak right'. They also commented on the Facebook group, saying that 'it was the best choice to make efficient interaction'.

Regarding the least favoured features of VC, the passivity of some participants was mentioned by several students. One of the respondents even noted that speaking should have been compulsory for all participants to eliminate inactiveness. Other critical remarks commented on the relatively big group size: it seemed to be difficult for them to manage the conversation between two groups of 7–10 students. There were also comprehension problems because of speakers' accents or the use of microphones. Both Czech and Hungarian students mentioned in their answers that there were differences in preparation levels: Czech students put more effort into preparing for the sessions than Hungarians, which resulted in both groups feeling a bit uncomfortable at the meetings.

The session that the majority of participants (70%) enjoyed the most was the third one, when intercultural topics were discussed. According to their answers, the atmosphere was the most relaxed since students were already familiar with both the situation and the groups shown to them on the screen. As one student commented, 'it was easier to talk because we already knew a lot about each other'.

Students were also asked to share their suggestions on how videoconferencing sessions could be made more efficient. The main points made can be summarized as follows:

- · choose interesting topics for discussion,
- the chairperson should involve everyone in the conversation,
- the teacher should motivate the students to be more active and talkative,
- · smaller groups should be organized.

The recommended topics for discussion fell into the following categories:

- topics related to hobbies and free time activities.
- business or economics related issues.
- current issues (news).
- no fixed topic students can choose.

The suggestions on group size, topics, the role of the chairperson and the role of the teacher indicate that students hold it important that the meetings be interactive. Communication between groups of students could be enhanced by changes in groups size, topic choice and the preparation of the chairperson.

Lessons learnt

Based on the experience of the teachers and the feedback received from the students, it can be claimed that these meetings proved to be useful both as platforms for language practice and cross-cultural collaboration.

Although most of the students found videoconferencing a good way of learning English, they were less certain whether they could learn more or were more active than in a traditional lesson. Especially students with not so good speaking skills in English seemed to have doubts about their activity and learning experience. Most of them seemed to be more undecided about whether they would be ready to participate again than students who assessed their speaking skills as good or very good. This suggests that videoconferencing might not lead to more active participation or better learning experience in the case of all participants. The level of foreign language knowledge can influence to what extent participants see the benefits of these lessons.

Regarding the topics, it was interesting to see that students either supported topics for everyday discussion or suggested more profession-related topics. They also proposed that they should be allowed to choose topics for VC. This is an important aspect that teachers working on topics and tasks for videoconferencing should consider. If students are more actively involved in the planning phase with regard to topic choice as well, they will probably be even more interested and committed. When working on the lesson plans, teachers should also consult the useful quick videoconferencing guides and handbooks that were prepared and published within the frameworks of the Invite project (Invite 2006–2008). All of them are available on the website of the project (http://invite.cjv.muni.cz/results.html). In addition, teachers could also develop their own VC lesson plans and tasks, especially in the field of Business English, similarly to the collection written for the students of law (Hradilová and Chovancová, 2012).

In their suggestions on the improvement of VC sessions, students confirmed the importance of the chairperson in managing the discussion. Selected chairpersons in the groups play a vital role for the successful outcome of the sessions. They act

as the bridging or linking factor in the conversation. The students selected to play this role should possess beside the necessary language skills also natural leadership skills, the ability to delegate tasks and be sensitive, polite and respectful.

Students also commented that attention should be paid to everybody's active participation. They suggested smaller groups and more teacher control to enhance this. The possible passivity of the participants can indeed hinder the flow of information exchange (Dooly, 2007: 230). Moreover, the management of the discourse can also be problematic (cf. 0'Conaill et al., 1993) because groups of participants talk to each other via the screen.

The authors believe that videoconferencing is suited mainly for teachers willing to apply the learner-centred approach. The most important aspects that should be considered during the planning phase are students' speaking skills in English, topic choice and lesson planning, the preparation of the chairperson and the active involvement of all the participants.

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Bionote

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Reflections on ICT Innovations of an Online Literature Course

Antonín Zita

Abstract: The paper discusses the ICT innovations implemented in an online literature course. The course, ENGL 228.599: American Literature Civil War to Present, was taught by Professor Amy Earhart at Texas A&M University for three semesters – from spring 2012 to spring 2013 – and during the last two semesters the author served as her TA. ENGL 228 was a joint project the Department of English (DoP) and University Writing Center (UWC) with the aim to convert a face-to-face course into an online course. In addition, the goal of the course was to improve students' collaboration and research skills synchronize with UWC tutors. Using an analysis of results from the spring 2012 semester, combining it with the author's experiences as a TA during the following two semesters and providing a closing report by DoP and UWC on the successfulness of the project, the research provides valuable information on improving online courses through best practice and writing center tutors.

Key words: ICT; innovations; online course; developing student skills; course development

Abstrakt: Tento článek popisuje ICT inovace a jejich obměny a úpravy při převedení kurzu americké literatury na Texas A&M University do jeho online podoby. Článek vychází z podrobné analýzy po prvním semestru výuky, autorových osobních zkušeností během dalších dvou semestrů kurzu a následné závěrečné zprávy o úspěšnosti kurzu, čímž umožňuje komplexní vhled do provedených inovací a jejich efektivity.

1 Introduction

Due to the constant development of new teaching tools and methods, information technologies are steadily increasing their presence in teaching. As Bärenfänger notes (2005), employing ICT in teaching is a pedagogical practice that has benefits for both students and teachers, as it improves the quality of the learning experience as well as improve the quality and re-usability of the teaching content. Importantly, the development of new technologies makes it possible to study a subject without ever setting a foot on a university campus. One such course was English 228.599 American Literature Civil War to Present (ENGL 228) taught by Professor Amy Earhart at the Texas A&M University. The author served as a teacher's assistant for two semesters of the course's three-semester run and as a result gained valuable insight into online teaching.

This paper will first provide a brief introduction to the course and then discuss the various ICT implementations used during the course. In addition, since the evaluation of the course's success was made available to the author, the outcomes of the course will be also mentioned. Ultimately, the research should provide not only useful information about ICT innovations of an online course but also inspiration for implementing changes at the university level.

2 Course Overview and Purpose

The course was an American literature survey lecture covering important texts from the second half of nineteenth century to mid-twentieth century. While it was previously taught as a regular face-to-face course, from spring 2012 to spring 2013 it was offered as an online course. This iteration, a joint the Department of English (DoP) and the University Writing Center (UWC), was based on best practices and the experiences of a pilot course to transform the traditional large section lecture course into a web-based class. The goal was to further improve the support of online tools in order to promote individual and collaborative student writing and to develop software that could be used in future web-based courses. Setting up an online course should be meticulously planned; as it has been noted, using new technology as a pedagogical tool is only effective when the advantages of the technology are used to the fullest, otherwise the outcomes may not meet expectations (Olson et al., 2001). Ultimately, the course innovations aimed to "use best practices in the delivery of an online course by providing students with appropriate technical support throughout the semester, by maximizing immediacy of feedback and by encouraging and enabling dialogue within the online course" (Report of results). The following outlines the goals of the project as set out by the collaboration between DoP and UWC:

- Create online content (video lectures, course materials, assessment of student performance)
- Establish a group research project using multi-media or digital scholarship
- Provide interactive activities and discussion groups
- Involve University Writing Center tutors and graders
- Develop synchronous tutoring (focus on easy integration with frequently used course management software such as Moodle or Blackboard and online accessibility)

In other words, the course was envisioned to be a working replacement of a traditional face-to-face course, and the ICT innovations applied in the course aimed at significantly improving student engagement, collaboration and writing skills. Importantly, the collaboration between DoP and UWC had one more goal – to create a successful template for future online courses.

The course itself was supervised by Professor Amy Earhart, two TAs and several UWC tutors. To facilitate collaborative work, various assignments comprised the course; while there were minor differences between the iterations of the course, the general requirements were the following:

- Reading quizzes (10% of the grade)
- Blog and discussion assignments (15%)
- Digital literary studies project (10%)
- Keyword project (group project) (25%) (individual/group grade)
- 2 exams (20% each 40% total)

The reading quizzes contained five random questions about the texts scheduled for the given week. Blog and discussion assignments were essentially two different activities running on a bi-weekly basis: the blog assignment tasked the students to individually and critically asses a prompt regarding a class text, and the discussion assignment was a group project aimed at facilitating discussion within student groups, therefore providing material for their keyword projects (see below). The digital literary studies project was an individual activity aimed at developing, analyzing and evaluating skills of the students in academia through providing an evaluation of a digital resource. The keyword project was a group project tasking the students with tracking a selected keyword (such as 'citizenship', 'race', or 'women') throughout the assigned texts and commenting on how the keywords evolved throughout the texts; the keyword project culminated into a group essay and since it comprised a relatively large part of the grade (25%), each student received two grades from the project - a group grade and an individual grade and the resulting grade was an average of the two grades. Finally, a mid-term and a final exam were required. On average, around 250 students registered for the course each semester.

Video lectures narrated by Professor Earhart and accompanied by a PowerPoint presentation were provided for the students to view and download. Importantly, the course tasked to students to meet on a regular basis with their UWC tutors through Google Hangout video conference application. While serving primarily as help for the keyword project, the tutors also helped with student writing in general.

All the materials and all the assignments were available in Moodle, since Moodle has the advantage of being open-source and not requiring any special skills in creating the course page or adding content (Nozawa, 2011). However, Moodle is not entirely user-friendly to a novice user, as it can be difficult for teachers to properly set up all the materials for the course (Soule and Kleen, 2012). Furthermore, the effectiveness of Moodle hinges on the computer literacy of the user, which might lead to reduced participation of the students (Naddabi, 2007). Interestingly, while university faculty finds Blackboard to be easier to use than Moodle, students seem to prefer Moodle to Blackboard (Payette and Gupta, 2009). Since the intuitiveness of Moodle user interface increases with use, it should be the preferred course management software. Nevertheless, the short discussion above

makes it clear that some issues might arise when starting a Moodle online course, and the sections of the paper only confirm this notion.

3 Spring 2012 Evaluation

Since the author became a TA for the course after the spring 2012 semester, he cannot provide any personal commentary regarding the effectiveness of the methods chosen in that period. However, Candice C. Melzow and Rene H. Trevino, two PhD students helping at that time with the course, conducted a thorough evaluation that compared the PICA evaluations (Personalized Instructor/Course Appraisal System, an online course evaluation tool used at Texas A&M University) for the traditional ENGL 228 face-to-face course from the spring 2011 semester, with the evaluations for the online course from the following spring semester. In addition, Melzow and Trevino analyzed the data provided by Moodle, focusing on grade distribution, Moodle usage patterns and peak access times. Therefore, this and the following section of the paper rely extensively on the information provided by Melzow and Trevino.

Compared to the classroom iteration of ENGL 228, the online course in its spring semester had a slightly lower GPR, that of 2.85 compared to 3.18, which is a decrease of 10.25% (Melzow and Trevino). The suggestions mentioned later in this section of the article – and the slight modifications employed later by Professor Earhart, the author and Soha Chung, the other TA working on the course – aimed at closing the GPR gap between the traditional and online course using best practice and slight ICT modifications.

A comprehensive account of the PICA evaluations and Moodle data must be provided before moving to the suggestions made by Melzow and Trevino to improve the general performance of the students. First of all, it must be acknowledged that online and distant courses usually have a higher attrition rate than regular courses (Carr, 2000; Moody, 2004). In addition, the same number of Q-drops (four) occurred in the spring 2012 iteration of the online course as in the three times the course was taught by Professor Earhart in a physical classroom (Melzow and Trevino). Thirdly, the responses to the provided online material were overwhelmingly positive. For instance, 81.6% of students who answered the PICA evaluations with 'strongly agreed' or 'agreed' that "[t]he instructor's presentations added to [their] understanding of the material", with 42.5/option. Other students also commended the use of PowerPoint presentations and video lectures.

However, there were also a few issues evident from the evaluations and the Moodle analysis. First of all, students were concerned with the inability of the instructor to convey 'care' and 'enthusiasm' in the course: while a majority still agreed with the statements that the "instructor seemed to care whether the students learned" and the "instructor seemed enthusiastic about the material that was pre-

sented" (72.4% and 75.6% respectively), a relatively significant number of respondents were 'undecided' about each of the statements (20.7% and 19.8% respectively). One of the comments in the PICA evaluation answered the first statement mentioned above in the following way: "Online course. One-way communication makes it difficult to judge her level of care."

Secondly, the survey showed that students unfamiliar with online courses were often puzzled by the online course format. For instance, 37.2% of respondents marked 'undecided' as their answer to the statement "[t]he instructor adequately answered questions from students". Some students even commented that the way the online course was set up clearly hindered their ability to answer some of the PICA questions such as the one above. In other words, a significant portion of the students felt that course policies and assignments are not explained clearly enough, a puzzlement stemming from the format of an online course.

Thirdly, the Moodle analysis of student behaviour in the online course showed that students often did not use all the material provided in the course. As Melzow and Trevino write, "[o]n average per resource, nearly 33% of students did not access" the given resource. Furthermore, Melzow and Trevino add that "64.4% students did not access the least accessed resource". As can be seen in Tab. 1, tracking the access of materials proved invaluable because a comparison of student's Moodle use and his or her final grade revealed a direct connection between the two data. Therefore, it became clear that increasing the access rate of materials should have a positive impact on the class GPA.

Tab. 1: The correlation between the final grade and average resource use among the students with the same letter grade

	Average Resource Use	% Above/Below Class Average
A Students	847.0	32.6%
B Students	643.3	0.7%
C Students	534.5	-16.4%
D Students	335.6	-47.5%
E Students	250.1	-60.9%

Next, the keyword group project proved to be the least popular assignment among the students. Over 17% of students chose 'disagree' (and additional 8% chose 'strongly disagree') as their answer to the question if the assignments were presented and graded fairly, and the PICA comments made it clear that this strong dissatisfaction was due to the group project. Out of the 13 comments that mentioned the group project, five students complained about the difficult communication with other group members, and 10 students noted the lack of clarity in the group project assignment. One of the students explained the following: "There were are [sic] 20 people in our group and among all of us we have had a very

difficult time communicating the project over the internet." Another student mentioned that the idea of a group online project which determines 25% of the final grade was completely 'ridiculous'.

Lastly, the Moodle analysis showed another problem in the initial application of the UCW tutors – the students preferred to be online in the evening and night hours, that is when the UCW tutors were mostly disconnected. The analysis showed that the students were the most active between 8 and 11 pm, the 10 to 11 pm timeslot being the most popular. When limited to regular working hours, students preferred to access the course between 2 and 5 pm.

4 Spring 2012 Recommendations

After going through the five problems above, Melzow and Trevino provided the following recommendations in order to solve the issues. Firstly, they addressed the issue of personal approach (or rather a lack of thereof) by advising the course support team to provide introductory profiles in order for the students to become better acquainted with the course staff. More importantly, they also suggested that the students should be able to contact Professor Earhart and the two TAs through Google Hangout in addition to the UWC tutors. To facilitate this, online office hours were set up so that the students were able to contact the lecturer and the TAs in case they had a question about the course requirements or about one of the assignments; however, the video conferences were also made available for general troubleshooting purposes. The video conferences aimed at creating a more personal connection between the students and the teaching staff, thus simulating some of the aspects of a face-to-face class in an online course.

In order to prepare students for the different environment of the online course when compared to a traditional face-to-face lecture, it was suggested that course designers create anew material that would explain the nature of the course in more general terms. In other words, the collaborative nature of the course (that is collaboration between students and support staff and between students themselves) as well as the general guidelines to the online course (what was expected of the students and what should students expect) were to be discussed in more detail in the proposed material. The use of profiles by the support staff was also brought up and it was emphasized that the profiles should explicitly state the role of each support staff member – the lecturer, the two TAs and the UWC tutors – in the course.

Regarding the access rates of the material, a few suggestions were made, the following two being the most important: firstly, the Moodle headings should be changed from ambiguous labels (e.g. 'Reading Support Materials') to direct commands ('View Lectures and Notes'), as it was expected that renaming the headings would contribute to more hits per a given resources. Secondly, instead of

providing all the materials and lectures from the very beginning, it was advised to make material accessible on an appointed day each week so that students are not overwhelmed from the very beginning of the course by the sheer number of material provided.

The keyword group project underwent significant revision. In addition to providing more explicit instructions regarding the project, a schedule containing small activities for every week was provided in order to present the groups with more direct guidelines. Furthermore, the group size was decreased significantly – from 15–20 students to 8–10 students – and each student was made to choose his or her appointed role in the group early in the semester. To make sure that the students are on the right track, UWC tutors were integrated into the keyword project to provide feedback on the newly established keyword activities. Lastly, since students were separated into groups according to the keyword of their choice, each tutor was given a small number of keywords to supervise so that the communication and relationship between the course staff and students is further emphasized.

Finally, in order to address the peak access times of students, it was decided that the instructor's and TAs' virtual office hours should take place on weekdays between 8 am and 5 pm. Furthermore, the students were given an opportunity to decide the office hours themselves by completing a short survey at the beginning of the semester. And lastly, UWC tutors' online hours were rescheduled so that they were available during peak times with the possibility to schedule individual evening video conferences.

5 Changes to Recommendation

While the recommendations made by Melzow and Trevino were extremely useful, following them did not stop several other issue from appearing. Some of these issues were connected to user interface and there was an effort to solve them after they became apparent, while other issues arose from the online nature of the course.

First of all, some of the environment chosen for the course appeared to be relatively difficult to use. For instance, several students had difficulties setting up their Google Hangout video conference. Secondly, while Moodle allows one to track student behavior with ease, some of the assignments were rather difficult to finalize and subsequently grade. The keyword project, for example, required the whole group to work with the same text; however, Moodle is not able to track individual changes when an assignment is set up as a new page rather than

¹ For instance, a 'drafter' was responsible for providing the first draft of the final essay while the 'editor' was responsible for the final corrections.

a document, which made evaluating the group project dependent on honesty of the students when it came to highlighting their individual contributions. Because of Moodle's relative clumsiness for first-time users, students also tended to work outside of Moodle on their keyword project, which again made it difficult to evaluate each student's individual contributions and therefore grade them correspondingly. Seeing these difficulties in the fall 2012 semester, we have decided to switch to a more user-friendly environment in the following semester. Therefore, we replaced Google Hangout with the WebEx conference application while Moodle was replaced by Google Docs for the purposes of the keyword project. Even though WebEx required a file to be downloaded to the computer and then using a general account rather than a personal one in order to use the application - therefore presenting a possible complication from user perspective - it solved a few issues raised after the fall 2012 semester concerning Google Hangout, mainly issues regarding privacy and online security. Conversely, Google Docs has a user-friendly environment that closely resembles applications that students are usually familiar with (word-processing software such as Microsoft Office or Open Office), therefore resulting in fewer problems for both students and the course staff.

Nevertheless, even the spring 2013 semester was not without problems related to ICT. For instance, some students used different names in Moodle and Google Hangout than those present in Howdy, the Texas A&M University's official student and teacher portal. While most of the different names were simply more familiar versions of the students' full names, a few students opted to use their middle name instead of their first name or their married name instead of their maiden name in the course interface. This naturally presented slight complications since the grades had to be transcribed from Moodle to Howdy.

Secondly, while the user interface can be improved, user behavior can be difficult to influence in an online course. User behavior is especially important in a group project, where maintaining effort throughout the course towards the same goal affects the grades of the individual as well as the group as a whole. Several students Q-dropped in the middle of the semester without letting anyone in their group know, therefore often causing the whole group to fall behind in their work. Other times a more pragmatic reason – laziness – affected the overall quality of the group project and while the group member who filled in for the missing role was compensated by obtaining a better individual grade for the assignment, it hardly makes up for the increased effort and frustration that the group had to experience due to one individual being unable to meet set deadlines.

Finally, it should be noted that students only rarely used online office hours to make video conference calls with the lecturer or the TAs. Instead, it seemed they strongly favored more traditional means of online communication – email. A few students even decided to see the author in the author's physical office at the Department of English rather than using the online office hours. In contrast, the

expanded online presence of the UWC tutors was a large success; the continuous feedback on the keyword project during the writing process seemed to be especially praised by the students.

6 Undergraduate Office Report

In July 2013 the Undergraduate Office finalized a Report on results which concludes by explaining that "the project was successful in providing a tested tool for synchronous online tutoring as well as a training protocol for tutors" and that "[t]he project was also successful in testing best practices in providing a support structure for research-oriented, active and interactive online learning". The report shows that the course provided an enhanced learning experience, lead to expected results (that is producing a viable online course, using writing center tutors to provide feedback in a writing-intensive course and providing writing center staff with training for ICT technologies), and improve student learning and academic abilities. More specifically, the most important statements of the report are the following:

- the percentage of students who agreed that technical support was readily available rose from 83% in spring 2012 to 93% in spring 2013.
- on average, 82% of students in each of the iteration found secondary keyword assignments (such as discussion forums or wikis databases relevant to the chosen keyword) useful in increasing their level of interaction with the course
- the combination of week-by-week modules, consistency in assignments and deadlines (e.g. material being available on Mondays, reading quizzes on Wednesdays), active headings and video lectures should become the standard of all large-section online courses
- current software was successfully modified to allow synchronized conferencing and course staff was properly trained in this software
- on average, the percentage of students in all the three iterations of the course who described themselves as 'very skilled' or 'expert' at working in teams in order to conduct a research increased by 29% after the course
- on average, the percentage of students in all three iterations of the course who
 described themselves as 'very skilled' or 'expert' at locating, critically evaluating and sharing academic sources increased by 38% after the course

Simply put, the course was considered a success both for its web-based innovations for future use and for the improvement of student academic and collaborative skills. While the Report noted that the success was partially due to the presence of *embedded* UWC tutors – tutors familiar with the course material before the course started – it also clearly stated that similar results should be expected with non-embedded tutors as well.

7 Reflection and Conclusion

The discussion above shows that ICT innovations of online courses are meaningful and worth the potential investment. Nevertheless, it should be emphasized that the online presence of the course staff and the readily-available feedback significantly affected the success of the course. Since ENGL 228 was a writing-intensive course, it is hard to imagine that the student experience would be so overwhelmingly positive without the course support. While the various assignments or collaborative approach certainly helped in setting the course apart from other, less innovative online courses, the constant availability of certified UWC staff was the aspect that truly made the difference.

The above might sound rather pessimistic in the context of Czech and Central European learning. After all, Czech or other regional universities only rarely have a large writing center – if they have one at all – as the one at Texas A&M University. Nevertheless, this should be seen as an opportunity rather than a hindrance. A similar, albeit smaller course should provide the basis of future cooperation between departments and their graduate students or students in teacher training. These courses would then serve as an important teaching experience for both the students and the supervising student-teachers – while the former would learn collaboration and independent research, the latter would gain additional expertise that are extremely valuable when entering the job market. The institution adopting courses with layout similar to ENGL 228 would then produce well-rounded students used to teamwork and independent studying and, at the same time, provide future teachers with the much-needed teaching experience. Simply put, creating an online course using best practice and online tutors is an educational opportunity that is beneficial to all sides of the teaching process.

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Bionote

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Focus on LSP

New Approaches to Teaching Genre-Specific German Legal Terminology

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Abstract: The article deals with the development of a workbook about German Private Law at the Law Faculty of the University of Pécs, in which the German legal terminology is taught on the basis of typical blended learning methods and authentic genres. Therefore, the structure of the workbook and its chapters (every chapter has a *relief phase*, a *preparation phase*, a *specialization phase* and an *application phase*) is introduced along with ways to deal with terms which do not have an equivalent in the given foreign language. The presented methods will not only help law students learn terminology by heart, but also enable them to apply the terminology in daily professional life. The article also reflects the experiences which challenges and opportunities can be expected, especially when working with creative methods in teaching legal terminology.

Key words: Legal terminology, professional, genre, blended learning, LSP, Private law

Abstrakt: Der Beitrag beschäftigt sich mit der Entwicklung eines Arbeitsbuchs zum deutschen Privatrecht, in dem die Fachsprache anhand von typischen Methoden des Blended Learning und anhand von Fachtextsorten vermittelt wird. Der Beitrag zeigt auf, wie man Rechtsbegriffe vermitteln kann, die in der Nationalsprache keine Entsprechung haben und mit welchen Herausforderungen und Chancen man bei der Arbeit mit kreativen Methoden im Fachsprachenunterricht rechnen kann.

Abstrakt: Článek se zabývá vývojem učebnice o německém soukromém právu na Právnické fakultě Univerzity v Pécsi, ve které je německá právnická terminologie vyučována na základě typických metod smíšené výuky a autentických žánrů. Struktura učebnice a jejích kapitol (každá kapitola má podpůrnou fázi, přípravnou fázi, fázi specializace a fázi aplikace) je tedy představena spolu s návodem, jak zacházet s termíny, které nemají ekvivalent v cizím jazyce. Ukázané metody budou nejen pomáhat právnickým studentům učit se terminologii zpaměti, ale také jim umožní tuto terminologii aplikovat v každodenním profesionálním životě. Článek také reflektuje zkušenosti s tím, které problémy a možnosti se dají zejména při práci s kreativními metodami ve výuce právnické terminologie očekávat.

1 Introduction

The importance of linguistic competence and professional expertise in the acquisition of genre-specific knowledge is beyond question – this is even more true if you do not gain this expertise in your own mother tongue (Fluck, 1992). The extensive, detailed and often seemingly old-fashioned legal terminology is not just difficult to learn for native speakers, it regularly drives non-native speakers to despair. And yet, of course, German law is also taught at universities abroad, partly as a separate field of law, partly within European or international law. In many countries, such as Hungary, there are even state exams in English or German legal

terminology as part of the curriculum. The students need to gain the knowledge and skills to understand and analyse legal content in German as well as to explain and to reproduce it in the right context. Since students come into those language courses with very different foreign language skills, LSP departments must be prepared for learners studying for the state exams with language skills between A2 and C1. Especially working with students with little knowledge of the language can lead to significant challenges.

1.1 Legal jargon is unambiguous

Specialized language is generally understood to be a set of linguistic resources used in a definable professional communication range in order to ensure communication between people working in this field (Hoffmann, 1985). For legal jargon it is even more important to learn and to apply a precise and differentiated terminology because in law there is a very close link between language and the underlying legal substance (Wüster, 1991). Even though it is not always easy to understand the criteria that define legal language, such as clarity, unity or even power, control and jurisdiction (Bhatia, 2012), legal jargon is unambiguous and it is 'the lawyer's tool': both in writing, as well as in the interpretation and application of legal texts, in the interpretation of contracts or in scientific discussions within the discourse community.

Ideally, foreign students bring not only a high level of competence in general language, but also the motivation to learn an extensive, and partially outdated vocabulary. However learners cannot even rely on excellent general language skills, because many common terms have an entirely different meaning in the legal context. For German lawyers it can still make a difference if someone commits 'homicide' or 'murder', if someone 'owns' or 'possesses' something or if he 'hires' or 'rents' something (for many German examples: Kühn, 1998). Against this backdrop, you have to give the students a very extensive vocabulary and you have to refrain as much as possible from the synonymous use of certain terms in similar, but not identical situations, even if this means more effort. In professional life the other members of the same discourse community will rarely take into account whether the user is a native speaker or learner between B1 and C1. Above all, these members want to avoid any misinterpretation, as misinterpretations, e.g. in contracts, can cost a lot of money. Therefore, they would count on clarity and precision and would show little willingness to compromise in linguistic matters (Tinnefeld, 1996).

1.2 New methods such as blended learning in language teaching

In part, the substantial changes in methodology and didactics do not stop in the specialized language instruction. Above all, blended learning has made a big contribution in the past few years in stimulating and motivating learners to link terminology with professional expertise and to internalize the terms more deeply. A clear advantage is that learners would get fresh impetus through using different media, the effectiveness and flexibility of electronic forms of learning are thus combined with social aspects of face-to-face communication and practical learning methods. Ideally, study partners would communicate with each other online even outside the classroom. The advantages of blended learning lie just in linking modern media with classical teaching material from traditional classroom trainings (Sauter, Sauter, & Bender, 2004).

The department of LSP at the Law Faculty of the University of Pécs had the chance to successfully develop several blended learning programmes in the context of a European TAMOP project in the past two years. In these programmes the students learn the necessary facts for the curriculum in German and Anglo-American law with the help of various types of tasks in a playful form. Therefore, a great deal of attention was given to ensuring that in addition to interactive games and links, audio and video files on the internet (e.g. via Youtube, media libraries or government websites) were also integrated, to provide further incentives for the learners (Pókay, 2015).

Blended learning, however, is not a panacea in teaching genre-specific terminology. When working with blended learning at the Law Faculty of the University of Pécs it was particularly noticeable that the variety of available exercise types is very limited in license-free software like HotPotatoes and exeLearning. There are only a few meaningful applications apart from cloze tests and matching tasks that can connect the learners to work together on a task. And even with the mentioned exercise types it is difficult to convey the terms in an authentic context and teach a free reproduction of terms with feedback. The students would have short-term successes with matching exercises, but they would not note down and internalize the terms as they did before. And they would often learn the terms only by heart without really understanding the content of the texts they had read, let alone be able to apply and reproduce it (Sing, Peters, & Stegu, 2014). For example, in simulation tasks it often turns out that the students know all what they need to know to solve the task. Yet they cannot apply their knowledge, as they only learned the theories, but never saw a realistic problem from practice before, such as writing a simple letter to a client. It also became clear that the magical classroom bond between teacher and student could not be replicated through communication technology. In addition, there are of course problems with the spatial and technical equipment for parallel courses for up to 20 students.

1.3 Integration of blended learning methods into print media

Based on the collected experiences with blended learning, a print version (workbook) is currently being developed in which the benefits of blended learning

should be united as sensibly as possible with classical teaching materials. For example, media such as the Internet should be incorporated into the teaching material at least indirectly, according to the technical possibilities. Another focus is on providing authentic genres, in which the learners usually show a keen interest. On the basis of realistic genres (mainly standard contracts, standard letters to clients or the court, decisions and, last but not least, the legal code itself) the students learn how to deal with legal problems in practice. Furthermore, the students have a lot of practical examples of typical genres brought to the fore, which they are likely to encounter in their later career. This article aims to reflect the experiences which challenges and opportunities that can be expected especially when working with creative methods in teaching legal terminology and the introduction of professional genres in the teaching material.

2 Material and Method

First, for the integration of blended learning concepts into classical teaching material it is desirable to have an extensive methods and tools framework with different media. In the age of smartphones (with access to the Internet, Youtube, photography and voice recorder), the learners conveniently have their own toolbox with them, usually around the clock. This is why the focus is more on how to develop work instructions that make learners use their own tools.

At the Law Faculty of the University of Pécs the teaching material for German for legal purposes has thus been collected by two lecturers in an interdisciplinary way. The author is a qualified lawyer. He is, therefore, primarily responsible for the professional content of the material. Since he is a native German speaker, he also specifies which terminology has to be taught in any case, which terminology would still be useful to learn and which terminology can be disregarded. In the didactic content he is assisted by an expert in teaching German as a foreign language who is also a trainer in the use of modern communication media at the German *Goethe-Institut*.

The author, therefore, has an extensive collection of material for both the theoretical and practical training of lawyers, as well as for didactic teaching. The authentic professional genres (case files, client letters and court decisions) belong to a corpus of the legal training department at the Higher Regional Court of Berlin from the years 2008 until 2011 and were subsequently made anonymous. In addition, the author can draw on his extensive own teaching materials from recent years.

2.1 Structure of the workbook

The law students should learn the (German) legal terminology on the basis of the areas of private law which might be the most relevant areas in their daily professional life (civil law, commercial and corporate law, labour law). Therefore, the volume consists of three parts with a total of 20 chapters (10 chapters about civil law, 6 chapters about commercial and corporate law, 3 chapters about labour law and 1 chapter about civil procedure) in which the necessary terminology and the substance of the relevant area of the law can be developed in the course of two semesters. The authors are aware that a legal terminology course cannot replace complex legal studies in Germany. This is why they deliberately refrained from going too deeply into the details and special legal problems. The aim is that the students should be able to truly understand the contents of a legal subject, to explain them to others and to reproduce similar genres in their professional life, even if they do not understand every single word.

Each of the chapters has the same structure: In a *relief phase* learners are given the opportunity to adjust mentally to the new topic in their already existing vocabulary of general language use. In a *preparation phase*, they get to know the absolutely necessary terms, where they need to understand the specialized content. With the help of smaller games and exercises their vocabulary is extended and further internalized. In the ensuing *specialization phase*, the learners must be enabled to understand, summarize and reproduce the chapter's subject content with the help of authentic genres. In an *application phase*, they are then asked to apply the learned vocabulary in practice. In each chapter a realistic professional genre (contract, court decision, client letter) is provided in a context which allows the learners to reproduce the terms in an appropriate way. A monolingual vocabulary list at the end of each chapter also helps the learners to learn the terminology for the specific topic.

2.2 Use of legal texts and (professional) genres

Text writing and comprehension is a key skill of learning LSP. The acquisition of knowledge in different fields of law assumes that learners are able to gain legal knowledge from authentic professional texts, to combine the content with their existing knowledge and to properly reflect it, both, orally and in writing (Schmölzer-Eibinger, & Langer, 2009). However, experience shows that for many students it is not easy to read longer texts about less familiar topics, to understand and to bear them in mind. Therefore, for the comprehension of specialized texts it is absolutely necessary to provide the most important terminology to the learners before reading the text and to deepen it with small exercises afterwards.

In teaching legal terminology it is particularly important to consider that the learners not only have to be able to detect the facts receptively and to reframe them in a way that is understandable to both the client (who is a legal layperson) and also to members of the same discourse community, in a way that ensures that they interpret the information in a uniform way. This is why the learners not only have to take the step from terminology to specialized texts, but also the step from specialized texts to (specialized) genres (Baumann, & Kalverkämper,

1996). Here attention needs to be drawn to the fact that professional text genres in language instruction are characterized by a number of criteria. They are conventionally applicable examples of complex linguistic operations which have found their way into our everyday knowledge as typical compounds of situational, communicative-functional and structural characteristics (Hoffmann, 1998). They are a special class of genres, where in addition to everyday knowledge, additional expertise is also required (Hoffmann, 1998); they – even if legal terminology is unambiguous – can be perceived differently, depending on the composition of the discourse community. This is even more true if the discourse community consists of members coming from different legal systems (Bhatia, 2015).

When integrating professional genres into the teaching materials, it has to be considered that generic norms might differ from those in the learner's home country. Ideally, the tasks motivate or require the students to draw a comparison with local professional genres of the same type. At the same time, the tasks should not overstretch the learners' language skills and should nevertheless remain realistic, even if that means a slight didactical reduction of "authentic" genres. When working with professional genres it must be made clear to the students that in order to understand and reproduce a specialized genre they do not necessarily have to understand or even translate every single word of it. A general consideration is that the workbook is (only) intended to provide the necessary terminology and an understanding of the essential subject content in the first place. While general language grammar exercises are offered in connection to the legal terminology, the authors deliberately did not include any translation tasks.

3 Results

For the *relief phase*, classic didactic methods from the general language teaching turned out to be useful. They should motivate the learners in a creative way to discuss their own experiences of the following topic together with a learning partner. In addition, there are also visual methods such as word lists, cloze tests, word puzzles, image sequences, trouble shooting, training posters, mind maps, concept networks, block diagrams, sentence and question patterns, illustrated stories, word puzzles, structural and flowcharts, thesis pots, dialogues, learning aids, Domino, Memory, dice games, card queries, cards tables, negotiation, learning slices, quizzes, learning stations, debates and others (cf. Leisen, 2003).

These methods can also be applied in the *preparation phase*, supplemented by the professional terminology. For this purpose, it is useful to give the learners a helping hand, such as providing short definitions of the most important terms. Although matching tasks have the appeal of giving learners concrete results in a short time and thus a sense of success, experience shows that students do not engage more deeply with the vocabulary – they neither write it down, nor in-



Fig. 1: Examples of relief exercises (Schneider, & Jaszenovics, in print)

ternalize it. Therefore, those types of tasks in which learners have to work with the terms are more useful. In this phase, those legal institutions that do not exist in learners' own jurisdictions or vary in their content and thus cannot be translated 1:1 must be explained. Those terms must be so filled with meaning, that the learners are later able to understand also the related concepts behind them (for example in the German distinction between *rechtshindernden*, *rechtsvernichtenden* and *rechtshemmenden* objections in the German Civil Code). Therefore it also makes sense to have types of exercises in which the learners have to work with the terms.



Fig. 2: Examples of preparation exercise (Schneider, & Jaszenovics, in print)

The *specialization* and *application* phases are also necessarily concerned with understanding complex legal and not always simple texts. Even if the learners were made familiar with the most essential terms in the *preparation* phase, they still might not understand the texts without further notice. Therefore, it has proved to be very helpful to give the students simply formulated summarizing questions or short texts, which motivate learners to read the legal text several times.



Fig. 3: Types of tasks for the specialization and application phases (Schneider, & Jaszenovics, in print)

Also in print books interactive learning can be promoted by certain types of exercises which have to be designed in a way that the learners can work on them with the help of a smartphone or another learning partner. One of the benefits in these exercises is that the learning partners continuously train their linguistic expression and can discover and correct their mistakes together. This includes the use of other media when working on the tasks. For example, among trivial questions and quizzes can be such questions, which can only be answered with the help of other used media (newspapers, textbooks, Internet). The use of these media may also be combined with the workbook itself. The benefit of working with realistic genres is obvious: the learners learn how to understand, summarize and reproduce important documents which might occur in their later professional life (Hoffmann, 1998). Ideally, the tasks motivate learners to pick up similar kinds of texts in their own native language to compare them with the learned genres.

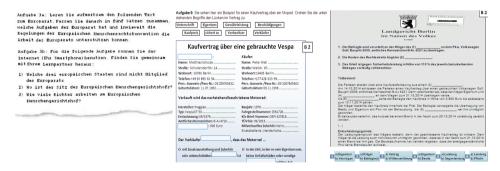


Fig. 4: Examples of interactive exercises and authentic genres (Schneider-Jaszenovics, in print)

4 Discussion

Designing suitable teaching material in specialized language in an interdisciplinary collaboration opens a wide field of potential problems, uncertainties and opportunities. Above all, the parties involved must always be aware of their own blind spots. The legal professional expert has only limited didactic skills in teaching LSP and the language instructor only limited professional skills. And then there is still the challenge of the legal terminology's accuracy. Legal professional lecturers have to learn to get along with certain deficiencies or linguistic problems and should concentrate on the basics and for example to enable the learners to understand and reproduce the essence of genres instead of translating word by word. This is why even authentic genres can be moderately simplified for didactical reasons as long as they still represent a typical example. On the other hand, they have to be aware that the use of imprecise terms, synonyms, everyday language or simply false terminology can lead to misunderstandings and therefore can have serious legal consequences (Schneider, Fogarasi, & Riepert, 2014).

This is why the teacher has to find a good balance, which terminology has to be taught in any case, which terminology could be still useful to learn and which terms can be disregarded. To some extent, such 'linguistic compromises' are an integral part of teaching LSP anyway, e.g. when dealing with legal terms or principles that are not known or have a different meaning in the foreign law system (Campana, 2000). In this context the students also have to learn that the studied genre could differ from similar genres used in their home countries, and that a similar discussion in another discourse community could require different terminology and professional contents (Sandrini, 1996). Due to different language levels among the learners, tasks and genres should be selected with different difficulty levels from language competence B1 to C1. In the end the learners should be able to deal with authentic genres and their terms, so that they can use them verbally and in writing in their subsequent everyday professional life.

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Bionote

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Incorporating Linguistics into ESP Courses

Pavel Reich

Abstract: The aim of this paper is to explore the possibilities of teaching particular linguistic subfields within a course of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) intended for the students of political science. Unlike the majority of ESP courses, this course does not focus predominantly on the specialised lexis or on the four skills (listening, reading, speaking and writing) in the domains related to the learners' expertise, but rather on some typical linguistic features of the language of politics. In order to be able to identify these typical features in political debates and speeches, students need to become familiar with various kinds of linguistic meanings, as well as the concepts of semantic prosody and loadedness in language. These concepts are situated on the intersection of the linguistic domains of lexical semantics, pragmatics and corpus linguistics. The present paper focuses on both the linguistic theory on which the course is based, as well as on some examples of the loaded language found in the texts analysed by the students in the course.

Key words: English for Specific Purposes, semantic prosody, loaded language, purr word, snarl word

Abstrakt: Cílem příspěvku je ukázat, že obsahem kurzu angličtiny pro specifické účely, v tomto případě kurzu určeného studentům politologie, nemusí být nutně odborná slovní zásoba nebo zvyšování kompetence studentů v poslechu, čtení, mluvení a psaní ve svém oboru. Místo toho se učitel může pokusit začlenit do kurzu výuku některých lingvistických podoborů, jako např. lexikální sémantiky, pragmatiky nebo korpusové lingvistiky. Studenti se tak naučí identifikovat a vysvětlit jevy typické pro jazyk svého studijního oboru.

1 Introduction

English for Specific Purposes (ESP), together with its subfields English for Academic Purposes and English for Occupational Purposes, has developed since the 1960s as an independent field within English Language Teaching (ELT), and research in ESP makes an integral part of applied linguistic research. It has its own methodology designed to meet the specific needs of language learners, focusing predominantly on listening, reading, speaking and writing skills in the domains related to the learners' expertise, as well as on the grammatical forms typical of academic contexts and on specialised lexis.

One of the major differences between teaching English as a Foreign Language (EFL) and teaching ESP is the role of the teacher. While an EFL teacher is considered the primary knower of the taught material, the ESP teacher is rather a "consultant who has knowledge of communication practices, but needs to 'negotiate' with the students on how best to exploit these practices to meet the objectives they have" (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998).

The following sections focus on the potential to break away from this traditional approach to teaching ESP. Instead, the integration of relevant linguistic theories into the syllabus of a specialised English course designed for students of political science is suggested.

From my point of view, the teacher does not necessarily have to serve only as a language consultant in the field of expertise of the student, but, on the contrary, it is possible to merge the teacher's own field of expertise, i.e. linguistics, with the field of expertise of the students. Consequently, certain aspects of linguistic subfields, such as lexical semantics or pragmatics can be integrated into ESP courses, teaching students to exercise critical abilities in reading, listening, viewing and thinking in order to cope with the persuasive techniques found in the language of politics.

The relation between political science and linguistics can be shown in the diagram on Fig. 1.

Linguistics

Political Science

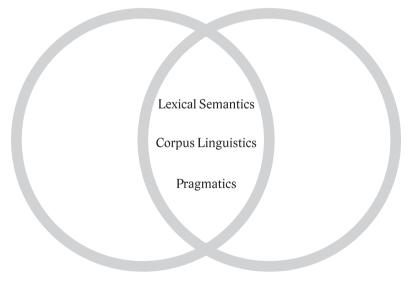


Fig. 1

2 Course Syllabus

The course is to a large extent theory-based. In the first two seminars, students are made familiar with relevant linguistic concepts, such as *denotation*, *connotation*, *collocation*, *metaphor*, *metonymy*, *euphemism*, *dysphemism*, and *jargon*. Proper

understanding of these concepts is essential for the rest of the course, which is based on ten readings. These are highly sophisticated linguistic texts, covering a number of topics, ranging from Orwell's essays *Politics and the English Language* and *Principles of Newspeak*, to the text *Ten Rules of Effective Language*, whose author, Frank Luntz, is a contemporary pollster and political consultant closely cooperating with the Republican Party.

However, the majority of the texts making the core of the course focus on three closely interrelated linguistic themes – on the distinction between various types of meaning, the semantic prosody of words, and the loadedness of political language.

Students are required to have read the texts before going to class and each week two students are assigned to present one of the texts to the class. The presentation is then followed by a discussion and a short analysis of a political speech or debate.

3 Theoretical Background of the Course

This chapter offers a synopsis of the three main themes which make the core of the course – types of meaning, semantic prosody, and loaded language.

3.1 Types of Meaning

Most of the linguistic analysis taught in this course is based on the common binary distinction between *denotation* (denotative meaning) and *connotation* (connotative meaning). However, the distinction between denotation and connotation seems to be a more complex issue and, for the purposes of the analysis of political language, Leech's division into conceptual meaning (used synonymously to *denotation*) and associative meaning (which encompasses five other sub-types of meaning, namely *connotative*, *stylistic*, *affective*, *reflected* and *collocative*) appears more appropriate (c.f. Leech, 1990). These five sub-types of meaning, for which Leech uses the summary term *associative meaning*, share common features by which they are distinguished from their opposite – *conceptual meaning*. According to Leech (1990: 18), they "all have the same open-ended, variable character, and lend themselves to analysis in terms of scales of ranges, rather than in discrete either-this-or-that terms".

A very important distinction between conceptual and associative meaning, according to Leech, is that associative meaning is less stable than conceptual meaning. While conceptual meaning is shared by users of the same language, associative meaning varies with each individual's experience (Leech 1990: 43). This may lead to situations where the associative meaning of words is used for conveying attitudes and emotions. Leech (1990: 43) mentions two such situations: 1) as associative meaning varies from one person to another, its use can cause miscommu-

nication or misunderstanding; and 2) readers/listeners may be misled by associative meaning (in this case particularly, affective meaning), which is predominant over conceptual meaning and, as a result, they may not be able to appraise the information properly.

Leech (1990: 43) claims that the second situation may be dangerous as it can be misused in order to influence people's opinions and perception of reality and favourable or unfavourable words can thus be chosen in order to manipulate people's view on certain things or issues.

3.2 Semantic Prosody

It is virtually impossible to discern the objective associative meanings of words. Stubbs (1996: 172) claims that the best way to determine the connotations of a word is by employing a large corpus. He asserts that the associations and connotations a word has are shown by the characteristic collocations which occur with the word.

As claimed by Stewart (2010), when given words or phrases appear frequently in the context of other words or phrases and these other words or phrases are predominantly positive or negative in their evaluative orientation, the given words consequently take on the positive or negative association and this association can be exploited by speakers to express evaluative meaning covertly. This notion has become known as semantic prosody. A concise definition of semantic prosody is given by Berber-Sardinha (2000: 93), according to whom it is "the connotation conveyed by the regular co-occurrence of lexical items".

In this context, Stubbs (1996) claims that "meaning is not regarded as a purely mental phenomenon, but is analysed distributionally on the basis of observable, objective textual evidence" (1996: 174). A large corpus can be considered as such objective textual evidence. Stubbs thus suggests looking for the "absolute frequency of each collocation, since what we are looking for is recurrent phrases which encode culturally important concepts" (1996: 174).

When seeking the connotations of adjectives and nouns, the aim is to determine which other adjectives these words occur with, as the collocating adjectives express the quality which is typical of the adjective or noun and often appear alongside it.

A typical example is the negative semantic prosody of the word 'dictator', as shown in the Fig. 2, taken from the *Corpus of Contemporary American English (CO-CA)*. Relevant collocates are considered adjectives which occur within the span of four words to the left or four words to the right of the keyword. For example, the most frequent collocating adjectives of the word *dictator* are *Iraqi*, *brutal*, *military*, *communist*, *Soviet*, *late*, and *ruthless*.



Fig. 2

3.3 Loaded Language

Words with strong positive or negative prosodies can be considered loaded. Bolinger (1980) puts *loaded* or *biased* language into contrast with *propositional* language, which, according to him, is language used for stating facts; it is the language of responsibility and is truthful and accurate (1980: 69–70).

Loaded language, on the other hand, is described by Bolinger as language whose objective is to put something in either a favourable or unfavourable way. As a result, euphemistic or dysphemistic expressions are resorted to (1980: 72–73).

According to Bolinger, one of the basic kinds of expressing something in a favourable or unfavourable manner is what he calls *hidden bias* (1980: 75). He describes biased language as language which evades responsibility and claims that there is hardly any sentence in normal speech which lacks bias, as it is very pervasive (1980: 71). He distinguishes between several kinds of bias. Apart from euphemisms and dysphemisms as such, he speaks about hidden bias in adjectives, nouns, and verbs (1980: 75–82). This means that these words imply a positive or a negative attitude; they evaluate reality in a particular way and can thus be considered loaded.

3.3.1 Purr and Snarl Words

A special type of loaded words, discussed in particular by Leech (1990: 43–44), is expressions in which the associative meaning is so strong that the conceptual meaning very often seems to be almost irrelevant. Hayakawa (1949) calls these expressions *snarl words* (e.g. *fascism* and *communism*) and *purr words* (e.g. *freedom* and *democracy*). The concept of purr words is already mentioned by George

Orwell in his essay *Politics and the English Language* when discussing meaningless words, suggesting the common abuse of political words:

The word Fascism has now no meaning except in so far as it signifies 'something not desirable'. The words 'democracy', 'socialism', 'freedom', 'patriotic', 'realistic', 'justice', have each of them several meanings which cannot be reconciled with one another. In the case of a word like 'democracy', not only is there no agreed definition, but the attempt to make one is resisted from all sides. It is almost universally felt that when we call a country democratic we are praising it: consequently the defenders of every kind of régime claim that it is a democracy, and fear that they might have to stop using the word if it were tied down to any one meaning. Words of this kind are often used in a consciously dishonest way. That is, the person who uses them has his own private definition, but allows his hearer to think he means something quite different (Orwell 2007: 212–213).

However, the expression purr word itself, together with its opposite – snarl word – was coined by Orwell's contemporary, the linguist Samuel I. Hayakawa in 1949. They are described as words which are 'direct expressions of approval or disapproval, judgments in their simplest form' and Hayakawa suggests that they 'may be said to be human equivalents of snarling and purring' (1949: 45).

A clear definition of snarl words is given by Leech (1990). He defines snarl words as

words whose conceptual meaning becomes irrelevant because whoever is using them is simply capitalizing on their unfavourable connotations in order to give forceful expression to his own hostility. Terms for extreme political views, such as communist or fascist, are particularly prone to degenerate into snarl words (1990: 44).

The same definition could be used for purr words, only 'unfavourable' would be substituted by 'favourable' and 'hostility' would be substituted by 'amity'.

Leech (1990: 45) explains the share of conceptual and associative meanings, or, in other words, how denotation and connotation varies from word to word. In some words, it is irrelevant; in others, it can take up to 100% of the total meaning of the word. In such cases, the message conveyed is strongly affected.

As can be seen in the diagram on Fig. 3, the conceptual meaning of expressions that can be considered neutral outweighs the associative meaning. In the case of both positively and negatively loaded words, both conceptual and associative meanings are important, so that it depends especially on the context in which the particular expression is used. At the end of the scale, there are purr and snarl words, where the conceptual meaning has almost completely lost its importance, and the use of these words is based on their associations in order to evoke either positive or negative feelings.

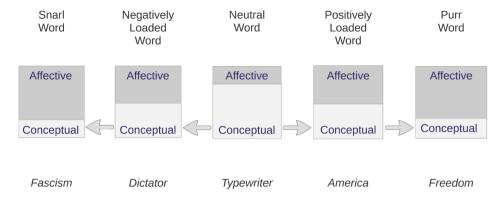


Fig. 3: Adapted from Leech (1990)

4 Practical Application in the Course

The above explained theories are subsequently consolidated by way of simple linguistic analyses of various types of political texts, which include e.g. the first of the three presidential debates in 2004 between George W. Bush and John Kerry from September 30, 2004, and President Obama's Speech on the Death of Osama bin Laden from May 1, 2011.

Students are required to identify examples of strong positive and negative connotations, positively and negatively loaded expressions, and purr and snarl words, based on the theories described in the preceding chapter.

There is a number of recurring expressions, which have been used throughout the last decade by both Republican and Democratic politicians and can be found in the materials analysed by the students in the course. A substantial number of these expressions is connected to the War on Terror, this term itself being very loaded.

4.1 Examples of Loaded Words in the Texts Analysed in the Course

The presidential candidates in 2004 use various negatively loaded nouns when speaking about their enemies, in particular about Saddam Hussein, but also about Osama bin Laden, and in general about terrorists. Both George W. Bush and John Kerry call Saddam Hussein a *threat*, with President Bush also speaking about him as a *risk*. President Bush also speaks about the *ideology of hate* or *ideology of hatred* in relation to terrorists, and Senator Kerry speaks about Osama bin Laden as the greatest *criminal and terrorist*.

Not only is the denotative meaning itself of these words very negative, but so too is their semantic prosody, which contributes to the audience's biased perception of these people. The conceptual meanings of the following words are taken from the Oxford dictionary (http://www.oxforddictionaries.com/), while semantic prosody is based on the most common collocates in the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA).

Threat

The expression *threat* can be considered quite unique, as both of the 2004 presidential candidates concur that Saddam Hussein is a *threat*. It is thus used in a very similar way by both candidates. Nevertheless, the discussion degenerates into an argument of how to deal with such a threat.

Ex.: After 9/11, we had to recognize that when we saw a **threat**, we must take it seriously before it comes to hurt us. (George W. Bush)

Ex.: It was a **threat**. That's not the issue. The issue is what you do about it. (John Kerry)

conceptual meaning	semantic prosody
a person or thing likely to cause damage or danger	serious, real, potential, terrorist

When somebody is a *threat*, it is justified to send the army to destroy him. The word *threat* is thus used in order to explain, in a very simplified way, why American troops were being sent to Iraq and why, for George W. Bush, invading Iraq is a logical direct consequence of the fact that its leader is a *threat*. He wants the American public to understand it in the same way.

Ideology of hate/hatred

George W. Bush claims that the American enemy has an *ideology of hate* or, its variant, *ideology of hatred*.

Ex.: This Nation of ours has got a solemn duty to defeat this **ideology of hate**, and that's what they are. (George W. Bush)

conceptual meaning	semantic prosody	
hate; hatred: intense dislike	racial, ethnic, religious, intense	

We should probably hate and show no mercy to those who hate us. Thanks to the use of this negative appellation of the enemy, it is not necessary to explain what their ideology actually is, and the plan to destroy them is perfectly justified.

Risk

The word *risk* is used by George W. Bush when speaking about Saddam Hussein.

Ex.: Saddam Hussein was a **risk** to our country, ma'am. (George W. Bush)

conceptual meaning	semantic prosody
1. a situation involving exposure to danger	high, increased, greater, higher
a) a person or thing regarded as a threat or likely source of danger	

The word *risk* is used here in exactly the same way as the more frequent word *threat*; they can be considered synonyms in this context. The fact that Hussein was a *risk* justifies George W. Bush's actions in Iraq.

Criminal and terrorist

John Kerry calls Osama bin Laden the world's number one *criminal and terrorist*. The word *terrorist* is also used by Barack Obama in his speech on Osama bin Laden's death.

Ex.: And when we had Osama bin Laden cornered in the mountains of Tora Bora, 1,000 of his cohorts with him in those mountains, with the American military forces nearby and in the field, we didn't use the best trained troops in the world to go kill the world's number one criminal and terrorist. (John Kerry)

Ex.: Tonight, I can report to the American people and to the world that the United States has conducted an operation that killed Osama bin Laden, the leader of al Qaeda, and a **terrorist** who's responsible for the murder of thousands of innocent men, women, and children. (Barack Obama)

conceptual meaning	semantic prosody
criminal: person who has committed a crime	international, violent
terrorist: a person who uses terrorism in the pursuit of political aims	international

John Kerry's statement that Osama bin Laden is the world's number one *criminal* and terrorist implies that it is not Saddam Hussein. As President Bush focused on destroying Hussein, this is actually a reproach to Bush's politics. If bin Laden is the biggest *criminal* and terrorist, it means that Hussein is not. And Bush was mistaken.

As for President Obama's opening sentence of his speech, it is interesting to notice the contrast between the negatively loaded words *terrorist* and *murder*, and the positively loaded expression *innocent men*, *women*, *and children*.

4.2 Examples of Purr Words in the Texts Analysed in the Course

The most typical purr word regularly appearing in the analysed texts with a very high frequency is the word *freedom*. Other examples of purr words, whose occurrence, however, is rather sporadic compared to *freedom*, include the words *democracy*, *peace*, *unity*, *equality*, *liberty*, *justice*, etc.

Ex.: And tonight, let us think back to the sense of **unity** that prevailed on 9/11. I know that it has, at times, frayed. Yet today's achievement is a testament to the **greatness** of our country and the determination of the American people.

The cause of securing our country is not complete. But tonight, we are once again reminded that America can do whatever we set our mind to. That is the story of our history, whether it's the pursuit of **prosperity** for our people, or the struggle for **equality** for all our citizens; our commitment to stand up for our values abroad, and our sacrifices to make the world a safer place.

Let us remember that we can do these things not just because of wealth or power, but because of who we are: one nation, under God, indivisible, with **liberty** and **justice** for all. (Barack Obama)

Freedom and free

As already stated above, the most popular purr word is the word *freedom*. Webb (2006: 47) claims that "unless the context is imprisonment or some grim totalitarian regime, the word *freedom* on the lips of a politician is often a bludgeon to stun us into not thinking precisely".

Poole (2006: 191) claims that the expression *war on terror* is too negative, as it is a war against something and that's why a positive aspect was added to the war – *war for freedom*. Poole then brings to mind George W. Bush's catchphrase 'freedom is on the march' related to the situation in the Middle East.

The concept of *freedom*, used as a noun, is presented as something necessary to fight for and those who make the effort to achieve freedom are good. It is interesting to note the relationship of American freedom to freedom in other parts of the world. The logic is imposed that we (Americans) have to fight for freedom somewhere else in order to have freedom in the United States. But this connection is never explained and it is taken for granted that people will accept this logic.

Ex.: And we'll continue to spread **freedom**. I believe in the transformational power of **liberty**. I believe that a **free** Iraq is in this Nation's interests. I believe a **free** Afghanistan

is in this Nation's interests, and I believe both a **free** Afghanistan and a **free** Iraq will serve as a powerful example for millions who plead in silence for **liberty** in the broader Middle East. (George W. Bush)

In this example, the word *freedom* is used interchangeably with the word *liberty*, which, in this context, has the same meaning and can be considered its synonym. The repetition of the words *freedom*, *free*, and *liberty* in this quote corresponds to Rank's inclusion of repetition among the three most common techniques used in order to intensify various parts of information communicated, the other two techniques being association and composition (1976: 7). According to Rank, however, repetition concerns in particular slogans, signs, symbols, logos and brand names. These are often repeated in order to intensify. The more often you hear or read something, the more you are likely to remember it. Much more common than random repetition is repetition with some kind of patterning in time or space (Rank, 1976: 9).

The adjective *free* was one of the favourite catchwords of former president George W. Bush. Bush would employ this expression when speaking about *free Iraq* and *Iraqis, free Afghanistan, free nations, free society, free Muslims,* and also about *free elections*.

The reason for the overabundant use of the adjective *free* was to justify American military presence in Afghanistan and Iraq, and was supposed to help George W. Bush to disprove the claims of the Democrats that attacking Iraq had been a bad decision for the Republican administration. George W. Bush's aim was a *free world*, which is defined by Wasserman and Hausrath (2006: 68) as "a hackneyed political slogan for that group of nations whose sympathies are allied to American interests, whether their citizens enjoy freedom or are ruled by despots".

5 Concluding Remarks

The aim of the above-described approach to ESP teaching is to broaden the students' horizons by enabling them to see their own field of study from a different perspective. They are taught relevant linguistic theories of the specialized discourse of their field of study, in this particular case political discourse, and apply this newly acquired knowledge in a simple linguistic analysis of political texts.

A substantial part of political language is loaded, and it is important that students of political science are able to identify the loaded vocabulary and explain its hidden meaning. The above-explained knowledge of some basic concepts of lexical semantics, pragmatics and corpus linguistics can be very helpful in this respect. It is possible to analyse political debates, comparing the strategies of the opponents in the debate, as well as political speeches of individual politicians, focusing on the typical features of the person's language. For this purpose, applicable State of

the Union Addresses, Inaugural Addresses, Weekly Addresses, or Press Briefings can be selected by the teacher according to the topic discussed.

The course thus merges the teacher's field of expertise – linguistics – with the field of expertise of the students, i.e. political science. Consequently, the teacher breaks away from being only a consultant, who knows the communication practices, but has no knowledge whatsoever of the carrier content of the material.

On the other hand, thanks to the necessity to read extensive excerpts of texts, listen to authentic recordings, and discuss highly-sophisticated issues in class, the students' reading, listening and speaking skills, as well as advanced vocabulary knowledge, can be systematically developed in the course.

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Bionote

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Project for an Innovative Textbook of Greek and Latin Medical Terminology in Programmes of General Medicine

Aleš Beran

Abstrakt: Příspěvek představuje zamýšlenou podobu učebního textu, jehož hlavní ambicí je žádoucí modernizace výuky řecko-latinské lékařské terminologie. Tato modernizace je založena především na opuštění tradičního gramaticky orientovaného schématu výuky a na snaze o její přiblížení reálným potřebám studentů medicíny. Klíčovým požadavkem je vyvážení formální jazykové stránky a medicínského obsahu. Důležitá je též reflexe reálné podoby lékařské terminologie, v níž se v současné době ve velké míře objevují vedle tvarů v čistých řecko-latinských formách i tvary adaptované pro národní jazyky či výrazy jiného než řeckého nebo latinského původu. Pro učebnici je navržena tripartitní struktura. První část se bude omezovat na anatomické lexikum a na anatomicky relevantní jmenné tvary. Druhá část se zaměří na slovotvorbu klinických a patologických termínů. Bude věcně členěna podle jednotlivých tělních systémů. Ve třetí části dojde k integraci anatomické a klinicko-patologické slovní zásoby, která bude sledována v kontextu souvislejších syntagmat, zejm. diagnóz. V této fázi budou paradigmata latinských deklinací přirozeně doplněna o předložkové pády.

Abstract: The article outlines a future textbook which is designed with the aim of modernizing Greek and Latin medical terminology instruction. This innovation is based primarily on the rejection of the traditional grammar-oriented approach. The key goals are to balance the language form of a medical term with its medical content, and to reflect the real state of how the medical terminology is used in practice. The textbook will be designed according to a tripartite structure.

Key words: medical terminology, Latin, innovations, instructional design, textbook

Objectives

The main objective of this article is to outline a future textbook of Greek and Latin medical terminology and, in general, to design an innovative instructional programme of medical terminology applicable to Czech and Slovak medical schools. At the very beginning we should ask two important questions: Why are we convinced that an innovative textbook is needed and why should the instructional system be redesigned? In other words: What shortcomings or problems in present-day teaching can be identified as the most serious?

History

In order to answer these questions we must go back to the 1950s, when medical terminology became an independent subject at faculties of medicine in the former Czechoslovakia. Before the 1950s there was no need for instruction be-

cause students entering the faculty had sufficient language skills in Latin as well as ancient Greek, which they had acquired at grammar schools (*gymnasiums*), so that they were easily able to understand medical terminology. However, in the mid-twentieth century two school reforms in 1948 and 1953 led to serious problems.¹ These reforms almost completely interrupted the tradition of teaching the classical languages. As a result, students with minimal or no language skills began to apply for the study, causing considerable shock to teachers who were used to students who were able to read the classics.² Due to this situation special courses of medical terminology were instituted (e.g. in Prague the first course started in 1960).

The leading authority in forming the content of the new medical terminology courses was professor *Jan Kábrt* (1910–2006)³, the head of the recently established department of languages at the faculty of general medicine in Prague and the author of the oldest medical terminology textbooks in the Czech environment.⁴ As a former teacher of Latin at grammar school⁵ he was not able to distinguish between the specific instructional objectives of Latin as a classical language, and Latin as a language for specific purposes. Furthermore, another important distinction escaped him as well, namely the one between *Latin language* and *medical terminology*. He did not perceive medical terminology as a multilingual complex, in which Latin and Greek play an important, but not unique role, and where Latin and Greek appear only in a limited number of grammatical forms. In Kábrt's view the medical terminology became a substitution of the Latin taught at grammar school rather than as a medical subject with specific objectives. His influence led to what we would call the *grammatical model* of medical terminology teaching, which is typical especially for Czech and Slovak faculties of medicine.

The grammatical model

Let us start with a brief explanation. What is the *grammatical model* and its short-comings? In our opinion, the most serious problem is the distribution of the content area in a strictly grammatical way dictated by Latin nominal declensions.⁶ In this manner the grammatical approach results in factually incoherent vocabulary

¹ See Beran (2011a: 27–28).

² See Žlábek, & Mazanec (1954: 333 –336), Fried (1955: 208–210), Doskočil (1956: 138–142).

³ He was in charge between 1966 and 1984.

⁴ The oldest Czech textbooks are Kábrt (1954), Kábrt, Valach, & Šembera (1958), Kábrt, Valach (1960).

⁵ For Kábrt's curriculum vitae, see Tmej (1985: 896), Bejlovec (1990: 1280).

⁶ It should be stressed that while inflexion of verbs is almost completely omitted, the nominal inflexion is taught almost in full, i.e. nouns and adjectives in all cases except dative and vocative.

without any inner logical or semantic relations.⁷ Consequently, the aspect of frequency and real usability is almost completely neglected.⁸ A lot of expressions or grammatical forms are presented only as a demonstration of a particular grammatical paradigm without practical application.⁹

The second issue, which is related to the first one, can be called the *semantization* problem. It stems from the preference of formal language forms over the factual content of medical terms. In the grammatical model the students are faced with a large amount of grammatical forms which are continuously transformed into various cases. As a result, the students tend to focus on empty grammatical forms without understanding the real significance of a term. At this point it is necessary to underline that the traditional method of semantization, namely translation. seems to be insufficient as there often is not an apt Czech or Slovak equivalent with a medical term based on Latin or Greek. So, in many cases, a descriptive explication (periphrasis) of the term or some other form of semantization is needed, rather than a purely literal translation. We should also add that there are two more factors obstructing the perfect semantization of medical terms. The first is the aforementioned incoherent vocabulary which prevents making logical associations between single words. The second is the fact that students (being in the first year of study) are usually unable to supply the meaning of a term on the basis of knowledge acquired in other medical courses.

The third serious shortcoming of the grammatically oriented approach is its inability to reflect real-life use. The medical terminology is traditionally presented as if it were pure Latin, without accepting its real state of usage by doctors of medicine. In order to understand the sharp discrepancy between school and real medical terminology we must briefly describe the state of professional language used in the present-day medical environment in the Czech Republic and Slovakia.

Firstly, we must repeat that medical terminology is a multilingual complex comprising not only Latin and Greek words, but many terms from other languages as well. Furthermore, with regard to Latin and Greek vocabulary, it should be said that the professional language prefers the use of forms orthographically and morphologically adapted to the national language. For instance, alongside the orig-

⁷ For instance, in Kábrt's textbook from 1972 within the first declension various expressions of various medical specialties are put together, like *aqua*, *arteria*, *fractura*, *hernia*, *charta*, *insufficientia*, *lagoena*, *massa*, *scatula*, *tabula*, *vertebra*. See Kábrt (1972: 33–35).

⁸ Cf. Artimová, Pořízková, & Švanda (2013).

⁹ In Czech textbooks we can find entirely useless expressions like *alimentum putre* (Svobodová, 2002: 114) *pars interior* (Vejražka, & Svobodová, 2002: 173) or senseless exercises on plural forms of *colon descendens* or *penis* (Vejražka, & Svobodová, 2002: 152, 141).

¹⁰ We suggest contextualization or visualization. See below.

¹¹ E.g. cerclage, bandage (French), by-pass, catgut (English), alcohol (Arabian).

inal form *encephalopathia*, which is presented in textbooks, in practice we often find the form *encefalopatie*, used and inflected as a Czech word. Another typical feature is the presence of many Czech words taken from the common vocabulary, which are used as medical terms as well and we find them mixed with other words of Latin or Greek origin. Finally, medical terminology contains a large number of eponyms 4, acronyms 5 and abbreviations 6 from various language origins.

Now let us resume our description of the grammatically oriented approach. The last problem that we face is an imperfect synchronization between the instruction of both medical terminology and anatomy. The students in anatomical courses face, from the very beginning, a large amount of grammatical forms of Latin nouns. But they are not able to comprehend the various grammatical forms of an anatomical term and its structure as they don't yet have sufficient grammatical skills. Courses of medical terminology focusing on teaching complete paradigms are slow in providing a useful "grammatical service" at the right time. As a result, students have to mechanically memorize the single anatomical terms without comprehending its place in the grammatical system. This approach reinforces the emphasis on mindless memorization. The students are often reluctant to retroactively apply the skills gained later in terminology courses to the anatomical knowledge they have already acquired. Unsurprisingly, they often consider terminological courses to be pointless.

Modernization

With respect to the aforementioned issues, we find it necessary to create a new textbook and to implement innovations in order to teach medical terminology in a truly modern and efficient way. This modernization should be based on the rejection of the traditional grammar-oriented approach, which should be replaced with practice-oriented instruction. There are two key demands we should focus on: (i) the balance of the grammatical form, and its content and (ii) the reflection of

¹² Cf. Marečková, Šimon, & Červený (2002: 583–584).

¹³ A model diagnosis might be for example: *schůdkovitá deformita na oscuboideum* (meaning: *stairstep deformity in cuboid*).

¹⁴ E.g. morbus Crohn.

¹⁵ E.g. AIDS = Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome.

¹⁶ Concerning the abbreviations we notice an interesting process in which abbreviations, having lost language content, become mere symbols. As in the case of many abbreviations we are not able to identify which language is actually abbreviated. A good example might be the abbreviation *TURP*, which can reflect almost any language we want: *Resectio transurethralis prostatae* (Latin), *Transurethral resection of the prostate* (English), *Résection transurétrale de la prostate* (French), *transurethrale Resektion der Prostata* (German), transuretrální resekce prostaty (Czech).

the actual state of medical terminology as a multilingual complex. Consequently, we suggest the following improvements:

- 1. The compilation of vocabulary in an empirical way according to frequency of usage.
- 2. The adoption of a new structure of the instructional content with respect to not only formal grammatical but also *factual* content.
- 3. The use of contextualization and visualization as a means of thorough semantization of the vocabulary.

The practical application of contextualization and visualization should be based on several points. First, we suggest presenting the vocabulary in a broad context of authentic medical texts (e.g. medical reports, prescriptions, professional medical texts), not as a list of isolated terms. In this way the students would naturally internalize the vocabulary by making logical and semantic associations. In other words, one medical term can shed light on another, if there is an appropriate connection. Second, depending on the specific collocation given by authentic texts, students should encounter medical terms in forms which would be either original Latin or a Latin word adapted to the national language, as we have already mentioned. The goal of this contextual approach should be both to enhance the desirable interdisciplinary relationships between various medical courses and to help the students to perceive the nature of professional medical language as a whole. Concerning visualization, the use of high-resolution photographs or well-defined illustrations attached to the texts would give the students a necessary visual dimension, since a picture is often worth a thousand words.

There are two more important questions related to vocabulary. Is there a possibility to effectively use the natural relationship between Greco-Latin terminology and professional English?¹⁷ Does it give us an opportunity to cooperate in teaching both? In order to answer these questions, we must affirm that there is absolutely no reason to teach medical terminology and professional medical English separately, as happens at Czech medical faculties. The relations between these subjects are just too strong to be ignored. In this sense, we can envisage at least two models of how to carry out the cooperation:

1. Medical terminology would be a preparatory course giving students basic vocabulary in both Latin and English. The subsequent or simultaneous profes-

¹⁷ There is no doubt as to the importance of English courses within the medical curriculum and their important role (as a *lingua franca*) in international professional communication. Note the English term is usually only an adaptation of Greek and Latin word to English. Cf. Marečková, Šimon, & Červený (2002: 582).

- sional English course would develop the acquired knowledge and focus on improving receptive and productive language skills. 18
- 2. Alternatively, we could also integrate the Medical terminology and professional English into one module, which we could call *Professional medical language*.

Regardless of which model we prefer, we believe that a certain degree of coordination and integration would be useful for reinforcing the importance of teaching languages within the medical curriculum and could be a significant motivating factor for the students, with the fact that each piece of information is applicable to various courses.

Textbook structure

In the last part of the article we would like to present the structure of the textbook we have started working on. We suggest dividing the textbook into three main parts:

- 1. The first will be limited to anatomical vocabulary and anatomically relevant nominal grammatical forms (i.e. nominative and genitive singular and plural). This should give the students an opportunity to acquire the necessary language skills in order to understand the system of anatomical terminology as soon as possible.¹⁹
- 2. The second part, dealing with components and word-building, will be subdivided according to body systems. ²⁰ Consisting of ten chapters, ²¹ the students will encounter the most important clinical and pathological terms used in practice. As regards the content and the structure of each of the chapters, we suggest the following order: an anatomical description of the respective system, its diseases and conditions, and finally the surgical interventions and therapeutic procedures relevant to the given context.

¹⁸ For instance, within the terms related to digestive system, students in medical terminology course will deal simultaneously with Latin and English expressions: *intestinum tenue – small intestine; colon ascendens – ascending colon; corpus pancreatis – body of pancreas; cholecystitis – cholecystitis; hepatomegalia – hepatomegaly* etc. Next in professional English course, the professional text on the digestive system will be read and interpreted or students will write a paper on this topic.

 $^{^{19}}$ Our pilot tests have shown that eight lessons (90 minutes each) seem to be sufficient for acquiring the basic language skills for anatomy.

²⁰ The division into body systems is typical mainly for English textbooks. We have, however, also noticed this tendency in other languages, like German or Bulgarian. See e.g. Karenberg (2011), Nikolova, & Koleva (2004).

²¹ For the time being, we suggest the following list of topics: (1) *Introduction to word-building of medical terms*, (2) *The body as whole and its parts*, (2) *Skeletal and muscular system*, (3) *The integumentary system*, (4) *The blood and cardiovascular and lymphatic system*, (5) *The digestive system*, (6) *The respiratory system*, (7) *The urinary system*, (8) *The reproductive system*, (9) *The nervous system and sense organs*, (10) *The endocrine system*. These chapters should be covered in ten lessons (90 minutes each).

3. The third part will integrate elements from the previous parts. Both the Latin based anatomical and the Greek based clinical vocabulary²² will be studied as they are used in modern medical diagnoses. For a full understanding of all constructions relevant for present-day Czech physicians it would also be necessary to include the prepositional cases (i.e. accusative and ablative). It is worth noting that at the moment it is impossible to skip the accusative and ablative²³ because prepositions are regularly required in Czech medical practice.²⁴ The brief introduction to prescription and pharmacological terminology would be attached as an appendix to the textbook.

Conclusion

To conclude, let us once more emphasize our conviction that innovations in medical terminology courses are necessary. A thorough revision of present-day teaching seems to be a *conditio sine qua non* for the survival of our courses within the medical curriculum. We believe *the grammatical model* is unsustainable for the future in particular because of two reasons: (i) it does not correspond to the practical needs of medical students and physicians, as demonstrated at the beginning of the article, and (ii) it starkly contrasts with the demands of pragmatically-oriented students of medicine.²⁵

We would also like to stress that there are certainly many possible ways to improve the teaching of medical terminology. Possible innovations may depend on various objectives leading to various respective contents.²⁶ Therefore, we do not want to claim that our design is the only approach viable for the future. We believe, however, that by presenting this proposal we can at least contribute to a discussion on how to teach medical terminology more effectively.

²² The clinical term consists of predominantly Greek word-components.

 $^{^{23}}$ As we find it at German faculties of medicine where only the nominative and genitive are taught. See e.g. Caspar (2007).

²⁴ Let us examine an authentic Czech surgical diagnosis, recently taken at the hospital, to demonstrate its complexity: *St. p. osteosynthesim fracturae partis distalis radii l. dx.* (=*The state after an osteosynthesis of a fracture of a distal end of a right radius*). Here we can see the following: (1) two anatomical expressions, both in genitive (*pars distalis, gen. partis distalis; radius, gen. radii*); (2) two Latin abbreviations (*St. p. = status post; l. dx. = lateris dextri - gen. of latus dextrum /the right side/*); (3) two clinical expressions, one of them in pure Latin, other one the compound based on Greek components (*fractura, gen. fracturae; osteosynthesis: oste-/=bone/, syn-/=together/, thesis /*from Greek verb *tithenai/ = to put*); (4) one prepositional construction using an accusative (*post osteosynthesim*).

²⁵ On this issue, see Beran (2011b: 55-67).

 $^{^{26}}$ For example, we are able to imagine an instruction focusing on ethics, cultural history, history of medicine etc. See Beran (2015: 84–91).

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Bionote

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Špecifiká lekárskej terminológie v zubnom lekárstve

Mária Bujalková a Dagmar Statelová

Abstrakt: Pre predmet lekárska terminológia v zubnom lekárstve nemá väčšina fakúlt v Čechách ani na Slovensku špeciálne výučbové materiály. Dôvodom je určite aj rozsah vedomostí požadovaný od zubných lekárov, pretože v praxi musia uplatňovať multidisciplinárny prístup, počínajúc od všeobecno-medicínskych disciplín až po špeciálne zameranie na zdravie a choroby ústnej dutiny a maxilofaciálnej oblasti. Je zrejmé, že treba vytvoriť vhodne kombinované učebné materiály, ktoré by vo väčšej miere reflektovali potreby zubného lekárstva, čo sa týka jeho špecifickej terminológie. V oblasti anatomickej terminológie by zahŕňali okrem vybraného okruhu termínov zo všeobecnej anatómie aj anatómiu zubov, termíny označujúce smer a polohu (hlavy a zubov) a pod. V klinickej terminológii by sa zamerali okrem zubno-lekárskych odborov aj na oblasť orálnej a maxilofaciálnej chirurgie. Nová učebnica, ktorá zohľadňuje všetky požiadavky praxe, bude vytvorená v spolupráci s klinikou stomatológie.

Kľúčové slová: lekárska terminológia, zubné lekárstvo, anatómia a choroby ústnej dutiny, orálna a maxilofaciálna chirurgia

Abstract: There aren't any particular textbooks to teach the course of Medical terminology in dentistry at many faculties in the Czech Republic or Slovakia. One of the reasons is the range of knowledge required from dentists who have to apply a multidisciplinary approach, starting in disciplines of general medicine up to the special orientation to health and diseases of the oral and the maxillofacial area. Obviously, there is necessity to create appropriately combined course materials, reflecting in larger extend the need for special terms in dentistry. In the field of anatomical terminology it covers the selected terms in general anatomy as well as teeth anatomy, expressions of directions and location, etc. In the clinical terminology there should be focus on various fields of dentistry, the field of oral and maxillofacial surgery. The new textbook, taking into consideration all requirements of praxis, is going to be created in cooperation with the clinic of dentistry.

Key words: medical terminology, dentistry, anatomy and diseases of oral cavity, oral and maxillofacial surgery

1 Úvod

Z porovnania dĺžky štúdia zubného lekárstva na Slovensku a v Čechách vyplýva, že na Slovensku trvá štúdium 6 rokov a v Čechách 5 rokov (od roku 2004/2005). V obidvoch krajinách sa absolventom udeľuje titul MDDr. Edukácia slovenských zubných lekárov kladie za prioritné poznatky teoretických, predklinických, klinických predmetov medicíny a zubného lekárstva v kontexte s integritou celého organizmu, pričom absolvent štúdia má uplatňovať všeobecno-medicínsky pohľad v symbióze s multidisciplinárnym medicínskym prístupom. Zubný lekár by mal dokázať posúdiť prejavy celkových ochorení s ochoreniami v oblasti ústnej dutiny a tváre, ktoré vychádzajú zo štúdia všeobecno-medicínskych klinických predmetov.

V Českej republike sa skrátením štúdia obmedzilo všeobecno-medicínske vzdelanie na úkor praktickej výučby, s argumentom, že absolvent by mal byť schopný ihneď začať samostatne pracovať. Ako ukázala anketa v bulletine Jednička (č. 5/2014) 1. lékařské fakulty UK Praha k otázke eventuálneho rozšírenia štúdia na 6 rokov, existujú názory, ktoré toto opatrenie vidia ako chybné a zdôvodňujú to takto: "Moderní zubní lékař bude potřebovat stejně robustní všeobecně medicínský základ jako absolvent všeobecného lékařství" (prof. J. Mazánek); "K hlavním důvodům pro prodloužení doby studia patří především vyšší morbidita pacientů napříč všemi věkovými skupinami" (prof. J. Dušková).

Funkcia latinčiny je dodnes nezastupiteľná v hlavných lekárskych oblastiach, v anatomickej, klinicko-patologickej, ako aj farmaceutickej terminológii. Anatomické a klinické termíny, ktoré sa dnes používajú v medicíne, sú latinské, resp. latinizované grécke pojmy, ktorých pôvod sa dá sledovať až do 5. stor. pred n. l. (Gadebusch Bondio a kol., 2007, s. 10).

Anatomická a klinická terminológia pre zubné lekárstvo nemá v súčasnosti na Slovensku ani v Čechách oficiálne kodifikovanú latinskú terminológiu vydanú knižne. Nie je k dispozícii ani jednotná učebnica ako hodnoverný terminologický zdroj pre študentov, zubných lekárov a maxilofaciálnych chirurgov. Lekárske fakulty, kde prebieha edukácia zubných lekárov, to riešia vlastnými internými učebnými textami (skriptá, handouty apod.), čo je samozrejme len náhradné a insuficientné riešenie. Bohužiaľ ani pre predmet latinská lekárska terminológia v zubnom lekárstve neexistujú samostatné výučbové materiály (používajú sa učebné texty pre všeobecné lekárstvo s doplnkami).

S tým úzko súvisí používanie latinskej lekárskej terminológie na slovenských klinikách stomatológie / zubného lekárstva a maxilofaciálnej / tvárovo-čeľustnej chirurgie. Lekári podľa predpisov vypisujú diagnózy s číselným kódom povinne v slovenčine. V zdravotných záznamoch pacientov (chorobopisoch) sa uvádzajú diagnózy aj v latinčine. Pracovníci kliniky stomatológie a maxilofaciálnej chirurgie poskytli pre potreby výučby autentické anonymné klinické latinské diagnózy a Ústav cudzích jazykov ponúkol revíziu a jazykovú korektúru písania týchto diagnóz. Ďalším bodom spolupráce zo strany kliniky je vytypovanie všeobecných a špecifických termínov pre zubné lekárstvo a maxilofaciálnu chirurgiu.

2 Princípy tvorby učebnice lekárskej terminológie pre zubné lekárstvo

Tvorba skrípt či učebníc lekárskej terminológie pre zubných lekárov a maxilofaciálnych chirurgov sa ako tvorba každej príručky tohto typu zameriava nielen na nevyhnutné lingvistické aspekty, t. j. slovnú zásobu, základné paradigmy a ich precvičovanie, ale aj na praktické požiadavky odboru. V zubnom lekárstve a tvárovo-čeľustnej chirurgii to znamená uplatňovať v praxi multidisciplinárny prístup, počínajúc od všeobecno-medicínskych disciplín až po špeciálne zameranie na zdravie a choroby ústnej dutiny a maxilofaciálnej oblasti. Okrem toho je tu aj aspekt terminologický – učebnica je pokusom o zosumarizovanie a prípadnú korekciu latinských zubno-lekárskych a maxilofaciálnych chirurgických termínov a ich slovenských paralel.

Učebnica lekárskej terminológie pre zubné lekárstvo vychádza z teoretických a praktických potrieb, ktoré zahŕňajú:

- odbornú slovnú zásobu zameranú na zubné lekárstvo, maxilofaciálnu chirurgiu a základné medicínske odbory (napr. anatómiu, fyziológiu, internú medicínu, chirurgiu, pediatriu, psychiatriu, gynekológiu), ale aj na príbuzné odbory (napr. ORL, neurochirurgiu, traumatológiu, oftalmológiu, onkológiu, plastickú chirurgiu), ako i niektoré iné špecializované odbory (napr. kardiológiu, endokrinológiu, hematológiu),
- gramatické kategórie a javy vysvetľované štruktúrne i obsahovo,
- tvorenie slov pomocou typických gréckych a latinských prefixov, sufixov a základov slov,
- termíny a terminologické konštrukcie, ktoré vychádzajú priamo z odborného názvoslovia a diagnóz,
- gramatická stránka písania receptu, pretože u nás sa stále udržuje tradícia písania receptov po latinsky,
- stručný historický náhľad na medicínsku terminológiu.

V tejto súvislosti treba spomenúť výučbu anatómie na Jesseniovej lekárskej fakulte UK Martin, ktorá prebieha s dôrazom na všeobecné medicínske vzdelanie tak, že:

- 1. semester je zameraný na všeobecné lekárstvo
- 2. semester je kombinovaný (skrátená výučba niektorých systémov) + skúška
- 3. semester je špecializovaný na zubné lekárstvo, t. j. topografickú anatómiu orálnej a maxilofaciálnej oblasti a končí záverečnou skúškou (pozri v internetových zdrojoch).

V jednotlivých kapitolách sa podáva výklad najdôležitejších latinských (ale i gréckych) gramatických javov, ktorých poznanie je potrebné na pochopenie formy, ale najmä obsahu termínov. Učebnica ponúka ku gramatickej látke rad cvičení, každá lekcia obsahuje tiež slovný (terminologický) materiál, ktorý je potom sústredený aj v centrálnom slovníku. Jednotlivé cvičenia tvoria organický celok, ktorého zložky na seba nadväzujú gramaticky aj lexikálne a sú vnútorne pospájané náležitými metodickými zásadami.

Osvojiť si termín znamená osvojiť si vedome a dôsledne jeho formálnu i obsahovú zložku. Každý komplikovanejší pojem a termín treba dôkladne analyzovať

a následne urobiť aj syntézu – s cieľom pochopiť jeho jednotlivé zložky a zároveň pochopiť celok. Ovládanie štruktúry termínov, frekventovaných slovotvorných prvkov a ich významov zabezpečuje bezpečnú sémantickú orientáciu v odvodených a zložených pomenovaniach či viacslovných termínoch a pomocou analýzy a syntézy umožňuje pochopiť i neznáme termíny. Je preto zmysluplné dať prednosť týmto metódam pred mechanickým učením.

Prvým dôležitým krokom k tomu, aby sme mohli naplniť tieto ciele a zásady, je vytvoriť korpus základných anatomických a klinických termínov. V našom prípade najmä termínov z oblasti zubného lekárstva a maxilofaciálnej chirurgie, pretože zdroje zo základných medicínskych disciplín sú už dostatočne spracované. Pri anatomických zubno-lekárskych termínoch v latinčine vychádzame z medzinárodne platnej anatomickej nomenklatúry (Terminologia Anatomica, 1998), učebníc anatómie (Čihák, 2001, 2002; Mráz 2004, 2005) a slovníka anatómie (Dauber, 2007). Pri klinických/maxilofaciálnych termínoch z Medzinárodnej klasifikácie chorôb (ICD-10, 2011) a korpusu z kliniky stomatológie v Martine, ale i iných prístupných databáz.

3 Špecifické zubno-lekárske anatomické a klinické termíny

3.1 Termíny označujúce smer a polohu na hlave

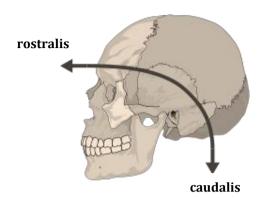
Pri týchto termínoch je *condicio sine qua non* brať do úvahy charakteristiky, špecifiká a najmä ich správne používanie v určitých kontextoch (Bujalková, Mellová, 2010, s. 20, 22). **Na hlave** sa pre štruktúry orientované smerom nahor a nadol nepoužívajú pomenovania *cranialis* a *caudalis*, ale používajú sa tu názvy *superior – inferior*, napr. *palpebra superior*, *palpebra inferior*, *labium superius*, *labium inferius*, *facies superior et inferior corporis ossis sphenoidalis* atď.Na opis priebehu ciev a nervov sa však termíny *cranialis* a *caudalis* používajú aj na hlave, napr. *arteria facialis* prebieha na tvári šikmo kraniálne (kranioventrálne).

Z hľadiska anatomických smerov je dôležité vedieť, že v mozgu sú všetky smery posunuté o 90 $^{\circ}$ ventrálnym smerom, t. j. dopredu. Je to dané vývojom CNS, kedy sa mozgový vak ohýba voči nervovej trubici smerom dopredu. Preto na vyjadrenie smeru "dopredu" sa tu používa termín:

rostralis – zobákový (smerom k prednej časti hlavy), z lat. rostrum – zobák.

Okrem všeobecne platných termínov *lateralis* a *medialis* sa na hlave používajú napríklad na oku alebo na kostiach lebky aj tieto pomenovania:

occipitalis – záhlavný, z lat. *occiput, occipitis*) – záhlavie; nasalis – nosový, (t. j. smerom k nosu uloženému v strede), z lat. *nasus* – nos; temporalis – spánkový, (t. j. na boku hlavy), z lat. *tempora* (pl.) – spánky, sluchy.



Obr. 1: Zdroj: https://de.wikipedia.org/wiki/Anatomische Lage- und Richtungsbezeichnungen

Pre štruktúry hlavy ležiace vzadu a hore sa používajú pomenovania:

oralis – ústny, z lat. *os, oris* – ústa, smerom k ústam; termín sa používa najmä pri opise tráviacej sústavy;

aboralis – smerom od úst, z lat. *ab* – od, *os*, *oris* – ústa; termín sa používa najmä pri opise tráviacej sústavy;

labialis – perový, z lat. labium – pera;

mentalis - bradový, z lat. mentum - brada;

facialis - tvárový, z lat. facies - tvár;

frontalis - čelový, v oblasti čela, z lat. frons, frontis - čelo.

3.2 Termíny označujúce smer a polohu na zuboch

Na zuboch sa na označenie smeru a polohy používajú špeciálne termíny, napr. pre zakrivenie zubného oblúka sa pri pomenovaní plôch koruniek zubov používa termín *mesialis* namiesto termínu *medialis* pri rezákoch a namiesto termínu *anterior* pri ostatných zuboch. Podobne termín *distalis* sa používa namiesto termínu *lateralis* pri rezákoch a namiesto termínu *posterior* pri ostatných zuboch. Najfrekventovanejšie sú tieto termíny:

coronalis – smerom ku korunke zuba, z lat. corona – veniec, koruna;

cervicalis – krčkový, smerom k zubnému krčku, z lat. *cervix, cervicis* – krk, šija, krček:

radicularis - koreňový, týkajúci sa koreňa zuba, z lat. radicula - korienok;
 apicalis - hrotový, smerom k hrotu koreňa zuba, z lat. apex, apicis - hrot;
 mesialis - meziálny, smerom ku stredu zubného oblúka, z gr. mesos - stredný, uprostred;

distalis – vzdialenejší, smerom ku koncu zubného oblúka, z lat. *distare* – byť vzdialený, byť oddelený;

approximalis – smerom k najbližšiemu zubu, z lat. ad (tu asimilované na ap-) – k, ku, pri; proximus – najbližší;

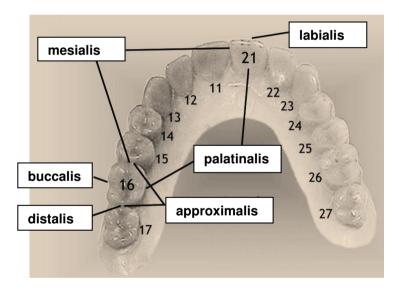
vestibularis – predsieňový, smerom k predsieni úst, z lat. *vestibulum* – predsieň, vchod:

labialis – perový, smerom k perám obrátená strana zuba, z lat. *labium* – pera; **buccalis** – lícny, tvárový, smerujúci k lícu, z lat. *bucca* – líce, tvár;

palatalis/palatinalis – podnebný, smerom k podnebiu, z lat. *palatum* – podnebie; **lingualis** – jazykový, majúci vzťah/smerujúci k jazyku, z lat. *lingua* – jazyk;

occlusalis – oklúzny, obrátený k zubu protiľahlého zubného oblúka, týkajúci sa uzáveru (zhryzu), z lat. *occludere* – zavrieť;

incisalis – týkajúci sa rezacej hrany zuba, z lat. incidere – vrezať, vyrezať;
 interdentalis – medzizubný, nachádzajúci sa medzi dvoma zubmi, z lat. inter – medzi; dens, dentis – zub.



Obr. 2: Označenie polohy a smeru na čeľusti. Zdroj: https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/d/d0/Lage-_und_Verh%C3%A4ltnisbestimmung_Zahn.jpg

3.3 Termíny v klinických zubno-lekárskych diagnózach (= klinický korpus)

V tejto podkapitole uvádzame pre záujemcov z radov latinčinárov prehľad živých, t. j. reálne používaných zubno-lekárskych latinských diagnóz z martinskej kliniky, ktoré budú súčasťou klinického korpusu použitého v učebnici a doplnené výberom

z iných pracovísk. Je to pre nás veľmi cenný materiál, ktorý si však v mnohých prípadoch vyžaduje úzku spoluprácu a komentár lekára – odborníka.

Α

- · Ablatio tumoris
- Abscessus submandibularis et perimandibularis
- · Adenocarcinoma orbitae
- Adenoma glandulae parotidis
- Ameloblastoma anguli et rami mandibulae
- Antrotomia
- Arthrosis articulationis temporomandibularis
- Arthropathia
- Avulsio dentis

В

- · Basalioma nasi
- · Basalioma orbitae

C

- Carcinoma apicis linguae
- Carcinoma baseos oris et processus alveolaris mandibulae
- · Carcinoma baseos oris l. dx.
- Ca baseos oris cum metastasibus ad lymfoglandulas sumbandibulares et colli l. sin
- · Carcinoma basocellulare
- Carcinoma buccae l. sin.
- Carcinoma cutis regionis praeauricularis
- Carcinoma in situ baseos oris
- Carcinoma labii oris inferioris
- Carcinoma linguae l. sin.
- Carcinoma marginis linguae
- · Carcinoma maxillae
- · Carcinoma mucosae
- Carcinoma oropharyngis
- Carcinoma palati duri
- Carcinoma palati mollis
- Carcinoma radicis linguae et oropharyngis
- · Carcinoma regionis retromandibularis
- Carcinoma spinocellulare linguae
- Caries profunda dentis 33
- Communicatio oroantralis l. dx. post extractionem dentis 26
- Corpus alienum in antro
- Crista volans
- Cystis folicullare rami mandibulae
- Cystis mandibulae residualis
- · Cystis radicularis maxillae

D

- Decubitus regionis premaxillae
- Dehiscentio vulneris

- · Dens retinatus cum cysti foliculari
- Dens supernumerarius
- Dentitio difficilis molaris 48
- Dentitio difficilis tertii molaris inferioris lateris dextri
- Dissectio colli

E

- Epulis fissurata
- Excisio fibromatis, lipomatis
- Exostosis processus alveolaris mandibulae
- Exstirpatio cystis
- · Extractio dentis

F

- · Fibroma faciei et colli
- Fibroma durum
- Fibrosarcoma maxillae
- Fractura anguli mandibulae l. dx. cum dislocatione fragmentorum
- Fractura arcus zygomatici impressiva
- Fractura baseos orbitae
- Fractura completa zygomaticoalveolaris l. dx.
- Fractura corporis mandibulae comminutiva
- Fractura corporis mandibulae cum dente N°33 in fissura fracturae
- Fractura mandibulae pathologica
- Fractura maxillae Le Fort II
- Fractura processus articularis mandibulae l. sin.dislocata

G

- Gingivitis marginalis
- Gingivostomatitis herpetica
- Granuloma fissuratum

н

- Haemangioma cavernosum linguae
- Hemimandibulectomia propter necrosim

CH

- Cheilitis simplex
- Chondrosarcoma mandibulae

I

· Incisio abscessus

Ī.

- Leukoplakia oris
- Lipoma buccae
- Luxatio mandibulae
- Lymphadenopathia colli
- Lymphangioma colli

M

- · Maxillectomia subtotalis l. sin.
- Melanoma malignum faciei

- Mesiodens
- · Mordex apertus

N

- · Neoplasma malignum colli
- Neuralgia nervi trigemini

0

- · Ostectomia mandibulae
- · Osteoma mandibulae
- · Osteomyelitis maxillae
- · Osteoradionecrosis mandibulae
- · Osteosynthesis mandibulae

P

- Papiloma palati mollis
- Parodontitis acuta/chronica
- · Perforatio disci articularis
- Periodontitis acuta dentis 38
- Periodontitis acuta/chronica
- · Periostitis mandibulae
- · Phlegmona colli
- Progenia vera
- · Pseudocystis mandibulae
- Pulpitis acuta

R

- Radix in antro
- Radix relicta
- Replantatio dentis
- Repositio fracturae mandibulae
- Resectio apicis dentis
- Resectio tumoris
- · Retentio molaris tertii inferioris
- Revisio
- · Rhabdomyosarcoma mandibulae

S

- · Sarcoma mandibulae
- Sequestrectomia mandibulae
- Sialoadenitis glandulae submandibularis l. sin.
- Sialodocholithiasis
- Sialolithiasis
- Sinusitis maxillaris
- Status post resectionem tumoris mandibulae
- Status post suturam vulneris
- Stomatitis
- · Subluxatio dentis

Т

- Torus palatinus
- · Trepanatio dentis

- · Tumor buccae
- Tumor colli l. sin.
- Tumor glandulae parotidis l. sin.
- Tumor in regione submandibulari
- · Tumor labii oris inferioris
- · Tumor linguae
- · Tumor orbitae l. dx.

H

· Ulcus mucosae oris

V

- Vulnera scissa faciei
- Vulnus lacerum contusum labii oris superioris
- · Vulnus sclopetarium

X

Xerostomia

4 Spracovanie materiálu v učebnici

Na naplnenie stanovených cieľov a zásad je potom rozhodujúci druhý krok – vypracovanie jednotlivých lekcií. Texty v lekciách by mali reagovať na najnovší vývoj, t. j. obsahovať len anatomické termíny z poslednej medzinárodnej nomenklatúry Terminologia anatomica (1998), alebo výklad receptu podľa účinnej látky, ktorý sa zaviedol na Slovensku v nedávnej dobe. Výber termínov a cvičení s miernou prevahou anatomických termínov bude zodpovedať tomu, že študent prvého ročníka sa stretáva najviac s anatomickou nomenklatúrou, ale nezanedbateľnou súčasťou bude aj súbor klinických termínov, najmä zubno-lekárskych diagnóz a liečebných postupov.

Lekcie budú mať túto predbežne stanovenú štruktúru:

- 1. teoretická časť, t. j. gramatický výklad
- 2. vybrané termíny z anatomického a klinického korpusu aplikované v terminologických konštrukciách a cvičeniach
- 3. cvičenia budú zamerané na preberané gramatické javy a gramatické štruktúry
- 4. v cvičeniach budú aplikované zobrazenia orgánov alebo častí tela, ktoré poslúžia na vizualizáciu a objasnenie termínov
- 5. stabilná časť každej lekcie, Ad illustrandum, vhodnou formou upozorní na niektoré zvláštnosti lekárskych termínov, na niektoré čiastočné synonymá a na niektoré historické súvislosti
- 6. latinsko-slovenský slovník (slovná zásoba príslušnej lekcie).

5 Závery

V priebehu výučby sa študenti zubného lekárstva zoznamujú s lekárskymi termínmi, ktoré patria do všeobecno-medicínskych disciplín, ale najmä do oblasti zubného lekárstva a tvárovo-čeľustnej chirurgie. Keďže pre predmet lekárska terminológia v zubnom lekárstve nemá v súčasnosti väčšina fakúlt v Čechách ani na Slovensku výučbové materiály, je potrebné vytvoriť vhodne kombinované učebné materiály, ktoré by vo väčšej miere reflektovali potreby zubného lekárstva vrátane jeho špecifickej terminológie.

To znamená zamerať sa v oblasti anatomickej terminológie okrem vybraného okruhu termínov zo všeobecnej anatómie aj na anatómiu zubov a tvárovej oblasti, na špeciálne termíny označujúce smer a polohu hlavy a zubov a pod. V klinickej terminológii využiť pri tvorbe učebnice korpus reálne používaných zubno-lekárskych latinských diagnóz z martinskej kliniky a iných prístupných databáz. Tým prejudikujeme nevyhnutnú spoluprácu lingvistu a odborníka – zubného lekára, pretože veľa termínov si vyžaduje jeho objasnenie a používanie v praxi.

Takto by sa mohla splniť kľúčová požiadavka novej učebnice z lingvisticko-didaktického hľadiska – skĺbenie teoretickej časti (t. j. gramatiky) s praktickými požiadavkami štúdia zubného lekárstva.

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How to involve medical history taking effectively in LSP teaching

Katalin Eklicsné Lepenye, Ágnes Koppán and Tímea Németh

Abstract: The Department of Languages for Specific Purposes at the University of Pécs, Medical School (UPMS) has started to develop innovative practices; modernized blended-learning methods and tools in the field of medical communication (history taking).

Educational material is worked out, communication courses are involved in pilot experimentation, and digitally available educational material assist our foreign students in acquiring practical communication skills in medical Hungarian. Authenticity is ensured by internists and language teachers who collect and record doctor–patient conversations in our mother tongue while taking past medical history. Following the recording, the conversations are transcribed, segmented and according to EU standards texts of A1, A2, B1 (B2 as future intention) levels are worked out, as foreign medical students arrive with no or very basic Hungarian. Video-recording of the history-taking scenes has been carried out with professional actors to prevent violation of privacy rights. As a next step task-based case studies, as well as check lists, have been designed to provide at professional perspective and to ensure the use of appropriate communication and linguistic tools.

The pilot experiments are conducted in blended-learning university courses applying peer-assisted learning. The video-recorded conversations may be used in early beginning phases of language acquisition to enhance motivation, accelerate vocabulary expansion as well as raise diverse cultural awareness of the Hungarian doctor–patient communication that may be very different from the norms of the students' home country.

Provision of behavioural and communicational samples, pronunciation exercises, self-tests and keys enable personal learning, and equip the future doctors with the patient-centred conversational strategies for interviewing the 21st century patients of different ages, sex, background and race.

Key words: communication skills, effective history taking, blended-learning, peer-assisted learning, case reports

Abstrakt: Das Institut für Medizinische Fachsprachen und Kommunikation an der Medizinischen Fakultät der Universität von Pécs hat innovative Lehr- und Lernmethoden im Bereich der medizinischen Fachkommunikation entwickelt. Der Fokus liegt auf dem erfolgreichen Erlernen der Anamneseerhebung auf Ungarisch.

Für die Medizinstudenten im englischen und deutschen Programm wird eine webbasierte Lernplattform zur interaktiven Vermittlung klinisch-praktischer Fertigkeiten der Arzt-Patienten-Kommunikation in der ungarischen medizinischen Fachsprache ausgearbeitet. Dabei werden Pilotstudie-Kommunikationskurse in einbezogen, die sich mit dem Anamnesegespräch als Kommunikationsbasis beschäftigen. Das Konzept von diesen Anamnesekursen ist das sogenannte "peer-assisted learning" (PAL) oder peer-gestütztes Lernen mit ungarischen studentischen Tutoren und die Arbeit mit echten Patienten. Eine Pécser Besonderheit: ein

Lerntandem oder eine Peer-Gruppe setzt sich aus je einem älteren ungarischen studentischen Tutor und Studierenden des deutschen oder englischen Studienganges, d.h. Studierenden aus verschiedenen Herkunftsländern zusammen. Dieses innovative Lehrkonzept trägt also zur interkulturellen Sensibilisierung von Studierenden und zur Gestaltung eines internationalisierten Lernraums bei.

Die Grundlage der neuen Lernplattform bilden videobasierte E-Learning-Materialien, die unter der Supervision von Internisten zusammengestellt wurden.

Authentische Arzt-Patient-Gespräche wurden in der Klinik gefilmt. Die Aufzeichnungen der Dialoge wurden nachbearbeitet: gemäß Kommunikationszwecken aufgeteilt und so gestaltet, dass sie dem Niveau des Lernenden entsprechen. Die Texte werden den Sprachlevels A1, A2, B1 (B2 als zukünftiges Ziel) entsprechend modifiziert, eventuell vereinfacht, da die meisten internationalen Medizinstudenten ihr Studium mit keinem oder sehr geringem Basiswissen in Ungarisch beginnen. Die Anamneseerhebung wurde mit professionellen Schauspielern durchgeführt, um Verletzung privater Rechte vorzubeugen.

Im nächsten Schritt werden Aufgaben-orientierte Fallstudien sowie Checklisten erstellt werden, um einen professionellen Blickwinkel zu bieten und die Anwendung geeigneter Kommunikation und sprachlicher Werkzeuge sicherzustellen.

Die Video-aufgezeichneten Konversationen werden möglicherweise in der Anfangsphase des Spracherwerbs angewandt, um die Grundstruktur und den Grundwortschatz der Anamnese so früh wie möglich zu erlernen, die Motivation der Studierenden zu steigern, sowie die Betonung bereits in vorklinischen Semestern auf klinische Bezüge zu legen.

Wir sind überzeugt, dass Verhaltens- und Kommunikationsbeispiele, Ausspracheübungen und Selbsttests sowie Lösungsschlüssel nicht nur das individuelle Lernen ermöglichen, sondern zukünftige Ärzte mit den notwendigen Kommunikationsstrategien ausstatten, die für die Befragung eines Patienten im 21. Jahrhundert von verschiedenem Alter, Geschlecht, Stellung, ethnischer und kultureller Herkunft notwendig sind.

Abstrakt: Katedra jazyků pro specifické účely na Univerzitě v Pécsi, Lékařská škola (UPMS), začala rozvíjet inovativní praxi – zmodernizované metody a nástroje smíšené výuky v oboru lékařské komunikace (získávání lékařské historie). Vypracovali jsme vzdělávací materiál, pilotní experimentování obsahuje kurzy komunikace a digitálně dostupný vzdělávací materiál pomáhá zahraničním studentům získávat praktické komunikační dovednosti v lékařské maďarštině. Autenticita je zajišťována internisty a jazykovými učiteli, kteří při získávání lékařské historie sbírají a zaznamenávají konverzace mezi lékařem a pacientem v našem mateřském jazyce. Následně jsou konverzace přepsány a rozčleněny a podle standardů Evropské unie jsou vypracovány texty na úrovních A1, A2, B1 (B2 je v plánu). Videozáznamy ze získávání lékařské historie, které jsou natáčeny s profesionálními herci, pomáhají studentům rychleji rozvíjet slovní zásobu a zvýšovat povědomí o kulturních normách komunikace mezi lékařem a pacientem v Maďarsku. Jako další krok jsou vytvořeny případové studie s úkoly a kontrolní seznamy, aby byla poskytnuta profesionální perspektiva a zajištěno používání vhodných komunikačních a lingvistických nástrojů. Pilotní pokusy jsou prováděny formou smíšené výuky v univerzitních kurzech, kde si studenti pomáhají navzájem (peer-assisted learning).

Introduction

Regular encounters between medical students and patients, and acquiring clinical skills play an important role in medical training. Therefore, developed communication skills are inevitable and also effective tools for taking the patients' histories, performing physical examinations and conducting further clinical tests. Clinical skills may be fostered by good staff communication based on team work (Abdulmohsen, 2007). Thus, communication skills are a pre-requisite for an appropriate diagnosis, thereby providing a time-and-cost effective treatment. Our innovative approach is designed to improve communication skills in professional settings as well as to promote language learning in international programmes.

As the European student environment is undergoing radical changes, an increasing number of students go to study abroad either through various bilateral agreements, European Union-level mobility programmes or as international, degreeseeking students. Globalization and world-wide migration are also part of the reasons why the scope of higher education has completely changed, thus enabling increased contact of diverse cultures (Németh et al., 2009). Therefore, a well-defined need has emerged over the past few decades for the implementation of international dimensions in the curricula that aims to internationalize higher education worldwide (Knight, 1993; Betlehem et al., 2003).

One of the tools for the internationalization of the curricula is to develop students' intercultural competencies. Although, there is no consensus on what intercultural competence is, it is integrated in the doctor–patient communication.

The University of Pécs, Medical School among other European universities, offers medical training programmes in English and German. Students have a chance to study the core medical subjects thoroughly in these languages; however, the student–patient encounters in an authentic environment (hospital, clinic) can only happen in Hungarian. The reason for that is rather simple. The majority of Hungarian patients do not speak any languages. Therefore, to acquire clinical skills means working on improving professional and language skills at the same time.

A few years ago it was doubted whether history taking skills could be acquired through language and intercultural studies. Now we have evidence for that. Our initiative has two main objectives: firstly, to enable students to practise medical history taking in Hungarian and solve language-related communication problems, as an important part of quality medical training, and secondly, to help overloaded physicians by preparing students for history taking.

Methods

The design of our approach is based on intercultural competencies, language and professional requirements analyses (Koppán, Halász, 2014; Németh, 2014).

Between September and November of 2014 a survey was carried out at the Medical School of the University of Pécs to find out how to increase intercultural competencies of medical students. One tool to increase these competencies is to participate in various mobility programmes for longer or shorter periods of time. However, data suggest that only 1% of the Hungarian student population and less than 0.5% of Hungarian medical students are mobile (Tempus, 2014), mainly due to language and financial problems. Thus, the aim of the survey was to investigate other means to help students to increase their intercultural competencies necessary for their future jobs as doctors working in multicultural settings.

The survey involved three target groups: students (both Hungarian and international), doctors (both working locally and abroad) and Hungarian lecturers of UPMS. Sixty five responses were received from the student sample (average age between 18 and 25), 21 from doctors, (average age between 36 and 45) and 24 from lecturers (average age between 36 and 45).

The survey found that the importance of mobility programmes and experience abroad has to be highlighted. However, non-mobile medical students' intercultural competencies need to be developed locally, and alternative methods and classes should be incorporated into the curricula. These involve tandem or peer-assisted classes, besides classes on cultural/multicultural issues within medical care. With the introduction of these innovative methods authors believe that medical students and also lecturers will be better equipped to meet the challenges of the 21st century education.

The evaluation of language and professional requirements revealed that foreign students need Hungarian Language skills primarily for taking a patient's past medical history, and carrying out a patient examination (in a Hungarian hospital). Co-operation with clinicians made the medical field's needs explicit: students have to take the patient's history in Hungarian without assistance due to time limitations and other responsibilities of the doctors. Then, they may give the Hungarian physician the case reports in English or German. Thus, updating the educational material seemed inevitable.

When the relevant data has been collected, we began searching for methods to meet the present's generation requirements. That is how we found blended-learning. However, we soon realized, that using different audio-visual and digitally available aids would not be an effective solution, so we created a special peer-tutoring system and introduced it into teaching. Blended learning, as we will see later, combines classroom and internet-based learning (with video-recorded doctor-patient interviews and relevant exercises).

Peer-tutoring, detailed below, in our interpretation, adds an innovative element to the approach, since acquisition of history taking happens through teaching medical Hungarian to international students. They – peer-assisted by Hungarian students in their senior years – practise medical communication with patients in an authentic clinical environment while developing medical interviewing techniques. Skills and professional awareness are further improved by watching and evaluating video-recorded doctor-patient conversations in the classroom. We believe that our approach is innovative, as peer-tutoring does not occur in Hungarian higher education, and also because it integrates language and professional skills, ensuring authentic setting and participants like hospital staff and patients.

Peer-tutoring

Since the 1980's peer assisted learning of clinical skills has become recognized and widely accepted. For example, in Germany (Krautter et al, 2014) the University of Heidelberg's model is called PAL (peer assisted learning). The university's senior medical students help their junior fellows in studying history-taking.

The English 'peer' has more interpretations in the Hungarian professional literature, one of which is 'fellow-sufferer' (Rácz, 2008). It highlights the shared and/or mutual status between partners similar in age that can be considered a key factor in building trust and genuine reliability. The work accomplished by peers is based on agreement and motivation to achieve a mutual aim.

The concept of shared status appears also in Boud's reciprocal peer learning (2001), emphasizing the mutual benefit from studying together.

Nestel and Kidd (2003) alike find peer learning a determining factor in developing clinical skills when taking medical history in a patient-centred approach.

Gwee (2003) contributes to the above mentioned by arguing that peer learning, in small groups in particular, facilitates the improvement of self-directed learning skills, like critical thinking and problem-solving skills; communication, interpersonal and teamwork skills; and enablespeer-assessment and critical reflection.

Blended learning

At present our department is working on developing a responsive interface to update materials for practising. The design of our website aims to enhance motivation. The new educational materials are available and regularly updated.

The website facilitates students from their first year of studying Hungarian. In the first year students are prepared for history taking from a linguistic perspective: vocabulary expansion, pronunciation, and practising grammar. In the second year, there is a shift in focus to listening comprehension skills, and also intercultural and situational awareness conversation based on authentic doctor--patient interviews in the field of internal medicine.

Film-applications are used as the basis for the new educational materials including check-ups and testing: the objective is to encourage students to follow the examples and complete a history taking task at their own level. The videos thematically follow the courses in the curriculum of the medical training with focus on internal medicine as a basic field, then other specialties.

Now there is a fortunate collaboration between clinicians and language teachers; clinicians collect data of common diseases in the field, then within each course the recordings are based on those common diseases. The setting is history taking at the patient's bedside exclusively (the doctor asks the patient about their past medical conditions, and present illness, followed by a physical examination). Recordings are evaluated and processed.

Language processing focuses on the patients' answers in reference to frequent misunderstanding. Applying a communicative approach, we do not modify doctors' questions. In the follow-up exercises designed for the videos we highlight interviewing strategies, linguistic tools of politeness and emphasis, short responses as comprehension markers and the structure of the conversation. In the classroom there is a preparatory phase for the hospital scene, when the above are practised in the form of pair-work. Following classroom activities, mobile learning tools enable the conversion of the study material making it available for rehearsing for history taking in peer-assisted learning.

Tutoring

We consider motivation of potential tutors a significant step in our innovative practice, especially senior Hungarian students, who have already developed professional skills and understand how assisting behaviour can help their peers cope with language and communication requirements. Hungarian students also learn from this experience; since assessing one another's language mistakes may seem to be difficult, and embarrassing. Nevertheless, they should understand it is beneficial to the participants. Through tutoring they learn that effective conversational interruption needs confidence, good communication skills and empathy.

Results and Discussion

Our innovative programme already has results due to its popularity among students. We have replaced the traditional communicative language teaching with authentic doctor–patient dialogue-based communication development in real conversations with patients in clinical settings.

Therefore, international students practise with Hungarian tutors and improve medical communication competencies while taking patients' medical histories together. The foreign student is assisted by both a language tutor and a professional tutor – a senior Hungarian student – who helps in structuring medical questions to meet professional protocols in order to provide a proper assessment and an appropriate diagnosis.

For Hungarian students tutoring activities have awareness – raising features in the fields of professional and communicative development. They only have a medical communication course in the first year of their training with no opportunity to evaluate patients; furthermore, at that stage the students are heavily involved with absorbing the core subjects then, i.e., anatomy and physiology. Without successfully completing these principle subject courses, medical communication cannot play a significant role.

In the Hungarian students' curriculum, clinical subjects are introduced in the third year similarly to the English and the German programmes, thus enabling encounters with patients at the bedside, and acquisition of essential interviewing skills and performing physical examinations. Unfortunately, the skills developed during the first-year doctor-patient communication courses are barely active by that time; therefore, essential conversational techniques should be improved in the courses of the clinical subjects. However, lack of time and opportunity for practising the interviewing skills with patients during clinical practices does not help fostering the necessary interviewing strategies. Understandably, this is the ideal time to develop a deep interest in the chosen medical specialty, as well as empathy toward the patients, and awareness of patient-centred medicine.

Activities outside the classroom – tutoring foreign students during history taking – facilitate the Hungarian medics to prepare for their future careers. At the bedside they realize the importance of a well-structured doctor–patient interview that ideally ensures a proper diagnosis and appropriate treatment. So, peer-tutoring in history-taking groups creates an optimal opportunity for professional practice while internalizing the interviewing procedures. Explaining to the international students 'what, how and why in the specific way we inquire in Hungarian' raises their professional, intercultural and language awareness.

The comparative analysis of the languages used is inevitable, our medical students need to comprehend differences and similarities between the cultures as well as history taking techniques of each other.

Acquisition of the above is important for both the Hungarian and international students, since as we mentioned before, more and more students accomplish their medical training in Hungary, thereby the basic skills of doctor-patient communication should be acquired at our university. This responsibility enables us, colleagues of languages for specific purposes, to prepare our students for history taking and language-related physical examination, and to increase awareness of

clinic-based doctor-patient communication in their own languages and also Hungarian.

Not only oral communication, but written skills are also improved, as we ask the students to write case reports based on notes taken at the clinic. After the patient bedside interviews there is an in-class session, where students pair up to discuss and assess the information elicited from the patients. It is followed by a plenary format task in which they present their experience of the dialogue, the patient's attitude towards cooperation, unusual and/or interesting information and a possible diagnosis.

The dialogues and case reports should be written down in the target language (in Hungarian for the foreign students, in German or English for the Hungarian students), then corrected by the peers, via e-mail or social media. The final version is sent to the teacher, who collects and sends case reports to the clinician for professional assessment. Therefore, the new approach incorporating peer-assisted learning into history taking language classes contributes to practiscing oral and written communication and professional competencies.

Conclusions

We believe that this innovative practice successfully contributes to previous LSP teaching approaches, i.e. general language should be taught first and then can be followed by the specific language. Adjusting to the needs of our medical school, which demands instant results (being able to take medical history), soon after a brief introduction to general language, the students are immersed into situational communication in professional settings where they follow clinical guidelines.

Our approach includes regular needs analysis, collecting all the components of LSP skills, aiming to design valued curricula. The pioneer colleagues have attended clinical courses together with German students in courses such as internal medicine, cardiology, dermatology and neurology to collect information of the professional needs. Thus, we consider ourselves ready to prepare students of our university for history taking and language-related physical examination. Through intercultural encounters we are willing to increase awareness of doctor–patient communication of all participants – as well as ourselves – in the students' own languages and also Hungarian.

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Bionote

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Teaching Latin in International Student Groups: Comparative Study

Vita Viksne and Inara Abelite

Abstract: Latin is an old language, but its importance in the field in medicine is still prevalent. When teaching the terminology of medical Latin to the international students' groups at Riga Stradiņš University in Latvia, the lecturers encounter certain problems in the teaching of the course due to the grammatical complexity of the Latin terminology and students' understanding/explanation of the terms in their national languages. The current study was aimed at undertaking a comparative study for identifying the most common difficulties encountered in the study process by international students and local Latvian students.

Students' final or/and interim tests were used to analyse the most common mistakes. Some general statistics from our university were also helpful in our work. In order to sort out the most common mistakes, we used both qualitative and quantitative methods to see the frequency of the mistakes mentioned above.

Key words: Latin medical terminology, students' motivation, comparative study

Abstract: Para mejor la enseñanza de latín en las facultades de ciencias médicas, hemos querido comparar los estudiantes de Letonia y los del departamento International de la Universidad Stradiņš de Riga.

En el presente trabajo hemos querido destacar las faltas y dificultades comunes.

Para este fin hemos utilizado el método cualitativo y cuantitativo también la estadística de la Universidad.

Abstrakt: Latina je starý jazyk, ale její význam na poli medicíny neustále převažuje. Při výuce terminologie lékařské latiny ve skupinách mezinárodních studentů na Univerzitě Stradinš v Rize v Lotyšsku vyučující čelí určitým problémům vyplývajícím z gramatické komplexnosti latinské terminologie a pochopení/vysvětlení těchto termínů studentům v jejich národních jazycích. Předkládaná studie měla za cíl provést srovnávací studii na identifikaci nejběžnějších obtíží při studiu jak zahraničních, tak místních lotyšských studentů.

K analýze nejběžnějších chyb byly použity závěrečné a/nebo průběžné testy studentů. V naší práci nám také pomohly některé všeobecné statistiky naší univerzity.

K roztřídění nejběžnějších chyb a ke zjištění frekvence jejich chyb jsme použili jak kvalitativní, tak kvantitativní metodu.

Introduction

Although an old language, Latin still plays an important role, especially in the field of medicine. Times have changed but the traditions have been preserved in anatomical studies and in the writing of diagnoses, case histories and medical reports. When teaching students medical terminology in Latin, we have to look for

new ways to approach the students and help them in acquiring the Latin terms and their Greek synonyms which are common in a hospital environment, as well as those needed for doctors in their professional work.

At Riga Stradiņš University (Latvia) we encounter students from different countries, with very distinct differences in their educational, cultural and even religious background. It is important for us to understand the Latin influence upon the Basic Indo-European Language groups, as well as in the context of the Baltic languages (the languages spoken in Lithuania and Latvia). These languages also belong to the group of Indo-European language family and also use the Latin script and have similar grammatical structures.

Materials and methods

In order to analyse the study outcome, we compared studies of three years (2012 to 2014). Almost 400 international and 600 Latvian students were involved in our study. We used a comparative and also a contrastive method, using English as language 1 (L1) and Latin as language 2 (L2). The results are highlighted in two tables (see the comparison – international versus Latvian English students) also showing the benefits and minuses of English the language of instruction.

We also used qualitative and quantitative methods as these are the methods mostly used in Latvia in pedagogical studies and researches. They were suitable for our basic aim as well. As to the qualitative method, this was direct classroom observation. To complete our study, we also needed a quantitative method – statistics or/and students' tests and exams to draw the quantity of mistakes.

The syllabus of Medical Latin is included in the study course at the Faculty of Medicine for students from Latvia and the International Student department. There may be different methods applied in class. By consulting professors of Anatomy and Histology, it is clear that the main emphasis should be on explaining the noun and adjective endings, the agreement of nouns and adjectives. The methods applied during the course are varied. After acquiring the basics of Latin grammar, it is important to perform terminology analysis (e.g. articulatio capitis costae, etc.). Since the groups are comparatively small (10-14) students, it is easy to use individual or group work, to start the lesson by repeating the vocabulary or offering to do more creative exercises. Comparing the Latvian students with the students of other nationalities, we can conclude that Latvian students have no difficulties with the declensions. The reason is that declensions and cases are used in the Latvian language. Latvian students also do not have difficulties with the agreement of nouns and adjectives, because the Latvian language has two genders (masculine and feminine) and the adjective has to agree with the noun gender. What is difficult for them is the word order in medical terms. The experience also reveals certain difficulties with the correct translation because quite

commonly students mix up the adjectives with nouns in the genitive: for example, instead of *costa longa – longa costa* and *regio abdominis / regio abdominalis*, which in Latvian would be translated in a similar way.

A short historical review

We have to remember as well the history of the European universities, where the first and most important faculties were Theology and Medicine. It is important to emphasize the importance of Celsus' *De Medicina*, which appeared in print as early as 1478, only a couple of decades after the introduction of the printing press. It was then followed by Latin editions of Galen. During the subsequent centuries almost all important medical works were published in Latin (e.g. those by Vesalius, Harvey and Sydenham). The medical vocabulary expanded but basically did not change. Medical Latin continued to be ordinary Latin with the admixture of numerous Greek and Latin medical terms. Gradually, however, the national languages gained ground at the expense of Latin. In some countries medical Latin survived a little longer: for instance, in Denmark, hospital doctors were writing patients' notes in Latin until 1853.

Nowadays we can speak about the era of the development of national medical languages, such as medical English (i.e. ordinary English with the admixture of medical terms), medical French, medical German, medical Italian and many others. A few of these, especially French, German and English, replaced Latin as vehicles for international communication, but most of the others were only used nationally. The national medical languages had much in common since most of the medical terms were derived from medical Latin, but there were systematic differences that are still persisting. In Germanic languages, such as the German, Dutch and Scandinavian ones, anatomical terms and disease names are often imported directly with their correct Latin endings, e.g. nervus musculocutaneus and ulcus ventriculi, whereas the same terms in Romance languages are usually 'naturalized' according to the norms of each particular language, e.g. le nerf musculo-cutané and ulcère gastrique in French, and il nervo musculocutaneo and ulcera gastrica in Italian. English is a Germanic language but half of its vocabulary is of Romance origin, and medical English tends to follow the Romance pattern except for placing the adjective before the noun, e.g. 'the musculocutaneous nerve', 'gastric ulcer'. In Slav languages it is customary to translate the terms, e.g. Russian kozhno-myzhechny nerv ('skin-muscle nerve') and jasva zheludka ('ulcer of stomach'). Modern Greek is noteworthy in allowing only Greek terms, including many of those that Celsus translated into Latin two millennia ago. The musculocutaneous nerve, for instance, is to myodermatiko neuro. However, the distinction described here between a Germanic, a Romance and a Slav pattern is no more than a tendency with numerous exceptions. English-speaking doctors also accept direct loans with Latin endings (e.g. medulla oblongata and diabetes mellitus), and German doctors may naturalize the Latin terms (e.g. Coronararterien for arteriae coronariae) or translate them into German (e.g. Magengeschwür instead of ulcus ventriculi). The national medical languages did not confine themselves to importing terms already found in medical Latin. Medical scientists continued to develop new concepts that had to be named, and our classically schooled predecessors coined a multitude of new terms, most of which were composed of Greek rather than Latin roots, since Latin does not permit the formation of composite words to the same extent. They introduced, for instance, the terms nephrectomy, ophthalmoscopy and erythrocyte, which in medical Latin would have been rather cumbersome excisio renis, inspectio oculorum and cellula rubra. This huge neoclassical word stock with Greek roots, which is still being used, also presents other characteristics of linguistic interest such as the special meaning attached to certain suffixes of a Greek origin (e.g. -itis and oma) and the fact that some prefixes and suffixes are more productive than others. Greek hyper-, for instance, is more productive than Latin super-, although originally they had exactly the same meaning. Therefore, we say hypertension, which is a Greek-Latin hybrid, rather than supertension, which would have been the correct Latin term. (Cf. Ref. 1, 2)

As to the Baltic language branch, there are three languages: Old Prussian, Lithuanian and Latvian. Old Prussian is a dead language now, so we can speak just about two living languages in the Baltic language group. As concerns the Latin influence on the Latvian language, we can find it mostly in scientific papers or doctoral theses. We can mention quite a lot of examples from the clinical terminology where mostly Greek terms dominate. We know that at least half of the names of the specialists in different fields of medicine come directly from Greek (nefrologs – nephrologist, oftalmologs – ophthalmologist etc.). In Latvia the register of specialists in out-patient and in-patient departments most commonly will use the Greek terms, instead of the translation into the native language (otorhinolaryngologist instead of 'ear, nose and throat doctor'). It is different when we use anatomical terms, for in most cases we translate them into our native language (vertebra – skriemelis, incisura – ierobs etc.). These language specificities exist in other languages as well and for laymen may cause some confusion. (Cf. Ref. 3)

This was an important issue to be taken into account when starting teaching the Latin medical terminology at our University.

Aim

The **aim of the comparative study** undertaken was to address different student groups studying medical Latin in Riga Stradiņš University, to highlight the main problems in the study process and to help students understand anatomical terminology.

Also we wanted to target **identifying the differences in teaching medical terminology** in different international student groups, by**pointing to the most common mistakes** and difficulties experienced in the study process, and by looking for solutions in **reducing the encountered problems**.

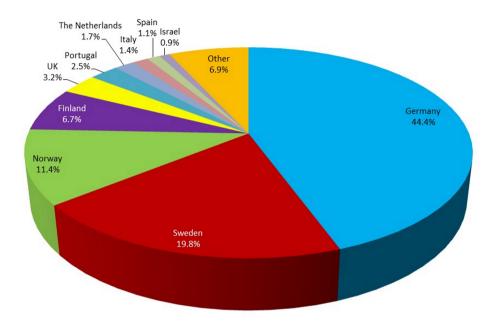


Fig. 1: Our students by countries

Riga Stradiņš University has had experience in teaching international students for 25 years now. The number of students is expanding year by year, comprising a rather large spectrum of European countries. From the statistics shown in the pie chart we can see that a considerable part of our students come from **Germany** where Latin and Greek languages are taught at Classic Gymnasium. The **advantage** of these students is that they already know the Latin grammar, the endings of nouns and/adjectives, they have a better understanding of the prepositions and their usage. We have to admit, however, that over a longer period of study they also make mistakes (some of them lose interest, and a portion of them just consider other subjects to be more important, especially when colloquia and exams are approaching). The most common problems arise with the incorrect use of the 3rddeclension (genders, as a rule); sometimes it is difficult for them to explain the clinical (medical) terms in English (e.g. *hernia, sputum, ulcus,* etc.). The lecturer's support here is needed and even skills in translating the terms into the students'

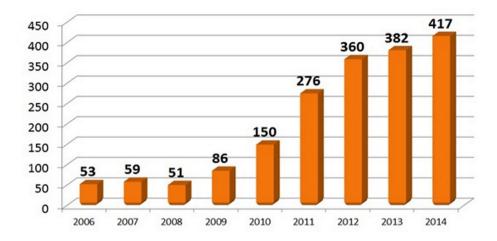


Fig. 2: International students admitted in the RSU from 2006 till 2014

native language (e.g., finding an adequate translation in Finnish, Swedish, Dutch, etc. languages).

Students coming from **Sweden**, **Norway and Finland** usually start learning Latin from the very beginning. Due the specificities of their languages they have problems not only with nouns and gender of the nouns, but also with the **cases (genitive)** and with **noun-adjective agreement**. As to medical terminology, they usually put a lot of effort into their studies and finally they pass tests and exams quite well. They study with greater enthusiasm, because this is a new study course for them and they understand that they should put a greater effort to learn it.

We can say that the students from **Portugal and Spain**, find it easier to remember the terms in Latin and they do correct translations of English–Latin because in their native language, for instance, the adjective comes first before the noun. Still they have difficulties in remembering genders and some other grammatical facts.

We have also quite a large number of students from **the United Kingdom**. The problems for them are similar to those of other students, especially in the formation of cases and genders.

Duration of the Latin course and its content

The faculties where Latin is taught in our University are the Faculties of Medicine, Dentistry, Pharmacy, Rehabilitation and Public Health and Social Welfare. The international students learn Latin medical terminology only in the Faculty of Medicine. For local students (Latvian groups) in most of the faculties Latin is an obligatory (A) course, but for most study programmes, e.g., the Faculty of Public Health and Social Welfare it is an optional (B) course. Some years ago we had four semesters of Latin for all the medicine profile students. Nowadays Latin is not that important and the current study programme provides just two semesters of Latin. That means **40** contact hours (20 contact hours each semester).

In our practical classes we use the materials of medical Latin terminology developed in the Language Centre of Rīga Stradiņš University. Other sources are available at our resource centre at the University. All the necessary study materials can be also found in e-studies. E-studies are also the place where some additional materials and the Internet sources are recommended. Every year language teachers update the study materials and improve the teaching methods. In e-studies the students can get acquainted with the results of their tests and the final exam grades.

The **first** semester is targeted at teaching general Latin, mostly related to the study of the terms used in Anatomy or Histology. The course includes: Latin nouns (I,II, III, IV, V declensions, I/II group adjectives) and the analysis of the ending in the anatomical terms. During the **second** semester the students learn clinical terminology, prefixes and suffixes and Latin-Greek synonyms, as well as some prepositions (e.g. ante, post, in, sub, per, etc.). We have some relatively new faculties such as Faculty of Rehabilitation and Faculty of Public Health and Social Welfare. These faculties usually have just one semester of Latin (for local students) and the course refers only to acquiring Latin nouns and adjectives and a brief introduction to clinical terminology.

Requirements of the course

Students' attendance of the course and doing homework is obligatory. In the current study we have summarized our three-year experience of teaching Latin terminology, including both final and interim tests, elaborated for our groups, as well as taking into account the experience of other colleagues. We regularly share our experience in meetings at the Language Centre and also in personal meetings with our Latin professors (also consulting specialists in Anatomy and Physiology). We also regularly visit other colleagues' classes for the purpose of sharing experiences and learning from each other. For assessing the analysis of our work we have used the statistics of our university to have a better comparison of achievements of foreign and Latvian students. The web page of the university introduces statistics from ERASMUS and the International Students' Department and it is available for each year. To be precise, around 1000 foreign students and around 3000 Latvian students are involved in medical studies. Judging from statistics, we can see that the number of our international students is increasing year by year, while the number of our Latvian students remains more or less the same.

The first objective to think about on meeting a new group is students' motivation. We work with the first year students, who, quite often, have little idea about the usage of medical terminology or/and the medicine studies in general. Ab initio these studies for them are difficult but, with time, if there is good communication and good relations with the groups, we can improve study results by pointing to students to find the interrelation between their anatomy course and the Latin terminology classes. Our experience also shows that it is useful to include Latin sentences in the course for broadening students' interest in the language (for instance: Hic locus est ubi mors gaudet succurere vitae. - meaning: This is the place where the death enjoys being useful to help the living. This phrase is found as an inscription on the doors of the Anatomical Theatre in Riga.). Explanation of clinical terms makes students get a deeper insight into the field they are learning, and though we language teachers are not physicians, quite often we have to explain the disease processes. The outcome of the study process is good if the classroom setting is positive and motivates students to use medical terminology and learn additional knowledge in clinical medicine.

One of the aims for the comparative study was to analyse the oral or written answers of students in order to point out to the most common mistakes. Here are some examples:

- 1. Almost all the students (about 90 per cent) make mistakes when they put stress in some nouns like *corpus, corporis n.; caput, capitis n.* etc.
- 2. For some of them (almost 50 per cent) it is difficult to pronounce correctly Latin diphthongs, (e.g., ae, oe).
- 3. Almost all students (90 per cent) do not remember that *corpus, corporis* is a *3rd declension noun and is neuter*. They also mix up the gender of such nouns as *pars, partis f., os, ossis n., margo, marginis m., etc.*.
- 4. For some of the students it is difficult to distinguish between the 2nd declension masculine gender and 4th declension masculine gender nouns (40 per cent) (e.g., *musculus, i, m.* and *ductus, us, m.*).
- 5. The next type of common mistakes is related to the neuter gender nouns. For example, if we need the nominative plural for *ligamentum* or/and *os*, many students (almost 60 per cent) write *ligamenti* and osses instead of *ligamenta* and ossa.
- 6. A small percentage of the students (2 to 5 per cent) say that they do not have genders in their mother tongue and/or they use the same adjective endings for all the genders.
- 7. Almost 90 per cent of the students have difficulties with making correct word order in Latin terms.

8. Almost 50 per cent of the students have difficulties with making noun-adjective agreement.

We can add that during the last two years we have also had students from Thailand. We have already noticed that they are very diligent, but their native tongue is very different from English and Latin. Consequently, they do have to put a lot of effort insto understand the cases, adjectives and/or word order. It requires from the lecturer a greater deal of attention to students who experience difficulties in understanding the terms.

Here we would like to show some examples of the exercise types from the first and second semester test:

1st semester test

1.	Translate the noun into Latin. Write its vocabulary form.	
	E.g. vein; skull; abdomen	
2.	Add the noun which corresponds to the given adjective. The adjective cannot be changed:	
	E.g. albus, flavum.	
3.	Change the given phrase into N. pl. and G. pl.:	
	E.g. ramus lateralis, os sacrale	
1.	Make agreement of the adjective with the noun. Choose the correct variant:	
	E.g. caput (ovalis, e; longus, a, um; simplex, simplicis) etc.	

2nd semester test

1. Translate using prepositions:

- · remedy against fever
- pain behind the sternum
- cyst under the left scapula

2. Translate:

- · chronic inflammation of kidneys
- purulent inflammation of lungs
- rheumatic disease of arteries

3. Make terms:

- ... pexia (ventriculus, uterus, vesīca urinaria, hepar, pulmo)
- ... rrhoea (sudor, saliva, lacrima, cutis, uterus)
- ... ectomia (vas, mamma, vēna, vagīna, oesophagus)

4. Add suffixes and translate:

- blepharo ... bleeding
- · adeno ... morbid state
- glosso ... suturing

5. Write inflammations (Nom. and Genit. sg.):

•	liver
	kidney
_	hoort

Usually the students pay more attention to their final examination test, since they are getting the grades. At least international students do. As to Latvian students, it depends on the faculty and the study programme. However, all the students have one additional difficulty - they do not relate the clinical terminology we teach them to other subjects they learn. In many cases we have to make a lot of effort to find out the explanation of the clinical/medical terms by studying medical dictionaries. Besides, this is a constant teaching-learning process to improve our own knowledge of medicine. We can use internet sources and/or dictionaries to answer the questions of the students. First year students actually do not know much about their future profession and they are still not used to the language the doctors speak. Most commonly they have little awareness of people's health problems. We, teachers, have to give students examples from doctors' daily lives, we explain to them Latin sayings and proverbs, either related or not related to medicine. Our Latin teachers have elaborated (compiled) the list of suffixes and Latin-Greek synonyms used in clinical terminology. This list and some additional exercises, which are available in e-studies, help students sit the final exam.

However, we have to admit that for**almost 100 per cent** of the students there are difficulties in remembering the suffixes and Latin-Greek synonyms used in clinical terminology.

We have compared students from different countries using the **contrast method**; it means, we analysed the students, contrasting the student's mother tongue to that of Latin. We have to admit that the percentage of students with English as their mother tongue is very low, approximately 1 or 2 per cent of all the students, depending on the year and study programme. However, we used English as a reference language (Language number one), and Latin was a language number 2, and students' mother tongue was language number 3. Thus, we have come to the following conclusions:

- 1. **English is helpful**, if we try to explain terms and/or want the students to learn them, since in the English medical terminology, as mentioned before, almost all the same nouns and adjectives are used.
- 2. **English does not help** us to explain the genders of nouns and adjective endings for different genders.
- 3. In some cases **English has a different word order in the term**, for instance, in English we begin with the adjective, but in Latin with the noun.
- 4. As **English does not have declensions or cases for the nouns and adjectives**, almost all the students find it difficult to understand the usage of cases.

Here you can see a comparison we made between international and Latvian students:

International students	Latvian students
Difficulties with noun genders and	Difficulties with the right word order and with
noun-adjective agreement	the vocabulary
They do not relate the clinical terminology with	They do not relate the clinical terminology with
the other subjects	the other subjects
Clinical terms are translated in their native language	Some of clinical terms are used in the daily life (e.g. names of specialists)

Conclusion

In conclusion we have to say that the lecturers have to be very flexible with each group. There are cases when we have to change some items in our lecture plan because more time has to be spent on explaining such notions as noun-adjective agreement, elaborating new additional exercises or finding out the explanation of the terms in the students' mother tongue. We also have to be flexible because we have almost never had a group of students consisting of one nationality and with the same cultural background. As mentioned before, usually the groups are not big, so we try to pay individual attention to each student. The e-study resources are also helpful in their studies. In e-studies we have put additional tables of noun declensions and/or exercises for students' personal use and the medical dictionary (Latin-English). Almost all the students, when answering the course evaluation questionnaire, give positive responses, pointing to satisfaction with the input of materials and the competence of lecturers.

To achieve better results in the teaching process, it is significant to stress the importance of good lecturer–student relationships, as well as having a positive atmosphere within the group. Our experience shows that the groups with a good leader and/or good relationship in the group result in better learning outcomes. We have also noticed that students who had learned Latin at school and have better a understanding of Latin grammar help their course mates, which can be noted as a good reason for having a good teaching environment. This is also a good moment in the educational process, because future doctors have to be able to co-operate with colleagues when working in a team.

In conclusion we would like to say that teaching Latin in international students' groups is both a challenge and great stimulus in a lecturer's work. It is a constant learning process both for students and lecturers, which not only enriches knowledge but also gives a deeper insight into different cultures.

To summing it up, let us remember the Latin phrase: Verba docent, exempla trabunt!

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Balancing an innovative EAP assessment cocktail with student autonomy: Booster Week/end

Sophia Butt

Abstract: This paper explores the ways in which academic English programmes, particularly presessional courses, can help students to prepare for their departmental studies by ensuring that their course design meets the expectations of the receiving departments and exposes learners to the types of skills that they will be assessed on during their degree courses. The main component of this article is to share an innovation in which students are exposed to a single, highly intensive, student-centred activity which targets multiple competencies. It also demonstrates a range of skills, both linguistic and academic, which can be assessed through this activity. **Note**: the innovative assessment cocktail can be used on any multi-disciplinary or discipline-specific academic English presessional course.

Klíčová slova: assessment, ESAP, departmental studies, Booster Week, academic

Abstrakt: Tento příspěvek zkoumá způsoby, kterými mohou programy akademické angličtiny, zejména kurzy před zahájením studia, pomoci studentům připravit se na své oborové studium tím, že zajistí, aby osnovy jejich kurzu splňovaly očekávání zvolených kateder a seznamovaly studenty s tím typem dovedností, které budou hodnoceny během jejich diplomových kurzů. Hlavním záměrem je podělit se o inovaci, při které jsou studenti vystaveni jedné vysoce intenzivní na studenta orientované aktivitě, která má za cíl rozvíjení vícenásobných kompetencí. Demonstruje také škálu dovedností, jak lingvistických, tak akademických, které mohou být v průběhu této aktivity hodnoceny. **Poznámka:** inovativní koktejl hodnocení může být použit v jakémkoli multi-oborovém či oborově specifickém předstudijním kurzu akademické angličtiny.

Presessional Programmes

Presessional programmes were first introduced in the UK in the late 1960s (Jordan, 2002) to help international students prepare for their undergraduate (UG) and postgraduate (PG) courses. The programmes, which are offered in different lengths, take place immediately before the start of degree studies, hence the name *pre*-sessional. They are primarily attended by conditional offer holders as an alternative route of entry to university where these students have failed to achieve a relevant English language score to secure direct entrance.

Presessionals have become tremendously popular both in the UK and overseas, as they concentrate on English language aptitude *and* the study skills needed by students to succeed in their departmental studies. Most UK Higher Education institutions offer a multidisciplinary English for Academic Purposes (EAP) presessional, while some also provide discipline-related presessionals with a focus on English for *Specific* Academic Purposes (ESAP).

The BME: A Discipline-Specific Presessional

The Business Management English (BME) Programme is a discipline-specific presessional which was established at the University of Birmingham (UoB) in 2001. Initially, it accepted both UG and PG students with conditional and unconditional offers to study a business-related degree at any UK-based university. However, as the popularity of the programme grew and numbers saw a significant increase, this presessional was restricted to PG students with offers to study at the Birmingham Business School (BBS) only.

The BME is offered in four course lengths: 20, 15, 10 and 6 weeks. Enrolment is dependent on the English level of the incoming student as evidenced by their score in a UK government-approved Secure English Language Test (SELT), and, the entry requirements for their chosen degree course. What is applicable to students across all four BME courses, is their need to improve their written and spoken English, and their awareness of academic study skills and conventions.

This paper presents a highly successful innovation by the name of *Booster Week*, and its subsequent spin-off, *Booster Weekend*, both of which were introduced on the BME Programme in 2009 and ran until 2014.

Initial Inspiration behind Booster Week

November 2006 saw the start of my affiliation with the Helsinki School of Economics (now part of Aalto University) in Finland as a Visiting Professor on their BScBA Program in International Business. To date, this undergraduate course at the Mikkeli campus is delivered entirely in English, but what makes this Mikkeli course unique, is the distinctive design of its modules: rather than being taught several concurrent modules each term, as is standard practice in Bachelor's degrees across the world, students at the Mikkeli campus of Aalto University study only one module at a time, intensively, three-hours per day over a three-week period (the entire degree course is composed of fifteen three-week modules, some compulsory, while others are electives). Each module has at least one written and one spoken assessed component and is taught entirely by international Visiting Faculty (see Section 1.1 of the Aalto University Admission Guide 2015 for further information). Despite the demands and intensity of this degree programme, the pass-rates reported for this UG course since its inception evidence that the course design is highly successful. The commitment to visiting professors and focus on high achievement in their studies by the students is undoubtedly a contributory factor.

Shortly after returning to the UK from Mikkeli, I was approached to undertake the role of Acting Deputy Director of the BME Presessional Programme in 2007. During a meeting in which BBS tutor feedback on the performance (particularly

the weaknesses) of BME students once they started their degree courses was being reviewed, I shared my recent experience of teaching in Mikkeli, suggesting something similar be introduced on the BME: ideally, this would be a week-long intensive activity that could be designed to boost student skills in set areas. However, this idea was rejected as it was felt that rigorous study around a singular activity or set skills would lead to poor and short-lived results. It was in late 2008, after I became BME Director, that the idea of a *Booster Week* was revisited.

This paper provides a general overview of Booster Events: a series of presentations on different aspects of this innovation (e.g.: developing student autonomy; creating an assessment cocktail; designing authentic ESAP courses) have been delivered at both UK and international Higher Education conferences, enabling the sharing of the best practice. This has resulted in interest and enquiry by Programme Leads from a number of UK-based and European universities about how similar activities could be introduced on academic programmes at their institutions. Consequently, a form of Booster Week has successfully been introduced at universities in the Czech Republic and Switzerland.

Departmental Expectations & Challenges

Since the aim of a Booster event was to help students to develop skills which would be beneficial to their future studies, before designing the Booster tasks, it seemed logical to start by establishing what Programme Leads at the BBS expected of their students. The dialogues which were initiated formed the start of meaningful relationships with academics in receiving departments and enabled information to be obtained that would help to enhance course and curriculum design on the discipline-specific presessional. Six subject specialists were asked to start by identifying the different genres of writing and the main study skills with which they expected their students to be familiar. The results of this investigation have been summarized in Table 1 below.

Tab. 1: Key Components of [BBS] Degree Programmes

Academic Genres of Writing	Academic Study Skills
Essay	Analytical & critical thinking
Feasibility study/report	Problem-solving & decision-making
Literature review	Seminar & presentation skills
Reflective writing	Time management
Academic poster	Creative thinking
Project	Cross-cultural teamwork
Critical commentary	Leadership/conflict management
Statistical/financial analysis	Research, reading & referencing
Proposal	Autonomy
Dissertation	Listening & note-taking

The Programme Leads were also asked to specify the area(s) in which they felt that former presessional students often struggled: their response was *identical*, and interestingly, it also applied to direct entrants: they stated that the PGs often lacked fluency and confidence in seminar activities, and, that they needed more practice in academic writing – including citation and referencing. It then became apparent how little had changed since the large-scale study conducted by Geoghegan at Cambridge University in 1983 in which *seminar skills* and *academic writing* were identified as being the two main areas of difficulty for overseas students during their first term at a UK university. These reported areas of weakness therefore became central to the two Booster events created for the BME.

Booster Week Task

It was decided that the focus of the first event would be *teamworking, seminars and presentation skills*, while the second would centre on *academic writing and referencing*. A BME Booster Week Coordinator was appointed and tasked with developing activities using the BBC's Dragons' Den as inspiration (see www.bbc.co.uk/programmes/b006vq92). In essence, students would need to work collaboratively – and largely independently – in small pre-defined groups to agree on a new product or service to be launched in the UK. In order to support the proposed business venture and in an attempt to secure investment from venture capitalists (aka Dragons), they would need to produce the five items listed on the left in Table 2 below, through which the students would boost the skills identified in the column on the right. Note: these were intended to reflect as many of the target areas identified by BBS staff as shown earlier in Table 1.

Tab. 2: Outputs of Booster Week & Skills Developed

Required Outputs of Booster Week	Skills Targeted
1. Product Specification Leaflet	creative thinking; 4Ps business tool; writing
2. Business Plan & Financial Forecast	research skills; financial analysis
3. 1-Minute Promotional Video	technological aptitude; creativity
4. Pitch/Presentation (no PowerPoint)	presentation skills; conflict management
5. Reflective Writing Task (i.e.: PDP)	review & reflection; action planning

In a regular week on the BME, students would have contact with staff from 09.30 to 16.30, most days of the week. They would also be expected to complete two to three hours of homework after lessons. During Booster Week, staff–student contact would end mid-morning, and as the timetable in Figure 1 below shows, a considerable amount of autonomy and independent work was required of the students. In successive years, students reported working together in their subgroups until as late as midnight from Monday to Thursday, in order to be ready to deliver the required outputs on Friday morning.

	Session 1	Session 2	Session 3
	09.30–10.00 Booster Briefing in		
Monday	Lecture Theatre	Independer	nt Booster Work
	10.15–11.45 Booster Class		
Tuesday	09.30–10.30 Booster Review Class	Independer	nt Booster Work
Wednesday	09.30–10.30 Booster Review Class	Independer	nt Booster Work
Thursday	09.30–10.30 Booster Review Class	Independer	nt Booster Work
	09.30–12.30 Booster Pitches with the		
Friday	BME Dragons	Independer	nt Booster Work
	13.30–14.30 Booster De-Briefing		

Fig. 1: BME Booster Week Timetable

It is also worth highlighting here, that the BME Dragons' Den Task was designed to prepare the 20-, 15- and 10-week students for an independent assignment which they would need to undertake immediately after Booster Week: this was the creation of a 3,000-word Feasibility Report, worth up to 30% of their final mark on the programme, in which they also had to launch a new product or service, but in a country of their choice. Students were not permitted to repeat any product/service ideas from Booster Week in this research-oriented assignment, and so it was imperative that all Booster sub-group ideas were accurately recorded in an Excel spreadsheet for cross-referencing purposes at a later stage, if necessary.

Booster Weekend Task

The second Booster event of the BME Programme was positioned to take place a few weeks before the end of the summer: the rationale behind this was, a) to allow the 6-week students to partake in the event, and b) to ensure that all students had received sufficient input and instruction through the curriculum prior to being set this intensive writing task, as they would receive little, if any, guidance and input from teaching staff during the Booster event itself to aid completion.

The Booster Weekend task¹ essentially required student groups to analyse a business case study and to demonstrate their understanding of a business tool (e.g.: SWOT, PESTEL, Porter's Five Forces) by applying this to the given case. Their analysis would then need to be presented in the form of an A1-sized academic poster, complete with Harvard-style citations and references. Each of the 50 sub-groups across the BME Programme were given a different case study from the *Times 100 Business Case Studies* collection so as to eradicate any possibility of cross-class collusion or plagiarism.

Booster Weekend would culminate in a Booster Poster Event in which all A1-sized colour posters were displayed in an open atrium, where BME staff and students,

¹ Concept – Hasan Shikoh

plus invited guests, could view the posters and question group members about the analysis that they had undertaken. The required outputs for Booster Weekend and their corresponding skills can be seen in Table 3 below, which, again, were designed to mirror as many items as possible from Table 1.

Tab. 3: Outputs of Booster Weekend & Skills Developed

Required Outputs of Booster Weekend	Skills Targeted
1. Case study analysis	critical thinking; problem-solving; research
2. Analysis using a business tool	decision-making; application of tools
3. Academic A1-sized poster	academic writing; creativity
4. Evidence of Harvard referencing	referencing & citation conventions
5. Presentation (no PowerPoint) & PDP	confidence; public speaking; reflection

Learning Objectives

Booster Week was launched on the BME Presessional in the summer of 2009. From 2009 to 2012 inclusive, the BME saw two Booster Weeks each summer: the first took place in week 12 of the 20-week course and involved the 20-, 15- and 10-week cohorts (approximately 200 students), whilst the second was held in week 17, once the 6-week groups had arrived and settled in (circa 300 students). However, as the 6-week students were already limited in terms of their contact hours/instruction in class, where week 1 of their course consisted of induction activities and week 6 their final exams, it was decided that while Booster Week was undeniably beneficial in terms of skills development, an entire week dedicated to this activity was further limiting valuable class time for the 6-week students. Therefore, it was in 2013 and 2014 that Booster Week 2 was changed to a Booster Weekend. The key learning objectives of the Booster Events applied largely to both events and can be seen in Figure 2 below.

Reflective Writing Tasks

At the end of their Booster events, students were required to produce a reflective assignment. In the case of Booster Week, this was an *individual* Personal Development Portfolio (PDP), while for Booster Weekend, this involved *collective* reflection in the form of a Group Role Summary. These reflective pieces of writing reinforced the theme of student autonomy and were worth 10% of the students' final mark on the BME. The learners were advised to set personal targets and action plans using Kolb's (1984) Learning Cycle as a guiding tool, as shown in Figure 3:

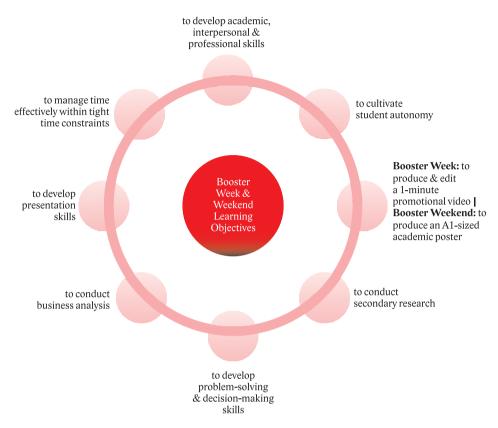


Fig. 2: Learning Objectives for Booster Events

Staff Role

As the schedule for Booster events involved a different timetable to the standard curriculum, regular classes were not taught while the events were underway. Instead, Teaching Staff were assigned the role of either Booster Lead or Booster Facilitator: each Lead had up to four Facilitators to assist with monitoring and/or trouble-shooting in the Booster Class. The BME Management Team and all Teaching Staff acted as 'Dragons' on Friday in Booster Week; one student was also asked to join the Panel for each pitch. All staff were involved in the Booster Poster Presentation event following Booster Weekend.

When not engaged in Booster-related activities, staff had time to mark and double-mark coursework assignments with submission dates that were set to coincide with the start of each Booster event. Additionally, during Booster Week, the practitioners were invited to share their expertise and knowledge through

ACTING (Consider future goals, changes, plans... to improve EXPERIENCING performance or (Engaging with learning—based the task) upon this experience) CONCEPTUALISATION REFLECTION (Which theories (Learning from could be applied the experience: to your learning What did you notice? experience to help What went well? you to positively modify What didn't? your next experience?) What would you change?)

Fig. 3: Kolb's Learning Cycle (1984)

a series of Professional Development Workshops to take advantage of what was a significantly less-intensive teaching time.

Those assigned the role of Booster Coordinators² were also responsible for grouping the students; instructing the Booster Leads (i.e.: Staff) on their responsibilities regarding how to facilitate student learning during the week; and for delivering the Booster Briefing and De-Briefing in large lecture theatres with the full cohort of staff and students in attendance.

Student Grouping

In order to sufficiently challenge students to develop their interpersonal skills and overcome their inhibitions about speaking up in seminar classes – something

 $^{^2}$ Booster Week Coordinator – Dave McHale | Booster Weekend Coordinators – Alice May & Calum Lambie

central to degree-level studies, students were taken out of their comfort zone and re-grouped for Booster events. The division of approximately 200 BME students in Booster Week was done by creating six large Booster Classes, each containing between 30–36 students, further sub-divided into five to six sub-groups of six students from different BME groups/cohorts. In Booster Weekend, these numbers increased to 300 students with ten Booster Classes.

Each sub-group (a total of approximately 30 for Booster Week, and 50 for Booster Weekend) was given only one folder containing their task: this necessitated immediate communication with group members at the onset so as to share information about the set tasks. Students were expected to elect a Leader, and identify other roles to ensure that the tasks could be completed through a team effort, by the set deadline. They were also responsible for managing any conflict or other problems that arose during their temporary grouping.

Briefings & De-Briefings

On Monday morning of Booster Week and Friday morning of Booster Weekend, all staff and students were required to attend a 30-minute Briefing. The purpose of these Briefings was to inform students of the Booster learning objectives and to advise them that they were about to embark on a heavily student-centred activity through which they would need to develop a multitude of skills. The Booster Coordinator(s) would then instruct students, a few rows at a time, to locate their name on lists displayed in alphabetical order around the lecture theatre, detailing their class name and room number. The students were given 15 minutes to find their Booster classroom where they would meet their new classmates and Booster Staff.

A 60-minute De-Briefing was then held on the afternoon of Friday in Booster Week, and Tuesday* for Booster Weekend (*the first day back after the UK August Bank Holiday weekend). During these sessions, the Coordinator(s) would encourage a series of reflective activities, before prompting the students to share what they had learnt about themselves and one another during their Booster event. In the Booster Weekend De-Briefing, all participants were given Personal Response Systems (or clickers) as they entered the lecture theatre: they were asked to use these to vote for the best academic poster, against set criteria, when they were displayed again – this time electronically – through a slideshow towards the end of the De-Briefing session. Prizes were then awarded for the position of 1st, 2nd and 3rd.

Staff & Student Feedback

In their anonymous mid-course and course-end evaluations, staff and students on the BME were asked to evaluate Booster Events in terms of their organization, usefulness and success – or otherwise. The questions posed to them took the form of Yes/No answers; Likert scale responses and free comments. From 2009 to 2014, a total of 1,492 BME students were questioned, and more than 96% voted favourably when evaluating Booster Week/Weekend. Students typically reported having developed a vast array of skills together with a deeper understanding of their personal strengths and weaknesses. They commented on how they had learnt to manage time and to work to tight deadlines. They also fondly recalled having formed new friendships, and in some cases, having developed conflict management skills. Equally, the vast majority also remarked on the immense work involved in successfully completing the Booster tasks, and the fatigue associated with this.

What was perhaps most encouraging about these events in terms of feedback, was when students *voluntarily* mentioned their Booster experiences in a positive light when asked to complete a BME Reunion Questionnaire after their first term at the BBS. Many students stated that the Booster Tasks had thoroughly prepared them for activities that they had been set in their degree courses which also required independent and autonomous work, and how they had met these challenges with a degree of confidence due to having experienced BME Boosters.

Concluding Comments

Whilst the purpose of presessional courses is undeniably to provide students with guided learning and instruction that will prepare them for their departmental studies, it is also fair to say that it is the responsibility of ESP/EAP practitioners to ensure that they enable their students to develop autonomy. In 2002, Jordan reported that "...the majority [of presessional students] would suffer some disappointment and frustration as their expectations would not match the reality of their [future] study situations..." (p. 74). This is largely because during their preparatory presessional courses, they become accustomed to individualized support; detailed feedback and correction of grammatical mistakes; and being a part of a close-knit student community with highly supportive staff. This rarely equates to the realities of PG study at degree level, and so, to some extent, E(S)AP courses can create false expectations of integration and future success. The aim of the Booster innovations was to give students highly intensive, autonomous training in English and study skills which could be transferred to their departmental studies.

In general, irrespective of their cultural background or learning style, most students respond well to challenging, autonomous tasks. Those lacking confidence or prior exposure to student-centred learning can be set group-based Booster activities with minimal teacher input to provide them with the security and scaffolding they need before embarking on fully independent tasks. Students on the BME Programme repeatedly rose to the challenges they had been set in order to achieve the high standards expected of them. Mini Booster &/or autonomous

activities at frequent intervals of the curriculum together with regular reflective assignments can offer an effective way of encouraging students to take ownership of their learning.

Finally, to see examples of Booster work produced by BME students, please visit https://vimeo.com/50249887 [promotional 1-minute videos to launch a new product or service] and https://vimeo.com/64725928 [academic posters analysing a business case study].

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Quality management and assessment

The Language Centre at SEEU: A role model in the Higher Education Area in the Balkans

Kujtim Ramadani and Rufat Osmani

Abstract: The Language Centre (LC) was founded in 2001 and was the first independent unit to provide instruction within South East European University (SEEU). It provides language services to all SEEU students. Its 20 well-equipped classrooms, CELTA Centre and the Language Resource Centre (LaRC) are designed to meet the educational needs of the students, staff and the community as well as create an environment that is conducive to learning.

Language study is a central part of every SEEU student's academic career, both as required subjects and as optional elective courses. Part of the University's mission is to promote a multilingual approach to learning, stressing both the importance of local and international languages. The Language Centre has the crucial role in achieving this goal. The primary function of the Centre is to provide courses specified in the curricula of the five faculties. This includes courses such as Basic English Skills as well as ESP faculty-dependent courses. Due to these requirements and student interest, the LC is the largest teaching organization at the University.

The Language Centre as an integral part of the SEEU, implements a number of well-established, institution-wide quality procedures, which are intended to have a positive impact on the standards of learning and teaching. These include: Teaching Observation Procedure, an annual Student Evaluation Survey, a performance management process for staff linked to professional development and an LC cycle of strategic planning, linked both to internal and LC Specific external evaluation. In developing these procedures, the University and the Centre have drawn on international quality assurance guidelines, trends and good practice in order to develop effective approaches to quality within a specific educational and national context.

Key words: Language Centre, language courses, quality assurance, assessment

Abstrakt: Jazykové centrum (LC) bylo založeno v roce 2001 a bylo první samostatnou jednotkou poskytující výuku v rámci South-East European University (SEEU). Poskytuje jazykové služby všem studentům SEEU. Jeho 20 dobře vybavených učeben, centrum CELTA a Centrum jazykových zdrojů (LaRC) jsou navrženy tak, aby vytvářely prostředí napomáhající studiu.

Součástí poslání univerzity je podporovat mnohojazyčný přístup ke studiu s důrazem jak na místní, tak na mezinárodní jazyky. Jazykové centrum hraje v dosažení tohoto cíle klíčovou roli. Jako integrální součást SEEU zavádí po celé instituci velký počet osvědčených, kvalitních postupů, jejichž záměrem je pozitivně ovlivňovat úroveň studia a výuky. Tyto zahrnují: metodu pozorování výuky, každoroční průzkum evaluace studentů, proces řízení výkonu zaměstnanců spojený s profesionálním rozvojem a cyklus strategického plánování LC, spojený jak s interním, tak se specifickým externím hodnocením LC.

Při vývoji těchto postupů univerzita a centrum čerpaly z mezinárodních a kvalitu zaručujících směrnic, trendů a praxe za účelem vyvinutí efektivních přístupů ke kvalitě v rámci specifického vzdělávacího a národního kontextu.

Introduction

The Language Centre (LC) of SEEU was founded in 2001 as the first independent teaching unit. Its core activity is to provide obligatory language courses for the five faculties currently operating within the university, such as Business and Economics, Public Administration and Political Sciences, Law, Computer Sciences and Languages, Cultures and Communications. These language courses include Basic English Skills starting with the Elementary (A2) level up to Intermediate (B2) as well as English for Academic Purposes (i.e. Upper-intermediate (C1) and Advanced (C2)) and English for Specific Purposes for all faculties.

SEEU operates in three languages: English, Albanian and Macedonian and language skills development within a multi-lingual society is a central part of every SEEU student's academic career profile, both as required subjects and as optional elective courses. The LC plays a central role in achieving this goal. It offers its students, university staff and the community the opportunity to acquire foreign languages in a friendly and comfortable environment, using the latest learning theories, methods and other materials in combination with new technology. LC is the largest teaching organization at the University, with more than three quarters of the entire student population taking classes there at any given time. In figures, this is approximately 2500 students.

LC was evaluated externally in October 2014 under very specific terms of reference. The results of this evaluation showed a very well developed organizational structure and high quality teaching and learning opportunities for SEEU students, provided by qualified and committed staff. Nonetheless, its performance and viability is constantly under the scrutiny of the university authorities.

The main reason for such treatment is the fact that in the present times of financial crisis and budget constraints, the most convenient and the least painful course of action for the university management may be to restrict language programmes, especially bearing in mind that the Language Centre does not offer degree programmes.

As in most cases at different universities, the SEEU LC does not have its own students. Therefore, its existence depends on the good will of other Faculties which devote some of their credits to languages. Fortunately, the present University management can see the value of learning languages and its benefits for raising student profile and competitiveness and provides ongoing support, especially with regard to the English programme, which contributes to the internationalization strategy as well as the employability of its graduates.

The departmental quality framework for the Language Centre at SEEU has well established processes. At enrolment at SEEU, all students are placed in appropriate levels based on their results on the institutional placement test with only

one exception: native speakers of Macedonian are all beginners in Albanian. The placement test does not have an eliminatory character; it only determines the level of students. This and the fact that there is no preparatory year result in very mixed abilities language groups especially in the English programme and in the more advanced levels. This issue is expected to be addressed by differentiated teaching and some movement between groups in semester.

The English programme is the broadest one since all students are required to take English courses in the first four semesters. They must complete level 4 before having the opportunity of entering a subject oriented English for Specific Purposes (ESP) class. Students who are tested out as having the required proficiency above Level 4 take Academic English in semester 1 and Advanced Academic English in semester 2 before starting ESP.

There are clearly defined and appropriately varied criteria according to which students can receive a passing grade from the language courses: attendance, participation, presentation or project, speaking and writing skills evaluation, quizzes, final exam; these are all grading components. For speaking and writings skills evaluation, the students are fully informed of and have the opportunity to practice with the published rubrics. What is more, the final exams are cross moderated in order to achieve greater objectivity.

Nevertheless, it does happen that some students achieve a passing grade and are promoted into the next level and eventually complete the language requirements, but actually have still lower proficiency especially in productive skills. Alternatively, more often, students finish with all other professional exams and cannot graduate because of the language exams and then there is a lot of pressure from the Deans' Offices to lower the criteria and enable such students to take their diplomas.

In both cases, there is a lot of responsibility for the LC teachers and their courses, not least because there is a view held by many Faculty staff and other stakeholders that students will be fluent in the languages that they have learnt at SEEU after completing four semesters of obligatory language skills study. Despite these pressures and limitations, a recent study conducted among former SEEU students, examining the influence of classroom communication on student commitment to university (Kareva, 2011), showed that all the interviewed students identified the English programme as the most positive experience and the biggest strength of the SEEU, which is another indication of the value of the LC for the University in general.

Excellence in Language Learning

The Language Centre (LC), as an integral part of the South East European University (SEEU) implements a number of well-established, institution-wide quality procedures, which are intended to have a positive impact on the standards of learning and teaching. In developing these procedures, the University and Centre have drawn on international quality assurance guidelines, trends and best practices in order to develop effective approaches to quality within a specific educational and national context. The Centre remains focused on the effectiveness of its language skills programmes, on developing its staff within the subject discipline and on maintaining a sustainable position and structure within the University. This is at a time of rapid change and expansion of higher education in the country and in a period of economic and social transition. It is a complex setting with benefits and challenges.

The purpose of this paper is to evaluate the relative value of being part of an integrated institutional structure and specifically, what changes the internal quality enhancement procedures have made, both at individual teacher and LC level. We analyse how far institutional-wide processes have been applicable and valuable to the LC and whether there has been an impact on LC staff in their awareness and/or commitment to quality enhancement. We hope that the results of these findings will contribute to a greater understanding of the value of quality assurance procedures for Language Centres as well as to identifying what makes such processes successful.

Speaking about quality in language education, Crabbe (2003) suggests taking into consideration three parallel domains of enquiry: theoretical – which is about the conditions that have to be met in order for language learning to occur; cultural – context oriented enquiry into current teaching practice in any context, and management enquiry – how to establish and ensure good practice. This author further refers to a TESOL standard framework in which a set of quality indicators are proposed.

"The indicators cover a number of dimensions of programme design and management: planning; Curriculum (in the sense of course specifications); instruction (learning activities); recruitment, intake, and orientation; retention and transition; assessment and learner gains; staffing, professional development, and staff evaluation; and support services." (Crabbe 2003: 25).

The findings of the report on what constitutes quality in language learning in adult education from the European Commission (August, 2010), which aimed to identify and compare the views of both learners and teachers on this matter, revealed that in different countries, there were some common ideas of what high-quality teacher and a high-quality learning experience should be like. Therefore, the most important aspects for teachers were that they knew their subject well;

they were encouraging, supportive, approachable, able to explain things clearly and well prepared. In addition, both students and teachers agreed that the learning was best when students understood the aim of the lesson and how it was helping them to learn, knew well how they were progressing and had clear instructions.

This is all in line with the recommendations from other authors about good teaching practices in higher education (Fry, Ketteridge and Marshall, 2003; Kember, 2007; Ramsden, 2008). The principles of good teaching recommended by Kember (2007) in his book, *Enhancing University Teaching* can apply to quality language teaching as well. They refer to creating curricula that meet students' needs, using real life examples and relating theory to practice, students' active engagement in the teaching and learning process, motivating students through organizing interesting and enjoyable classes, consideration of their needs when planning programmes and courses, flexible lesson plans based on students' feedback and assessment which is consistent with the desired learning outcomes.

It can be concluded that quality language learning is not very dissimilar from quality learning in any other discipline. There are certain specificities that are exclusive to language learning such as those related to the biological processes of how people acquire languages and which are different from the way they learn spatial orientation, but the general framework of quality in education in terms of creating learning opportunities that lead to best learning practices are broadly comparable for all fields. This provides a basis on which the implementation and evaluation of shared quality processes are of relevance and value to language centres as well as other academic units within institutions.

National and institutional perspective

Considerations of what constitutes high-quality language learning are influenced by the context of the country and institution. The Republic of Macedonia (RM), a former republic of Yugoslavia, has been undergoing many reforms in all spheres of its existence since its independence in 1991. The country received the candidate status for membership in the European Union in 2005. This status generated a process which has required considerable change in order to be able to meet the requirements of integration into the European family. The new reality meant free exchange of goods and services, but also exchange of ideas and mobility of intellectual potential. It also meant much wider exposure to international standards and quality expectations.

The political, social, economic and educational transition combined with more general trends such as massification had a significant impact on higher education in the country with the introduction of new and often revised laws and reforms. Moreover, even earlier than its aspiration for membership status in 2003, Macedo-

nia became one of the countries that committed themselves to following and realizing the recommendations of the Bologna Process and the aim of creating a unified European Higher Education Area. As stated in the Strategy for Educational Development 2010–2015 of the Ministry of Education of RM, besides the regular efforts for raising the quality of the study programmes and their efficiency, these guidelines from Bologna required activities for educational restructuring which would be transparent, competitive, compatible and recognizable on the European market of academic services.

Thus, one of the aims of the Ministry of Education in cooperation with the Universities in the country, as stated in its Strategy, was to increase the number of highly educated people who would be able to carry on the reforms in other spheres and at the same time be competitive on the global educational market. In order to meet this aim, the government pursued a strategy of dispersion, that is, by opening one new state University and/or Faculties in almost every urban area. At the same time, the tuition fee at state universities was lowered, in order to make higher education more accessible.

Macedonia today has slightly more than 2 million inhabitants (2 052 722, as of 31. 12. 2009, State Statistical Office of RM), 19 higher education institutions with 99 faculties, both state and private. Nine years ago, there were only two state universities. The same daily newspaper cited data from the Open Society Institute and reported that in the last five years in Macedonia, the number of students has almost doubled from 48.252 to over 70.000 (Dnevnik, August 24, 2010).

As a private public, not-for-profit institution, the Southeast European University is faced with disloyal competition from the state universities. Moreover, student fees are a main source of income for the university and only a limited number of people can afford to pay these in the present situation of economic crisis. Studying at the state universities is very cheap. However, enrolment numbers have remained sustainable and quality and reputation are determining factors for the university's success. This is the national context in which the SEEU operates.

Institutionally, SEEU operates its academic activities from two teaching premises, the main campus in Tetovo and its satellite campus in the capital city, Skopje, which is 40 kilometres away. It is now in its fourteenth year of operation with more than 7500 students and 3300 graduates. Since the establishment of its campus in Tetovo in October 2001, it has established itself as a quality-focused, financially sustainable university regarded as a good model for multi-ethnic, multi-lingual higher education in South East Europe. This is important in a multi-ethnic country within a region with a history of conflict and community tension. There are five Faculties and two Centres within the University: Law, Business and Economy, Computer Science and Technology, Public Administration and Political Science, Languages, Cultures and Communication, as well as the Language and IT

Centres. The University has modelled its provision on the Bologna guidelines and standards, and sought to use international trends and good practice in shaping its offer. It has been evaluated twice as part of the EUA's Institutional Evaluation Programme and benefitted from positive and constructive reporting from these processes. The Language Centre (LC) was fully involved in this process. At the core of SEEU's mission are the aims of excellence, equity, transparency and efficiency. The University strives for the highest quality in every faculty and department; it sees quality improvement as both an individual and collective responsibility and a continuous process, which recognizes achievement as well as necessary areas for improvement.

Internal Quality Measures

Given the specific field of language learning, and international, national and institutional contexts, we decided to evaluate the benefits and challenges of a Language Centre being integrated with university-wide quality processes, and to analyse what changes these procedures have made, at both individual teacher and LC level. In addition to this, our aim was to examine how far institution-wide processes have been applicable and valuable to the LC and whether there has been an impact on LC staff in their awareness and/or commitment to quality enhancement. Our conclusions were drawn from an evaluation of these procedures, a comparison of LC data over a period of time and an investigation into Centre staff perceptions.

Our analysis of the advantages and disadvantages of being more rather than less integrated into the structure, decision making and quality assurance mechanisms of an institution indicates that on balance, there is more value than challenge in this position. Through a high level of integration, the LC has gained recognition and status at management level, and developed positive liaison with the Faculties whose students we teach. The Centre Director is a member of the Rector's Council and can initiate discussion on relevant issues directly with senior management and Faculty Deans. Regular liaison with the University Provost provides support for efficient scheduling of classes, especially embedded ESP provision and more importantly, matters of core funding and entrepreneurial initiatives.

The annual requirement for departmental strategic and operational Action Planning, including the LC, ensures that the Centre's strengths and areas for development within the institutional context are clearly identified and agreed on. There is still sufficient autonomy in operational decision making and in field specific issues such as curriculum, structure of classes and assessment.

The integrated structure provides an opportunity for the LC to be more fully represented at all levels of the institution and to have good working links. It also offers the opportunity not only to share good practice but also to lead on some

quality initiatives such as the improvement of teaching and learning and provision of training faculty in student centred learning approaches. In a EUA publication, Surcock, (2011:18), notes that, "professionally-staffed centres that support teaching and learning are still a rarity which will require attention in the years ahead". The Language Centre at SEEU has taken a very helpful role in providing such support, with positive evaluation.

The present task is to ensure that inappropriate or barely relevant mechanisms, which are incompatible with language learning are not imposed on the Centre and that LC needs are not forgotten or ignored. Furthermore, it is a challenge to make certain that being more visible does not equate with being easier to re-structure or remove. So far, the active involvement and representation of the LC has allowed it to continue and develop with good success within general constraints.

Teaching observation

The teaching observation procedure has been implemented for four years and provides the opportunity for every member of staff to be observed by two colleagues during a class and to receive feedback and a report on their performance. Since at least one observer is a trained language specialist, the process has applicability to the Centre. The procedure draws on the concept of developing 'pedagogical competence' which is applicable for all academic and skills staff in higher education and includes a focus on student learning, clear development over time and a reflective (scientific) attitude (Olsson, Martensson, Roxa, 2010). The fact that the individual results are also used positively as part of the staff evaluation process and in targeted training gives added value.

The Language Centre has almost 100% compliance with the procedure over this period and summary data from these observation reports, which include judgments on learning, teaching, class management, resources and monitoring of learning, show steady improvement in the quality of the experience teachers provide in the classroom, with some fluctuation.

From the analysis of individual observation reports and the Full Year Teaching Observation Reports issued twice yearly to all academic staff and students from the Quality Office, it is clear that this internal quality assurance procedure has obviously added value to the effectiveness of the LC, contributing to ensuring that staff are 'qualified and competent' to teach (EUA, 2005). The summary results are debated actively, both within the Language Centre and at the Rector's Council and this strengthens the focus on total quality culture. Language Centre staff also make active suggestions about improving the procedure, particularly in the area of standardization of judgments, which has resulted in revising some aspects of the procedure.

Student involvement in and evaluation of QA

Another internal quality enhancement process that encompasses the Language Centre as an independent academic unit within University is the annual Student Evaluation Survey in which students are asked to evaluate anonymously their courses, teachers, their own study commitment as well as the administration, resources and environment of the University. For the academic departments, the results are provided from the Quality Office to every teacher and confidentially to the Deans/Director. Summary data is also provided at departmental and University level, with annual data and trends over time. The questions are generally applicable, although LC staff argue that additional or different questions could make the survey more useful to the Centre.

There is a satisfactory completion rate by students for LC provision (62%) although there is a recognized need to develop different mechanisms in order to involve students more effectively in the evaluation of learning and teaching which could include a more LC specific focus.

The results are very useful for considering strengths and weaknesses. The comparative data for the LC through years demonstrate a noticeable positive upward trend in student satisfaction. The results also show variation in levels of satisfaction for different aspects which are the subject of team comment and action as applicable. Staff may compare their departmental data with other Faculties, which adds to the status of the Centre, especially with the positive scores. Individual results are also added to the evidence for the staff evaluation procedure, providing for individual reflection and stronger performance management.

Staff assessment

Finally, both the individual observation reports and Student Evaluation results are included as relevant evidence in the annual Staff Evaluation Process in which each member of staff writes their own evaluation of their achievements and needed areas of development and receives a report from their manager, in this case, the LC Director. This is followed by a reflective, individual discussion with the mutual identification of specific, measurable, attainable, realistic and timely (SMART) targets for the following academic year, including professional development and work-related new initiatives.

The Quality Office's monitoring of the evaluation reports indicate 100% compliance with formal, written aspects, and more importantly, that the appraisal meetings have been used well in order to enhance the quality of the LC and its staff. There has been a focus on recognizing achievement and on continuous improvement. The Centre provided evidence that targeted training had resulted from this process, both on an individual and team level, with good follow-up. This process

is applicable to all staff without the need for any adaption. The feedback from staff meetings with the Director and/or Quality Advisor has been broadly positive of the process. Evidence is also used in applications for academic promotion, as applicable.

Teachers' survey

In order to see what the Language Centre teachers think of the quality procedures, whether they have an impact on their own perceptions and quality culture and if yes what it is, a questionnaire was given to them. It comprised of 15 Likert scale questions on the influence of the different quality procedures mentioned under the three previous subheadings at University, Language Centre and individual level, as well as the influence of both external guidelines (Bologna processes, External evaluation) and national framework (the Law on Higher Education of RM).

SEEU Language Centre has 24 full-time teachers out of whom 21 are English teachers and 3 are Macedonian. It has a few teachers of other languages, including Albanian, the other local language, but they do not have a full-time status at the LC. 20 teachers (83%) responded to the questionnaire: 19 English and 1 Macedonian, all employed by the Centre, ethnic Albanian and Macedonian, no international staff members. All of them have significant teaching experience at the University and are familiarized with the quality procedures. According to the Law on higher education in the country, their minimum educational level is an MA degree. The majority of the examined teachers are doctoral candidates.

Results of the Teacher's survey

With regard to the external and national quality guidelines/initiatives, 85% (slightly higher for external) agree that there is a positive impact on the Centre and its staff. Over 60% believe that University wide procedures add value when applied to the LC. Sixty five % of the LC teachers are more aware about the quality than 2 years ago. There is 50% positive support from the teachers for the External Review for improving quality. Very high, 85% of them value constructively the positive effect of the Teaching Observation Process. Regarding the Student Evaluation Survey, 55% believe that it has a positive influence on individual level and more (63%) on the Centre level. Annual Staff Evaluation is believed to have a very high positive impact on the individual level (90%) although 35% of the teachers are sceptical about its influence at Centre's level. Finally, a very high number of teachers (90% for individual and 87.5% for the Centre) are certain about the positive contribution of the institution-wide staff professional development and training. The same applies to the action planning – 77.5% of the LC teachers think that it is useful for improving quality.

Conclusions

There is no doubt that a variety of quality enhancement strategies, both external and institutional, support quality enhancement. The integration of the Centre in utilizing University wide processes is positive, applicable, although should be capable of adaptation, and contributes towards status improvement. Having both Centre specific and general procedures adds value in the eyes of the staff and adds weight to the information gathered.

Data collected from these instruments show steady positive impact. Another contribution is the fact that this information can be further used for reflective discussions and targeted improvement. Teachers should be reflective about what and how they teach and very often their educational experiences provide little room for thinking, creativity, questioning, exploration, or risk-taking that seem so vital in developing intellectual habits and practices of learning and inquiry. In this respect, the use of evaluative information from different integrated procedures supports individual staff and their development. Quality is a continuous process, requiring sustained reflection and awareness: all parties involved in it should be innovative, adaptable, active, engaged and efficient. In this respect, some of the principles of the quality framework recommended by Munn (2009: 33) developed for the University of Manchester, can be applied universally: "Processes should be collective, reflective and respectful, not confrontational; they are based on dialogue, listening and support, not paperwork, policing and punishment."

Individual comments from the survey also demonstrate a progressive effect of the quality processes, but they point out that these processes should be continuously revised and adapted in order to be applicable to different situations and settings. As Lim (2001) points out, even though teachers know their performance has to be assessed, they will still be uncomfortable about it, unless they are able to participate in it, and influence the outcomes. Nonetheless, steady regular procedures have benefits for all.

As a result of the different quality initiatives, the awareness about quality culture among staff has arisen. This especially because of the fact that, as pointed out by Morley, (2003, cited by Vetorri, 2012), "Academics in particular have been very reluctant to engage with management schemes and procedures which they found overly bureaucratic and demotivating." And indeed, discussions and feedback do prove this attitude; teachers very often complain that the quality procedures are very formal and inflexible and do not correspond to the dynamism of active, practical ethos of a language centre. In spite of the reluctance, teachers still claim that they have become more aware of the quality than they used to be and gradually accept the different procedures as a part of their everyday working engagements. It further means promotion of the existing best practices and values at the Centre and the University in general.

Discussion

From the analysis and results provided at the SEEU Language Centre, some key questions may be considered as relevant:

- 1. How does a Language Centre function within the framework of the institution it is part of and what level of integration best ensures the quality and sustainability of their provision?
- 2. How do Language Centres develop and sustain effective strategies which are significant?
- 3. How do institutions and all their departments make sure they have noteworthy tools and practices used to implement these strategies?
- 4. Do all stakeholders (teachers, students, parents, administration, University management, the community) benefit from these tools and in what way? It must not be the case that quality instruments are used only because this is forced by the Law.
- 5. Are data gathered in this way carefully monitored and compared in order to be used for further planning and action?

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Appendix 1: Questionnaire on the impact of quality procedures on learning and teaching in the Language Centre

5 = strongly agree; 4 = agree; 3 = neutral; 2 = disagree; 1 = strongly disagree

- 1. The Observation procedure has had a positive impact on my teaching.
- 2. The Observation procedure has had a positive impact on LC quality.
- 3. The Student Evaluation Survey has had no impact on improving my teaching.
- 4. The Student Evaluation Survey has had no impact on improving LC quality.
- 5. Annual Staff Evaluation supports my improvement and development.
- 6. Annual Staff Evaluation supports LC improvement and development.
- 7. The Annual LC Action Plan is a useful tool for quality enhancement.
- 8. The LC Professional development program improves QLT.
- 9. The LC Professional development program improves my teaching.
- 10. The external review program enhanced QLT in the LC.
- 11. These university wide procedures are not applicable to the LC.
- 12. University wide procedures add value when applied in the LC.
- 13. External quality guidelines/ trends/ good practice enhance QLT in the LC.
- 14. National quality initiatives are useful in enhancing QLT in the LC.
- 15. I am more aware about quality enhancement than I was 1 year ago. Explain:

Bionote

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Enseignement du français à la Faculté d'Economie et d'Administration de l'Université Masaryk de Brno

Marie Červenková

Abstract: L'article présente l'enseignement de la langue française à la Faculté d'Economie et d'Administration de l'Université Masaryk de Brno assuré par le Centre de Langues en se focalisant sur des principes généraux et sur différentes méthodes du perfectionnement des compétences langagières. Il introduit un contexte plus large de l'enseignement du français à l'Université Masaryk et ses traits spécifiques à la Faculté d'Economie et d'Administration, y compris le contenu, la méthodologie et les objectifs. Plusieurs exemples d'activités approfondissant les compréhensions et productions orale et écrite ainsi que l'interaction y sont présentés. Le texte esquisse les défis actuels auxquels l'enseignant du français des affaires doit faire face.

Key words : enseignement, langues étrangères, français des affaires, compétences langagières, Faculté d'Economie et d'Administration de Brno

Abstract : The article presents the French language education at the Faculty of Economics and Administration of the Masaryk University in Brno by Language centre, focusing on general principles and different methods of language skills development. It introduces a broader context of the business French teaching including the content, methodology and objectives of courses.

Abstrakt: Článek prezentuje výuku francouzského jazyka na Ekonomicko-správní fakultě Masarykovy univerzity v Brně, která je zajišťována Centrem jazykového vzdělávání. Uvádí ji do širšího kontextu výuky cizích jazyků na Masarykově univerzitě a popisuje obecné principy výuky odborně zaměřené francouzštiny a také konkrétní obsah, cíle a metodologii kurzů. Pro inspiraci dalším vyučujícím ekonomické francouzštiny je uvedeno několik výukových aktivit zaměřených na rozvoj komunikativních dovedností (produkce ústní a písemná, interakce). V závěru příspěvku jsou načrtnuty těžkosti a výzvy, kterým vyučující musí čelit.

1 Introduction

L'objectif de cet article est de faire un court aperçu de la place du français à l'Université Masaryk de Brno et de présenter brièvement l'enseignement de la langue française sur objectifs spécifiques (FOS) à la Faculté d'Economie et d'Administration à l'heure actuelle.

Bien que le français soit considéré comme l'une des « petites »¹ langues, nous sommes persuadée de l'importance de l'ouverture à la diversité dans différents domaines et au plurilinguisme en particulier. Nous sommes d'accord avec les mots

¹ « petites » parce qu'enseignées à un public restreint. En français, il est plus fréquent d'utiliser l'expression « langues étrangères de moindre diffusion ».

de Colin Baker, l'un des plus prestigieux linguistes actuels, qui compare la diversité des langues à un jardin fleuri.

« If we travelled through the countries of the world and found field after field, garden after garden of the same, one-colour flower, how boring and dull our world would be. If a single colour flower was found throughout the world without variety of shape, size or colour, how tedious and impoverished the world would be.

Fortunately, there is a wide variety of flowers throughout the world of all shapes and sizes, all tints and textures, all hues and shades. A garden full of different coloured flowers enhances the beauty of that garden and enriches our visual and aesthetic experience. 2 (Baker, 2000, p. 169)

En effet, l'enseignement de français apporte aux étudiants la possibilité de choix et leur permet également de faire la connaissance avec la/les culture(s) franco-phone(s).

1.1 Remarques préliminaires

L'enseignement de la langue française en République Tchèque a une longue tradition. Surtout à l'époque de l'entre-deux guerres il y avait une forte tradition de contacts culturels³ qui ont été ensuite malheureusement affaiblis à cause de l'évolution de la situation politique vers l'Etat communiste après la seconde guerre mondiale. Aujourd'hui, dans le système d'enseignement, le français est la troisième langue la plus enseignée, après l'anglais et l'allemand, ce qui se comprend bien pour des raisons géographiques. Après les changements de 1989, une tradition des lycées bilingues franco-tchèques s'est vite établie et l'existence d'un lycée de ce type dans la ville de Brno permet à l'Université de Brno d'en recruter les diplômés intéressés.

Depuis l'année 2006 l'offre des langues étrangères enseignées dans certaines écoles élémentaires est élargie et certaines langues sont plus soutenues (comme les langues des Etats frontaliers – allemand, polonais – et également le français comme une langue d'affaires en Union européenne).⁴

² Traduction libre en français: Si nous voyagions à travers les pays du monde et trouvions tous les terrains et tous les jardins identiques, d'une seule couleur, comment ennuyeux et terne serait notre monde. Si une seule fleur était trouvée dans le monde entier sans variété de forme, de taille ou de couleur, comment fastidieux et appauvri serait le monde. Heureusement, il existe une grande variété de fleurs dans le monde entier de toutes formes et tailles, de toutes teintes, textures et nuances. Un jardin plein de fleurs de différentes couleurs rehausse la beauté de ce jardin et enrichit notre expérience visuelle et esthétique.

³ A comparer avec Raková, Z. (2011). Francophonie de la population tchèque. In Fenclová, M., Koláříková D, eds. *La francophonie en Europe centrale et pour l'Europe centrale*. Plzeň, Západočeská univerzita, Fakulta filozofická, Katedra románských jazyků, p. 24–32.

 $^{^4}$ Accessible en ligne sur : http://www.europschool.net/static.php?op=formation/primo_arrivant/ republique_tcheque_education.html&npds=1 [10/04/2015]

Il paraît qu'il y a des conditions favorables pour l'enseignement du français langue étrangère au degré supérieur. Toutefois, il convient de rappeler que ces dernières années les enseignants de français éprouvent une diminution du nombre d'étudiants due à l'impact de la mondialisation avec un plus grand intérêt pour l'anglais et au déclin démographique de la population. De plus, les étudiants des écoles secondaires qui choisissent le français comme la seconde langue étrangère, n'y prêtent pas assez souvent trop d'attention en rappelant qu'il ne s'agit pas de matière de baccalauréat. En effet, rares sont ceux qui décident de passer leur baccalauréat de français (au niveau B1 du Cadre européen commun de référence pour les langues).

2 L'enseignement du français à l'Université de Brno

L'Université Masaryk de Brno est le second établissement de l'enseignement supérieur tchèque par le nombre des étudiants qui y étudient (plus de 40 000 en 2013)⁵ et le premier par le nombre des étudiants qui passent l'examen d'admission. A présent, elle est composée de 9 facultés, dont cinq profitent des services du Centre de Langues universitaire pour assurer l'enseignement du français : Faculté des Sciences sociales, Faculté des Lettres, Faculté des Sciences naturelles, Faculté de Droit et Faculté d'Economie et d'Administration.

3 L'enseignement du français à la Faculté d'Economie et d'Administration

Comme la faculté prépare de futurs économistes, fonctionnaires de l'administration publique ou ceux de l'Union Européenne, l'enseignement des langues étrangè res y est accentué⁶. En présentiel, les étudiants peuvent s'inscrire à trois types de cours assurés par le Centre de Langues : cours préparatoire (payant à un prix ayantageux), cours « Langue II » et cours « Langue I ».

Tah 1	· Cours de	français à la	Faculté d'Economie	et leurs caractéris	stinues

cours	niveau de départ	niveau d'arrivée	durée (semestre)	fréquence (par semaine)
cours préparatoire	A2	B1	2	1 × 90 min
cours « Langue II »	B1	B2	2	1 × 90 min
cours « Langue I »	B2	C1	4	290 min/1 × 90 min ⁷

 $^{^5}$ Accessible en ligne sur : https://www.muni.cz/media/docs/1058/MU_VZ2013.pdf [10/04/2015]

⁶ Le master franco-tchèque réalisé à la Faculté d'Economie et d'Administration en collaboration avec l'Université Rennes I depuis 2002 ne sera pas traité dans cet article.

 $^{^7}$ pendant les deux premiers semestres 2 × 90 min/semaine, pendant les deux derniers semestres 1 × 90 min/semaine

3.1 Profil d'étudiants de français

Avant de passer leur examen d'Etat à la fin des études de licence, les étudiants doivent réussir leur examen d'une langue étrangère au niveau de C1. Ce qui implique qu'ils suivent les cours « Langue I », dès le début de leurs études universitaires ou à partir de leur deuxième année. Il s'agit, dans la plupart des cas, des étudiants des lycées tchèques ou slovaques ou des lycées bilingues.

Les étudiants finissant leurs études de master passent l'examen de leur deuxième langue étrangère au niveau B2. Il s'agit surtout des étudiants des lycées tchèques ou slovaques ou encore d'autres types d'écoles secondaires telles que les écoles de commerce.

Au cours préparatoire s'inscrivent les étudiants de master qui veulent approffondir et/ou raffraichir leurs connaissances avant de s'inscrire au cours « Langue II ». Dans la plupart des cas, ils souhaitent aussi remplir les lacunes de connaissances dues à une pause dans leurs études de français entre le baccalauréat et le début des études de master.

Le public des cours de français sur objectifs spécifique est assez hétérogène en ce qui concerne les domaines d'études. Ceux-ci sont très variés : finance, gestion de l'entreprise et management, développement et administration de régions, économie et administration publiques, développement régional et tourisme, etc.

3.2 Matériels didactiques et contenu thématique des cours

Dans les trois cours mentionnés ci-dessus un manuel de base est utilisé : *Français.com*, niveau débutant⁸ dans le cours préparatoire, *Français.com*, niveau intermédiaire⁹ dans le cours Langue II et *Affaires à suivre*¹⁰ dans les trois premiers semestres du cours de la Langue I. Les auteurs de ces méthodes ont tâché de créer une certaine authenticité des situations traitées en reliant le plus possible le matériel écrit à la réalité. Or, dans le domaine du français des affaires, les manuels et leur côté informatif en particulier perdent assez vite d'actualité (par exemple des textes décrivant le programme du président français Nicolas Sarkozy, des changements dans la structure et noms des institutions etc.).¹¹ Par conséquent, il est bien utile d'utiliser dans l'enseignement des documents authentiques à proprement parler. Ce qui est inévitable de faire dans nos cours Langue I au

⁸ Penfornis, J.-L. (2012). *Français.com.* Niveau débutant. Paris : Clé internationale, ISBN 2090380357.

 $^{^9}$ Penfornis, J.-L. (2002). $\it Français.com.$ Niveau intermédiaire. Paris : Clé internationale, ISBN 2-09-033171-2.

¹⁰ Bloomfield, A., Tauzin, B. (2001). Affaires à suivre. Paris : Hachette, ISBN 2011551641.

¹¹ Voir Červenková, M. (2012). Učebnice obchodní francouzštiny českých a francouzských nakladatelství. In *Forlang. Cudzie jazyky v akademickom prostredí*. Periodický zborník vedeckých príspevkov. Košice: Technická univerzita v Košiciach, Katedra jazykov, ISSN 1338-5496, ISBN: 978-80-553-0982-8.

troisième et quatrième semestre en raison du manque d'un manuel de français des affaires au niveau C1.

En ce qui concerne le caractère des documents authentiques utilisés en classe, nous pouvons constater qu'il est bien varié grâce aux sources électroniques : document sonores, vidéos, textes, journal télévisé, émissions radiophoniques, forums, exemples de contrats et de lettres commerciales etc.

Ouant au contenu thématique des cours, il vise les thèmes propres au monde des affaires. Vu une certaine hétérogénéité des domaines d'études des étudiants de français, il n'est pas possible de se plonger dans la profondeur dans un seul domaine (à comparer avec Tagliante, 2011, p. 18), mais il vaut mieux se concentrer sur les thèmes et terminologie qui peuvent être considérés comme communs à la thématique de l'économie. 12 Les étudiants du niveau B1 apprennent à prendre rendez-vous, à organiser leur journée de travail, un déplacement professionnel ou un déjeuner d'affaires, à parler de leur expérience professionnelle ainsi que de l'entreprise pour laquelle ils pourraient travailler ou encore à écrire des e-mails. Au niveau de B2 les étudiants sont amenés à travailler les thèmes concernant l'accueil à l'hôtel, au restaurant ou dans l'entreprise et à connaitre le monde de l'entreprise et du travail, à se familiariser avec les formes de la correspondance commerciale. Pour les étudiants du niveau C1 sont destinés les thèmes englobant approximativement le contenu du cours de niveau B2 et en l'approfondissant. Le cours vise surtout l'entreprise (environnement, formes, création et liquidation, concurrence, résultats, financement), le travail (recherche d'emploi, relations dans le travail, congés, emploi du temps), achat/vente (commande, promotion, règlements, commerce international), assurances, bourse et valeurs mobilières.

3.3 Objectifs de l'enseignement/apprentissage

Le but de l'enseignement/apprentissage du français est la capacité de l'apprenant de communiquer en cette langue étrangère, à l'oral ainsi qu'à l'écrit, dans les situations quotidiennes ainsi que dans les situations professionnelles.

Les enseignants de français à la Faculté d'Economie et d'Administration sont chargés d'une tâche bien difficile et exigeante. Ils devraient aider leurs étudiants à améliorer leur connaissances et compétences langagières d'un niveau (de A2 à B1 dans les cours préparatoires, de B1 à B2 et de B2 à C1), voire de deux niveaux (quand le niveau d'entrée ne correspond pas au niveau exigé), en relativement peu de temps.

¹² J. Hendrich distingue deux types de terminologie: tout d'abord, il s'agit des termes qui sont communs à plusieurs domaines d'études ou de travail et qui apparaissent également dans la langue standard. Ensuite, il y a un lexique beaucoup plus spécifique propre à un domaine précis. Même le Diplôme professionnel du français des affaires de la Chambre du commerce et d'industrie est basé sur le premier type de terminologie. (Fischer, 2009, s. 25)

En même temps, nous considérons comme très important que les étudiants créent un bon rapport envers la langue étudiée et la culture du monde francophone. Nous sommes donc d'accord avec P. Marečková et d'autres didacticiens tchèques et étrangers qui soulignent le rôle des émotions positives dans le processus de l'apprentissage et de l'ambiance générale en classe (Janíková, 2011, s. 84).

4 Enseignement du français des affaires

4.1 Principes généraux

Dans la vie quotidienne, la communication humaine se déroule de différentes manières et il faut prendre ce fait en considération également dans l'enseignement des langues étrangères. C'est pourquoi nous tenons à enseigner toutes les compétences de langue, c'est-à-dire les compétences réceptives (compréhension orale, compréhension écrite), les compétences productives (production orale, production écrite) et les compétences interactives (interaction orale, interaction écrite).

Etant donné une dotation horaire remarquablement faible pour le cours obligatoire Langue II et conformément aux tendances modernes dans l'enseignement en général, l'enseignant passe au rôle de facilitateur de l'apprentissage (Janíková, 2011, p. 84) et les étudiants sont incités à l'autoapprentissage. Nous profitons aussi du concept des « classes inversées »¹³ ou « flipped classes » dans lequel les devoirs sont faits par les étudiants à l'avance, avant le cours (il s'agit surtout de l'étude des sujets plus ou moins théoriques concernant par exemple la grammaire, les règles de la correspondance commerciale, celles de l'argumentation etc.) pour qu'on puisse profiter entièrement de la leçon suivante pour des interactions, des jeux de rôles, des simulations, alors des activités qui ne pourraient pas être réalisées à la maison.

Les approches traditionnelle, activant la mémoire, compréhension et application, et communicative ou actionnelle, suscitant à l'analyse, synthèse et création¹⁴, se succèdent. Pour cela, le travail en groupes ou sous-groupes est favorisé.

Nous essayons donc d'activer l'apprenant en classe et de le rendre responsable de ses résultats¹⁵. Nous pouvons constater avec plaisir que la plupart des étudiants se préparent assidûment pour les cours et ainsi, chez certains, il est possible d'observer un grand progrès. Certes, cela est dû également à la motivation extérieure – examen final.

 $^{^{13}}$ Voir par exemple le blog de Marcel Lebrun accessible en ligne sur : http ://lebrunre-my.be/WordPress/?tag=classes-inversees $\lceil 10.04.2015 \rceil$

¹⁴ La taxonomie de Benjamin Bloom (Tagliante, 2011, p. 30)

¹⁵ A comparer avec Paul Cyr (1993) qui déclare que les stratégies indirectes (à l'iniciative de l'apprenant) sont inséparables des stratégies directes (exercées dans les manuels au cours de l'apprentissage d'une langue étrangère).

Dans ce contexte, nous considérons comme primordial de créer une ambiance positive en classe puisque les émotions positives permettent un apprentissage plus efficace (Janíková, 2011, p. 84). Cela est étroitement lié à l'évaluation du travail des étudiants et la correction des fautes commises qui n'est presque jamais faite lors du discours de l'étudiant mais après son exploit oral et qui devrait être faite d'une manière discrète en accord avec Choděra (1993, 165). A l'instar d'un collègue français nous utilisons l'expression « points à améliorer » au lieu du mot « fautes » parce qu'il est bien plus efficace et motivant de se concentrer au futur qu'au passé. En même temps, il faut toujours apprécier le courage et les efforts des étudiants de communiquer. Les étudiants sont encouragés à appliquer de différents stratégies d'apprentissage, dont une stratégie métacognitive qui consiste à remarquer les fautes commises et éventuellement à rechercher leurs racines. 16 Les étudiantes du quatrième semestre enregistrent leurs présentations des actualités sur leurs portables et sont inscitées à auto-évaluer leur exposé oral à la maison du point de vue de la capacité langagière ainsi que de celui de l'art de présentation (soft skills), par exemple la posture, la voix ou encore le contact visuel avec le public.

Certains étudiants disent avoir acquis de connaissances de grammaire solides qu'ils savent utiliser parfaitement dans les exercices structuraux mais en parlant ils ne sont pas capables de les appliquer. Par conséquent, nous considérons que les jeux de rôles, les interactions et les résumés oraux occupent une place importante dans l'enseignement des langues, et ceci avant tout dans l'automatisation des connaissances et compétences acquises. Des résultats de recherches montrent effectivement qu'on retient 10 % de ce qu'on a lu, 20 % de ce qu'on a entendu, 30 % de ce qu'on a vu, 50 % de ce qu'on a entendu et vu, 70 % de ce qu'on a dit soi-même et 90 % de ce qu'on a fait. (Janíková, 2011, p. 29)

Dans le chapitre suivant nous vous invitons à faire la connaissance de quelques activités qui ont été réalisées avec succès en classe.

4.2 Exemples d'activités

4.2.1 Participer à une réunion de travail

Objectifs professionnels: Etre capable de : participer à une réunion de travail, commenter des données chiffrées, s'exercer à la prise des notes, exploiter ses notes pour rédiger un compte-rendu

Objectifs langagiers: Etre capable de : ouvrir et clore une réunion, décrire un graphique (automatisation des expressions utiles pour la description d'un graphique déjà connues)

¹⁶ A comparer avec Ondráková, J. (2014). *Chyba a výuka cizích jazyků*. Gaudeamus, s. 36, 37 qui utilise dans ce contexte les notions de registrace, identifikace, interpretace, oprava, prevence.

Objectifs communicatifs : Etre capable de : interagir lors d'une réunion de travail, parler des résultats de l'entreprise, résumer les informations essentielles

Activité (travail en groupes de 4 personnes)

- 1. Répartissez les rôles donnés.¹⁷
- 2. Préparez en 20 minutes une courte présentation de votre entreprise et les informations sur l'évolution des ventes.
- 3. Participez à la réunion.
- 4. Les autres groupes prennent des notes, peuvent poser des questions à la fin de la réunion, puis, chez eux, rédigent un compte-rendu.

Tab. 2: Sujet 1 – activités

Fonctions	Tâches
Directeur général	Présenter l'entreprise, présider la réunion, présenter l'ordre du jour
Directeur des ventes	Présenter le graphique de l'évolution des ventes
L'adjoint du directeur des ventes	Présenter le graphique de l'évolution des ventes
Une autre fonction à votre choix	Donner des informations complémentaires (sur les raisons d'une telle évolution, sur les démarches marketing, sur le CA d'un produit concret))

Il s'agit d'une activité qui a été pratiquée par les étudiants du niveau B2. Avant de la faire en classe, les étudiants ont fait la connaissance avec les expressions pour diriger une réunion (ouverture, passation de parole, clôture) et pour décrire un graphique. Ils ont également appris comment rédiger un compte-rendu de réunion. Pour cela ils ont utilisé le matériel didactique du livre Affaires à suivre (unité 9 - Marché et résultats de l'entreprise). Comme il s'agissait des activités classiques (compréhension orale - réunion et description d'un graphique, texte à trous – compte rendu de la réunion), nous avons essayé de les transformer en un exercice interactif pour que les apprenants soient obligés d'utiliser et de réutiliser leurs connaissances et compétences dans une situation donnée. Nous avons simulé d'une certaine manière une situation réelle qui privilégiait la collaboration entre les membres du groupe. En même temps, ils apprenaient à s'écouter et réagir avec promptitude. Nous trouvons très utile de faire une évaluation des exploits oraux des étudiants après que l'activité est terminée. Elle peut se faire à l'aide de l'enregistrement sur caméra au niveau morphostylistique, lexical, orthophonique, prosodique ou encore au niveau du langage du corps.

 $^{^{17}}$ Les rôles peuvent être définies d'une autre façon. Il est possible, par exemple, de concrétiser les traits de caractère de chaque personne.

4.2.2 Embaucher ou être embauché(e)

Objectifs professionnels : Etre capable de : réussir/mener un entretien d'embauche

Objectifs langagiers : Etre capable de : s'exprimer lors d'un entretien d'embauche

Objectifs communicatifs : Etre capable de : réagir aux questions du recruteur/poser des questions au candidat

Activité 1 (travail en binômes, puis mise en commun)

Après avoir regardé la séquence vidéo du film Intouchables¹⁸, répondez aux questions suivantes :

- 1. Décrivez la scène initiale.
- 2. Quelle est la première question posée chaque fois par Magali?
- 3. Expliquez les sigles un BAC Pro, un BTS, l'APL.
- 4. Quelles sont les motivations des candidats?
- 5. Expliquez le terme d'insertion sociale.
- 6. Pourquoi Magali ne peut pas signer à la place de Philippe? Etc.

Activité 2 (exercice de compréhension orale¹⁹ sur le même document)

Complétez les expressions suivantes :

1. se présenter à (l'en	nbauche)
-------------------------	----------

- 2. faire des _____ administratives (démarches)
- 3. toucher ses ______ (assédics)

Etc.

Activité 3 (suivi d'une simulation de deux entretiens d'embauche – Canal éducatif²⁰)

Après avoir visionné la simulation de deux entretiens d'embauche dites ce que vous avez appris sur les deux candidats. Quels sont les commentaires de M. Marouani?

¹⁸ Séquence de 5 min (7m30–12m30)

 $^{^{19}}$ Il ne s'agit pas d'un exercice pur de compréhension, mais nous pouvons compter, dans certains cas et selon le niveau des apprenants, avec la connaissance des locutions figées utilisées dans ce domaine concret.

 $^{^{20}}$ Accessible en ligne sur : http://www.canal-educatif.fr/videos/economie/11/simulationrecrutement/simulation-entretien-recrutement.html, [14.02.2015]

Ouel candidat choisiriez-vous et pourquoi?

Activité 4 (jeu de rôles – candidats, recruteurs)

Etudiez les dossiers²¹ de vos collègues (candidats à un poste).

Choisissez deux candidats.

Jouez un entretien d'embauche.

Choisissez le meilleur candidat, justifiez votre choix.

Les activités ont été proposées aux étudiants du niveau B2+. Pour motiver et sensibiliser les étudiants au thème de la recherche d'emploi et pour détendre l'ambiance en classe, nous avons visionné une courte séquence du film Intouchables qui montre la scène d'un entretien d'embauche insolite. La simulation sur Canal éducatif démontre le déroulement de deux entretiens d'embauche classiques et des pistes pour se présenter comme un bon candidat. A part les objectifs langagiers, nous avons suivi ceux qui relèvent de cette situation professionnelle spécifique – éviter les maladresses concernant le comportement ou le contenu des réponses, savoir montrer son côté positif et ses capacités, faire une bonne impression. L'activité 4 consiste à mettre en pratique les connaissances et les compétences acquises et à interagir.

4.2.3 Le monde des assurances

Objectifs professionnels : Etre capable de : présenter différents types d'assurances

Objectifs langagiers : Etre capable de : connaître et savoir utiliser le lexique lié au monde des assurances, production orale, travail sur l'implicite

Objectifs communicatifs : Etre capable de : parler des assurances, présenter les avantages de différents types d'assurances, réagir aux questions des clients potentiels

Activité 1 (travail en binômes – un étudiant regarde la vidéo 22 sur l'écran, l'autre non)

- 1. Décrivez ce que vous voyez à votre collègue.
- 2. Après, votre collègue devrait vous résumer ce qui est montré dans la vidéo. Puis visionnez la vidéo avec votre collègue.
- 3. De quel type d'assurance s'agit-il?

²¹ CV, lettre de motivation préparés à l'avance

 $^{^{22}}$ Passer la vidéo sans le son. Accessible en ligne sur : https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ZKlbr2exG_U, [12.02.2015]

Activité 2 (préparation de l'argumentation, puis présentation avec enregistrement sur caméra, évaluation)

Est-il nécessaire de s'assurer ? Préparez une argumentation que vous allez présenter aux clients potentiels. Vous allez également réagir à leurs questions et objections.

Le but de ces exercices est de se familiariser avec le monde des assurances et ensuite d'activer les connaissances acquises. Ils ont été faits en classe des étudiants B2+. Le document vidéo présente d'une façon démonstrative quelques types d'assurances principaux et leurs noms en français. L'activité 1 se montre en même temps comme ludique, grâce au caractère de la vidéo (dessins qui produisent un effet comique) et aussi grâce à la vitesse à laquelle changent les dessins sur l'écran et la capacité des étudiants de les décrire. Avant d'aborder l'activité 2, il faut présenter le lexique lié au monde des assurances ou bien le rafraîchir et former les étudiants dans la compétence argumentative.

5 Défis

Comme nous l'avons évoqué plus tôt, l'enseignement du français des affaires à la Faculté d'Economie et d'Administration a un bon encrage dans le cursus de licence et dans celui de master. Toutefois, il est nécessaire de faire face à un certain nombre de défis. Voici quelques-uns :

- Matériel didactique
 Faute de manuel aux niveaux requis et à un contenu parfaitement approprié
 à nos cours, l'enseignant est en constante recherche du matériel didactique
 exploitable en classe.
- Nombre d'étudiants en classe et leur niveau
 Il arrive qu'il y a les deux extrêmes au niveau du nombre d'étudiants en classe.
 D'un côté, des classes à une vingtaine d'étudiants (Langue II), de l'autre côté, des classes à 5 étudiants (derniers semestres de Langue I). De plus, les groupes sont assez hétérogènes au niveau des compétences langagières des étudiants.
- Nombre de leçons contre multitude de tâches²³
- Motivation de certains étudiants à améliorer leurs compétences de lecture et d'écoute, à travailler hors de la classe
- Evaluation des étudiants

 $^{^{23}}$ Voir le chapitre 3

6 Conclusion

Par ce court aperçu nous avons essayé de présenter les cours de français des affaires à la faculté d'Economie et d'Administration, leur contenu, objectifs et principes généraux de l'enseignement ainsi que le profil d'étudiants.

Trois exemples d'activités destinées au public de niveaux B2 et B2+ permettent d'entrevoir les méthodes utilisées et peuvent inspirer d'autres collègues-enseignants de FOS ou ceux d'autres langues étrangères de spécialité. Considérant que les manuels de français des affaires utilisés dans nos cours n'offrent pas assez de matériels d'actualité ni d'activités stimulant à l'interactivité, nous avons cherché à adapter certains thèmes aux besoins de l'enseignement moderne.

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Bionote

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Zkoušky z češtiny a Společný evropský referenční rámec pro jazyky: Na co se spolehnout?

Kateřina Vodičková

Abstrakt: Příspěvek se zabývá dostupnými zkouškami z češtiny pro cizince, které deklarují vztah ke Společnému evropskému referenčnímu rámci pro jazyky (SERR), především k jeho úrovním popisujícím, co uživatel jazyka na dané úrovni dokáže. U vybraných zkoušek analyzujeme subtest Psaní ve vztahu k SERR a přihlížíme k informacím dostupným veřejnosti. Na základě uvedených materiálů zvažujeme, zda uživatelé analyzovaných zkoušek mají k dispozici dostatek podkladů k tomu, aby mohli zkoušce důvěřovat, co se týče jejího přiřazení k SERR. V závěru se zamýšlíme nad tím, které materiály dokládající vztah k SERR mohou či mají být poskytnuty uživatelům z řad odborné i široké veřejnosti.

Klíčová slova: čeština pro cizince, jazykové testování, Společný evropský referenční rámec pro jazyky, zkoušky z cizích jazyků

Abstract: The article deals with examinations in Czech for foreigners that declare they are linked to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). On the basis of the subtest in Writing and materials available for the public, we consider whether the information is sufficient for the examination users to decide whether the examination can be trusted as for its relation to the CEFR level.

Key words: Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, Czech for foreigners, examinations in foreign languages, language testing

1 Úvod

S rostoucí migrací po roce 1989, stoupajícím zájmem o češtinu pro cizince, tudíž i češtinu jako cizí jazyk, i s implementací **Společného evropského referenčního rámce pro jazyky** (Olomouc: FF UP, 2002, dále SERR) se zvyšuje nabídka zkoušek z češtiny, které mohou nerodilí mluvčí skládat. V příspěvku se zamýšlíme nad tím, podle čeho se mohou odborníci i široká veřejnost v těchto zkouškách orientovat, jak se mohou přesvědčit, kterým zkouškám lze důvěřovat, a zároveň nad tím, které informace o zkoušce podle našeho názoru mají být uživatelům poskytnuty, aby tvůrci zkoušky doložili tvrzení o sepětí dané zkoušky a SERR. Zdůrazňujeme, že příspěvek v tomto směru představuje spíše nástin problematiky a polemiku, neklade si za cíl uvést jednoznačný návod, což by ostatně ani vzhledem k širokému spektru zkoušek nebylo možné. Tvůrci zkoušky se mohou totiž rozhodnout poskytnout různé informace s odlišnou mírou podrobnosti i odbornosti v závislosti nejen na tom, komu jsou tyto informace určeny, ale též s ohledem na účel zkoušky, její důležitost, cílenou testovanou populaci atd.

Nejprve se krátce věnujeme roli SERR v jazykovém vzdělávání, následně se zabýváme vztažením zkoušek k SERR. Dále analyzujeme několik dostupných a rozšíře-

ných zkoušek vysoké důležitosti, které uvádějí vztah k SERR, a zamýšlíme se nad tím, zda má odborná i široká veřejnost dostatek informací, aby mohla zkouškám v tomto směru důvěřovat. Na základě dostupných informací o těchto zkouškách a na základě materiálů týkajících se vztažení zkoušek k SERR zvažujeme, díky kterým informacím mohou zejména uživatelé zkoušky takovéto tvrzení o vztahu k SERR považovat za důvěryhodné.

2 SERR v jazykovém vzdělávání

Podle autorů má SERR poskytovat "obecný základ pro vypracování jazykových sylabů, směrnic pro vývoj kurikulí, zkoušek, učebnic atd. v celé Evropě" (SERR 2002, s. 1), tudíž snahy o jeho implementaci do jazykového vzdělávání včetně hodnocení v České republice, a to na všech stupních včetně celoživotního vzdělávání, nejsou nikterak překvapivé.

Podle úrovní SERR se vypisují např. kurzy, tvoří učebnice i zkoušky. V některých případech se ovšem vztažením k SERR myslí pouhé uvedení úrovně, které podle tvůrců daný kurz, učební materiál či zkouška odpovídají. Ve skutečnosti se v těchto případech jedná o "pocitové" přiřazení nezřídka již existujícího materiálu v širokém slova smyslu (sylaby, učební pomůcky, zkoušky) k úrovni nejen bez hlubší znalosti SERR, ale též bez procesu vztahování tohoto materiálu k SERR a např. bez empirického ověření tvrzení. Důsledkem toho je v takovéto situaci na českém trhu vzdělávání pro uživatele především z řad široké veřejnosti obtížné rozhodnout se, který kurz, učebnici či zkoušku si vybrat, podle čeho se mohou v nabídce zorientovat a ověřit si, že výše uvedené skutečně odpovídá deklarované úrovni podle SERR.

V neposlední řadě bývá SERR při vztahování materiálů redukován výhradně na úrovně, mnohdy i na pouhé označení úrovně, tj. "písmeno a číslo". Zcela se tak opomíjí mj. akční přístup prezentovaný v SERR či modely komunikační kompetence.

3 Vztažení zkoušek k SERR

Vztažení zkoušek k SERR představuje komplexní proces, který je nutno doložit teoreticky i empiricky. V tom tvůrcům zkoušek pomáhá především manuál **Relating Language Examinations to the CEFR** (Strasbourg, 2009). Ten popisuje pět fází, které by měly při vztažení zkoušky k SERR proběhnout, a to především co se přiřazení k úrovni týče. Dále doporučuje, jak vystavět argumentaci. Zmíněné fáze zahrnují familiarizaci, tedy seznámení účastníků procesu přiřazování se SERR, specifikaci, jejíž součástí je obsahová analýza, standardizační školení a referenční porovnávání (benchmarking), stanovení standardů (standard setting) a v neposlední řadě validaci všech předcházejících fází i procesu jako celku. Zde je třeba si uvědomit, že pokud jedna fáze neproběhla dostatečně spolehlivě, není validní, není

např. reprezentativní vzorek, nejsou vhodně zvolení panelisté atd., je celý proces, tudíž i výsledek a finální produkt, tj. daná zkouška, v tomto směru zpochybnitelný.

Jaké důkazy tedy může na základě těchto fází odborná i široká veřejnost očekávat, aby pro ni bylo vztažení konkrétní zkoušky k SERR dostatečně průkazné? Je samozřejmé, že se tyto informace budou lišit pro odbornou a pro širokou veřejnost zejména co do míry podrobnosti a odbornosti. Mezi dokumenty určenými především široké veřejnosti lze očekávat např. (upravené/zjednodušené) testové specifikace, modelové varianty a cvičné sady, (upravená/zjednodušená) kritéria hodnocení, nezávislé externí posudky, zatímco odborná veřejnost ocení dále např. souhrn dat a/nebo výsledků z pretestací a z ostrých zkoušek, doložení familiarizace, obsahovou analýzu (např. pomocí tabulky - tzv. content analysis grid uvedené ve výše zmíněném manuálu), informaci o tom, jak byla stanovena mezní hranice úspěšnosti (cut-off score), validační zprávy a další.

Podívejme se nyní, které z těchto dokumentů jsou dostupné uživatelům tří zkoušek z češtiny.

Zkoušky z češtiny pro cizince: čemu lze věřit?

Kritéria pro výběr zkoušek pro analýzu byla následující: a) jedná se o zkoušku z českého jazyka určenou kandidátům, jejichž prvním jazykem není čeština, b) zkouška není určena dětem, c) zkouška je podle tvůrců vztažena k SERR, d) jsou dostupné alespoň základní informace o zkoušce (např. formát zkoušky, kritéria hodnocení a další), e) množství těchto informací lze považovat za dostatečné pro analýzu, f) jedná se o zkoušku vysoké důležitosti.

Na základě těchto kritérií jsme vybrali Zkoušku z českého jazyka pro trvalý pobyt v ČR, Certifikovanou zkoušku z češtiny pro cizince na úrovni B1 (CCE-B1) a Státní jazykovou zkoušku základní. Jak jsme se již zmínili výše, ve všech analyzovaných zkouškách jsme se zaměřili výhradně na subtest Psaní.

V příspěvku se nezabýváme dalšími zkouškami z češtiny pro cizince, ačkoliv jsme přihlíželi k tomu, které informace a dokumenty týkající se přiřazení k SERR veřejnosti poskytují. Zájemci si mohou tyto informace snadno dohledat sami např. u zkoušky telc Český jazyk B1, testů ECL či Zkoušky pro účely udělování státního občanství ČR.1

Zkouška z českého jazyka pro trvalý pobyt v ČR

Zkouška z českého jazyka pro trvalý pobyt v ČR uvádí, že odpovídá úrovni A1. Subtest Psaní trvá 15 minut a skládá se ze dvou úloh. První úloha sestává z pěti

¹ Zkouška telc Český jazyk B1: http://www.telc.net, testy ECL: http://www.ecl-test.com, Zkouška pro účely udělování státního občanství ČR: http://www.cestina-pro-cizince.cz.

položek, v druhé úloze kandidáti píší text o nejméně 20 slovech. Mezní hranice úspěšnosti byla stanovena na 60 %. Přesné znění zadání obou úloh z modelové zkoušky, ze které jsme vycházeli v tomto příspěvku, naleznou zájemci v Příloze 1.

Široké veřejnosti jsou k dispozici obecné specifikace týkající se především formátu zkoušky, modelová varianta, příručka **Připravte se s námi na zkoušku z českého jazyka pro trvalý pobyt v ČR**², tzv. **Referenční popis češtiny pro účely zkoušky z českého jazyka pro trvalý pobyt v ČR – úrovně A1, A2**³, **Soupis lexikálních jednotek úrovně A1, A2**⁴ a případně přípravné kurzy pořádané různými institucemi, nikoliv ovšem přímo zadavatelem zkoušky a/nebo jejími tvůrci. Odborná veřejnost se zejména díky příspěvkům a prezentacím⁵ např. na různých setkáních, konferencích či v rámci představení zkoušky mohla seznámit s tím, že proběhla familiarizace tvůrců se SERR a standardizační školení a benchmarking. Domníváme se, že zde by bylo přínosné veřejnost informovat detailněji, např. prostřednictvím zprávy na webových stránkách zkoušky.

Zájemci zejména z řad odborné veřejnosti se mohou pokusit přiřadit úlohy subtestu Psaní z modelové varianty k deskriptorům a následně tedy k úrovni. Dle našeho názoru úloha 1 reflektuje deskriptor týkající se poznámek, vzkazů a formulářů, podle nějž uživatel jazyka na úrovni A1 "dokáže zapsat čísla a data, své vlastní jméno, národnost, adresu, věk, datum narození ...např. při vyplňování dotazníku ..." (SERR 2002, s. 86). Vzhledem k ochraně osobních údajů a anonymnímu hodnocení písemných projevů není možné, aby kandidáti uváděli údaje o vlastní osobě. Druhá úloha v modelové variantě Psaní se dle našeho mínění pohybuje na rozmezí úrovně A1 a A2, neboť na úrovni A1 uživatel jazyka dokáže "psát jednoduché izolované fráze a věty" (SERR 2002, s. 63), zatímco na úrovni A2 už dokáže "napsat řadu jednoduchých frází a vět spojených jednoduchých spojkami, jako jsou a, ale a protože" (SERR 2002, s. 63). Vzhledem k tomu, že jeden bod ze zadání vyžaduje důvod (proč nemůžete přijít), lze očekávat posun na úroveň A2, nicméně je možné se s touto úlohou vypořádat i pomocí jednoduchých izolovaných vět (např. Nemůžu přijít. Jsem nemocný.). Co se týče korespondence, dokáže uživatel na úrovni A1 napsat stručný jednoduchý text na pohlednici (SERR 2002, s. 85), na úrovni A2 jednoduchý osobní dopis vyjadřující poděkování a omluvu (SERR 2002, s. 85). Ze zadání v modelové variantě vyplývá, že komunikační záměr odpovídá

² http://trvaly-pobyt.cestina-pro-cizince.cz/?p=nova-prirucka

³ http://trvaly-pobyt.cestina-pro-cizince.cz/uploads/Dokumenty/Referencni_popis_cestiny_verze_pro_web.pdf

⁴ http://trvaly-pobyt.cestina-pro-cizince.cz/index.php?p=soupis-lexikalnich-jednotek&hl=cs_CZ

Např. Sladkovská, K. (2012). Systém výuky českého jazyka a zkoušek pro cizince jako jedné z podmínek pro udělení trvalého pobytu. In Sborník Asociace učitelů češtiny jako cizího jazyka (AUČCJ) 2012. Praha: Akropolis, s. 83–87. Cvejnová, J. (2012). Připravte se s námi na zkoušku z českého jazyka pro trvalý pobyt – nová příručka pro migranty (zpráva o publikaci). In Sborník Asociace učitelů češtiny jako cizího jazyka (AUČCJ) 2012. Praha: Akropolis, s. 89–91.

úrovni A2, diskutabilní může být, zda se jedná o *osobní* dopis, resp. e-mail. Nicméně podíváme-li se na deskriptor popisující adekvátnost z hlediska sociolingvistiky (SERR 2002, s. 124), už na úrovni A1 má být uživatel jazyka s to mj. pozdravit, rozloučit se a omluvit se. I v případě druhé úlohy tak lze říci, že odpovídá úrovni A1, ovšem přesahuje do úrovně A2. Dále je možné tuto i další zkoušky analyzovat vzhledem k úrovni podle SERR co do typů textu, délky produkovaných textů či jazykových prostředků⁶.

Na tomto místě je nutné si uvědomit, že takováto analýza může ukázat, zda zadání odpovídá obtížností deklarované úrovni. Tomu však musejí odpovídat i kritéria hodnocení a nastavení mezní hranice úspěšnosti. Pro odbornou i širokou veřejnost zůstává v případě analyzované zkoušky, ostatně jako u většiny, ne-li všech zkoušek z češtiny pro cizince, stanovení mezní hranice úspěšnosti analyzované zkoušky neprůhledné. Podrobně nejsou veřejnosti popsána ani kritéria hodnocení.

Zkouška z českého jazyka pro trvalý pobyt v ČR poskytuje veřejnosti řadu dokumentů, z nichž především odborná veřejnost může usuzovat, zda zkouška odpovídá deklarované úrovni, či nikoliv. Přesto se domníváme, že by v případě této zkoušky bylo možné poskytnout větší množství materiálů a/nebo materiály podrobnější, aby byly doloženy všechny kroky vztažení zkoušky k SERR.

4.2 Certifikovaná zkouška z češtiny pro cizince – úroveň B1

Další zkouškou, kterou jsme zvolili pro analýzu, je Certifikovaná zkouška z češtiny pro cizince na úrovni B1 (CCE-B1). I zde jsme se zaměřili na subtest Psaní, který se skládá ze dvou úloh. V první úloze kandidáti produkují text o minimálně 75 slovech, ve druhé nejméně o 100 slovech. Časová dotace na obě úlohy celkem činí 60 minut. Pro hodnocení "uspěl/a" je třeba dosáhnout v tomto subtestu nejméně 60 %.

Uživatelé zkoušky mají k dispozici následující materiály: specifikace zkoušky (tý-kající se zejména formátu zkoušky a obsahující též informace o kritériích hodnocení produktivních dovedností), modelovou variantu, cvičnou sadu včetně ukázek písemných projevů a přípravné kurzy pořádané přímo institucí zodpovídající za tvorbu zkoušky CCE.

⁶ V případě jazykových prostředků není možné vycházet pouze ze SERR a deskriptorů pro lingvistické kompetence, které jsou obecné, nezaměřené na konkrétní jazyk(y). Přihlížení k českým referenčním popisům ovšem může být problematické, omezeně je možné využít tzv. žákovské korpusy. V červenci r. 2015 byl na webových stránkách zveřejněn tzv. Referenční popis češtiny pro účely zkoušky z českého jazyka pro trvalý pobyt v ČR – úrovně A1, A2 a Soupis lexikálních jednotek úrovně A1, A2.

Odborné veřejnosti je určena řada článků, příspěvků z konferencí, školení či workshopů⁷, které se zaměřují na různé fáze procesu vztažení k SERR a od začátku roku 2015 i na fázi stanovení standardů.

Modelová varianta CCE-B1 charakterizuje, co kandidát dovede, takto: kandidát má "prokázat schopnost napsat jednoduše členěné souvislé texty na známá témata, sdělit informace a myšlenky, popsat zážitky a události a vyjádřit své pocity a názory." ⁸

Podle popisu v modelové variantě se kandidát v první úloze může setkat s vyplněním dotazníku k hodnocení služeb, žádostí, reklamací. První úloha z modelové varianty (viz Přílohu 2) dle našeho mínění zahrnuje ty deskriptory z úrovně B1, podle nichž uživatel jazyka "[d]okáže napsat velmi jednoduše členěné a podrobné popisy týkající se různých témat jeho/jejího zájmu, ...popsat zážitek a vylíčit své pocity a své reakce ..., ...napsat popis událostí, nedávného výletu, ať skutečného, nebo smyšleného." (SERR 2002, s. 64). V neposlední řadě dokáže "napsat krátká sdělení obsahující jednoduché informace bezprostředně důležité pro ...pracovníky ve službách, učitele a ostatní lidi, kteří jsou součástí jeho/jejího každodenního života, a srozumitelně při tom vyjádří, co považuje za důležité" (SERR 2002, s. 86). Vzhledem k typu textu je zajištěn neutrální funkční styl, což odpovídá adekvátnosti z hlediska sociolingvistiky na úrovni B1 podle SERR (2002, s. 124). Nenalezli jsme deskriptor z vyšší či nižší úrovně, který by se v úloze č. 1 projevil.

V druhé úloze CCE-B1 se kandidát může setkat např. s neformálním dopisem, zprávou, vyprávěním apod. Úloha č. 2 v modelové variantě dle našeho názoru reflektuje deskriptory ze všeobecné stupnice pro písemnou interakci, podle nichž dokáže uživatel jazyka na úrovni B1 "sdělit informace a myšlenky týkající se jak abstraktních, tak konkrétních témat ...[a] problémy poměrně přesně vysvětlit, ...[n]apsat osobní dopisy ...a sdělit jednoduché, bezprostředně důležité informace a vysvětlit, co považuje za důležité" (SERR 2002, s. 85); dále "[u]mí napsat osobní dopisy popisující zážitky, pocity a události" (SERR 2002, s. 85), ovšem na B1+ dokáže "vyjádřit myšlenky o abstraktních nebo kulturních tématech, jakými jsou hudba a filmy" (tamtéž), zde je tedy třeba pečlivě dbát, aby zadání nepřesáhlo k úrovni B1+. V úloze č. 2 v modelové variantě nenacházíme deskriptory odpovídající úrovni nižší či vyšší, srov. např. v korespondenci schopnost reagovat na zprávy a názory pisatele dopisu (úroveň B2, SERR 2002, s. 85) či schopnost

 $^{^7}$ Srov. např. Vodičková, K. (2013). Vývoj jazykových zkoušek – nikdy nekončící příběh? In Sborník Asociace učitelů češtiny jako cizího jazyka (AUČCJ) 2013. Praha: Akropolis, s. 205–211.

Vodičková, K., Pečený, P., & Nováková, J. (2012). Specifikace Certifikované zkoušky z češtiny pro cizince a Společný evropský referenční rámec. In *Výuka a testování cizích jazyků v kontextu Společného evropského referenčního rámce (SERR)*. Praha: UK ÚJOP, s. 97–100.

Vlasáková, K. (2009). Vybrané problémy při tvorbě Certifikované zkoušky z češtiny pro cizince. In *Sborník Asociace učitelů češtiny jako cizího jazyka (AUČCJ) 2007–2009*. Praha: Akropolis, s. 75–79.

⁸ http://ujop.cuni.cz/upload/stories/vtc/CCE-B1_modelova_varianta_2012.pdf

skloubit, zhodnotit informace a argumenty z velkého počtu zdrojů (úroveň B2, SERR 2002, s. 63). Nejedná se ovšem už např. o "krátká frázovitá sdělení, která se vztahují k záležitostem z oblasti bezprostředních potřeb" (SERR 2002, s. 85), jak je tomu na úrovni A2.

Domníváme se, že v případě Certifikované zkoušky z češtiny pro cizince, konkrétně v případě CCE-B1, mají uživatelé zkoušky dostatek informací o tom, jak zkouška koresponduje se SERR. Tyto informace je však třeba neustále doplňovat, rozšiřovat a prezentovat široké veřejnosti.

U materiálů určených odborné veřejnosti se setkáváme především s dílčími příspěvky zejména ve sbornících z konferencí a odborných setkání, předpokládáme, že by odborníci uvítali i ucelenější publikaci či podrobnější zprávu týkající se např. jednotlivých fází přiřazování zkoušek CCE k SERR. Vzhledem k tomu, že stanovení standardů probíhalo v polovině roku 2014, lze očekávat nárůst publikovaných informací o této fázi, a to zejména v souvislosti s implementací výsledků. První výsledky a nástin užité metody byl představen na konferenci Language Centres in Higher Education: Sharing Innovations, Research, Methodology and Best Practices pořádané Jazykovým centrem Masarykovy univerzity v lednu roku 2015. Bylo by možné též uvažovat o prezentaci externích posudků zkoušek CCE veřejnosti, byť např. ve zkrácené podobě kvůli utajení ostrých zkouškových materiálů apod.

4.3 Státní jazyková zkouška základní

Státní jazyková zkouška základní uvádí, že odpovídá úrovni B2 podle SERR. Subtest ověřující řečovou dovednost psaní se skládá ze dvou úloh, v první úloze kandidáti píší text o délce asi 50 slov, v druhé asi 250 slov. Na obě úlohy je vymezeno 80–90 minut. Mezní hranice úspěšnosti byla stanovena na 60 %, kritéria hodnocení se nám nepodařilo dohledat ani v zakoupené cvičné sadě.

První úloha⁹, tzv. povinné téma (tj. společné pro všechny), představuje v námi zakoupené cvičné sadě delší inzerát na koupi chaty či chalupy. Součástí inzerátu má být popis požadavků na daný objekt. Podle deskriptoru pro samostatný písemný projev by bylo možné uvažovat o úrovni B2, neboť na této úrovni uživatel jazyka dokáže "napsat srozumitelné a podrobné popisy týkající se různých témat v oblasti jeho/jejího zájmu" (SERR 2002, s. 64). Podíváme-li se ale o úroveň níže, zjistíme, že na této úrovni uživatel jazyka dokáže "napsat velmi jednoduše členěné¹⁰ a podrobné popisy týkající se různých témat v oblasti jeho/jejího zájmu" (SERR 2002, s. 64), rozdíl může být obtížně uchopitelný (srozumitelný popis na

⁹ Informace o zkoušce je možné nalézt na http://www.sjs.cz/zkousky-a-certifikaty/statni-jazykova-zkouska-zakladni-b2.html. Vzhledem k tomu, že cvičné sady je nutné si zakoupit, ukázku zadání zde v plném znění nepřepisujeme.

 $^{^{10}}$ Srov. v původním anglickém znění SERR "straightforward, detailed descriptions".

úrovni B2 proti jednoduše členěnému popisu na úrovni B1), navíc je vzhledem k požadovanému počtu slov a typu textu diskutabilní míra podrobnosti. Je rovněž otázkou, zda se v případě všech kandidátů jedná o oblast jeho/jejího zájmu. Jiný deskriptor týkající se psaní jsme neidentifikovali.

V případě úlohy č. 2 mají kandidáti na výběr ze dvou témat. V dané cvičné sadě je prvním typem textu zamyšlení, druhým osobní dopis. Typy textů nejsou dle našeho názoru co do obtížnosti vzhledem k úrovni SERR srovnatelné. Zatímco zamyšlení směřuje k deskriptoru pro zprávy a pojednání¹¹, podle nějž dokáže uživatel jazyka na úrovni B2 "napsat pojednání …, která rozvíjejí argumentaci, uvádějí důvody pro a proti určitému názorovému stanovisku a vysvětlují výhody a nevýhody různých možností" (SERR 2002, s. 64), odpovídá obtížností druhý typ textu spíše úrovni B1+, na níž dokáže uživatel jazyka "v osobních dopisech sdělit zprávy a vyjádřit myšlenky o abstraktních a kulturních tématech" (SERR 2002, s. 85), případně úrovni B1, neboť již na této úrovni dokáže "napsat osobní dopisy popisující zážitky, pocity a události" (SERR 2002, s. 85).

Krátká analýza konkrétní varianty subtestu vyvolává několik otázek. Věříme, že tvůrci testu by byli s to je zodpovědět, nicméně postrádáme jakékoliv materiály týkající se přiřazení Státní jazykové zkoušky základní k SERR, z nichž by mohla odborná veřejnost vycházet. Široké veřejnosti jsou určené velmi obecné specifikace¹² a seznam konverzačních témat k ústní zkoušce, zájemcům o zkoušku přípravné kurzy nabízené přímo institucí vytvářející uvedenou zkoušku.

5 Závěrem

Na příkladu tří zkoušek z češtiny pro cizince jsme se pokusili demonstrovat důležitost informovat odbornou i širokou veřejnost o tom, jak k přiřazení zkoušky k SERR došlo. Zdůrazňujeme, že je potřeba nejen toto přiřazení skutečně provést např. na základě pěti fází popsaných v manuálu **Relating Language Examinations to the CEFR** (2009), ale celý proces i pečlivě zdokumentovat. Tato dokumentace by neměla být využita jen pro interní účely při zvyšování kvality zkoušky či jako podklady pro nezávislé posudky kvality zkoušky, ale měla by být přijatelnou formou prezentována i široké veřejnosti a v míře, kterou umožňují nároky na utajení zkouškových materiálů, uchování know-how atd., prezentována také odborné veřejnosti. Jen tak je možné zajistit, aby ke zkoušce veřejnost pojala důvěru, co se vztahu k SERR týče.

¹¹ V anglickém originálu "reports and essays".

¹² Na webových stránkách se uvádí, že se ověřuje "dovednost sestavit v cizím jazyce sdělení v celkovém rozsahu asi 300 slov" (http://www.sjs.cz/zkousky-a-certifikaty/statni-jazykova-zkouska-zakladni-b2.html), je možné zakoupit si cvičné sady.

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Příloha 1

Zkouška z českého jazyka pro trvalý pobyt v ČR

http://trvaly-pobyt.cestina-pro-cizince.cz/uploads/Dokumenty/brozura_modelova_verze_2013.pdf

ÚLOHA 1 5 bodů

Andrea Svobodová se chce učit německy. Musí vyplnit formulář jazykové školy Progres. Jak vyplní Andrea Svobodová formulář?

Andrea Svobodová

Adresa: Vinohradská 39

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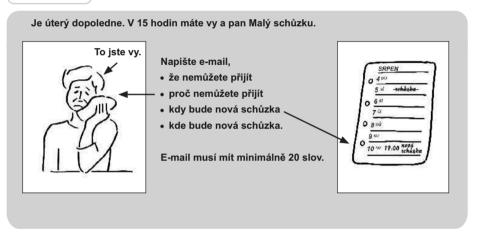
E-mail: andrea.svobodova@seznam.cz

ODPOVĚDNÍ LIST S ŘEŠENÍM

Úloha 1

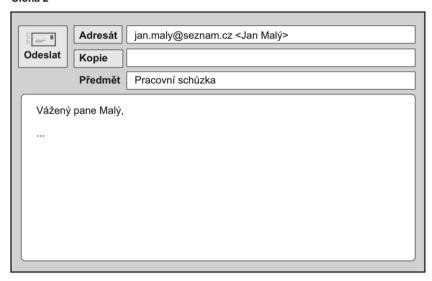
Jazyková škola Progres						
Jméno:	Jméno: Andrea		Příjmení:	Svobodová		
Adresa -	Ulice:	Vinohradská 39				
	PSČ:	120 00				
N	lěsto:	Praha 2				
Telefon:	: 776 723 853					
E-mail:	andrea.svobodova@seznam.cz					





ODPOVĚDNÍ LIST

Úloha 2



Příloha 2

Certifikovaná zkouška z češtiny pro cizince – úroveň B1 (CCE-B1)

Úloha 1 – Dotazník

Byl/a jste na jednodenním výletu s cestovní kanceláří "CestujTam".

Vyplňte dotazník. Napište <u>celkem</u> minimálně 75 slov.

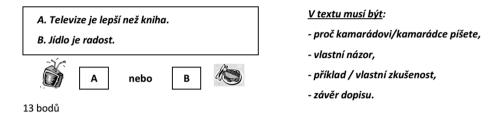
12 bodů



DOTAZNÍK			
1) Proč jste si výlet vybral/a?			
2) S čím jste byl/a na výletě spokojen/a?			
3) Co byste na výletě změnil/a?			
, ,			

Úloha 2 – Neformální dopis

Vyberte si <u>jedno</u> z témat (A, nebo B) a napište svému kamarádovi / své kamarádce dopis, ve kterém vyjádříte svůj názor na vybrané téma. Napište minimálně 100 slov.



Bionote

Mgr. Kateřina Vodičková, Ph.D., MA, e-mail: katerina.vodickova@ujop.cuni.cz, Charles University in Prague, Institute for Language and Preparatory Studies, Research and Test Centre Kateřina Vodičková teaches Czech for foreigners and, since 2007, works mainly as a language tester. She obtained MA in Language Testing and Ph.D. in Czech Language.

The implications of a newly developed oral test in Business English: Are we heading in the right direction?

Jiřina Hrbáčková and Milan Boháček

Abstract: The paper presents an overview of the testing and assessment standardization process at the Language Centre of Masaryk University. It exemplifies the process by analysing a two-year development of the C1 Business English oral test administered to students at the Faculty of Economics and Administration (FEA), which resulted in the formation of a completely new testing procedure. The transition from the original teacher–student interview format to a monological discourse and a peer-to-peer discussion, with the roles of the interlocutor and rater split between two teachers using analytic rating scales to evaluate performance, is described, along with its implications on the validity and reliability of assessment. Students' perception of the test importance is also examined. The second part deals with the analysis of a questionnaire on feedback collected from students taking the test in Spring 2014. The preliminary look into the merit of the efforts exerted indicates a noticeable enhancement in quality, reliability, validity and prestige of the oral test.

Key words: reliability, validity, speaking test, peer-to-peer discussion, students' feedback

Abstrakt: Příspěvek představí proces standardizace hodnocení jazykových kompetencí studentů Masarykovy Univerzity, konkrétně vývoj ústní části zkoušky obchodní angličtiny na úrovni C1 na Ekonomicko-správní fakultě. Druhá část analyzuje dotazník pro zpětnou vazbu, vyplněný studenty, kteří zkoušku absolvovali na jaře 2014. Předběžné hodnocení celé této snahy naznačuje, že se jedná o posun směrem k vyšší kvalitě, spolehlivosti, validitě i prestiži ústní části zkoušky.

Klíčová slova: validita, spolehlivost, test mluvených dovedností, diskuse, dotazník ke zpětné vazbě

Introduction

With language testing representing an area which, according to Davies, is professionalizing itself, giving rise to several testing organizations, publications, journals and codes (Davies, 2008:431), i.e. activities Stoynoff and Coombe claim have increased the perceived status and professionalism of the field of language testing (Stoynoff and Coombe, 2012:123), the pressure on teaching institutions to professionalize their assessment methods appears to be inevitable. The CEFR¹ development has further enhanced the process of professionalizing the area and has had a profound impact on institutions that have chosen to relate their tests to the CEFR levels. The Language Centre of Masaryk University (LC), the main provider of language instruction to students of Bachelor and Master Study programmes,

¹ Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment [online].

embarked on the process of professionalizing its assessment methods by standardizing its testing methodology and practices, pursuing principles of theory-based testing. The process was embodied in three years of development work resulting in the standardization of all LC tests.

Bachman and Palmer' concept of overall test usefulness (Bachman, Palmer, 1996) became one of the paradigms in approaching language assessment at the LC. They argue that test developers need to find balance among six test qualities, i.e. reliability, construct validity, authenticity, interactiveness, impact and practicality (Bachman and Palmer, 1996:18) to be able to design useful language tests. With approximately 60 language teachers, 9 faculties and several thousand students taking final language examinations at the LC each year, valid and reliable assessment of students' language competences represents the primary goal; however, the aspects of practicality, authenticity and interactiveness also play an increasingly significant role in test development.

When the CEFR criteria were embedded for the LC as binding in relating students' competences to the individual levels, construct validity and its subordinate forms, such as content validity or criterion-reference validity (Hughes, 2002:26) had to be reviewed. The underlying principle of validity and reliability of testing throughout the entire standardization process, and awareness of the potential washback, defined by Brown and Hudson as the effect of testing and assessment on the language teaching curriculum (Brown, Hudson, 1998:667), drove the efforts to increase the standard of language testing at the LC.

During the first decade of the 21st century, assessment at the LC had been a largely individualistic, uncoordinated, non-standardized and lonely activity. Teachers wrote tests on their own, administered them to their own students, assessed their own students and all this with little tester/assessor training, supervision and team cooperation. The system lacked methodological guidance on elementary principles of language testing, e.g. construct specification, test item development or unbiased attitude to assessment. The overall assessment literacy, defined by Fulcher as the knowledge, skills and abilities required to design, develop, maintain or evaluate, large scale standardized and/or classroom based tests, familiarity with test processes, and awareness of principles and concepts that guide and underpin practice, including ethics and codes of practice (Fulcher, 2012:13) was rather low among LC staff.

The initial efforts to standardize testing at the LC to reach a more professional level had appeared with the Compact project (2009–2011), which provided an insight into the values of reliable and valid assessment, and fully exposed the urgent need to increase assessment literacy among the staff. This became the basis for the subsequent endeavour of the Impact project (2012–2015). Testing and assessment became one of five key areas of the project funded from the structural funds

of the European Union, and perceived as one of priorities for further development of the Language Centre.

The aim of this paper is to demonstrate the LC assessment standardization process by analysing the development of a new format of the C1 CEFR Business English speaking test administered to mainly second-year undergraduate students at the Faculty of Economics and Administration of Masaryk University (FEA). The extent to which the newly developed format enhanced the validity, reliability and authenticity of assessment, and how the work on it contributed to assessment literacy improvement will also be discussed. The entire standardization process will be exemplified by the description of the decision-making procedures when developing the speaking test. In addition, analyses of feedback on the new format collected from students after the first year of testing will be presented.

Material and methods

In order to examine how the partial steps in developing the new format of the speaking test impacted the reliability and validity of assessment, we have chosen to first describe the sequence of steps and decision-making processes throughout the test development cycle, and discuss feedback provided by the FEA language department staff after the second year of pretesting.

The second part of the paper represents the analysis of students' attitude to the new format. In order to obtain solid information about how students themselves viewed the new format of the speaking test, a short electronic questionnaire (see Appendix 1), containing 14 close-ended and one open-ended questions, was developed. For each question students were invited to add free comments. The aim of the questionnaire was to establish whether the teachers' views of the test format coincided with those of students'.

The questionnaire was distributed electronically to all students who passed the written part of the C1 Business English final examination in spring 2014, i.e. to 325 students. Two appeals for the questionnaire completion were made in September 2014, with the total return amounting to 52%, i.e. 169 students responded. The response collected from the questionnaire was strictly anonymous. Subsequently, the data were statistically transformed into percentages of yes- and no-answers and complementary comments were analysed.

Results and Discussion

Prior to the standardization process, the role of the speaking test on the overall C1 Business English test was inferior to the written part, which included listening, grammar, vocabulary, and writing. The undervaluation of the oral part was due to factors not specific to the faculty, but generally stemming from the ignorance

of theory-based principles of language assessment and the role of validity and reliability. With language testing professionalizing itself globally, the need to test more fairly and consistently at the LC became apparent.

The oral test had been based on the comprehension of an extensive text adapted from *The Economist* magazine. Students were expected to summarize the content of a text they had randomly chosen, and a teacher led the ensuing discussion, frequently referring to other similarly-related topics. Students were assessed on their reading skills as equally as on speaking, so the tasks were integrated. Teachers, however, believed to be assessing speaking competence only. Teachers assessed students' performance holistically, subjectively, and individually, which led to inconsistencies in inter-rater reliability, and to an almost invariably absolute success rate. As a consequence, the speaking part of the test was perceived as a chat with a teacher rather than a fully-fledged part of the final examination.

With the zest to apply language testing principles and good practice to use, the faculty team set out on the journey to revamp the test format and its content. In the initial phase, a series of theory-based and hands-on seminars were held on all major aspects of language assessment that should lead to the development of a valid and reliable test, starting with the CEFR level interpretation, construct definition, and item writing principles up to the basics of statistics for language testing purposes. The seminars were open to all teachers at the LC and were found invaluable in increasing assessment literacy among the LC teachers.

At the same time, the rating criteria for speaking were being developed with rounds of benchmarking sessions over samples of recordings of students' speaking performances following. These aspects consolidated the staff's capability of consistent and reliable rating, i.e. inter-rater and intra-rater reliability. The rating scales were divided into individual criteria with several components each, prompting a shift from holistic and subjective to analytic and more objective assessment. Objectivity was further reinforced by a new rule impeding teachers from rating performances of their own students. The rule was adopted in response to teachers' concerns about their ability to manage the double role as raters and interlocutors on a teacher-student discussion test format. The concerns became even stronger when a peer-to-peer discussion test format replaced the teacher-led discussion. Lack of confidence in the ability to play the double role led to the split of the interlocutor-rater role between two teachers; one communicating with test-takers and the other one rating their performance, using the analytic rating scales. This allowed teachers to avoid assessing their own students. The new administrative format proved to benefit the reliability of assessment with teachers enjoying the shared experience.

The next standardization phase consisted of task specification. One of the objectives was to expose students to authentic situations which would prompt them

to authentic language production. The assignments had to be succinct so that the language they contained could not serve as a vocabulary source for test-takers when performing the tasks. In addition, they needed to be sufficiently apt to elicit advanced business language production.

In the first year, two test tasks were specified; a monologue and a role-play. For the monologue, students chose a topic at random and were provided with two separate statements on the topic. With two minutes to prepare they were expected to make a two-minute speech on the statement of their choice. The task was followed by a peer-to-peer role-play on a randomly chosen topic, different from the monologue topic. After a two-minute preparation, students had 4–5 minutes to perform the role-play. Students were presented with a short description of a situation, identical for both, while their individual roles differed. Each assignment included three bullet points to be covered by students to reach a desirable communication outcome. The roles corresponded with the curriculum topics and therefore vocabulary, one of the assessment criteria, represents students' achievement, while other rating criteria, i.e. task completion, grammar, and pronunciation and intonation, reflect students' general language proficiency related to the C1 CEFR level.

After the first round of pre-testing, which - for practicality reasons - was live testing, steps had to be taken to adjust the direction the format was taking. Several issues had to be addressed to meet the desired outcome. First, several roles were found to be tricky as they pitted students against each other, making them resort to persuasive argumentation and making them believe that their arguments should top those of their colleagues to prove their competence. This limited students' choice of language to coercive functions and strong argumentation. Another problem lay in the imbalance in the role description, where, not exceptionally, one role description created more favourable conditions for one of the students in the pair, leaving the other with limited space for manoeuvre. This, along with the fact that some roles were not very authentic for undergraduate students (roles of CEOs or members of top management) led to a unanimous decision to abandon role-plays and define the discursive part of the test anew. The third problem lay in too much of the language expected of students contained in the assignments themselves. Students legitimately made use of it and left raters with the dilemma of how to rate specific vocabulary production when students limited themselves to the language of prompts but were able to attain the communicative goal.

These issues made the test team reconsider the format and modify the specifications. The monologue part, apart from minor modifications, has remained preserved. To obtain a more extensive rateable sample, Task 2, in which the interlocutor asks two or three additional questions related to the topic of Task 1, was added to the format. For each topic a list of 10 questions has been developed for

interlocutors to choose from. A sample version of Task 1 and 2 can be seen in Table 1

Tab. 1: Sample Task 1 and Task 2 of the 2014 revised version of C1 Business English speaking test

Women in business Task 1 – monologue Choose one of the statements below and deliver a monologue. In order to fulfil the task, you are supposed to talk for 2 minutes.

- 1. The importance of gender equality in managerial positions
- 2. The difference between male and female approach to running a business

Women in business

Task 2 - scripted questions

- 1. What are compulsory quotas and do you know examples of countries that have adopted them?
- 2. Should countries with low involvement of women in business consider adopting compulsory quota?
- 3. What is the ratio of women to men in Czech universities?
- 4. ...

The role-play was abandoned and substituted with an academic peer-to-peer discussion. The assignments for individual topics were shortened and adapted to elicit more authentic language so as to contribute to construct validity, making the tests useful for students and practical for teachers. Table 2 presents a sample topic for Task 3.

Tab. 2: Sample Task 3 of the 2014 revised version of the C1 Business English speaking test

Law	Task 3 – pair discussion			
Discuss the following situation using the guidelines below.				
The length of your discussion should be 3–4 minutes.				
A company has been accused by one of its major customers o	f selling faulty products. The			
customer is threatening with legal action.				
Discuss the situation with your partner and decide:				

- if the company should compensate the customer out of court or face a lawsuit,
- · how the company's reputation can be protected,
- what can be done to make sure that the situation does not reoccur.

The revised format brought a substantially more satisfactory result in the second year of testing. Students now discussed a topic from the perspective of students, shared the same instructions, had to demonstrate the ability to produce language

on their own and were put in a more autonomous position when deciding how to tackle the task.

Teachers' perspective of the C1 Business English oral test new format

By the end of spring term 2014, the team consented that the test tasks in their present form enabled valid and reliable assessment and adopted the format as final. The team felt that the two-year efforts resulted in a more valid and reliable testing practices at the department, allowing more objective assessment. Interestingly, the staff also enjoyed the emphasis on teamwork with one teacher acting as a rater and the other one as an interlocutor. The practice of testing one's own students was abandoned and the aspect of subjectivity thus eliminated further.

Students' apparent change in attitude towards the oral test was also welcomed. The increased interest in the new format was acknowledged a testament to the right direction taken. As a logical consequence of the enhanced assessment literacy and confidence of teachers as raters, the failure rate among test takers increased.

However, the practicality aspect (Bachman, Palmer, 1996) of test administration has remained a trade-off. While on one hand, teachers feel at ease examining in the novel way, certain aspects of test administration have become cumbersome. More effort needs to be exerted to pair up teachers for the examination dates and to allow enough time for students to pair up and to enrol for the examination via the University's Information System.

Students' perspective of the C1 Business English oral test new format

In autumn 2014, after the second round of pre-testing, a questionnaire was distributed electronically to students in order to obtain feedback on their perception of the new speaking test format. In total, the call generated 162 responses, i.e. 52%. Graph 1 represents answers to individual questions. For questions contained in the questionnaire see Appendix 1.

For Questions 1–12, 14 and 15, yes-answers represent positive attitude, while no-answers represent reservations about the new test format, its administration, or doubt over its reliability and validity. The formulation of Q13 is different, and therefore not represented by the graph for reasons of qualitative nature of answers (see further).

For simplicity of interpretation of results, questions were grouped into three different categories with respect to the information they elicited.

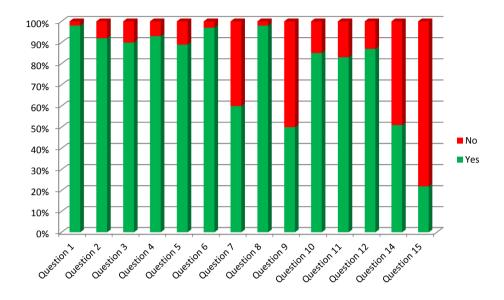


Fig. 1: Students' feedback on the 2014 speaking test format Source: authors

Category 1 consists of Questions 2–4, i.e. questions concerning the reliability and validity aspect of assessment.

- **Q 2** Do you think the selected types of test tasks are capable of testing your language skills?
- Q 3- Do you agree that the current concept of the oral test contributes to fairer assessment?
- **Q** 4– Do you agree that the current concept of the oral test contributes to more objective assessment?

The average of 91.7% of students chose yes to the three questions. The 8.3% of negative answers provided important feedback for future consideration. Several students expressed their doubt about the effectiveness of the monologue part in prompting students to spontaneous production, claiming that many students only memorized chunks of language related to a specific topic to succeed at the exam. Some also claimed (Q3) that the monologue topics were very abstract and did not provoke any thought and others felt that their colleague's performance at the discussion influenced the rater's final assessment of their own. Several of the comments were unrelated to the questions themselves. One student remarked that the oral part will always, to a certain extent, be assessed subjectively.

Category 2 includes Questions 5, 6 and 8, i.e. questions focusing on administration of the speaking test.

- **Q 5** Do you agree that the time frame, where each student's performance lasts about 15 minutes, is adequate?
- **Q 6** Do you agree that the presence of two teachers on the test, i.e. an interlocutor and a rater, is an advantage?
- **Q8** Do you agree that enrolling for the test via the Masaryk University Information System and having the option of choosing a date of the oral exam is an advantage?

For Q5 89.4% of students agreed, while 10.6% did not. Most of those who disagreed felt they would have benefitted from more time on the test, claiming that it takes some time to switch from the mother tongue to English. They would feel more comfortable if they had more time to 'warm up', which would also reduce stress levels. Some students would have liked to demonstrate their speaking competence more thoroughly. Two students would have liked more preparation time. 97.5% of students answered yes for Qs 6 and 8, which correlates with our expectations.

Category 3 includes Qs 9–11, exploring the satisfaction with the peer-to-peer format and the ability of the task prompt to elicit the targeted language.

- **Q9** Did the colleague you took the test with influence your performance?
- **Q 10** Do you agree that the discussion assignment provided enough space for you to lead a fully-fledged dialogue with your peer?
- **Q 11** Did the tasks prompt you to an in-depth reflection on the given topic (i.e. it would not be enough to learn vocabulary of each topic only to pass the test)?

Question 9 raised the most fruitful response with the ratio of yes-no answers being 50-50. Interestingly, many students thought that their colleague in the discussion influenced their performance in a positive way. They believed that if a colleague's performance was of high standard, they also benefited. These colleagues were able to lead the discussion in the direction that they could follow, and if not, the better student was still able to adapt so that they could discuss the topic in a desirable way. The presence of the second student helped many to relax and feel less stressed out. Those who thought that their colleague in the peer discussion affected them negatively thought so as they lost confidence if their colleague's English was of a much higher standard.

85% of students answered yes for *Q10* and 83% for *Q11*. In the free comments, some mentioned that the assignments were too general and did not elicit enough ideas for a 4-minute discussion, whereas others paradoxically complained that the tasks encompassed both suggestions and answers and did not leave sufficient space for students' own creativity, words and ideas.

Category 4 includes questions 12–15, i.e. questions on preparation for the speaking test, seeking to establish to what extent the importance of the speaking test increased. Within this category, two different aspects were inquired. Asking *Qs 12* and *14*, we wanted to establish what strategies students used during preparation, whereas *Qs 13* and *15* were designed to generate a quantitative output.

- **Q 12** Did you prepare in any way for the oral test?
- **Q 13** How much time did you spend preparing for the oral part of the test?
- **Q 14** Did you use any other sources during preparation, apart from the textbooks and classroom material?
- **Q 15** Did you employ any strategies either during preparation or during the test itself that helped you to improve the final score at the test?

On average, 82.5% of students answered yes for *Qs 12* and *15*. This is perceived as an achievement considering that hardly anybody prepared for the previous test format. A variety of comments on different strategies were mentioned, e.g. learning vocabulary taught in the seminars, organizing sessions with colleagues to discuss specific business issues in English, watching news and reading authentic online materials, having extra lessons of English outside the faculty etc. All these answers were welcomed as a positive washback, and a valuable reinforcement of students' autonomy.

A variety of answers ranging from 0 to 150 hours were elicited for Q13. 50.6% answered yes for Q14, which is still considered a positive indication of an increased weighing of the oral test. Most students mentioned the internet as the main source, while others used other textbooks or books recommended by their teachers.

The two remaining questions, Q1 – Did you know how the exam would be organized and what parts it consists of before you took the oral test? and Q7 – Is the maximum number of points on the oral test adequate in relation to the overall number of 100 (i.e. 20 out of 100)? are different from the other questions and cannot be categorized. Q1 served the purpose of a test question and the response correlated with expectations (see graph). Q7 provided an interesting feedback with only 60% of students agreeing. Those who disagreed thought the scoring was inadequate and should be higher than that for other subskills.

The last point on the questionnaire provided space for free comments. The comments of 32 students in total can be divided into two main categories. In category one, students expressed their negative attitude to the exam, or the language tuition at the FEA, considering the C1 level as inappropriately high. Some also commented on the monologue topics as being too specific to generate ideas or preparation time being inadequate. In the second category, students suggested that the LC offer certificates or even organize international certificate testing so

that they graduate from the faculty with a tangible proof of language competence. Nowadays, students who pass the language test can obtain, upon request, a written confirmation issued by the department stating that the student passed a Business English language test at C1 CEFR level, getting a mark A, B, C, D or E. Some comments contained words of praise and gratitude to the staff for the quality tuition and relaxed and friendly atmosphere at the exam.

The questionnaire has provided an important feedback to the teachers fully absorbed in the speaking test development, showing a different perspective of the efforts made. Therefore, even though the prevailing number of students had no objections or negative comments to make about the test, the answers of those who did comment will receive appropriate attention.

Conclusion

The C1 Business English speaking test development has been presented as an example of the decision-making processes most tests at the LC were subject to during the Impact project. With the variety of tests developed during the project, be it due to the different CEFR levels or the different ESP at individual faculties, the decision-making process and test development represented an enormous amount of time, effort and energy invested in advancing to a qualitatively higher level of assessment. If the development of valid and reliable tests contributed to fairer assessment, then the effort and time were well invested. There is little doubt that inconsistency, subjectivity and opacity of tests have been eliminated, with the best intention to benefit the students when making decisions about their language skills.

In addition, the staff themselves benefitted greatly from the efforts on the project in their professional lives as teachers and testers. The series of theory-based and hands-on seminars on language testing resulted in enhancing assessment literacy to a level that may be considered above-average among LSP teachers. The benefits and enriching aspect of team work on test development have become an added value to the entire process. In many cases it served as an eye opener to the inevitable limitations of the best of efforts of individuals to produce test items that could reliably assess a test taker's ability.

A fundamental insight into the basics of language testing is crucial for anyone whose students' assessment and potential consequences it may imply lay in their hands. It would be unjustifiable for the tests, as high-stakes as the LC's are, not to represent a valid, reliable and fair method of assessment. Since test development is a constantly evolving process, there is no limit to the efforts for continuous improvement. The LC at Masaryk University is bound to be an innovative and responsible workplace that takes its commitment to fair testing seriously.

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Appendix 1 – Questionnaire on the new speaking test format distributed to FEA Bachelor programme students in September 2014

Question 1

Did you know how the exam would be organized and what parts it consists of before you took the oral test?

Question 2

Do you think the selected types of test tasks are capable of testing your language skills?

Question 3

Do you agree that the current concept of the oral test contributes to fairer assessment?

Ouestion 4

Do you agree that the current concept of the oral test contributes to more objective assessment?

Ouestion 5

Do you agree that the time frame, where each student's performance lasts about 15 minutes, is adequate?

Ouestion 6

Do you agree that the presence of two teachers on the test, i.e. an interlocutor and a rater, is an advantage?

Question 7

Is the maximum number of points on the oral test adequate in relation to the overall number of 100 (i.e. 20 out of 100)?

Question 8

Do you agree that enrolling for the test via the Masaryk University Information System and having the option of choosing a date of the oral exam is an advantage?

Ouestion 9

Did the colleague you took the test with influence your performance?

Question 10

Do you agree that the discussion assignment provided enough space for you to lead a fully-fledged dialogue with your peer?

Question 11

Did the tasks prompt you to an in-depth reflection on the given topic (i.e. it would not be enough just to learn vocabulary of each topic to pass the test)?

Question 12

Did you prepare in any way for the oral test?

Question 13

How much time did you spend preparing for the oral part of the test?

Question 14

Did you use any other sources during preparation, apart from the textbooks and classroom material?

Ouestion 15

Did you employ any strategies either during preparation or during the test itself that helped you to improve the final score at the test?

Bionote

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Jak učit strategie řešení testových úloh?

Ivana Šálená

Abstrakt: Pojmy test, testování či testová položka se čím dál více prolínají do všech oblastí života. Ve výuce jazyků je test nezbytný nástroj k ověření znalostí, srovnatelnému zjištění pokroku či kvality stávající úrovně komunikační kompetence.

Ve výuce češtiny pro cizince (jako i v jiném jazyce) by testy měly být součástí výuky, protože jazykové testování je dnes nedílnou součástí studia a má pozitivní vliv na výuku.

Jestliže chceme, aby byli naši studenti v testu úspěšní, máme do výuky zařadit strategie řešení testových úloh? Mají se strategie řešení testových úloh učit? Chceme, aby studenti tyto strategie ovládali? A pokud ano, které strategie můžeme studentům doporučit, i když se testováním ani strategiím řešení testových úloh nezabýváme?

Na příkladu materiálů a modelových testů Certifikované zkoušky z češtiny pro cizince se pokusíme shrnout základní doporučení a strategie řešení jednotlivých subtestů.

Klíčová slova: strategie, úloha, test, výuka, doporučení

Abstract: The terms *test, testing* or *test item* are a part of many areas of our life. Concerning teaching of languages the test is a necessary instrument for verification of knowledge, for measuring of progress and quality of communicative competence.

Tests should be a part of teaching Czech for foreigners (as well as other languages). We try to find an optimal strategy of solving tests in an example of Czech Language Certificate Exam.

Key words: strategy, task, test, teaching, recommendation

Úvod do problematiky

Nejprve si položme otázku, zda vůbec chceme studenty učit strategie řešení testových úloh? Mají studenti strategie ovládat? Není pak testována znalost strategií místo úrovně znalosti jazyka?

Na to si dovolíme reagovat volným překladem Petera Skehana¹ (1991)²: "Všichni studenti používají strategie, ovšem dobří studenti umí zvolit správnou strategii pro danou úlohu."

Záměrem vyučujícího je samozřejmě studenta jazyk naučit, aby ho ovládal ve všech rovinách, ale v dnešní době, kdy právě testy jsou často rozhodujícím ukazatelem i porovnávacím měřítkem, by ho též měl připravit ke zkoušce tak, aby dosáhl požadovaného skóre. Podstatou je najít rovnováhu mezi výukou samotnou

 $^{^{1}}$ All learners use strategies: what good learners do is to choose the right strategy for the right occasion.

² Skehan, P. (1991). Individual differences in second language learning. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 13, 275–298.

a přípravou na jazykové testování, neboť s testy se naši studenti setkávají například formou cvičení v učebnicích, v rámci průběžných, kontrolních či závěrečných testů a chtějí-li ve studiu pokračovat, tak především u přijímacích zkoušek, kde jejich úspěšné zvládnutí může ovlivnit jejich budoucí život. Z těchto důvodů by jazykové testování nejen ve výuce češtiny pro cizince mělo být nedílnou součástí výuky.

Pokud budou studenti používat vhodné strategie, budou dosahovat lepších výsledků a tím zhodnotí své jazykové znalosti. Tuto myšlenku potvrzuje Andrew Cohen³ (1998), který se rovněž domnívá, že neužití vhodných strategií řešení úloh vede k získání nižšího skóre u zkoušek. John Dolly a Kathy Williams⁴ (1986) realizovali výzkum, ve kterém potvrdili, že se výsledky v testech účastníků výzkumu lepší s použitím vhodných strategií a k obdobnému závěru ve svém výzkumu dochází i Narjes Ghafournia⁵ (2012).

V případě, že učitel má přehled o možných strategiích řešení úloh, může studentům pomáhat v rozšiřování znalostí možných strategií a zlepšit tak jejich výkon u zkoušek. Tím, že se pedagog bude strategiím ve výuce věnovat, bude schopen minimalizovat negativní vlivy, které mohou ovlivnit výkon studentů a zároveň snížit možnost neúspěchu způsobenou neznalostí strategií.

Seznámení studentů s formátem zkoušky je též jedním z důležitých bodů přípravy na zkoušku, jenž eliminuje moment překvapení z testovacích technik a potažmo i stres v den konání zkoušky.

Strategie řešení úloh jsou způsoby efektivního řešení úloh, kde se bez požadovaných znalostí student neobejde, ale dokáže efektivně pracovat s dalšími vlivy u zkoušky jako například sledování času, práce s příkladem a utvrzení se v postupu řešení, rychlé vyřešení snazších úloh a pak navrácení se k obtížnějším, sledování linie, která vede k vyřešení více položek apod., čemuž se budeme věnovat v tomto příspěvku v části "Která obecná doporučení můžete studentovi dát (bez ohledu na subtest)?".

Téma "jak strategie vyučovat" není pravděpodobně i s ohledem na rozpolcenost názorů, zda strategie učit či nikoli, souvisle zpracováno. Z těchto důvodů chceme v rámci tohoto příspěvku sumarizovat alespoň základní informace spíše pro začínající učitele, kteří se rozhodnou ve výuce věnovat strategiím řešení testových úloh.

 $^{^3}$ Cohen, A. (1998). Strategies in learning and using a second language. New York: Addison Wesley Longman Inc.

⁴ Dolly, J. P. & Williams, K. S. (1986). Using test-taking strategies to maximize multiple-choice test scores. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 46, 619–625.

⁵ Ghafournia, N. (2012). The Relationship between using Multiple-Choice Test-Taking Strategies and General Language Proficiency Levels. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 70, 90–94.

V následující části se budeme věnovat otázkám, které si nezkušený pedagog může položit a naším cílem bude nasměrovat ho k získání potřebných informací.

Které informace (o studentovi, motivaci studenta, zkoušce) potřebuje vyučující zjistit před samotnou výukou strategií?

Vyučující by měl nejprve zjistit, na kterou zkoušku se student hlásí, a obstarat k této zkoušce co nejvíce informací – v optimálním případě materiály, které dává k dispozici instituce zajišťující tuto zkoušku.

U standardizovaných zkoušek jsou materiály k přípravě ke zkoušce snadno dostupné (většinou online přes internetové stránky). Tyto dokumenty jsou určeny pro učitele nebo pro osoby, které chtějí zájemcům o zkoušku pomoci.

Pro názornou ilustraci jsme si vybrali Certifikovanou zkoušku z češtiny pro cizince⁶ (dále také CCE), která svou kvalitu dokládá značkou Q udělovanou mezinárodní organizací ALTE⁷ zkouškám, které úspěšně prošly auditem a splňují 17 minimálních standardů kvality⁸.

V případě Certifikované zkoušky z češtiny pro cizince můžeme na internetových stránkách získat následující materiály: *Informace pro kandidáty, Zkušební řád, Modelové varianty (včetně klíče a užitečných rad), Záznamové archy, Cvičné sady, Doporučené materiály a weby (např. Rámec, rámcové popisy)* a také nabídku *Přípravných kurzů*.

Z těchto materiálů se studenti například dozvědí obecné informace týkající se zkoušky, podmínky a termíny podání přihlášky, poplatky za zkoušku, co je a není u zkoušky dovoleno, výsledky zkoušky a popř. i podmínky podání odvolání a jiné.

V neposlední řadě by nás měla zajímat motivace studenta. Zjištění, za jakým účelem zkoušku vykonává, tj. důležitost. Motivovanější student bude více pracovat na zvládnutí testu.

Které materiály vám jako vyučujícímu pomohou ve výuce strategií řešení úloh?

Jestliže začneme hledat učebnice či publikace připravující k testům, bude to náročný úkol. Ani pro studenty ani pro vyučující češtiny pro cizince není k dispozici přehledná příručka, která by vyučující či studenty vedla, jak již bylo řečeno v úvo-

⁶ ÚJOP: Certifikovaná zkouška z češtiny pro cizince [online]. 2015 [cit. 2015-04-19]. Dostupné z: http://ujop.cuni.cz/zkouska/certifikovana-zkouska-z-cestiny-pro-cizince-cce

 $^{^7}$ The Association of Language Testers in Europe [online]. 2015 [cit. 2015-04-19]. Dostupné z: http://www.alte.org/

⁸ The Association of Language Testers in Europe. Setting Standards: Minimum Standards [online]. 2015 [cit. 2015-04-19]. Dostupné z: http://www.alte.org/setting_standards/minimum_standards

du, a proto chceme alespoň krátce shrnout obecně platné pokyny, které mohou pomoci především v počátcích výuky.

Z tohoto důvodu opět odkazujeme ke zveřejněným materiálům, které dává k dispozici instituce nabízející zkoušku, ale také k praxi vyučujících či zkušenějších kolegů, kteří mohou předat mnoho cenných rad a doporučení k řešení zkoušky.

Kromě těchto zdrojů se můžeme obrátit i na zahraniční literaturu, ovšem i zde jsou informace týkající se výuky strategií řešení testových úloh jen součástí větších tematických celků, neboť ani v zahraničí nenacházíme přehlednou příručku, která by připravovala ke zkoušce⁹.

Obrátíme-li se na učebnice češtiny pro cizince¹⁰, podle předpokladu v nich nenacházíme žádné pojednání týkající se strategií řešení testových úloh, i když mnohé testovací techniky jsou v učebnicích zařazeny v rámci procvičování.

Na základě konfrontace s učebnicemi češtiny pro cizince různých jazykových úrovní i z vlastní zkušenosti jsme zjistili, že nejčastěji jsou zastoupeny doplňovací úlohy v podobě poslechových cvičení a pravdivostní úlohy vztahující se k textu určeného ke čtení. Už jen zřídka se setkáváme s uspořádacími úlohami, které jsou spíše ve cvičebnicích či přídavných materiálech k procvičení. Přiřazovací úlohy a úlohy s výběrem z více alternativ najdeme už jen ojediněle.

V učebnicích češtiny pro cizince jsou pouze tipy/rady na řešení jednotlivých cvičení, avšak cvičení jsou uzpůsobena spíše potřebám probíraného učiva (např. *Dejte slova v závorkách do správného tvaru, Spojte otázky a reakce, Doplňte vhodná slovesa ve správném tvaru, Změňte věty podle modelu* apod., ale setkáme se i s cvičeními *Označte, co je/není pravda a věty opravte*).

Vytvořit kvalitní úlohy typu multiple choice či přiřazovací úlohy je velmi náročné, proto i autoři učebnic raději volí (s ohledem na potřeby učebnice) cvičení po-

⁹ Zhang, W., Liu, M., Xie, Q., & Zhao, S. (2011). English Test-Taking Strategy Use and Students' Test Performance. *Asian EFL Journal* [online]. (13) [cit. 2015-07-14]. Dostupné z:

http://asian-efl-journal.com/PDF/Volume-13-Issue-2-Zhang.pdf

Bukta, K. (2000). Reflections on the test-taking strategies of 7th and 11th grade Hungarian students of English [online]. (73) [cit. 2015-07-14]. Dostupné z:

http://deal.elte.hu/pages/novelty/htm2/vol73/bukta.htm

On taking language tests: What the students report. Andrew D. Cohen [online]. 1984 [cit. 2015-07-14]. Dostupné z: https://sites.google.com/a/umn.edu/andrewdcohen/

¹⁰ Cvejnová, J. (2010). *Česky, prosím.* 1. vyd. Praha: Karolinum, 219 s. ISBN 9788024615776.

Holá, L. (2005). New Czech Step by Step. 2., opr. vyd. Praha: Akropolis, 240 s. ISBN 80-86903-07-9.

Holá, L., & Bořilová. P. (2014). Čeština expres 3: [úroveň] A2/1: [anglická verze]. Praha: Akropolis, 106 s. ISBN 978-80-7470-032-3.

Rešková, I. (1999). Communicative Czech: (intermediate Czech): workbook. 1. vyd. Praha: Karolinum, 104 s. ISBN 80-7184-713-5.

třebná k procvičení látky než zařazení konkrétních testových úloh, což není cílem učebnice.

Jak bude vyučující postupovat ve výuce strategií řešení testových úloh?

Představme si následující modelovou situaci: "Přijde za vámi student, který chce připravit k Certifikované zkoušce z češtiny pro cizince na úrovni B1 (CCE-B1), neboť tuto zkoušku potřebuje jako jednu z podmínek přijetí na vysokou školu (umělecký obor) v České republice. Student absolvoval jazykovou přípravu, ale nyní potřebuje připravit k této zkoušce." Pokud CCE neznáte, uvažujte o jakékoli jiné jazykové zkoušce.

Než se vyučující začne připravovat na samotnou výuku strategií řešení testových úloh, je důležité se seznámit s terminologií, která je užívána v odborné literatuře. Pro účely tohoto článku jsme doplnili kontext k terminologii¹¹ užívané v tomto článku.

Testová úloha/položka je nejmenší položka v rámci testu, na kterou student odpovídá. Testové položky by na sobě neměly být závislé (nevyřešení jedné položky nemá bránit vyřešení položky další). Testuje se znalost či dovednost, nikoliv znalost reálií.

Testový úkol je otázka, problém nebo úkol obsažený v testu (např. pravdivostní tvrzení, nedokončená věta, otevřené široké odpovědi, přiřazovací úlohy atd.).

Instrukce podává návod, co má student dělat, jak má postupovat při řešení. Je vhodné si předem zjistit, v jakém jazyce jsou instrukce u zkoušky uváděny (například u CCE jsou instrukce pouze v českém jazyce, odpovídají modelové variantě a jsou spíše snazší).

Příklad je vzorová testová položka se správným řešením, tj. ukázka řešení testového úkolu.

Výchozí text je východisko k řešení úlohy, navozuje problém či situaci, které pak student posuzuje nebo interpretuje.

Kmen úlohy je zadání ve formě otázky (pokynu).

Alternativy jsou v úlohách s výběrem z více řešení, jsou to všechna nabízená řešení (správná i nesprávná).

Distraktory jsou také v úlohách s výběrem z více řešení, jsou to ty nesprávné alternativy/řešení.

¹¹ Schindler, R. (2006). Rukověť autora testových úloh. Vyd. 1. Praha: Centrum pro zjišťování výsledků vzdělávání, 86 s. ISBN 80-239-7111-5.

Správné řešení, tj. správná odpověď nebo dokončení tvrzení, popř. možnost (např. slovo u gramaticko-lexikálního testu).

Které obecné informace poradíte?

Studenta je třeba seznámit s tím, co je, a co není povoleno během zkoušky, tj. s pravidly u zkoušky (viz *Zkušební řád, Informace pro kandidáty, Letáky ke zkoušce*), s formátem zkoušky (např. kolik částí má zkouška), s typy úloh (např. seřazovací, uspořádací, výběr z několika alternativ apod.), s hodnocením zkoušky a s bodovou hranicí úspěšnosti a především s podrobnějšími kritérii hodnocení u produktivních dovedností.

Tímto postupem eliminujeme moment překvapení z méně známých úloh, snížíme tím riziko ztráty bodů v důsledku nedostatečné orientace v zadání a neznalosti strategie řešení úloh, ušetříme vymezený čas na řešení testu a také se student může více věnovat úlohám, které jsou jeho slabinou.

Která obecná doporučení můžete studentovi dát (bez ohledu na subtest)?

Seznámíme studenta s počty a typy úloh v daných subtestech, s hodnocením jednotlivých testových položek (např. za každou správnou odpověď se uděluje bod, za každou špatnou odpověď se bod neodečítá), s časovým limitem na subtest, popř. i na jednotlivé úlohy (např. zda se po úloze č. 1 musí otočit stránka a kandidáti se už nesmějí vracet, což je kontrolováno administrátorem).

Se studentem budeme pravidelně nacvičovat řešení testů (např. z cvičných sad) a trénovat práci s časem pro jednotlivé subtesty (tj. kolik času má student např. na čtení apod.) včetně práce s časem na přepsání řešení (zda je čas na přepsání řešení do záznamového archu součástí časového limitu na daný subtest, nebo zda je při zkoušce poskytnut čas navíc).

Studentovi doporučíme, ať si v zadání podtrhává vše, co považuje při řešení úloh za důležité (popř. používá značky, které mu mohou pomoci v řešení dané úlohy). Také mu poradíme, ať odpoví v optimálním případě na všechny položky (pokud se za chybné řešení body nestrhávají) a přepíše své řešení do záznamového archu.¹²

V případě položek na číselné údaje připravíme studenta na to, že vždy bude číst a/nebo uslyší více číselných údajů a musí vybrat ten správný. I když se jedná o položku ověřující znalost číselného údaje, student musí hledat čísla i čísla zapsaná

¹² Pečený, P. (2014) Připravujeme se k certifikované zkoušce z češtiny: úroveň B1 (CCE B1). 1. vyd. Praha: Karolinum, 130 s. ISBN 978-80-246-2066-4.

slovy. V testové položce může být číslovka a v testovém úkolu číslo zapsané slovy, či opačně. 13

Co poradíme u čtení?

Pokud studenta naučíme strategie čtení, může mu volba vhodné strategie čtení textu pomoci číst text efektivně a eliminovat faktor časového stresu.

Strategie je výběr správné techniky čtení vzhledem k textu, k položkám a k testovací technice.

- Strategii rychlého čtení (Skimming) použijeme, potřebujeme-li zjistit všeobecné
 informace, pochopit hlavní myšlenku textu nebo záměr autora úlohy (např.
 když máme za úkol přiřadit k celému textu, nebo odstavcům správné nadpisy/titulky).
- Strategie vyhledávacího čtení (Scanning) pomůže vyhledat/postihnout specifické údaje, informace a sdělení v textu (např. úkolem je najít datum, v textu se zaměří na vyhledání číslic, a pak jen ověří, jestli se jedná o ten správný údaj).
- Strategie čtení hlavních myšlenek (*Reading for gist*), tj. podstaty textu (jádra).
 Podrobné čtení bývá únavné a vyčerpávající a často zvyšuje obtížnost úlohy vzhledem k vyšší koncentraci gramatických jevů a slovní zásoby.¹⁴

Co poradíme u poslechu?

Při poslechu je student limitovaný časem, a i když text uslyší dvakrát, nemůže se k výchozímu (slyšenému) textu už vrátit, proto mu doporučíme, ať si (pokud je to vhodné s ohledem na typ úlohy a typ studenta) během poslechu dělá poznámky. Dále studentovi poradíme, aby si pozorně přečetl zadání a uvědomil si, co je podstatou úlohy, tj. jestli hledá smysl obsahu celého textu či jeho částí, nebo zda má hledat konkrétní informace či fakta. Také je vhodné, aby četl jenom určené otázky (čas na přečtení otázek je součástí nahrávky) a držel se pokynů v instrukcích.

Při prvním poslechu je dobré, aby si dělal poznámky (aby např. vyloučil některou z variant, tj. zúžil výběr). Před druhým poslechem by si měl ujasnit, které úkoly nevyřešil při prvním poslechu, tj. na který úkol se musí zaměřit (popř. kde váhá a na co se musí během druhého poslechu soustředit, aby neřešil to, co už má vyřešeno, ale aby rychle přehlédl, které úkoly nevyřešil a uvědomil si, že právě těmto informacím musí věnovat zvýšenou pozornost v následujícím poslechu) a/nebo aby už věděl, na co se musí zaměřit, tj. na jakou detailní konkrétní rozlišující in-

¹³ Schindler, R. (2006). Rukověť autora testových úloh. 1. vyd. Praha: Centrum pro zjišťování výsledků vzdělávání, 86 s. ISBN 80-239-7111-5.

 $^{^{14}}$ IELTS: International English Language Testing System [online]. 2009–2013 [cit. 2015-04-19]. Dostupné z: http://www.ielts.org/default.aspx

formaci z dané úlohy se musí soustředit. V případě vyřešení úlohy během prvního poslechu je vhodné během druhého poslechu ověřit správná řešení.

Jedná-li se o doplnění jednoho slova/čísla, doporučíme, ať student doplní jen jedno slovo či číslo, aby nepsal více řešení, ale vždy jen jedno (s ohledem na instrukci v zadání – např. u CCE na úrovních B2 a C1 to může být i více slov, resp. celý tvar jednoho slova: "vzal jsem si"). Předem zjistíme, zda je určitá tolerance v chybovosti napsaného, a to také studentovi předem sdělíme.¹⁵

Co poradíme u psaní?

Psaní je produktivní dovednost, kterou bychom měli se studentem trénovat nejvíce. Student by měl při psaní zohlednit, komu je text určen (formální, neformální text) a předem si promyslet (sumarizovat) odpověď na otázku (CCE–B1; s ohledem na požadovaný rozsah a úlohu) a pak napsat svou odpověď (popř. použít papír na poznámky, na který je vhodné napsat si jen osnovu textu).

Pokud jsou k textu zadané určité body (zadáním), musí být v textu obsaženy tak, aby byl každý z bodů dostatečně zpracovaný a vyprodukovaný text byl přehledně logicky strukturovaný. Se studentem budeme trénovat nejen časový limit, ale také kontrolu požadovaného rozsahu slov odhadem, aby nepočítal každé slovo a neztrácel tak čas (za předpokladu, že jsme studentovi předem vysvětlili, jak zkouška chápe *slovo*, např. zda *1. ledna* je jedno slovo, nebo dvě slova). Student by si měl nechat dostatečně dlouhou dobu před vypršením časového limitu na přečtení celého textu, aby si zkontroloval, že splnil všechny body ze zadání (resp. že odpovídal na zadané otázky) a že text na sebe logicky navazuje (pokud je to na dané úrovni požadováno). Tímto postupem studentovi dáme nejcennější zpětnou vazbu, proto si zjistíme dostupné informace o kritériích hodnocení, abychom ji mohli poskytovat.¹⁶

Co poradíme u mluvení?

Studentovi doporučíme, ať pozorně naslouchá otázkám, aby odpovídal na to, na co je dotazován. Zdůrazníme, že nemusí říkat pravdu, protože se hodnotí jeho jazyková úroveň, a nikoliv jeho vlastní názor. Také doporučíme, ať zkoušku bere jako přátelskou rozmluvu, neboť examinátor (zkoušející) není nepřítel, ale nestranný účastník. Student by také měl své odpovědi dostatečně rozvádět a neodpovídat jednoslovně. Dále doporučíme, aby se student soustředil na dobrou výslovnost a zároveň nenarušil plynulost promluvy. Je vhodné najít kompromis mezi obojím. V případě kooperační úlohy by si měl dát pozor na střídání partnerů v komunika-

 $^{^{15}}$ IELTS: International English Language Testing System [online]. 2009–2013 [cit. 2015-04-19]. Dostupné z: http://www.ielts.org/default.aspx

¹⁶ Tamtéž.

ci, svého partnera by měl vyzývat k reakci, ptát se ho na názor, a jestliže nerozumí, zeptat se examinátora, popř. se jen ujistit, že ví, jak odpovídat (např. "To znamená, že teď budu mluvit o sobě, ano?").

I mluvení patří mezi produktivní dovednosti, a proto si zjistíme dostupné informace o kritériích hodnocení, abychom studenta upozornili, čemu se má vyvarovat.¹⁷

Závěr

V rámci tohoto příspěvku jsme se snažili zdůvodnit, proč je žádoucí do výuky alespoň částečně zařadit přípravu na zkoušky, které jsou v dnešní době nedílnou součástí mnoha oborů, včetně jazykového.

Domníváme se, že je vhodné věnovat se jazykovému testování i ve výuce. Tím, že studenty seznámíme se strategiemi řešení úloh v rámci výuky, eliminujeme jejich případné znevýhodnění u zkoušky oproti studentům, kteří byli na zkoušku alespoň částečně připravováni. Zároveň jsme takto schopni pozitivně ovlivnit i celkový výkon studenta u zkoušky.

Z pohledu učitele by kromě samotné jazykové výuky, kterou v žádném případě neopomíjíme a nestavíme nad výukou samotných strategií, což ani z našeho pohledu není žádoucí, mělo být naším záměrem, aby byli studenti v testu úspěšní a dosáhli požadovaného skóre u testu. K tomu využijme všech dostupných materiálů a informací, které mohou pozitivně přispět k úspěšnému složení testu.

V článku jsme se snažili shrnout obecně známé informace a doporučení k jednotlivým subtestům, abychom měli tyto základní informace dostupné v rámci souvislého přehledu.

Věříme, že tento článek může začínajícímu pedagogovi usnadnit práci při zařazení strategií řešení úloh do výuky či práci s jazykovými testy pro konkrétní potřeby studentů. Jsme si vědomi, že se jedná o stručný vhled do této problematiky, která vybízí k dalšímu rozpracování tohoto tématu. Proto je z našeho pohledu žádoucí se v této problematice zorientovat a najít oporu pro další vzdělávání.

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