International Conference
Language, Literature and Culture in Education 2014

LLCE2014:

CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS

Nitra 2014

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Language, Literature and Culture in Education 2014
7-9 May 2014, Nitra, Slovakia

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The main intention of the interational conference **Language, Literature and Culture in Education 2014 (LLCE2014)** was to create a working platform for academics, researchers, scholars, teacher trainers and teachers to discuss, exchange and share their research results, projects, experiences, and new ideas about all aspects of studies in language, literature, culture and related areas in a truly international atmosphere. The conference itself followed and enriched the tradition of the conference series **Foreign Languages and Cultures at School (2002-2013)** and was part of the project KEGA O36UKF-4/2013 funded by the Ministry of Education of the Slovak Republic.

The international dimension of the conference was ensured by personal or virtual engagement of participants from seventeen countries and four continents (Africa, Asia, America and Europe). Along with two plenary lectures given by dr. Judit Kormos and prof. William New, the conference was divided into 6 sections:

1. *Language and Linguistics*
2. *Literature*
3. *Culture*
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This CD Conference Proceedings consists of the papers and presentations that were given at the *Language, Literature and Culture in Education 2014* conference, assessed through a double-blind reviewing process and consequently recommended for publishing.

In addition, the list of LLCE 2014 conference publications includes:

- both the May and September issues of **JoLaCE: Journal of Language and Cultural Education** (ISSN: 1339-4045 print, ISSN: 1339-4584 online at www.jolace.com);
- **CD LLCE2014 Book of Abstracts** (ISBN 978-80-971580-1-9, available also on-line at http://www.jolace.com/llce-2014/conference-publications/).

See you at LLCE2015!

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CONFERENCE
PAPERS AND PRESENTATIONS

Constructivism –
an emerging trend in ESP teaching and learning

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Abstract

This paper argues in favour of constructivism and its implications in the design of the ESP digital learning environment.

Entering the world of globalization and competitiveness, the emphasis is on the need to prepare students (future specialists) to be creative and innovative, to think critically and analytically, and to be able to effectively solve real-world problems. With higher-order thinking skills students will become creators of knowledge, competent and productive communicators, successful collaborators, independent and inventive thinkers, problem solvers and career experts. Consequently, students take full responsibility for their learning and knowledge construction in the context of contemporary life.

Bearing in mind that ESP is a student-centered approach, it is clear that it fits well with constructivism which focuses on knowledge construction through the interaction with the environment. Modern ESP constructivist learning environments are technology-based which contributes to improving learning achievements and increasing learning outcomes.

Key words

constructivism, ESP, learning environment, digital technologies

1. Introduction

This paper highlights the importance of constructivism as an emerging trend in the design of the ESP digital learning environment.

In this globalized, competitive and technology-driven world, the goal of foreign language education is to provide students with language skills and professional knowledge necessary to succeed in the job market. As it is well known, companies need highly qualified specialists who are capable of using foreign languages "in the service of thinking and problem solving" (Cummins, 1981). As English has become "the primary means of communication *at workplaces both within and across boundaries"* (Purpura & King, 2003), there is an increasing demand for learning English for Specific Purposes (hereinafter referred to as ESP).

Bearing in mind that ESP is a student-centered approach which focuses on developing English communication skills in a specific discipline, it is clear that it fits well with a constructivist theory which emphasizes the central importance of

students and their attitudes and motivation towards learning. Constructivism argues that learning is an active process in which learners construct new knowledge based upon their previous knowledge through the interaction with the environment. A new learning environment creates engaging and content-relevant experiences by utilizing modern technologies and resources to support unique learning goals and knowledge construction (Young, 2003). In addition, the use of technologies in the constructivist classroom enables students to be active and collaborative in the learning process, which contributes to improving learning achievements and increasing learning outcomes.

2. The rise of the ESP approach

The intention here is to explain that traditional principles of teaching and learning need to be reconstructed into modern education strategies. This involves expressing metatheoretical perspectives to discuss issues within educational theory, and provide a basis for transforming language teaching and learning in the era of globalization. By utilizing innovative pedagogy to support teaching and learning goals, students will be more likely to achieve their full potential.

An emerging trend in the ESP teaching and learning is to create such a learning environment where students' knowledge construction can be facilitated. Such an environment is one in which students are challenged without being frustrated, and in which they are focused on intentional learning to fulfill a set of learning goals (Jonassen et al., 2003).

Considering knowledge and skills in the 21st century, it is necessary to point to the importance of the social environment. According to social constructivism *in*fluenced by Vygotsky (1978), learning is constructed through communication and collaborative activities.

It needs to be noted that the main objective of ESP courses is to help students develop communicative skills they will need in the future target situation (e.g. industry or business settings). It focuses on the specific linguistic knowledge and communication in order to accomplish specific purposes (Orr, 1998). More specifically, ESP puts focus on preparing students (future specialists) to communicate effectively in future work environment they will enter. Therefore, teaching/learning ESP is specialty-oriented which means it refers to specific needs of the students (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987). This can be achieved with a content-based curriculum, where students learn the language by focusing on the subject matter with the help of authentic materials. This points to the rise of the ESP approach which has reshaped the English language curriculum to meet learners' specialized communication needs.

Besides, in the case of collaborative and problem solving activities, it can be said that they foster constructivist learning and provide learners with resources and guidance to engage them in building new knowledge and understanding. Digital information and communication technologies can support collaborative activities in the classroom. The Internet can be used to provide authentic content-based materials and activities which fit the students' needs. As Kimball (1998) points out, "Internet-generated materials can be flexibly arrayed to engage students with topics and cognitive tasks relevant to students' professional futures".

At this point, it should be concluded that ESP is "goal directed" (Robinson, 1991) as students do not learn the English language for the sake of it, but because they need to learn it in order to communicate a set of professional skills and to perform particular job-related functions.

3. A new paradigm of knowledge construction

Facing up the challenges in the new millennium, there is a need for an emerging *paradigm* shift in educational practice. It has become clear that the 21st century classroom needs students to face real-world problems that engage them in higher-order thinking skills – creativity, innovation, communication, collaboration, critical thinking and problem solving (Jonassen & Reeves, 1996). With these skills students will become creators of knowledge, competent and productive communicators, successful collaborators, independent and inventive thinkers, problem solvers and career experts. Overall, a new paradigm implies knowledge that is "richer, better connected, and more applicable to subsequent learning and events" (Lehrer, 1993).

The discussion will focus on constructivism as a learner-centred approach which emphasises the concept based on the idea that students have choice in their learning. In other words, "students might not only choose what to study, but how and why that topic might be an interesting one to study" (Burnard, 1999) and thus, they "take responsibility for their own learning" (Benett, 1999). Similarly, Edwards (2001) highlights the importance of student-centred learning:

"Placing learners at the heart of the learning process and meeting their needs, is taken to a progressive step in which learner-centred approaches mean that persons are able to learn what is relevant for them in ways that are appropriate".

Student-centered methods, supported by educational theorists such as Piaget, Vygotsky, Dewey and Bruner, develop the ideas of progressive education.

The theory of cognitive constructivism, influenced by Piaget, emphasizes the active role of the individual in the learning process. For Piaget, knowledge construction takes place when new knowledge is actively assimilated and

accommodated into the existing framework. The Piaget's constructivist classroom provides a variety of activities to challenge students to increase their readiness to learn. With technology support (videodisks, CD-ROMs, etc.), an effective learning environment can be provided.

In addition to the above, Vygotsky's theory (social constructivism) can be seen in action in today's ESP classrooms through collaborative learning. The social constructivist approach argues that students learn by constructing their knowledge through interaction with others. In computer-supported collaborative learning, students are encouraged to communicate with their peers and be prepared for *real-world problem-solving situations.*

For effective ESP learning, construction of knowledge happens in a social context (Duffy & Jonassen, 1991), such as classrooms and language laboratories "where students join in manipulating materials and, thus, create a community of learners who built their knowledge together" (Dewey, 1966). Progressive education (Dewey's terminology) highlights the social aspect of learning and interaction with peers. Dewey suggests a method of "directed living", which means that students are engaged in an authentic, real-world context in which they can expose their knowledge through collaborative activities and creativity.

In the theoretical framework of Bruner the focus is on language learning through dialogue (Socratic learning) as the best method of communication. Students are encouraged to collaborate and engage in the learning process through dialogues with other students and the teacher, "rather than simply require them to answer questions, supports the socio-constructivist paradigm" (Hausfather, 1996). The concept of 'learning by doing' (Bruner, 1990) involves students' active participation within the classroom context.

With regard to contemporary learning theories, they have tried to combine social and cognitive in the design of learning environments. Situated Learning Theory (similar to social constructivism), developed by Lave & Wenger (1991) emphasizes the importance of learning as a function of the authentic activity, context and culture in which it occurs (Lave & Wenger, 1991). In likewise manner, Brown et al. (1989) argue that knowledge is situated, being in part a product of the activity, context, and culture in which it is developed and used. In this sense, constructivist epistemology explains that knowledge, learning, and cognition, as social constructions, are expressed on the basis of the interaction with their environment. In addition, Jonassen (2000) explores the use of Activity Theory for designing learner-centered learning environments.

Looked at from an educational perspective, incorporating constructivist practices, teachers are able to prepare their students to be successful lifelong learners, responsible citizens and effective contributors in an increasingly complex and competitive world.

Importantly, constructivist practitioners can combine methods in order to produce a successful and an effective model for developing productive proficiency and carry out the objectives of a course.

4. Digital constructivism

The 21st century has been referred to as the age of global communication and the rapid spread of information. Accordingly, the use of information and communication technologies in ESP teaching and learning is a current challenge forcing to rethink a number of educational issues.

ESP courses aim at helping students being capable of using a language that they will need in future professional settings. This can be realized by means of a content-based curriculum where students learn the language by concentrating on the specialized subject matter and the use of authentic materials. The Internet is an excellent source for providing authentic materials (Živković & Stojković, 2011) in accordance with students' needs. "Internet-generated materials can be flexibly arrayed to engage students with topics and cognitive tasks relevant to students' professional futures" (Kimball, 1998).

It is worth noting that a computer, together with the Internet, is an example of digital mediating technology which role in education should not be viewed as add-ons, but has been largely viewed as an instructional tool for providing a richer and more exciting learning environment (Duffy & Cunningham, 1996).

Modern technology has the potential to optimize interactivity and availability as a communication device and as a classroom management tool. If used appropriately, the technology could add relevance and meaning to ESP learning because it has the potential to increase students' motivation for studying languages.

Concerning computer applications, we state that they have been developed to engage learners in critical thinking about the content they are studying (Jonassen & Reeves, 1996). Indeed, technology is the most successful in leading to learning when it is used to engage students in meaningful, relevant and authentic activities with open-ended software and the Internet (Jonassen, 2000). 'Mindtools' (Jonassen & Reeves, 1996) promote independent and meaningful learning, support interactive, collaborative, and student-centered classrooms, engage students in creative and critical thinking while constructing knowledge.

Moreover, technology is seen as an integral part of cognitive activities (Živković & Stojković, 2013). Along with constructivist learning environments, it activates cognitive learning strategies and critical thinking (Jonassen, 1994). It can enhance the cognitive powers of learners during thinking, problem-solving, and learning (Jonassen & Reeves, 1996). A student who uses a cognitive tool effectively should engage (actively), think (deeply) and articulate his/her knowledge (Jonassen, 1994).

Therefore, the use of modern technology is evident for students' increasing of autonomous and collaborative learning, as well as for taking responsibility and control over the learning process as one of the basis of constructivist pedagogy. Undoubtedly, it may help in transforming the present teacher-centered approach into a student-focused, interactive knowledge environment.

From the aforementioned, it is clear that constructivist pedagogical principles coupled with appropriate technology integration show the potential for major improvements in teaching and learning practices. They together provide opportunity to make and remake the concept of ESP learning, and have brought new learning possibilities for teaching and learning. In other words, they can allow ESP learners to work to their fullest potential.

5. A constructivist ESP environment

Constructivists emphasize the importance of the learning environment in which knowledge building can be facilitated. As Wilson (1995) defines, a constructivist learning environment is "a place where learners may work together and support each other as they use a variety of tools and information resources in their pursuit of learning goals and problem-solving activities." It is the environment that allows learner-centred activities to take place where the teacher provides students with experiences in order to develop problem-solving, critical-thinking and creative skills, and apply them in a meaningful manner.

In the learning environment "students join in manipulating materials and, thus, create a community of learners who built their knowledge together" (Dewey, 1966).

Modern ESP constructivist learning environments are technology-based in which learners are engaged in meaningful interactions.

"The richness of the technology permits us to provide a richer and more exciting (entertaining) learning environment... our concern is the new understandings and new capabilities that are possible through the use of technology" (Duffy & Cunningham, 1996).

The function of the technology is to support and facilitate learning and "to encourage students to be creative, providing feedback about student

performance and to analyze and reflect upon what has been learnt" (Jonassen et al., 1999). In such an environment the use of technologies can enable constructivist innovations in the classroom contributing to the realization of meaningful, authentic, active, interactive and problem-based learning. Students search solutions to real world problems which based on a technology framework lead to critical and analytical thinking.

An ESP technology-enriched learning environment exhibits the following characteristics (Butler-Pascoe & Wiburg, 2003):
-   provides interaction and communicative activities representative of specific professional or academic environments,
-   fosters understanding of the socio-cultural aspects of the language,
-   provides comprehensible field-specific input and facilitates student production,
-   provides sheltering strategies for language development and content-specific understanding (contextualizing, metacognitive activities, etc.),
-   utilizes task-based and inquiry-based strategies reflective of tasks in discipline-specific settings,
-   utilizes authentic materials from specific disciplines and occupations,
-   supplies authentic audiences including outside experts in specific fields,
-   supports cognitive abilities and critical thinking skills,
-   utilizes collaborative learning,
-   facilitates focused practice for development of reading, writing, listening and speaking skills across the curriculum and disciplines,
-   is student-centered and addresses specific needs of students,
-   uses multiply modalities to support different learning styles,
-   meets affective needs of students: motivation, self-esteem and autonomy,
-   provides appropriate feedback and assessment of content knowledge and English skills.

As Kanuka & Anderson (1999) point out, knowledge is constructed in the context of the environment in which it is encountered through the social and collaborative process. A relevant constructivist environment is one that supports learners in achieving their learning goals. It is the learner who interacts with his/her environment and constructs his/her own conceptualisations and finds solutions to problems, mastering autonomy and independence.

6. A need for redesigning pedagogy
The paradigm of constructivist epistemology have significant implications for instructional design in learning settings. It presents a challenge to both students

and the teacher. The challenge for the teacher is to provide a relevant framework for students upon which they construct knowledge and become active participants in the learning process. Importantly, the teacher is no longer perceived as the knowledge dispenser and decision maker. Instead, the teacher has become the facilitator of learning whose main task is to set goals and organize the learning process accordingly.

Here, we need to emphasize that it is a difficult task for the ESP teacher to conduct all these requirements within the classroom, especially in teaching ESP courses. Thus, the utilization of advanced technologies as instructional tools should be seriously considered, depending on course goals and learning objectives which provide guidelines for the assessment of students' progress. What has become particularly evident is that technologies help build an extensive knowledge base, which will "engage the learners more and result in more meaningful and transferable knowledge… Learners function as designers using the technology as tools for analyzing the world, accessing information, interpreting and organizing their personal knowledge, and representing what they know to others" (Jonassen, 1994).

The following principles (Jonassen, 1994) explain how knowledge construction can be facilitated:
- provide multiple representations of reality,
- represent the natural complexity of the real world,
- focus on knowledge construction, not reproduction,
- present authentic tasks (contextualizing rather than abstracting instruction),
- provide real-world, case-based learning environments, rather than pre-determined instructional sequences,
- foster reflective practice;
- enable context-and content dependent knowledge construction,
- support collaborative construction of knowledge through social negotiation.

These principles provide a useful framework for summarizing the constructivist model of instructional design.

Based on the social constructivist approach, ESP courses allow students to interact with learning materials, and to explore and construct vocabulary and meanings. The ultimate goal of today's ESP students is to acquire the ability to successfully communicate with others (professionals) in meaningful and appropriate ways. As stated earlier, ESP courses prepare students to use a language to communicate effectively in real-life situations and cooperate with colleagues in professional fields. So, the focus of modern foreign language learning is on practical experience and direct activity of students. A student-

centered approach requires students to set their own goals for learning, and determine resources and activities that will help them meet those goals (Jonassen, 2000). Strictly speaking, ESP students should become critical thinkers who know how to apply language in different situations.

As it has been discussed, social constructivism emphasizes the active participation of learners, including contextual and social learning where the teacher has become the facilitator of learning, and learners are designers, using technology for analyzing the world, interpreting and organizing their personal knowledge, and representing what they know to others (Jonassen, 1994).

Obviously, to be prepared for global competitiveness, ESP students need to become critical thinkers who share their own ideas, listen to the ideas of others, summarize concepts by analyzing, justifying, and defending ideas, make decisions, solve problems.

Therefore, learners need to be equipped with strategies and techniques to continue learning throughout the life. ESP is clearly founded on the idea that we use language as members of social groups.

So, the ESP constructivist approach offers teachers the opportunity to create learning environments where students actively participate to construct knowledge, develop autonomy, interact and complete a task by successfully transforming information coming from modern technology resources.

7. Transformative teaching and learning

In order to meet the challenges, it is the task of the teacher to introduce innovative pedagogies following up the trend in shifting the focus from teaching to learning. The design and implementation of pedagogical and technological knowledge in the teaching process is one of the most demanding tasks. So, the key challenge facing ESP teachers is to refocus their teaching strategies and adopt new approaches, and to effectively and efficiently incorporate technologies in the language learning process. Within such context, to be prepared for the new role in the 21st century, the teacher needs to maximize the potential of learning, and to provide models for the practical work. It is essential to promote information literacy and support collaborative working in order to prepare students to succeed in this ever-changing world environment.

Concerning constructivist approach, an important issue to consider is the dialogue in the classroom – students' interaction with peers and the teacher. The teacher should encourage communication through dialogue interaction aimed at mutual development and enrichment. As previously noted, the Socratic method, as a form of dialogic discussion, can be really efficient in ESP constructivist settings, as it can empower and support group learning based on either

individual or a social constructivist approach. It highlights students' engagement in the discussion with a specific topic as a central focus. Consequently, students learn to think critically by examining one another's ideas and questions in an attempt to create a better understanding, and "to have their voices heard and build on their previous experiences and interests to plan for their continuing growth" (Dewey, 1938).

All in all, the above points to the fact that constructivism requires a teacher "whose main function is to help students become active participants in their learning and make meaningful connections between prior knowledge, new knowledge, and the processes involved in learning" (Copley, 1992) for multidisciplinary *teaching* and learning process. Teachers should also reflect on their own practice, and be willing to experiment with new instructional tools. Therefore, the existing programs should be updated by incorporating modern student-centered teaching methods and techniques (i.e. group work, simulations, case analysis, etc.) which would help to create a comfortable, high-quality learning environment, and encourage students to participate in the teaching/learning process more actively.

To end this discussion, we suggest engaging students into the digital learning environment that enables effective interaction and creates a rich collaborative learning experience. In such an environment, the use of educational tools activates constructivist innovations which contribute to the realization of holistic, meaningful, purposeful, authentic, cooperative and problem-based learning. Students are encouraged to search for solutions to real-world problems, and thus, they are engaged in transformative learning, leading to critical and analytical thinking which is essential for success in the *21st century.*

8. Conclusion

This paper has offered an overview of the concept of constructivism, and explores its possible implications in the design of the ESP digital learning environment that is "learner-centered, knowledge-centered, community centered and assessment-centered" (Bransford et al., 2000).

Such a model offers a set of design principles and strategies to create ESP learning environments wherein students are engaged in the social construction of reality (Dixson, 1995). The purpose of ESP is to prepare students (future specialists) to communicate effectively in the professional field and real-life situations. The ultimate goal is to become 'operational' in any learning situation.

Significantly, there is a need for implementing constructivist learning in practical settings which can help students to be prepared for the challenges that a *commitment to lifelong learning* will present (Herr, 1995).

"Learning to think critically and to analyze and synthesize information in order to solve technical, social, economic, political and scientific problems are crucial for successful and fulfilling participation" (Dunlap & Grabinger, 1996).

As a final note, the paper has provided a representative view of the advantages in constructivist strategies for ESP teaching and learning, and, at the same time, it has clarified why the idea of this issue is worthy of study.

In addition, the paper outlines suggestions and considerations regarding transformation and improvement of current educational system. However, it is not proposed here that teachers should accept constructivism in the classroom as the only solution to achieve instructional goals. Instead, they should create their own methods in the direction of updating their instructional practices in order to make the learning process more flexible and easier.

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The concept of communicative competence
in teaching foreign languages

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Abstract

The article deals with a study and analysis of communicative competence in foreign languages teaching. It presents the historical overview and development of the notion of communicative competence, which include its establishment, stages of its development, and its components. Discussed are ideas of different linguists who were trying to determine whether communicative competence can serve the goals and aims in FLT or to what extent it is effective and useful for FLT.

In addition, it shows what methods and materials must be used in communicative language teaching to perform language activities leading to building components of communicative competence in FLT.

Keywords

communicative competence, competence, discourse, emphasize, to acquire, controversial, definition, communication, interaction

To define the concept of the communicative competence in teaching a foreign language, it is necessary to conduct linguistic-terminological analysis or to study its structure. The term communicative competence consists of two words "communicative" and "competence", which are widely used in teaching English language since the mid-twentieth. This term, i.e. communicative competence, is still remained controversial and is being under discussion of many linguists. Jelena Mihaljevic in her article (Defining communicative competence) emphasized that the central word in the syntagm "communicative competence" is "competence", but preferably it would be more appropriate to find the definition of both words, i.e. "communicative" (or communication) and "competence" separately.

Communication

The word communication is generally understood as giving information or sharing ideas. However, it is defined differently in most of dictionaries and by various linguists. For example, according to Longman Contemporary English Dictionary, it is brought as "communication is the process by which people exchange information or their thoughts and feelings" or "the way people express themselves so that other people will understand them". Stekauer (1995) defines

communication as an activity in which information of some sorts is transferred from one 'system' to another by means of some physical embodiment. Passov in his book "The Basis of Communicative methodology" agrees with Parigin (1971) that the communication is a versatile process, which comes out at the same time as the process of interaction of individuals, and as a relationship of the people, and as a process of their interaction.

Supporting the ideas of Breen and Candlin (1980), Morrow (1977) and Widdowson (1988), Richards and Schmidt (1983) characterized the nature of communication as follows: communication

a) is a form of social interaction, and is therefore normally acquired and used in social interaction;
b) involves a high degree of unpredictability and creativity in form and message;
c) takes place in discourse and social contexts which provide constraints on appropriate language use and also clues as to correct interpretations of utterances;
d) is carried out under limiting psychological and other conditions such as memory constraints, fatigue and distractions;
e) always has a purpose (for example, to establish social relations, to persuade, or to promise);
f) involves authentic, as opposed to textbook-contrived language;
g) is judged as successful or not on the basis of actual outcomes.

Moreover, Richards and Schmidt (1983) define communication as the exchange and negotiation of information between at least two or more individuals through the use of verbal and non-verbal symbols.

Having looked through all the definitions made by various linguists, it is necessary to emphasize that the main concept of communication is exchanging information between individuals or expressing thoughts to each other which is considered the purpose of the language teaching.

Competence

Generally the word competence comes out not of the field of linguistics; however it has been brought to linguistics or become the central word for linguists and teachers of foreign languages in the middle of 1960s or beginning of 1970s. The use of competence in applied linguistic was introduced by Chomsky (1965), who made distinction between competence (the speaker-hearer's knowledge of his language) and performance (the actual use of language in concrete situations). In addition, the word competence generally refers to the ability to do something in a satisfactory or effective way (Macmillan English

Dictionary for Advanced Learners, 2007), the ability or skill to do something well or to a satisfactory standard (Longman Business English Dictionary, 2007) and the ability to do something successfully or efficiently (Oxford Dictionary of English, Revised Edition, 2005). Moreover, in reference with language or linguistics, competence is defined as: competence refers to one's underlying knowledge of system of a language – its rules of grammar, its vocabulary, all the pieces of a language and how those pieces fit together (Douglas Brown, 2000); competence is what we intuitively know about a language in order to be able to use it. It is the kind of internalized knowledge that allows us to distinguish well-formed from ill-formed sentences (Thornbury, 2006); competence – the term linguists use to describe roughly what we have so far rather ponderously been calling knowledge and skill (Jonson, 2001).

Communicative competence

In the last three decades of the twentieth century applied linguists were concerned with finding a new methodology of teaching foreign languages that focuses less on individual development and more on the effect of learners' interactions with each other, which is the goal of communicative language teaching. Foreign languages acquisition started to be understood as a creation of meaning through interactions among foreign languages learners. Since then, there appeared a new term known as "communicative competence" that has earned popularity amongst applied linguists and foreign languages teachers, who made communicative competence a predominant term in teaching foreign languages which remained as an appropriate term in applied linguistics that captures current issues in teaching English. Communicative competence consists of phonology, grammar (morphology and syntax), lexis, pragmatics, discourse and communication strategies (Yalden, 1987).

Moreover, the term communicative competence with its components started to be a controversial topic amongst applied linguists. For example, Hyme and Halliday disagree with linguistic competence proposed by Chomsky. Hyme opposes Chomsky's view about linguistic competence which is "ideal speaker-listener". Hyme looks at the real speaker-listener in that feature of language that Chomsky gives no account: *social interaction* (Savignon, 1983). In addition, both applied linguists and foreign language teachers found Hyme's concept of communicative competence particularly useful in teaching languages.

Components of communicative competence

To achieve their goals in teaching foreign languages, applied linguists divided communicative competence into components that identify the model of

communicative competence as a basis of curriculum design and the practice of language teaching. For example, following Hyme's theory and concept of communicative competence, Savignon (1983), Canale and Swain classified four components of communicative competence: grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, strategic competence.

Grammatical competence

Grammatical competence is a mastery of linguistic code, the ability to recognize the lexical, morphological, syntactic and phonological features of language and to manipulate these features to form words and sentences.

Sociolinguistic competence

Sociolinguistic competence is an interdisciplinary field of enquiry dealing with social rules of language use. Sociolinguistics requires an understanding of social context in which language is used: the role of participants, the information they share, and the functions of interaction.

Discourse competence

Discourse competence deals with connection of series of sentences or utterance to form a meaningful whole and to achieve coherent texts that are relevant to a given context. The theory and analysis of discourse bring together many disciplines, for example, linguistic literary criticism, psychology, sociology, philosophy, anthropology, print and broadcast media.

Strategic competence

Strategic competence is considered the most important component of communicative competence. It is a competence underlying our ability to make repairs, to cope with imperfect knowledge, and to sustain communication through "paraphrase, circumlocution, repetition, hesitation, avoidance, and guessing as well as shifts in register and style".

Moreover, communicative competence in the CEFR (2001) is defined in term of knowledge and ability to use a language. It comprises three components: language competence, sociolinguistic competence, pragmatic competence. However, the strategic competence is not included in the CEFR definition of communicative competence, but some of its subcomponents can be found in pragmatic competence of CEFR (chapter 5). In CEFR document each component of communicative competence has its subcomponents, for example, pragmatic competences subcomponents are discourse competence and functional competence.

Conclusion

In conclusion, it should be noted that the analysis and studies conducted to define the concept of communicative competence has shown that at the present

moment communicative competence is considered an important and key component in the teaching and learning foreign languages. Nowadays it is difficult to imagine foreign language acquisition without becoming communicatively competent. The issue is that it is not enough to become knowledgeable about a foreign language, i.e. *to be aware of rules how the language functions,* but learners must be able to use the language in real communication. In the current condition of Tajikistan, all the linguists and foreign language teachers also began to pay special attention to the use of communicative competence in teaching foreign languages. For example, it is widely used at the secondary and university level, and also in the scientific-research pedagogical priority directions.

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Technology-enhanced learners´ activities for promoting teaching/learning

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Abstract

The paper deals with two projects focusing on students´activities within the ICT-enhanced foreign language instruction. First, the background and motivation for running the projects are introduced; second, the design of each project is described in detail; and finally, the project results are introduced, including samples of learners´activities. Students involved in the projects were enrolled in the same form of study (part-time study) at two different faculties (Faculty of Education, Faculty of Informatics and Management, both of University of Hradec Kralove), in two different study programmes (Teaching at primary school level; Applied Informatics and Information Management). What is common to their activities is they created two learning aids on CD-ROMs for teaching and/or learning English using the Internet and main sources of information.

In Part 1 the CD-ROM "On-line e-English for primary school teachers" is introduced. The content includes 30 chapters (one chapter per student) in which students designed the lesson scenarios. In the scenarios modern technologies are implemented to support the process of English teaching and learning. The scenarios follow the common template which is structured into several parts and introduces the topic, age (grade) of the targed group, aids necessary for the teacher and learners and the description of an ICT-enhanced activity. The main objective of the activity is to provide both pre-service and in-service primary (and pre-primary) school teachers a database of activites for foreign language (English, German) teaching.

In Part 2 the CD-ROM "English Reader for IT and Management Students" was presented. The reader contained more than 200 professional texts focusing on informatics and related problems and their recordings in mp3 format. Each student provided two texts of one-A4 page length and translated selected professional expressions which s/he considered difficult for other students using tools Insert, Comments. As students´level of IT English knowledge differed, the provided texts included all levels and each student could choose the appropriate ones to gradually improve their knowledge. Both the texts and recordings worked as tools/means towards increasing the listening comprehension skill.

Keywords

ICT-enhanced instruction, teaching, learning, English, tertiary level, university,

Introduction

Changes in the Czech education system were evoked by the general state of the Czech society within last two decades; and at the same time they supported general development towards information and knowledge society, which caused following shifts and processes:

- the existing structure of the educational system was transformed according to new conditions (bachelor, master, doctoral degrees),
- new relations between elements participating in the educational process were set,
- learner´s responsibility for his/her own education creativeness and motivation were supported,
- new teaching methods, organizational forms, approaches to assessment were strongly required,
- new competences were defined and reflected in the learning content, followed by the call for lifelong education appeared,
- new subjects appeared and were emphasized (e.g. Humanities, foreign languages, Informatics, Environmentalistics etc.),
- and last but not least, economic aspects of education were introduced, including competitiveness among education institutions (MŠMT, 2001; MŠMT, 2009).

These features have been slowly but steadily included into the system which currently is hardly to be imagined without the ICT implementation.

The level of technical development, demand for well-prepared and competent professionals, open space for using new possibilities in the educational process – these requirements resulted in increasing numbers of students, widening the offer of study programmes and subjects at universities, especially in combined (part-time) and distance education. The educational process has been substantially supported by ICT which have essential importance in creating and using multimedia study materials, e-communication, in organizing and administering the process, etc.

Under these circumstances the demand for competent university graduates has been strong on one side, and getting a good job has become the main but more and more difficult target to be achieved on the other side. In the current decade the lifelong professions have been disappearing. Within each 10-year period 80 % of technologies have been obsolete, but at the same time there have been working 80 % of employees who got qualification 10 - 40 years ago. In the European Union every year 7 % of positions are cancelled and the same number of new opportunities appears; on average about 17 % of employees change the

job and about 12.5 % of employees change the profession or field of work (Turek, 2002). These numbers clearly show that competences aiming at one profession are useless and non-valuable under these circumstances.

Another situation appeared in the field of foreign languages. As expressed e.g. by Delors (1999) and in numerous European Union documents (EC, 2009; EC, 2001; EC, 1997), communication in at least two foreign languages is required and defined as a key competence. That is why this paper introduces two approaches to teaching and learning foreign languages at two institutions of University of Hradec Kralove: Teacher Training Faculty and Faculty of Informatics and Management. As widely accepted the personal participation and engagement in any activity strengthens motivation and improves study results, students are given possibility to take active part in creating and presenting the educational content. In case of part-time learners (as presented in materials below) they can also share their experience with other students. This is contributive from two views: (1) experience of one student can help another one/other ones, (2) providing own experience boosts professional self-confidence and position within the group. Since 2001 the LMS WebCT (Blackboard) has been used at the Faculty of Informatics and Management, which means lessons are either supported, or completely managed by online courses, and highly computer literate students contribute willingly to this way of instruction. In spite if this fact, outcomes of two learner-centred activities provided by students and running out of the LMS are presented being a result of such a process of foreign language teaching/learning: On-line e-English for primary school teachers (figure 1) and English Reader for IT and Management Students (figure 2).
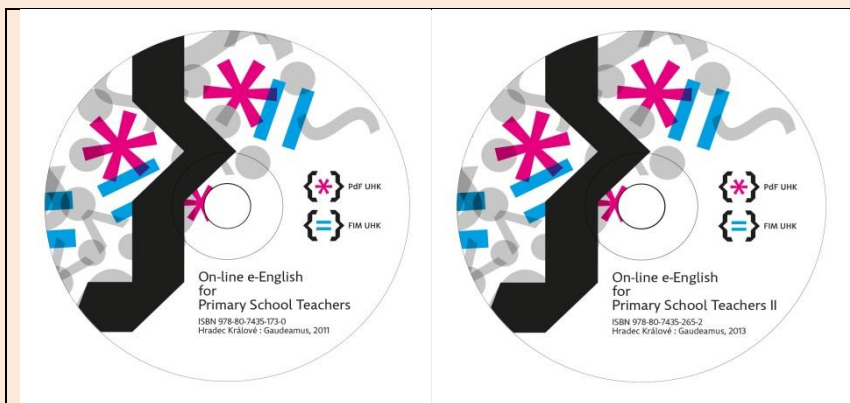
Figure 1 CD-ROM Online e-English for Primary School Teachers, I, II
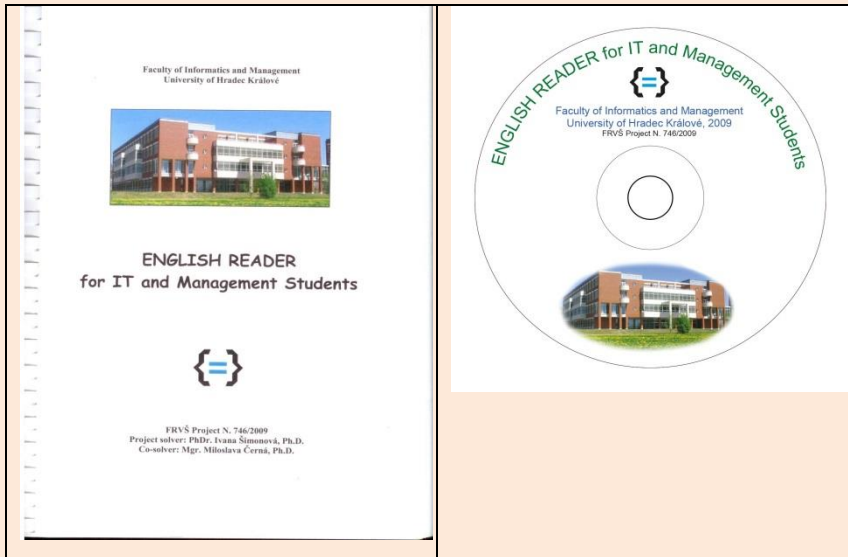
Figure 2 English Reader for IT and Management Students, printed and e-version

The created materials relate to English language but the process can be applied to any other foreign language teaching/learning. Both materials were published on CD-ROMs, the second one is also available in the printed version.

On-line e-English for primary school teachers

This electronic teaching/learning aid on CD-ROM (e-book) contains didactic materials – scenarios in which modern technologies (mainly the Internet and interactive whiteboard) are used. The scenarios were designed by part-time students (who usually work as teachers during their university study) of the Teacher Training Faculty within the subject of Teaching English.

Both volumes of the e-book contain approximately 50 scenarios focused on various topics which are included in curricula in different grades of elementary and lower secondary school. Each scenario follows the identical template which is structured in several compulsory parts (figure 3).

Topic	**Colours, numbers, feelings**
Learning objective: … **Target group:** … **Classroom equipment:** … **Teaching aids:** … **Course and description of activities:** … (including URK and other e-sources) **Additional materials, comments:** … **Author, e-mail:** **Date:**	Select the colour, produce a puppet, draw the feeling. Provide information about the colour and feeling of your puppet (write the words on the board and in your exercise-book): How many puppets of the same colour/feeling are in the classroom? (total amount, amount of a certain colours, dark/light colours, subtract a type from total amount, …) Play a role with your puppet using the above introduced vocabulary.

Figure 3 Scenario template and example of "Colours, numbers, feelings" topic

There are two main objectives of the e-book: (1) to provide colleagues (both graduate and pre-graduate teachers) with materials which have been prepared by other teachers and successfully applied in their lessons; (2) to inspire the teachers if the materials do not suit their teaching objectives.

In the section Course and description of activities the links to interesting and useful materials are provided, mostly covering pictures, songs, movies, e-games for educational purposes etc. The materials are primarily focused on teaching/learning English but for elementary level the learning content may cover several topics within one scenario. Activities for higher grades usually take longer time period (or several lessons) while those for small learners or beginners are usually designed for a few minutes.

The scenarios cover a wide range of topics, e.g. Family, People and professions, Animals, Vegetables, Days of the week, Festival days, Greetings, Sports, Hobbies, Toys, Transport, Numbers, Seasons ... but also Monsters, Puppets, Fairy tales etc. Several of them appeared in various versions, being designed for learners of different age.

English Reader for IT and Management Students

Following the above described learner-centred learning/teaching focus on pregraduate teachers, this activity aims at part-time students of the Faculty of Informatics and Management in the bachelor study programme of Applied Informatics, Financial Management and master study programme of Information Management. They studied six terms of ESP (English for specific purposes). i.e. IT English using online courses in LMS WebCT/Blackboard designed for the distance education, or Business English having 24 face-to-face lessons (45 minutes each) per one term and also using online courses (other than the IT students), these were designed to support the Business English lessons. Despite students were taught by different teaching methods and used various learning strategies, in the 5th and 6th terms all of them participated in creating the Reader – a set of professional texts for educational purposes, as the main learning objectives in those terms focused on developing professional reading and listening comprehension skills. The work with professional texts is considered useful and appreciated by all students because this activity was closely connected to their everyday work and experience, they had a wide range of sources they could search professional texts from.

How did the whole process run? Each student found two English texts and their recordings per one term, then they selected several items of professional vocabulary (about 10 – 15 items per text) and translated them into Czech

language using Insert, Revisions, New Comment tools. The texts and recordings were to meet following requirements:

− Topic: text on any topic connected to the field of study. At the beginning there were four main topics (IT personalities, hardware, software, latest news and products). During the process new topics appeared.
− Extent: 3/4 – 1 page of A4 format.
− Language: the language level reflects student´s knowledge, so texts of different levels were included in the Reader.
− Recordings: text recordings are provided in mp3 format.

Both the texts and recordings were presented in online courses for the 5th and 6th terms of each study programme as IT Reader and Financial Management Reader. The content covered several topics: Software, Hardware, Technology, Internet and IT Society in the IT Reader; Economy, Business, Finance, Banking in the Financial Managements Reader, as displayed in figure 4.
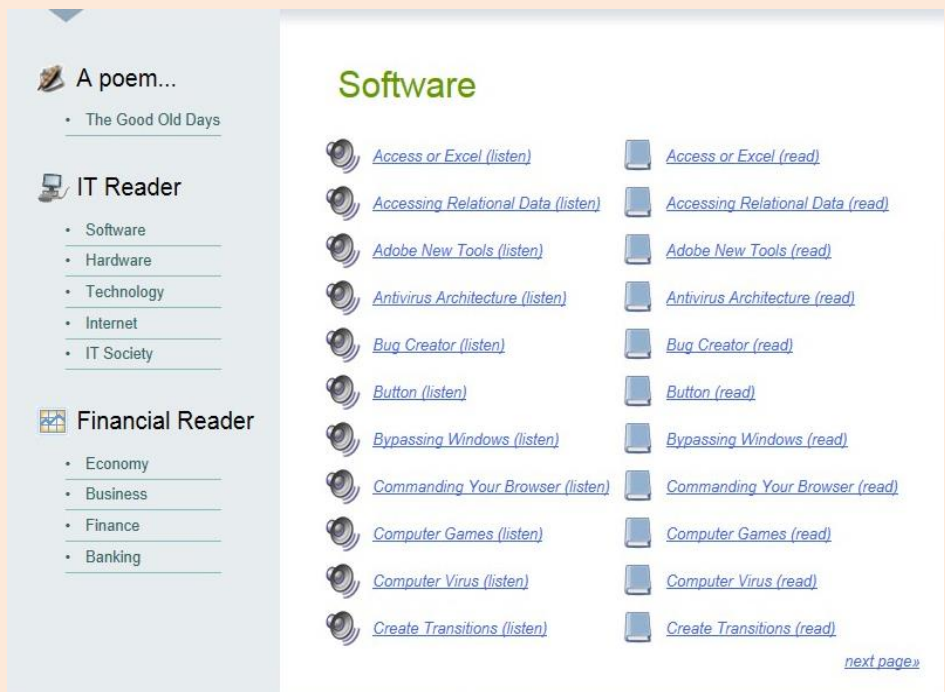
Figure 4 English Reader content

Students used the Readers to prepare for final exams which covered reading and listening comprehension of two texts and discussions on the topics with the teacher. Depending on the level of knowledge each student could devote an individual time period to the exam preparation. And one more thing was motivating: students provided their names under each text so that everybody could know who the author was and evaluate the quality of work. Students carefully protected their professional image and avoided sending texts which did not meet the given requirements. Despite the "serious" work students had done, a funny song (for motivation) was included at the beginning of CD-ROM. The lyrics is displayed in figure 5.

Conclusions

The e-society and i-society produced crucial changes. The process of defining both students´ and teachers´ key competences towards meeting requirements of today´s and future life have been finished, ways to develop and reach them have been set. Putting the whole process into effect is a task we are facing now and in the future. The above described activities are neither new, nor revolutionary but they aim at gaining the required skills, and this is the most important output. They are based on J. A. Comenius didactic principles and if applied under the described conditions they will result in the required competence. Above all, both students´ participation in creating the course content and using their professional experience in the field of ICT support their motivation to study.

Acknowledgment

The Good Old Days

The Good Old Days (listen)   *The Good Old Days (read)*

A computer was something on TV
From a science fiction show of note
A window was something you
hated to clean
And ram was the cousin of a goat.

Meg was the name of my girlfriend
And gig was a job for the nights
Now they all mean different things
And that really mega bytes.

An application was for employment
A program was a TV show
A curser used profanity
A keyboard was a piano.

Memory was something you lost
with age
A CD was a bank account
And if you had a 3-in. floppy
You hoped nobody found out.

Compress was something you did to
the trash
Not something you did to a file
And if you unzipped anything in public
You'd be in jail for a while.

Log on was adding wood to the fire
Hard drive was a long trip on the road
A mouse pad was where a mouse lived
And a backup happened to your
commode.

Cut you did with a pocket knife
And paste you did with glue
A web was simply a spider's home
And a virus was just the flu.

I guess I'll stick to my pad and paper
And the memory that's in my head
I hear nobody's been killed in a
computer crash
But when it happens they'll wish they
were dead.

Anonymous author

Figure 5 The Good Old Days

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CALL in teaching English to young learners

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Abstract

The article focuses on the description of both theory and practice of computer assisted language learning (CALL) in the teaching of young learners of English. Firstly, the reasons for using CALL in the teaching of English to young learners are discussed. Secondly, benefits and pitfalls of multimedia in English language classes are outlined and finally, model activities and other useful sources are demonstrated.

Keywords

Computer assisted language learning; young learners; English; multimedia.

Introduction

Computer assisted language learning (CALL) is one of many approaches used in English language teaching (ELT). In fact, it is a blended part of traditional, face-to-face teaching (cf. Veselá, 2012) since the traditional tuition cannot be replaced just with e-schooling, particularly as far as the young learners are concerned. As with other teaching approaches, CALL should always be applied purposefully and effectively to meet the teaching objectives of an English lesson and students' needs.

Nowadays young learners cannot imagine being deprived of using information and communication technologies (ICT), such as a computer. For them ICT are as natural as breathing. As Veselá (2012, p. 83) says:

> *CALL is ubiquitous and anavoidable, just as new technologies are. Using technologies in teaching/learning is a matter of fact despite the complaints of teachers about insufficiently equipped classrooms, the speed of Internet connections, the lack of resources for CALL – and on contrary too many resources of various value, which are difficult to sort out, time-consumingness …*

Teachers of English attempt to implement CALL in their teaching; they involve technologies in their teaching in order to make students' learning more effective and motivating (Černá, 2007; Yang, 2001; Young, 2003). This is particularly true for the teachers who are involved in teaching young learners that still need a higher support for their learning and learn best from doing

things through play and action in a warm and engaging environment where they feel safe (cf. Harmer, 2012). These teachers employ the so-called integrative CALL (see Chap. 2 for more information), which exploits multimedia[1] and the Internet as the main technologies for ELT (Warschauer, 2000). Among the most common means of technologies used in the ELT classrooms are the following ones[2]:

- interactive whiteboards (IWB);
- CD ROMs, DVDs, videos, or websites sites ;
- online reference tools, e.g. online dictionaries or wikis;
- e-mail, and Skype.

In addition, multimedia can be divided into linear (e.g. an e-book) or non-linear (e.g. a video game or a self-paced eLearning course). The users of linear media usually have no control of the multimedia content. They are only passive receivers. However, the users of non-linear multimedia are able to interact with the content. It is a two-way communication then.

Benefits and pitfalls of using multimedia to young learners of English

Multimedia are undoubtedly important for ELT because it is known that they concurrently affect more senses at one time. This is not a new finding since this idea was already promoted by great teacher of nations - Jan Amos Komenský (1958) in the 17the century who insisted on presenting teaching matter to as many senses as possible. Thus, multimedia should be an inseparable part of ELT in order to facilitate ELT and help with the acquisition of second language learning. At present multimedia is a common teaching resource, aid or tool in ELT classes for the following reasons:

- they affect more senses (Dale's Cone of Experience, 1946);
- they are modern/fashionable;
- they are up-to-date; they can be usually easily modified;
- they are user-friendly;

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[1] Multimedia is characterized as a combination of text, audio, still images, animation, video, or interactivity content forms delivered by a computer (Vaughan, 1993; Dostál, 2009).

[2] Frydrychová Klímová (2014) performed a survey among the Slovak teachers of English in Nitra region in autumn 2013 and she discovered that most of the teachers (67%) used web pages in their teaching. Six respondents (55%) stated using CD ROMs; three people 27%) an interactive board; two respondents (18%) video and the same number (18%) DVDs.

- they are relatively inexpensive;
- they are eye-catching/appealing to students;
- they can help students develop real-life communication;
- they can help students develop four basic language skills, grammar, realia and intercultural communication;
- they can help students develop their remembering and thinking skills;
- they expose students to authentic English;
- they can help students develop cooperative and collaborative skills;
- they enable both students and teachers an easier access to authentic materials;
- they can support different learning styles;
- they are stimulating; and
- simply, they are ubiquitous.

A decade ago most of these teachers were afraid of using any kind of ICT (Poulová & Černá, 2011), but thanks to the benefits listed above and thanks to the school possibilities to buy hardware, teachers are able and want to implement multimedia in their ELT classes. Furthermore, most of the teachers use multimedia at least once a week. As for the timing, probably the most effective time for using multimedia in the ELT classes seems to be between 5-15 minutes. And during these lessons teachers most often exploit different websites and CD ROMs (for more information see Frydrychová Klímová, 2014).

Although multimedia have a positive effect on the development of L2 language acquisition (Sperling, Seyedmonic, Aleksic & Meadows (2003), they must be carefully chosen to suit a particular teaching situation and to meet specific needs of students because not all kinds of multimedia are relevant for teaching or learning situations (Mayer & Moreno, 2002). In addition, if teachers want to use some specific websites, they should evaluate them thoroughly in advance. See the following evaluation documents *Criteria for evaluating web sites* (2008) or Kapoun (1998).

Model activities/ case studies

This section describes two examples of using CALL in the teaching of English to young learners. The first example is an activity done with the help of multimedia and it is a part of an English lesson. The second example is a description of a year-long project, which could inspire other teachers of English in their work.

Example 1
Online game – Practicing comparatives
Author: Ladislav Pongracz
Lesson Objective: to review and practise comparatives.
Role of media:
We use an online game where students get instant feedback, they get points (or lose points) and if they are good enough, they can become one of the best players in the world as there are children from different countries playing this game.
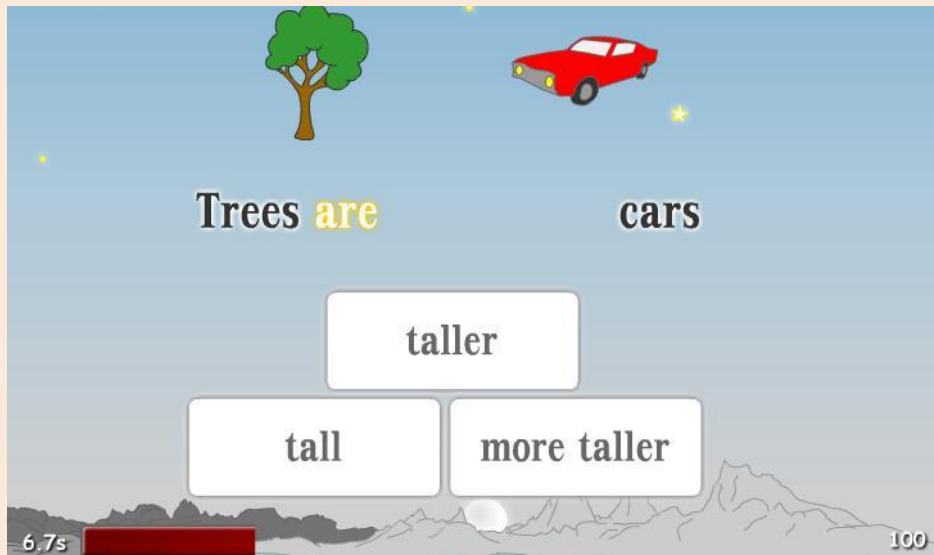
Target group: age: 9 – 12; **level**: A1-A2.
Equipment and materials: a computer, the Internet, a data projector or an interactive whiteboard, a wireless mouse.
Setting: This short activity can be used as a revision in a classroom at the end of a lesson. The number of participants can be 1-15.
Timing: about 10 – 15 minutes.
Task description
This short activity is very helpful when you need to review and practise comparatives, sentence construction and also subject verb agreement in such sentences. Students are shown different sentences with a missing word and they

have to choose the correct word/phrase out of three options. In some sentences there are two or more missing words/phrases. Students share the wireless mouse and play the game together as a group. As they play it, they help each other – better students support weaker ones. If they click on an incorrect word/phrase, they lose points, but they can continue playing the game. The amount of points and remaining time is visible at the bottom of the screen. The game finishes as soon as they run out of time.

Most of these young children like computer games and are motivated by earning points.

Source: http://gamestolearnenglish.com/compare/.

Example 2

The project called *On-line teaching of English language at elementary schools in the Czech Republic* ran from November 2011 till December 2012. At six elementary schools located in the city of Hradec Králové and in Hradec Králové region of the Czech Republic, teachers of English introduced in their conversation classes videoconferences with teachers from abroad, in this case from the Philippines. The age of pupils spanned from the year of 9 to 15, from the fourth up to ninth grades. These videoconferences were run via Skype. The provider and creator of the web application was company OPEN-IT (2011). The whole project was financed by the European Social Fund and from the budget of the Czech Republic. Also four teachers of English from the Department of Applied Linguistics of the Faculty of Informatics and Management in Hradec Králové participated in the project as professional advisors, coaches and creators of methodological worksheets that were used during the English conversation classes by the Philippine teachers. The English conversation classes were held once in two weeks for 45 minutes (regular duration of English classes in the Czech Republic). The topics of their conversation classes were varied, for example:

- *Introducing oneself*
- *Things around us*
- *Family*
- *Seasons of the year*
- *Christmas*
- *Culture*
- *Environment .....*

During the English conversation classes pupils were sitting in different classes, computer laboratories or in school corridors and working in groups of 3-4 at one laptop. All the technical equipment for learning English via Skype,

including the portable computers, was financed from the project. Students were communicating with the Philippine teachers or were doing different interactive activities with one another. Most often four Philippine teachers entered the conversation classes in order to work with individual team of pupils (see Fig. 1 below). Their Czech counterparts acted as facilitators or advisors to their pupils during these lessons.

Figure1. An example of a conversation lesson

Responses after the completion of the project were completely positive. Children thoroughly enjoyed these conversation classes. In addition, most of them had not had any chances to speak with a foreigner in English before the project started. Therefore, they felt quite enthusiastic about being understood by a foreign speaker and being able to understand him/her. As one parent said:

It is very motivating for kids because they can apply the language they learn during the lesson with their Czech teacher in talking with a foreign person who speaks that language, too. Moreover, they are happy when the foreign teacher understands them and they understand her/him. They can see that without knowing a foreign language, particularly English, they would not be able to make themselves understood in the present world. It is a big asset to know and speak English nowadays.

Obviously the project generated more benefits for students such as cooperation among the pupils themselves. They learned how to work in a team, how to delegate tasks, how to make a compromise and concessions or how to take on a responsibility for their tasks. They became more autonomous in their learning. Furthermore, besides enhancing and practising the language skills (listening, reading, writing and speaking) they acquired during the lessons with their Czech teacher, they learned the skills of rhetoric since they had to speak clearly and loudly. Moreover, they stopped being afraid of speaking with someone else in English. They also practised pronunciation and intonation of individual words or phrases. When they worked on a computer, they also expanded their computer skills. In addition, they discovered different culture and perhaps they started to realize what their own culture is like and what they value in their own culture and in their life.

Useful sources/websites

A list of tested and evaluated websites with a short description for the learning of English:

- *Youtube.com* is a website which is widely used by English teachers because it affects most of student's senses and develops all four language skills at a time: listening, reading, writing and speaking.
- *TeachingEnglish.org.uk* is a website which was developed by the British Council and BBC. Besides teacher training, teacher development, exams in English, and various events, this site also serves as a valuable resource for L2 English teachers. It offers plans and activities, completed with worksheets to download, for primary, secondary and adult teachers.
- *HelpForEnglish.cz* is a website developed by a Czech teacher of English. It again focuses on all age levels and offers a great number of teaching resources, such as tests, grammar and vocabulary exercises, pronunciation, reading and listening activities, quizzes, and many more tips.
- *BusyTeacher.org* is another website which supplies ready-made worksheets on different everyday and seasonal topics for English teachers. In addition, it provides ESL (English as a second language) articles, classroom management worksheets, flashcards, classroom posters and other materials. Once again this website covers all age groups.
- *ListentoEnglish.com* is a podcast website for the intermediate and advanced learners of English, mostly aimed at adult learners. The podcasts on this site help to improve English vocabulary, pronunciation and listening skills. They are quite short (5 or 6 minutes) and delivered in clearly spoken English. Many are linked to grammar and vocabulary notes, exercises or quizzes.

- Some publishing houses offer an on-line support for coursebooks. See, for example, FRAUS publishing house and the online support for the courseboook *Start with Click New* (Karásková & Šádek, 2007): *http://ucebnice.fraus.cz/rozsireni/on-line-podpora-start-with-click-new-2/.*
- Teachers also try to make some additional materials for their students and make their own web pages in order to provide their students with more practice. See, for example, the following web page for inspiration: *http://www.katerinapeskova.cz/*.

Conclusion

Information and communication technologies are undoubtedly part and parcel of everyday life. Children find them as natural as it is breathing for them. Therefore, language teachers should take advantage of this fact and implement CALL into their teaching. It was proved that modern ICT, e.g. multimedia, were stimulating and appealing for students. Moreover, they affect more senses at a time and thus, they could expand students' memory to remember things in an easier way. Technologies can also help students develop more language skills and raise their intercultural awareness.

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Error analysis of students in learning vocabulary

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Abstract

To err is human. To learn from errors is helpful. To analyse students' errors is important for teachers' plan for their teaching. In our study, attempt has been made to analyse some language students' errors in learning vocabulary, which is a building block of language. It is hoped that this will shed light on students' language acquisition and more emphasis can be placed on how these errors can be avoided, and how the students' difficulties can be identified with some suggestions to overcome them.

A group of **tertiary** language students were recruited to be the subjects of the present study. A test was given to them to test their prior knowledge in the related vocabulary. Then they were given a list of glossaries to study. The glossaries were taken from different fields, including literature, public relations, public affairs, as well as accounting and finance in bilingual versions with Chinese as L1 and English as L2. A test was conducted to check how much the participating students had learnt from the bilingual list of glossaries. They were given some items in English and they had to translate these into Chinese, and vice versa. Several levels of comparison have been taken into account for analysis: different genders and backgrounds of participating students, different categories of glossaries, and also varied degrees of competence in English and Chinese as reflected in the test performance.

Keywords

error analysis, vocabulary learning, second language acquisition,

Role of Vocabulary in Language Learning, especially in second language learning

Undeniably, vocabulary is an essential part in language learning. It provides the content and the meaning of communication. It is the very basic unit of language that helps to generate ideas. However, despite its importance, vocabulary has not received sufficient attention that it deserves.

As highlighted by Richards (in Read 2000, p. 25), the nature of vocabulary learning is very complex which "involves a great deal more than just memorizing the meaning of a word." "Vocabulary ability" draws on the various types of "pragmatic knowledge" in the sense that "the social and cultural situation in which lexical terms are used significantly influence their meaning" (Read 2000, p. 29).

Why "Error Analysis"?

As pointed out by Corder (in Richards 1974, p. 25), the errors of a learner "provide evidence of the system of the language that he is using (i.e. has learned)" and "are significant in three different ways": the teacher (to assess the effectiveness of teaching), the researcher (to have evidence of language learning or acquisition), and the learner himself (about how he learns the language).

Definitions

According to Richards (1974, p. 173-178), errors may be divided into "interlanguage errors" (as caused by the interference of the learner's mother tongue) and "intralingual and developmental errors" (persistent and systematic errors) in terms of over-generalization, ignorance of rule restrictions, incomplete application of rules and false concepts hypothesized).

The Present Study

A group of tertiary language students who are all Chinese (with Chinese as their first language or L1 and English as their second language or L2) and studying in their second year for Associate of Arts in English for Professional Communication, were recruited to participate in a study of a bilingual (Chinese and English) glossary covering various important areas in our society, including accounting and finance, public affairs, public relations, and literature. It was hoped that through this study, some of the students' learning problems as reflected in their errors may be identified and also their effectiveness of learning the target vocabulary would be enhanced.

Design of the Study

In the pre-test (Test 1), the subjects were asked about the corresponding terms from English into Chinese and vice-versa. Then, they studied a given glossary list of the related terms immediately after the pre-test. They were not given the list so that they could not study it at home, and the amount of time spent on studying the list could be controlled.

During the post-test (Test 2) conducted two weeks later, most students showed improvement in their performance. They also found this to be a rewarding learning experience and that they were more aware of the different terms used in the two languages.

Hypotheses of the Study

1) The subjects would perform better in English to Chinese translation than vice versa.

2) Participants would have improvement from pre-test (Test 1) to post-test (Test 2).

For the actual content of the two tests, please refer to Appendix 1.

Findings and Discussions

In Test 1, out of 10 questions asked, the number of correct answers is 3.41 (an average of the 12 participants) and the number of incorrect answers is 6.59. Five of the participants got 3 correct answers.

In Test 2, out of 10 questions asked, the average number of correct answers is 4.5 and the number of incorrect answers is 5.5. Five of the participants got 5 correct answers. The improvement percentage is 31.58%.

In Test 1, for 10 participants, the correct answers are all from English to Chinese. Most of them answered the first 3 questions(1. *Simile* 明喻 2. *Mission* 使命/任務 3. *Education Bureau* 教育局) correctly. For the other two participants answered one Chinese to English question correctly. 95.12% of the correct answers are from English to Chinese, while 4.88% of the Correct Answers are from Chinese to English

In Test 2, most of the correct answers all the 12 participants are from English to Chinese. Most of them answered the first 3 questions (1. *Metaphor* 隱喻/暗喻 2. *Press Release* 新聞稿 3. *Labour Department* 勞工處) correctly.

However, all of them got one answer in the direction of Chinese to English question correct. 70.37% of the Correct Answers: from English to Chinese 29.63% of the Correct Answers: from Chinese to English.

Analysis of Results

From the results of Test 2, we can see that the participants, who are Chinese, are more familiar with the terms in Chinese i.e. they have more prior knowledge in the Chinese terms than the English ones. The questions that they answered correctly are general terms or terms used in literature or name of department which has close relationship with them (i.e. Education Bureau).

From the results of Test 2, we can see that the percentage of correct answers from Chinese to English has increased sharply from 4.88% to 29.63%. This shows that Chinese to English translation has to be learnt and that English (L2 of the participants) vocabulary has to be learnt by rote memory or some other methods.

In pointing out the percentage of correct answers, we wish to imply the related percentage of errors as they are two sides of the same coin. For more details about the errors, please refer to Appendix 3.

From the results of the 2 tests, we can see that they could answer the terms in literature/public relations/public affairs correctly but not the accounting/financial terms. This may be due to the fact they are language students, NOT business students. The proportion of their courses are related to language rather than business.

The students came on voluntary basis and this indicates that they were motivated. The use of traditional word lists with intentional focus (Arabski, 2006, p.175) is helpful as it highlights the practical nature of the vocabulary categories. Moreover, these are relevant to their studies, future career and daily life.

The hypotheses of the study have been clearly supported by the study. The 12 participants, who are all Chinese and Year 2 students of AA in English for Professional Communication, performed better in English to Chinese translation than vice versa. They had improvement from pre-test (Test 1) to post-test (Test 2).

Basically the errors made by the students are more related to the **deficit of knowledge** in either Language 1 (Chinese) or Language 2 (English), or both. In such cases, they were <u>unable to find the right mapping of the two terms in both languages</u>. For the ones that they could **partly recognize**, they might have been misled by making the wrong guesses. This might have ended up in the <u>mismatch</u> of these terms although sometimes they might be partially correct, but straightly speaking, there would be no such terms in either language. When some terms involve several words, the order of these words could be a challenge for some students, and they recalled the <u>wrong order</u> of these words. In some cases, the errors are more related to **wrong recognition or association of words** in terms of <u>spelling the English word</u> or <u>writing of the Chinese characters</u>. On top of these, there are some errors which could not be ascribed to a particular source of problem, such as possibly related to the internal condition of the subjects of being tired, forgetful or careless, or external factors like the test situation and exposure duration of the word lists and so on.

Conclusion and recommendations

It can be seen from the study that the interplay of external stimulus (in the form of useful added-value learning exercises in the form of specialized categories of word lists) and internal driving force (intrinsic motivation of learning more and excelling others if possible) is crucial. The participating students are well-motivated and have responded readily to the teacher's invitation to take part in the learning workshop.

While Test 1 may serve as the baseline (or learning threshold) of the subjects, Test 2 may serve as a measurement of students' performance after being given

time and help with the word lists for more exposure and rehearsal. The majority of the students were able to show clear improvement in Test 2 as compared to their results in Test 1. In general, the students performed better in English to Chinese translation than in Chinese to English. Hence, the two hypotheses have been supported.

The feedback from the participating students is also very positive and encouraging. In general, they find the activity educational and helpful, and most of them would be willing to take part in similar studies in the future. When asked what categories they would be interested, some suggested terms in new categories like legal, medical and psychological fields. Some expressed to add more terms to the existing categories, especially in literature, public relations, as well as accounting and finance. Some of them indicated that the word lists have helped to broaden their views and would like to have this more often if possible.

Since students are at the tertiary level, they have achieved quite advanced learning skills. Some expressed that mere more exposure of the related word lists would be sufficient to help them learn the related vocabulary. Moreover, some of them indicated that arranging the terms under different categories would be helpful for them to encode the new terms, as it might help them to associate the terms with the related field and help them to recall the terms more easily.

As for the types of errors, they are mainly related to the lack of exposure to certain terms, implying a deficit of the related knowledge or concept; inability to perceive challenging word order for terms with several words; partial recognition of some terms resulting in mismatches; wrong recognition or association of words as reflected in spelling (English) and writing (Chinese characters) errors. There are also other unspecified errors which may not be ascribed to particular causes such as subjects' internal conditions or the external test situations.

Pedagogical Implications

As suggested by Corder (1981, p. 45), "remedial action becomes necessary when we detect a mismatch or disparity between the knowledge, skill, or ability of someone and the demands that are made on him by the situation he finds himself in." From the analysis of the subjects' errors, it reveals that there may be some possible ways to overcome the errors or to reduce them. More exposure of students to the social or cultural contexts of the related terms in both languages would be helpful. Watching television programmes, especially in news and social affairs, would prepare the students to be more ready for learning the related terms. Reading newspapers and listening more to the related reports are also possible.

Practical exercise can be designed with a view to identify the word order and writing or spelling of the target terms. Furthermore, students may be encouraged to keep learning useful terms for their own benefits, as motivation plays a very important role in language learning.

Future research

For future directions of research, it is recommended that more categories of word lists can be developed to fit the changing needs and social demands. While word lists have been used as a common practice in learning vocabulary, they may be seen as having the advantage of clear-cut competence of knowing a term separately, but also the disadvantage of lacking a context which may be helpful for students' understanding of the term and how it is applied in real-life or meaningful situations.

It is suggested that in the future, the use of word lists with separate terms and also the same terms provided with a contextual can be compared, and see if it makes any difference with or without context for learning vocabulary.

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This paper is accompanyed by
a virtual presentation
at http://www.jolace.com/products/carrie-kam-hung-chau-irene-kwok-chun-ip-china-id-102-error-analysis-of-students-in-learning-vocabulary-1/

Appendices

Appendix 1 Test 1 and Test 2 Content

Test 1

(terms asked are in italics and answers are underlined)

1. *Simile*   明喻
2. *Mission*   使命/任務
3. *Education Bureau*   教育局
4. *turnover*   營業額
5. *profit after tax*   稅後溢利/利潤
6. *頭韻*   Alliteration
7. *企業慈善活動*   Corporate Philanthropy
8. *政務司司長*   Chief Secretary for Administration
9. *中期股息*   interim dividend
10. *市盈率*   Price/Earnings Ratio

Test 2

1. *Metaphor*   隱喻/暗喻
2. *Press Release*   新聞稿
3. *Labour Department*   勞工處
4. *divided per* share   每股派息
5. *cash and bank balances* 現金及銀行存款
6. *似非而是的說法*   Paradox
7. *傳媒關係*   Media Relations
8. *行政長官*   Chief Executive
9. *每股盈利*   earnings per share
10. *附屬公司*   subsidiary company/subsidiary

Appendix 2   Test 1 and test 2 Results

Test 1
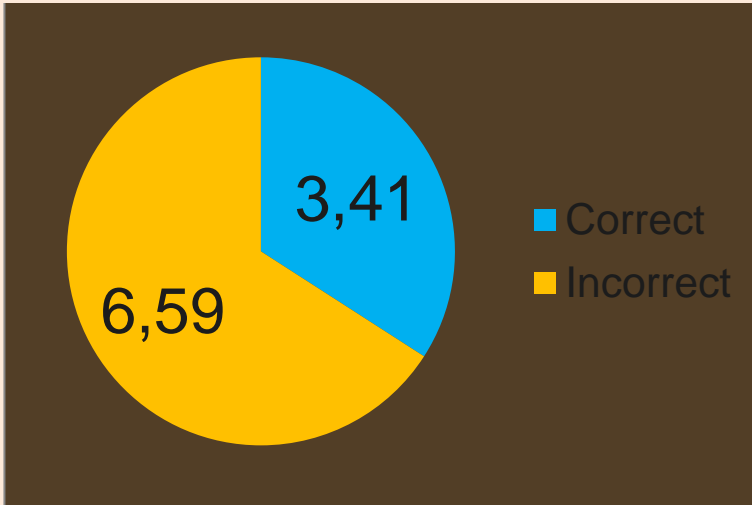
Test 2
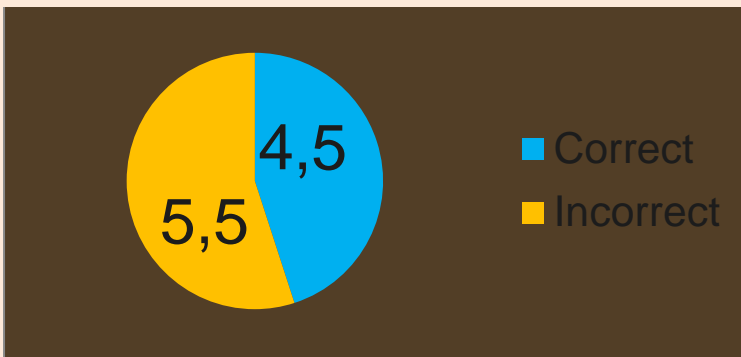
Test 1
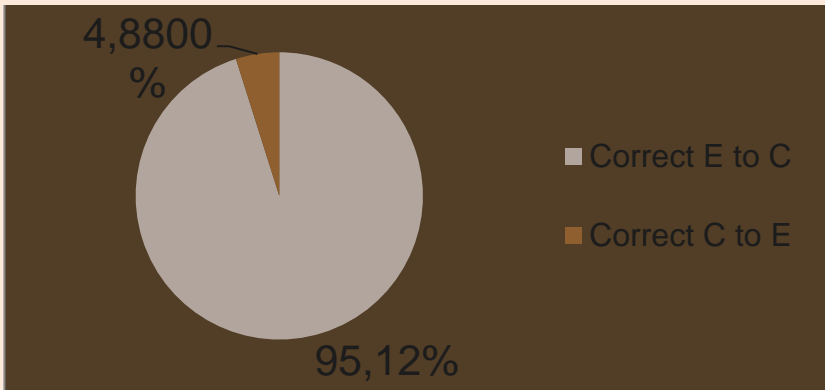
Test 2
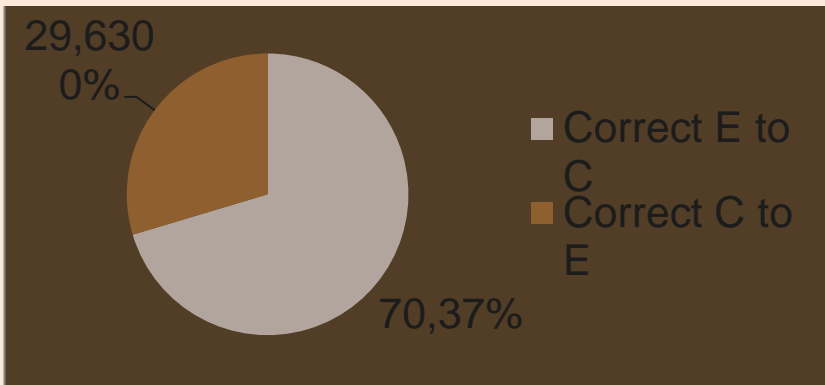
Appendix 3 More detailed information on students' errors

Test 1 (10 terms)
Literature   2 terms
Public Relations   2 terms
Public Affairs   2 terms
Accounting and Finance   4 terms

Literature
12 participants got 17 answers (out of 24 answers:12 participants x 2 terms) wrong – the prcentage of participants getting wrong answers in Literature terms is 70.83%
Example of error: 6.*頭韻*<u>Alliteration</u> → "head rhyme"

Public Relations
12 participants got 13 answers (out of 24 answers) wrong
– the percentage of participants getting wrong answers in Public Relations terms is 54.17%
Example of error: 7. 傳媒關係 <u>Media Relations</u> → "press relationship"

Public Affairs
12 participants got 13 answers (out of 24 answers) wrong
– the percentage of participants getting wrong answers in Public Affairs terms is 54.17%
Example of error: 3. Labour Department 勞工處 ⬚ "勞工署"

Accounting and Finance
12 participants got 44 answers (out of 48 answers) wrong
– the percentage of participants getting wrong answers in Accounting and Financial terms is 91.67%
Example of error: 9.*中期股息* <u>interim dividend</u> → "mid-term share profit"

Test 2 (10 terms)
Literature   2 terms
Public Relations   2 terms
Public Affairs   2 terms
Accounting and Finance   4 terms

Literature

12 participants got 13 answers (out of 24 answers) wrong

– the percentage of participants getting wrong answers in Literature terms is 54.17%

Public Relations

12 participants got 10 answers (out of 24 answers) wrong –

– the percentage of participants getting wrong answers in Public Relations terms is 41.67%

Public Affairs

 12 participants got 4 answers (out of 24 answers) wrong –

– the percentage of participants getting wrong answers in Public Affairs terms is 16.67%

Accounting and Finance

12 participants got 39 answers (out of 48 answers) wrong

– the percentage of participants getting wrong answers in Accounting and Financial terms is 81.25%

Teaching global English to overseas students

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Abstract

Teaching English as a Global Language (EGL) definitely is a challenge. The assertion assumes the introduction into the process of FLE (foreign language education) the forms of FL internalization clearly facilitating the process of teaching English as a global language (instead of assuming that this is only a variant of standardized ELT/ELL). One of the issues worth considering in this instance is the way the concept of teacher language awareness (TLA) introduced by Andrews [2007] can be observed from the perspective of EGL deliverance. The paper discusses the very idea of English as a global language, the reasons and the necessities of its research as well as possible changes to be introduced into the school syllabi when the perspective of teaching a foreign language has been shifted into the one of teaching a functional language. While accepting the currently existing message-production status quo, the paper offers a number of points-to-consider (mostly based on the researches carried out by House [2002] and Knapp [2002]) aimed at helping overseas learners become more productive message producers. Finally, assuming that teaching EGL ought to be different than the standardized forms of teaching EFL, the paper suggests a number of issues (such as the self-centered hypothesis, for example) to be possibly taken into account by any average native/non-native English teacher and, subsequently, included into the comprehensible language teaching plans of which they are the authors.

Key words

EFL, EGL, TLA, PCK, functional language, language teaching syllabus, motivation, subject-matter cognitions, self-centered hypothesis, attitude, belief, Byram's resultative and motivational hypothesis

1.   General assumptions

It goes without saying that English has become a world language. It is generally used as the language of world communication and in many situations is it difficult to imagine not using English as a means of transfer of any whatsoever subjectively important piece of knowledge at the nation-above level. Historically, the reasons for the current status quo of the language can be traced in the past, in the whole post-war history of the world development, that is, in the moments the world – due to a number of inventions, such as radio, television and (especially) the Internet - has shrunk into a subjectively and objectively perceived, clearly

visible and cognitively comprehended village (using the famous remark offered by M. McLuhan in: Stearn, 1986, p. 314).

It is in that period of time when the US, one of the victorious allies of the anti-Nazi coalition, has begun to build its economic and political domination in the world; it is also at that period of time when the language used by a great number of American politicians and economists has become one of the most easily recognized elements of help offered to the war-crushed nations and countries. The transmission of the information concerning many of the issues of the economic development and reconstruction of the countries, in case any of them were to be effectively used for the said reconstruction purposes was possible to be carried out in two ways: directly (i.e. by the people who were able to understand the contents of such instructions, so as to later implement them in practice) or indirectly (i.e. by means of having all the issues translated into the vernacular language of the addresses). As the first of the two options clearly appears to be not only far less complicated, but also much (economically) cheaper, it explains many of the reasons for the sudden growth of popularity of the language in the world.

Such a situation resulted in an unprecedented thirst of knowledge; suddenly, people became aware of the fact that the more they know, the better decisions they can take. This growth in human education was paralleled with human understanding of the importance of its correct processing and retrieval in case of possible re-use; the importance of cognition in the process of gaining the necessary knowledge, the salience of the application of various mental activities during human conscious involvement in many decision-making processes appeared to shift human attention on the instruments used during the transfer of information, i.e. the language. It was found out that as what generally matters in the world culture is the quality of the message, the language used during the process of such message transmission should be exact, structurally not very complicated, predominantly to-the-point and able to provide a large margin in the transmission of various types of information.

Miraculously, it suddenly appeared that English might be a language fulfilling such expectations to some extent. It was found out (cf. Stradiotova, 2010; Crystal, 1995) that English is a language which, due to its seemingly not very complicated structure, might be the language duly fulfilling the expectations of many of the proponents of the application of the language to be recognized, as this means of message transmission which both best secures and fulfills the interests of message emitters and receivers. Numerous researches carried out worldwide to discover these qualities of English which might nominate it to be the language duly exemplifying the interests of the world culture, revealed that the inherent

qualities of the language, up to a point, show its structural difference from some other European languages (cf. Thornbury, 2004; Harmer, 2003; Close, 1979) as well as relative simplicity in the production of messages (cf. Crystal, 2002; Hakuta, 1986; Fries, 1973). However, at the same time, it was stressed that English, being an agglutinative language to a large extent (Millward, 1989), requires a totally new approach which has to be developed in any language user in case they would like to apply the language for the purposes of unrestrained message production. Numerous researches carried out showed that the structure of the language is not to be easily mapped upon the structures of many other European (and not only) languages and that one needs to develop a special structural approach to be fully able to adjust their ways of reasoning to the ones expected in English (cf. House, 2006).

In this way, on the one hand, it was confirmed that the inherent structure of the language may be recognized as grammatically-friendly to its users (as it doesn't possess the traditional division into cases and one of its characteristic features is an easy-to-understand construction of a clause and/or a statement); on the other, however, it was also indicated that both the semantic and the pragmatic aspects of the language are largely dependent upon the configuration of words to be found in clauses, sentences or paragraphs. In practice, that meant that potential users of the language have to be aware of the existence of many structurally-dependent linguistic traps, which might overturn the intended meaning because of the inaccurate word order construction of a statement. In this way, the assumption of the relative simplicity of the language was to be questioned (cf. Pinker, 1994) and an approach (based upon the hypothesis of language relativity, offered by Sapir & Whorf, 1956[2002]) that any language has got its ups and downs ought to be generally accepted instead. Such a stance resulted in the appearance of a wish to elaborate (for obvious reasons), as well as to test (both empirically and with evident amount of success), a system of learning English that would be effective enough (one the one hand) and not too time-consuming (on the other).

2.   Current approaches to teaching/learning EFL

Following the general estimations, the process of teaching/learning a non-native language has to be based upon a thoroughly elaborated plan where the pupils' exposition onto the live language to be learned by them has to be artfully balanced with the appropriately prepared segments of information of structural/lexical/functional nature. Teachers are generally recommended to remember about the methods, as well as to possibly elaborate their own understanding of the recommended approaches to the technical processing of –

what is called - the teaching business. It is not only Ur (2007), or Harmer (2003), but also many other scholars dealing with linguistic and/or glottodidactic activities try to explain the many problems a FL (English) teacher may face. Information, such as how to effectively deliver a language in the language classroom, how to be able to notice the learners' expectations during a language lesson, or how to manage a language classroom so that the learners become its active participants are definitely of utmost importance to anybody wishing to decently perform the demanding profession of a language teacher. Anthony (1963), as well as Richards and Rogers (1986[2001]), who not only modified the ideas offered by Anthony, but also outlined a different perspective for the very act of FL education made an attempt to stress the (direct and indirect) importance of ordered (and well-organized) teaching/learning process. Kumaravadivelu (2006), in his seminal book on the Post-Method, indicated that FLE was never to be fully limited to and dependent on the prescriptions offered by the existing methods, but that the teaching process ought to fully rest on the teacher's shoulders who had been nominated the sole organizer of the whole process of language deliverance, in this way agreeing for the practices of mixing various language teaching methods if only the final outcome were to be the growth of language competence of the learners. Such suggestions, aiming at the facilitation as well as better (and smoother) organization of the process of FLE were expected to help the learners become not only more involved participants of the language lessons, but also more competent users of the whole message production business. It was found out that the very process of FL (English) education, when squeezed down to the practices based on continual repetition of the structural rules found in a language appears to be inefficient as the learners became competent applicants of the language rules instead of becoming fluent language speakers; likewise, it was also discovered that thoughtless and not always well organized, routine-based work focused on the practice of the skill of speaking resulted in the pupils' "parrotization" (Chomsky in: Lyons, 1978) as, despite their efforts, they still were not able to produce the statements they really wished to.

All these approaches, while not being able to offer a miraculous magic wand giving FL learners a way to fast and easy internalization of the new language, still helped a lot in the scholars' attempts to outline the psychological silhouette of a language learner. It was found out that what really matters in the language learning process is the rate of learners' involvement in the learning activities; in this way, it was proposed (cf. Harmer, 2003; Andrews, 2007; Ur, 2007; Thornbury, 2008) that the focus was to be put on the learner. What suddenly began to matter was the students' decisions as to what form and type of

language, as well as with what rate of involvement they were willing to deal with (cf. Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Robinson, 1991; Basturkmen, 2008; Veselá, 2012). Apart from that, it was also found out that language learners, when poorly motivated, are not always able to produce such a language-promoting attitude that would either never let them forget about the reasons which actually had pushed them towards taking up a decisions to learn the new language, or facilitate the growth of such a voluntary pro-language learning conclusion in them.

The position of a language learner in the moment s/he begins studying (discovering) the new language, suddenly appeared to become a research topic so fascinating and time-consuming that, as a result, many aspects connected with her/his internal (mostly), but also external, attitude and approach were not only revealed, but also evidenced.

While analyzing the mutual position of both the teacher and the learner during a language lesson it was found out that it is mostly the teacher who possesses some amount of the didactic and pedagogical knowledge, possibly useful in the process of FL education; as far as the learners are concerned, it was discovered that there exist at least two different categories of them: the ones that are quite aware of what they want to obtain during the process of FL schooling; and the ones that consider a FL(English) lesson as a lesson, where it is only its contents what differentiate it from other lessons. As it is the teachers who are the 'givers', and the learners who are the 'receivers', if a language lesson were to resemble the process found in an act of communication (where, similarly, a message editor edits it for the purposes of mutual exchange of the information with the message receiver), such a lesson has not only to be well-organized, but also match the expectations subconsciously formed by the learners. In other words, the processes of perlocution, locution and illocution (proposed by Austin, 1962) have to be finely adjusted to the proportions of the classroom presentations. Anything planned to be presented in the classroom (perlocution) has not only to be presented (locution) because of some obvious reasons (illocution), but also in such a way that the learners were, first, able to grasp the sense of this presentation and, second, accept it. This appears to be one of the basic golden rules of mutual classroom cooperation that may count for the language learners' acceptance and/or approval (cf. Feuerstein, 1981). Additionally, such an approach may expect success in the FL learners' attitude to the lessons they are about to take part in.

The process of attitude shaping of FL (English) learners usually rests upon a number of pretty delicate sensors, many of them deeply ingrained in the learners' sub-consciousness. In dependence on where the process of FL (English) learning

takes place (cf. Schumann, 1976), the learners are more or less aware of the necessity of learning the language. If the expositional force of the language is evident, the learners become more aware of the fact they have to learn a foreign language; however, in case such an expositional force weakens, the learners become less aware of their obligations. In this way, following Schumann's estimations (1976, 139), the learners learning a FL (English) in the artificial conditions will be [moderately] weakly exposed to the language they are expected to learn, what means they would have to be additionally motivated by the teacher. As it seems, both the learners' attitude to the learning process and their motivation to decently perform their classroom obligations will become a dependent variable resulting from their understanding of the necessity of knowing the language. The clearer this picture has been formed in the learners' minds, the higher is their level of pro-language motivation; the more aware they are of the fact they should become competent language users, the more positive pro-language attitude has been formed in them.

Byram's (2004) resultative and motivational hypothesis seems to function as a strong evidence to back a supposition that the learners' success is an aggregate of their attitudes and beliefs towards a given FL learning process. Following Byram (2004, p. 53) it is assumed that the learners' success in a foreign language results from their attitude towards "the language, country and people". While explaining this hypothesis, Byram indicates that such a positive attitude has to be effectively shaped in FL learners or else its evident deterioration can be observed. One of the reasons illustrating the negative changes to possibly occur in the FL (English) learners' attitudes is his claim that plenty of course-book exercises are fully devoid of any whatsoever piece of information on the target language (TL) culture. When FL learners are to deal with such structures "(…) bereft of the target language culture", many of them are willing to consider them as similar to mathematical equations. It is in this moment when short-termed attitudes, stemming from a wish to obtain a relatively good grade for the work done prevail and the learners lose the larger perspective of language competence, effectively dimmed by a wish to perform well here and now. It is also worth remarking in this moment that the language expositional potential of such learners has been largely limited to getting in touch with the exercises and their pro-language perspective was shifted from the one of knowing the language to the one of knowing an element of the language right away.

This is also where the second element of the hypothesis can be seen. It is believed that the learners' attitudes result from their beliefs (which may be short- or long-termed) as to the final success in the process of FL (English) learning. In the case their attitudes can be described as "stable of, motive-like

constructs" (Byram, 2004, p. 55) their motivational orientations may be of either instrumental or integrative type. The former orientation invariably indicates the learners' concern of the final grade (and thus becoming professionally skilful, similarly to their achievements in some other school subjects); the latter, however, assumes the existence of the learners' interest in the language, understood as the most evident illustration of the cultures it embodies (Kramsh, 1998, p. 3). In this way, their second orientation must entail the learners' involvement in the process of FL (English) discovery understood as a larger and broader contact with the language learned by them (what actually means the appearance of more language-aware learners).

Ellis (2008, p. 287) claims that FL learners' attitudes are shaped by their beliefs towards the target language speakers and culture, as well as the average importance of the necessity of future TL application in the moment they are expected to use it, still being the inhabitants of their own (i.e. native) culture. An assertion like this one more time illustrates the way a FL (English) attitude is shaped in the learners' minds; additionally, this is where one can learn that it is the learners themselves who are primarily fully responsible for the formation of the internal picture illustrating the relative necessity/importance of the language they are about to learn. But a claim like that must also indicate the position of a person providing the learners with all the language-connected information. This is where the notion of functional language can be placed.

Quite a different issue, although clearly relative to those of the learners' attitudes and of functional language, can be formed by the notion of beliefs. Up to a point, such a stance emerges from possible profits language learners may gain after they have satisfactorily completed certain amount of language-connected work. In case the learners mastered a FL because of their wish to be successfully incorporated into the TL society (functioning on the position of immigrants, for example), the relative strength of such a belief is approximately high and many of such learners are not only willing, but also able to work hard to attain final success (cf. Acton & Walker de Felix, 1995, p. 20-22). Additional information in that matter can be found in a well-known research done by Acton (1979), aiming at the estimation of a perfect second (other) language learner, which proves that the sociological attitude (shaped by the learners' beliefs) cannot be totally disregarded. While placing the ideal FL learner exactly in the middle between the relative influence of both SL and TL cultures, Acton showed that any of the two prevailing influences may dim the other perspective and, in this way, slow down the process of the learner's growth of a FL potential.

Naturally, the process of growth of one's FL potential can be stimulated (both negatively and positively) in a number of different ways. Thus, the learners'

attitude to the very process of language learning ceases to be focused on their growth of the FL competence, having been invariably projected upon the grades received for such work (cf. Lamb, 2004; Sarason & Sarason, 1990; Haraczkiewicz, Manderlink & Sansone, 1984). Additionally, Vallerand and Reid (1984) showed clear interdependence between the grades and the learners' levels of motivation in respect to their level of satisfaction form the grades received by them, stating that the learners' motivation clearly gets down when the grade received approximates their beliefs as to the actual level of competence held by them.

An approach like this is not always accompanied by the one found in teachers; and even if it assists (up to a point, at least) the attitudes revealed by the learners, it is often pretty selective, primarily focusing upon certain points, subjectively assessed as more important. Numerous material consolidations carried out by teachers (mostly the ones who closely follow the course-books) are very often limited to the material covered by the nearest unit and hardly ever cover larger portions of the material. Grolnick and Ryan (1987) explicitly showed that such an approach appears to be detrimental to the all-over process of FL internalization, as it may inform the students that the material learned earlier, after it was positively assessed by the teacher, clearly loses in its relative importance in respect to general positive grade achievement ratio, what results in its forgetting. The results of this research show that the learners' attitude to the language material, as well as their average motivation to its mastering, are evidently shaped by the, often unsaid, teachers' behavior and that too obvious splitting of the material to be delivered to the learners results in evident lowering of their pro-language motivation (and, in this way, slower growth of the FL potential).

3.   English as a Lingua Franca (LFE) – the approach and the actual estimations

While making an attempt to grasp the idea of Lingua Franca English (LFE), as well as to fathom the reasons of its growing popularity, one has to look at the whole problem both from the point of view offered by the history of language development and the movements one is currently able to observe. It is glotto-philosophy which seems to offer an answer concerning the reasons of a language development; it is the current social situation observed in Europe (but not only there) which also explains the necessity of existence of such a language variant as LFE.

By now at least two points seem to be certain. The first one concerns the current status of LFE (cf. Hülmbauer et al., 2008, p. 28); the second one focuses upon the fact that it has to be recognized as a functional language.

Following Polok's research (2013, p. 127) the nature (and the status) of LFE has been defined as exonormatively oriented; it means that LFE, despite the fact the number of LFE users far exceeds the one of 'regular' English producers still cannot be recognized as an independent language, let alone its dialectal forms (just as American English is), but is to be recognized as a societal phenomenon. In order for a language to be defined as a dialectal form, some of the features of endonormative language have to be evidenced (such as, for example, the ability to produce inherent norms of use to be observed in it, in contrast to norm-depending forms of linguistic activity to be observed in case of exonormative orientation). As stated above, so far none of the endonormative activity of LFE in any of the linguistic forms of activity has been observed.

The issue of its functionality is to be tackled with care. First of all, a definition of a functional language has to be analyzed; second, the features of such a language have to be found; and third, right after discovering whether such a label of functional language can be stuck to LFE, it is necessary to find out if this form of language is duly delivered to school pupils. The basis for such a behavior appears to be clear enough; if it is school pupils who are supposed to use a global language for the purposes of international communication, what remains is to find out whether the characteristic features attributed to a functional language are correctly practiced with its future users. In other words, one has to learn whether the pragmatic (mostly) aspects of an act of communication are being paid attention to during lessons as well as whether language teachers, not only know what pragmatic aspects are characteristic for an act of functional communication, but also are able to effectively introduce them to the learners.

While making an attempt to define what a functional language may be, one may apply a less or more complicated definition. Basing upon a simpler one, such 'functional language' may be labelled to be the language applied to perform various linguistic functions, such as producing orders, apologies, requests, promises and so on. But definitely, such a definition turns the learner's attention towards language in general (as any language is predisposed to perform such functions). It seems, therefore, necessary to focus upon certain linguistic features that can be approached from the point of view of language simplicity, especially when assessed as some flexible instrument used for fast message-production. It is there where a technical definition used in language program-ming may be of help. Definitely, not getting into the detail, one may define a functional language to be a language allowing for the production of semantically valid messages with the help of the smallest number of possible linguistic instruments. Secondly, the implementation of such instruments ought to match the lowest possible level of generality and abstraction. And third, last but not least, the possible (and easily-

learned) operations of semantically valid forms of linguistic processing should be as uncomplicated as possible. It is here were relative simplicity of world languages is to matter. It also seems here where the semantic instruments used for message production in English have to be carefully analyzed from the perspective of the language pragmatic possibilities.

The research carried out by House (2002) offers a couple of conclusions that have to be taken into account at least. The research itself appears to be most extremely educationally salient but, mostly for the purposes of textual scarcity, only a few of the conclusions will be presented here.

The first and, by far, the most important observation is a tendency of following along the "monologic tracks" (i.e. avoidance of interaction) by non-native users of LFE. While taking part in a conversation, the research participants tried to say whatever they wished to inform the other inter-actants about, not revealing any inclination to co-operate. This observation induced House to support and re-formulate the Self-Centered Hypothesis, formed earlier by her (House, 1999), assuming that LFE inter-actants tend to prefer concentrating on their own ideas rather than sharing the solution of the problem with other talk participants. However, this behavior appeared to be shared with a form of "marked solidarity" with all the remaining talk co-actants, always ready to help each other overcome visible verbal difficulties. As it seems, the feature aimed at the discovery of the [local] meaning has been spread onto all the talk participants and the negotiations to fix the actual meaning of the idea have become one of the most salient features of such a form of message exchange[3]. What is more, the inter-actants did not make an attempt to apply any preparatory strategies, which are normally observed in acts of turn-taking, such as "*I'm sorry to say so but…*" , or even "*I must say that…*". Instead, the very content of the message was produced, with an effort to make as clear as possible that the co-actant agrees (or disagrees) with the opinion just heard. Such an approach means that the generally elaborated conversational "rules of elegance" have been recognized as redundant and removed by them. What remained is the crude main body of the message without any whatsoever additional verbal ornaments.

Another evident feature found by House while analyzing LFE talks was the "Let-It-Pass Principle", that is the visible co-actants' behavior of being not fully interested in the final verbalization of a concept in the moment they were able to

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[3] This, clearly observed, contradictory controversy can be explained on the grounds of argumentative vs. social forms of message presentation. The evident will to help others verbalize a concept clearly enough results from the sociolinguistic rules (such a paying attention to comprehensible presentations of individual statements) rather than the inter-actants' flexibility about the clarification of the global notions. In this respect talk co-actants still preferred pursuing their own ways of argumentation.

grasp it skin-deep. This evidently face-saving activity (in the sense of Goffman, 1967, p. 5) may result from the talk participants' will to concentrate on some more important, in their opinion, issues such as letting the talk go or optimistically hoping that the issue, albeit not clearly presented, will somehow be encoded by the other talk participants and accepted by them as understood. This form of verbal behavior appeared to be applied so often by the talk participants that it has to be recognized as one of the characteristic features of LFE. Such a form of behavior lets the talk participants omit various possible misunderstandings based on culture-related differences, as well as accept evident differences in meaning that may result from native-culture item/concept verbalizations. Additionally, this procedure indicates that LFE talk participants tend to concentrate on these language features which appear to be far more important to them, i.e. the transfer of the general meaning of a concept rather than focusing over some required form of verbal correctness.

Finally, the issues of assumed culture relevance have to be recognized. Despite the claim that any language is to be recognized as culture-oriented, no such attempts have been discovered in the talks of the research participants. What could have been found out were their attempts to be understood despite all possibly amounting problems. The co-actants primarily tended to concentrate upon the production of the expressions illustrating their threads of thought as clearly as possible (in case of a failure they could usually count on their partners' help), thus making an attempt to apply mostly these expressions of which they hoped to be recognized as unmistakable message carriers by other talk participants. Such an approach may indicate that it is the learners' monitor (i.e. these expressions that have been duly internalized by them) that orders them to select only such [more popular] phrases which have been expected to be known by other talk participants.

The whole process of talk has been constructed in a special way; the talk participants tend to focus upon more commonly used expressions, not paying too much attention to their actual grammatical shapes, while concentrating upon the aspects of meaning transfer first of all. In this way, the very process of making use of the meaning-transferring language has been squeezed down to the application of the most necessary linguistic elements, such as the production of the most popular phrases of which the talk participants were fully aware. Their care concerning the production of the message contents was limited to these elements which might (up to a point) secure not committing a mistake when selecting the phrases illustrating their threads of thought.

4. The practice of teaching/learning contemporary English as a functional language

The research descriptions presented above allow us to indicate possible forms of educational behavior in respect of teaching/learning a FL. At the same time it is possible to abolish certain myths so far existing in the process if FL teaching. Assuming that LFE is this form of English language course participants expect to receive the issue of the language functionality has to prevail. It is these segments of the language which have to be paid attention to first of all. In this way, it is not the aspects of the language culture roots, nor even these concerning correctness of the language grammatical constructions which have to be focused upon first of all, but the ones focusing upon the production of meaning. The issues of language pragmatics, so far effectively hidden behind the demands of careful teaching of the grammatical constructs, appear to be the most salient ones for the LFE users. Apart from that, teaching the so-called literary language seems to be a relatively less relevant. Using the taxonomy used by Cummins (2001, p. 43), what LFE users need first of all are BICS, not CALP. In other words, having approximately mastered BICS (i.e. being able to make use of a number of generally commonly used English expressions/phrases), LFE users are able to produce their messages at the level recognized as appropriately meaningful by most of non-native message receivers.

Such an approach means that the insertions found in CEFR urgently need their more exact definitions. Not every English teacher remembers what has been hidden under the CEFR indications and even if they know that each of the respective letters indicates a language level of competence of their learners, the descriptions of what has to be attained by them when participating in the process of language discovery does not seem to be very clear. In most cases the learners are requested to concentrate upon the grammatical problems, whereas a hope that they will discover the pragmatic aspects of the process of communication to be observed in English themselves remains a form of unsaid wishful thinking. In case one wanted to deliver so-called functional language to the learners, one should focus upon these linguistic elements which duly indicate their functionality in the pragmatically-assessed process of message production. In other words, one should be able to recognize the communicative (i.e. functional) functions of language rather than the structural ones. Requesting the learners to concentrate upon the structural aspects of a language (what seems to be daily practice in many state schools) leaves many of the learners unprepared to face the demands of everyday message production.

As the process of learning anything (language learning included) is based upon the cognitive involvement of a learner in an educational activity, the issues

of psychological analysis of such a process must not be overlooked. This is where careful analysis of the theory of subjective and objective self-awareness (cf. Duval & Wicklund, 1972) can be of help. Briefly speaking, humans are not just robots, unable to recognize what they need, but animate creatures ready to assume an approach towards everything they do. From this point of view, they are able to recognize their general needs in the moment they have made up their minds to start doing a planned activity. If they wish to learn a foreign language they would primarily like to discover the final ways of its application (i.e. how to use it for the purposes of meaningful message production). As they are not able to find out how difficult a process it is (this is where their objective self-awareness is at work), they start getting more and more annoyed, as they keep making use of the language still not being able to convince themselves that they can produce their messages the way they would like to (this is where their subjective self-awareness appears). In other words, the more subjectively self-aware they become, the more difficult the process of the language general recognition becomes for them. As the usual process of language learning effected in schools mostly focuses on the recognition of its structural elements, the learners believe that this is the way to their linguistic mastery. Additionally, the process of school language education makes an attempt to introduce many of the CALP aspects to the learners, focusing on the writing-based techniques of language deliverance (in many schools strictly following various language handbooks the learners are requested to write rather than to speak). When one takes into account that the very process of FL education is delivered within a strictly defined amount of time, there is not enough time to let the learners "befriend" themselves with the particular pragmatic techniques observed within the FL language learned by them. In other words, the functional aspects of the language appear to be slightly left loose, with the primary stress to be placed upon the practice of its structural side, the learning of the lexemes included (cf. the research carried out by Long and Robinson (1998) in that matter). House (2002, 263-4) concludes her seminal paper with the following words: "*The overall aim of the planned [LFE] course is then to heighten students' sensitivity to others' communicative needs and to enable them to formulate their own questions and reply appropriately to questions posed by others, to realize their own communicative intentions in a less superficial manner, and to reach a deeper understanding of others' communicative intentions.*" It seems a matter of careful analysis of an average EFL course delivered in many state schools to discover how many of the remarks postulated by her are really introduced during the students' classroom contacts with English; it is also a matter of equally careful analysis to find out how far the activities observed there match the expected levels of language fluency postulated by CEFR.

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The comprehension, use and perception of selected ambiguous English expressions by Polish subjects

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Abstract

The objective of my presentation will be both a theoretical and an empirical elaboration on the notion of ambiguity in English and how this rather intriguing, but on the other hand, misleading aspect of English is used and comprehended by Polish subjects. The subjects will represent different proficiency groups ranging from 1st year to 3rd year English Philology students deriving from different universities. Students will be requested to explain the instances of ambiguity during a test instrument administered to them for the needs of a research study.

Ambiguity as such is divided into lexical ambiguity and syntactic ambiguity. Let us quote some of many selected instances to be given to clarify during the student`s test instrument.

Lexical ambiguity:

- the word "bank" has several distinct lexical definitions, including "financial institution" and "edge of a river". Another example is as in "apothecary". One could say "I bought herbs from the apothecary". This could mean one actually spoke to the apothecary (pharmacist) or went to the apothecary (pharmacy).

Syntactic ambiguity:

- "He ate the cookies on the couch", for example, could mean that he ate those cookies that were on the couch (as opposed to those that were on the table), or it could mean that he was sitting on the couch when he ate the cookies.

It is believed that the sufficient number of instances of both kinds of ambiguity perceived appropriately or erroneously by Polish subjects, supported by relevant theoretical assumptions will provoke lots of fruitful scientific discussions concerning this intriguing aspect of a foreign language.

Key words

ambiguity, lexical ambiguity, syntactic ambiguity

1. Introduction

Throughout the years there has been much study concerning linguistic ambiguity, its value and properties. Many scholars took their interest in this subject and therefore there are as many definitions as we can think of and all of them have common features. For instance according to the dictionaries available on the Internet ambiguity is:

1. *the state of being difficult to understand or explain because of involving many different aspects (*Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary, 15.01.2014)
2. *an unclear, indefinite, or equivocal word, expression, meaning, etc.: a contract free of ambiguities; the ambiguities of modern poetry.(*Dictionary.com, 16.02.2014*)*
3. *the state of being unclear, confusing, or not certain (*Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, 25.03.2014)
4. *(an example of) when something has more than one possible meaning and may therefore cause confusion (Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary, 18.01.2014).*

"Ambiguity is uncertainty among specific alternatives. A word in context can mean more than the isolated word; and can also mean less than the isolated word - more, because in context the word acquires new context and, at the same time, less, because the word is delimited by that context" claims Conway (2002, p. 5).

However, all these explanations provide a rather negative approach to the phenomena of ambiguity whereas in the linguistic field it is perceived not only as unavoidable but also necessary and wanted. As Lyons states "Ambiguity is commonly described by philosophers and linguists as if it were of its nature pathological- something which gets in the way of clarity and precision. This is a highly prejudiced and unbalanced view of the matter. Not only is it frequently, and erroneously, associated with the view that all sentences have precise and determinate meanings; it is based on the equally erroneous assumption that clarity and the avoidance of vagueness and equivocation are always desirable, regardless of genre, style and context".

This statement is similarly considered by William Empson who explores ambiguity in seven different dimensions. He claims that "an ambiguity, in ordinary speech, means something very pronounced, and as a rule witty or deceitful". It is comprehensible that ambiguity is valued mostly by linguists as other professions make it simply impossible to contemplate on the possible meanings of utterances. Therefore even in technological applications of linguistics ambiguity seems to be dysfunctional (Gibbon, 2010).

Kaplan also describes this case as follows: "Ambiguity is the common cold of the pathology of language. The logician recognizes the equivocation as a frequent source of fallacious reasoning. The student of propaganda and public opinion sees in ambiguity an enormous obstacle to successful communication. Even the sciences are not altogether free of verbalistic disputes that turn on confused multiple meaning of key terms".

This might be the result of the amount of effort for communicating faster than in the past which makes people reluctant to rethink what they want to say or wonder about possible meanings of someone else's statement. That is also the reason why people are so easily offended these days. Almost any sentence can be ambiguous under sufficient circumstances and it is not difficult to overlook the original thought. Lyons explains:

"From time to time, however, we are made aware of such ambiguities, precisely because our contextual beliefs and assumptions differ from those of our interlocutors. We may then either fail to understand what they are saying, hesitating between alternative interpretations, or misunderstand their utterances by taking them in the wrong sense".

Luckily there are linguists and grammarians who are willing to study this phenomenon as it is of high interest in the case of meaningfulness and understanding. It is also believed that the most sophisticated quips derive from linguistic ambiguity which is followed by a common belief that the sense of humour is an indicator of one's intelligence. It comes from understanding the true, often hidden, meaning of many language puns.

Ambiguity can be found on many levels of discourse such as speech and communication, written language (which divides into sentences for grammatical purposes and literature with wider context) and psychological complexity. In the literary sense it has been studied by Empson. He presents this phenomenon in 'an extended sense' which includes seven distinctions that are:

1.   The aspect is effective in many ways at the same time (a metaphor, a conceit, ambiguity of a rhythm and dramatic irony)
2.   Two or more meanings resolved into one (two metaphors, grammatical ambiguity)
3.   Ideas combined through context in one word, puns
4.   Two or more different meanings in one word signal complexity
5.   Ambiguity in writing, 'a fortunate confusion'
6.   Ambiguity in reading (not always intended by author)
7.   Indecisiveness (an antagonism in the author's mind).

Following Empson in his study Gibbon proposes even more intriguing classification of the Empson's seven types. He assigns them to three major categories which are: beauty, power and understanding. The first two are put in beauty, which 'is taken to refer to a positive experience shared by poet and reader'. The three to five points are in the power, which 'is taken to be a form of manipulation of the reader by the poet. The remaining two belong to 'the semantic category of understanding [which] refers to the sharing of meaning by

poet or reader, and its antithesis misunderstanding (by either poet or reader or both) relates to the structural linguistic concept of ambiguity as a mishap of language'. "The assignments are tendencies, not hard and fast unique assignments, and are perhaps best thought of as dimensions of effect, or in speech act terms perlocutions, which all ambiguities may possess to a great or lesser degree" (Gibbon, 2010).

Following those quoted scholars we accept that linguistically ambiguous sentence or phrase is not only something uneasy to understand. Moreover, it does not always have to be made unconsciously or by mistake. It may be an utterance that has been intentionally created this way to convey two or more meanings, not so rarely, the humorous or witty one for instance, as J. Lyons illustrates: *"(…)humourists and comedians deliberately set up the context in such a way that their audience will unconsciously assign one interpretation to an utterance-inscription and then, in the so-called punch-line, suddenly reveal to them, more or less indirectly, that they have been led up the garden path."* Lyons thus takes 'a rather hackneyed example' of two sentences:
(1) Three strong girls went for a tramp,
Which is followed by a brief pause and continued with
(2) The tramp died.

The audience is 'led by the garden path' which in this case would be the sense of 'go for a tramp' as simply 'go for a walk, ride or swim'. In other words 'the garden path' is the immediate, obvious meaning that strikes the listener but surprisingly that appears not to be the right one and the pun is created.

Another thing that has been brought up by Empson is whether all phrases that seem to be, really are ambiguous. Following him on this matter we would have to include as thereof only grammatical structures or words that convey two distinctive meanings at the same time. (Empson,1930:2). Although these as well are his words: "in a sufficiently extended sense any prose statement could be called ambiguous".

This issue is also described by Smith: *"Linguists thrive on ambiguity, using it as in the case of 'Flying planes can be dangerous'- as a first indication of hidden structural differences. In contrast, 'When did John decide which car to fix?', illustrates a surprising lack of ambiguity. 'John decided to fix the car on Saturday' is ambiguous: he may have decided on Saturday to fix the car some time or other, or he may have decided some time or other to fix the car on Saturday. The corresponding question 'When did John decide to fix the car?' has exactly the same ambiguity".* Provided with these examples a reader would probably expect the sentence to acquire the same two meanings, but it does not. It has only one

interpretation where 'when' is constructed solely with 'decide', not with 'fix'; that is 'when did he make his decision?'. It may seem difficult but after a careful study of the sentences it clarifies itself. Studying such a broader subject is inevitably time consuming but also rewarding and fascinating. For instance, even the phrase 'colourless green ideas sleep furiously' is ambiguous as it could be given many different meanings such as 'uninspiring ecological proposals generate hot air'. (Gibbon, 2010, p. 34).

Ambiguity is created by several different grammatical processes which hence are distinguished as types of ambiguity. Therefore we have:

I.   Lexical ambiguity
II. Syntactic ambiguity (class and attachment ambiguity)
III. Referential ambiguity
IV. Phonological ambiguity.

It is claimed *"that syntactic ambiguity resolution can be interpreted as a form of lexical ambiguity resolution"* (Bucaria, 2004).

Similarly Trueswell states that: *"the resolution of a traditional syntactic ambiguity, the reduced relative clause ambiguity, depends upon the availability of the competing lexical alternatives of a morphologically ambiguous word"* (1996: 566). But not only is the lexical ambiguity a way of resolving the syntactic one. It will be further analysed in this paper with examples added to best illustrate the phenomenon.

2. Types of ambiguity

This chapter will contain a brief presentation of different types of ambiguity and illustrate them with examples. One type, that is syntactic ambiguity, will be dealt with separately. Its examples of it will also be given and analysed. In the last component there will be a short remark on distinguishing between ambiguity in syntax and semantics.

As it has already been stated above, there are some types of ambiguities that can be distinguished. They are divided into three main types, that are: lexical, phonological and syntactic. Syntactic ambiguity is then further divided into subtypes. The division is based on which part of the discourse causes the ambiguity of meaning.

The first one that will be taken into account is **lexical ambiguity**, which is the easiest to recognise. This kind of ambiguity characterises itself by having more than one meaning within a single word and it "connects to a homonym or a polysemous word presented in isolation" (Bilá, 2009, p. 36). A homonym is a word that can acquire many unrelated meanings for instance *fluke* (a worm) and

fluke (a stroke of luck) whereas polysemous words share origin for example *mouth* (part of face) and *mouth* (of a river). Both of them can cause ambiguity when used in an encouraging environment of newspaper headlines.

It was also mentioned before that lexical ambiguity has much to do with syntactic one although the previous one does not change part of speech. A fine example of that is the word *bank* which can mean both 'the financial institution' and 'the side of a river'. This phenomenon often appears in headlines as a result of multiple word meanings, which will be discussed on the basis of some instances.

(1)　My Security System Caused <u>Great</u> Alarm

In (1) the word *great* can mean both 'large in amount', which would make us think of a really loud and serious noise and 'nice and pleasing', which is understandable in a way that the alarm was somewhat good and satisfied the owner.

(2)　Which Is <u>Greener</u>- Hand Drier or Paper Towels?

Here the headline was located next to a photograph of both objects presented in shades of green, which created the ambiguity. The garden path that the reader is led by is the picture illustrating the literal meaning of the word *green*. The reader is to say then which object has the more natural or lively colour resembling grass. The other meaning of *green*, that is 'concerned with the protection of the environment' (Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary Online, 7.04.2013) conveys the 'political' message with which we are to decide whether the first or the latter one is more ecological.

(3)　Land <u>Mines</u>

(4)　<u>Silver</u> Screen

In (3) the word *mine* is the ambiguous one as it also conveys two different meanings. One of them is 'a deep hole or holes under the ground where minerals are dug' which suggests that the digging place is located inland, not for instance in the sea. However, the land could also be the area of concealment of an explosive device, which would change the meaning of *mine* into a 'bomb'. In (4) similarly to (3) the word *silver* does not change the part of speech. The adjective when understood literally suggests that the screen is either made of silver- the metal or has a 'shiny greyish-white colour' (OALD Online, 7.04.2013). In both cases it covers the appearance matter in contrast to the latter meaning of 'film industry' that introduces us with a whole new understanding of *silver screen.*

(5)　The <u>Mark</u> of Mankind

In headline (5) it is again a noun that obtains an ambiguity. *Mark* in (5) could be a 'personal pronoun/a name', a 'grade/standard' and a 'symbol'. The first would mean that a man named Mark is a human being, probably in a way

important. The second, on the other hand, gives us the impression that either the mankind is being assessed by someone or it itself grades something else- gives a *mark*. The last and the most probable one is that human race has left some sign or a symbol of itself which could distinguish it from other living species.

(6)   Race Against Time

In example (6) there is also lexical ambiguity within the word *race.* The noun can mean 'a competition between people, animals, vehicles, etc. to see which one is the faster or fastest' combined with the understanding that someone lacks time or is running out of it. But *race* can also mean 'one of the main groups that humans can be divided into according to their physical differences, for example the colour of their skin' (OALD Online, 17.05.2013). Based on this definition the headline suggests that some people of similar origin are (*are* in here is also an example of omission) anti the time; they are not pleased with it.

Phonological ambiguity is the second type that will be analysed in this chapter. It is so to say based on homophony which is "a term used in semantic analysis to refer to words (i.e. lexemes) which have the same pronunciation, but differ in meaning. (…) Homophony is illustrated from such pairs as *threw/through* and *rode/rowed*. When there is ambiguity on account of this identity, a *homophonic clash* or *conflict* is said to have occurred" (David Crystal, 2008:231). Following Chiara Bucaria we can state that newspaper headlines often depend on readers' recognition of sounds, for instance in case of rhyme and alliteration, despite the fact that they are not to be read aloud (2004:18). In this paper only two clear examples of a homophonic clash were found.

(7)   A Tale of Two Tails

In case of (7) we can observe an undeniable instance of phonological ambiguity. Both the words *tale* and *tail* hold the same pronunciation- /teɪl/ therefore the reader could hear the title as a tale about two other stories or a story about two "parts that stick out at the back of the body of a bird, an animal or a fish" (OALD Online, 07.04.2013).

(8)   When In Roam

In example (8) there is also a visible or rather hearable homophonic clash. When read aloud the word *roam* /rəʊm/ is pronounced in exactly the same way as the name of the city *Rome*. As a consequence the reader can understand the headline as 'during a ramble' and as 'staying in Rome, Italy".

(9)   You Can't Beat a Bit of Butter

In the headline above there is also more than one meaning, hence, despite the ambiguity is not phonological per se, it has been included in this category due to the appearance of the sentence. The first and more, so to say, immediate understanding is that we cannot substitute for a small amount of butter in some

dishes. The second one suggests that we cannot mix butter having only just a bit- that we will need more. Both of the meanings make the headline slightly ambiguous but it is not the most apparent and visible feature that holds our attention, it is the minimal pair beat- bit. The words have different spelling but very similar pronunciation which makes them sound almost the same. The other feature is alliteration, often used in headlines to catch the attention of readers, which focuses on the words *beat, bit and butter*- all three starting with a consonant 'b'. That way it does not sound ordinary or trivial.

2.1 Syntactic ambiguity

Syntactic ambiguity will be analysed on the basis of examples similar to the ones that have already been presented previously. This type of ambiguity will be divided into smaller units in order to take a closer look at this phenomenon and for the research to be done thoroughly.

Primarily for a better analysis of syntactic ambiguity, we should briefly explain what syntax is- "the study of the interrelationships between elements of sentence structure, and of the rules governing the arrangement of sentences in sequences" (Crystal, 2008, p. 471). Following Crystal's thought on syntactic ambiguity "it is the most widely discussed type" (2008, p. 22). This type of ambiguity concerns the structure of words within a sentence or phrase and therefore we distinguish class, attachment, referential ambiguity and others. Instances of headlines containing these types of ambiguity will be given and analysed in the subsequent parts of this chapter.

As Bilá points out there is also another division regarding ambiguity that is it could be in the surface or in the deep structure of the sentence. She explains: "syntactical ambiguity may be in the surface structure of a sentence (as words can combine in different possible constructions) or it may relate to the deep structure (one sequence of words may have more than one reading, usually because the rules of sentence construction allow ellipsis, the omission of what is generally understood and what the comprehenders may infer" (2009, p. 37). To illustrate she gives examples of a surface ambiguity- *The only people that were interested were old men and women. ([old men] and [women], old [men and women])* and of a deep structure ambiguity- *The duck is too cold to eat. ('Too cold to eat anything' or 'too cold for anybody to eat it').*

3   Conclusion

The analysis of the ambiguity has confirmed that lexical and syntactic ambiguity constitute significant linguistic devices used in the process of joke formation and using miscellaneous linguistic devices. It also proved that such

types of linguistic ambiguity do not have to be negative phenomena. In addition, it has been confirmed and demonstrated that there are certain grammatical patterns and devices which assist in creating structural ambiguity; thus, they are productive in terms of linguistic humour. Our discussion of these patterns and devices is based on the works by Oaks (1994), Roura (1995) and Lew (1996).

As we have already stated, the purpose of the article was to present the classification and analysis of various instances of lexical and syntactic ambiguity in order to confirm that ambiguity can be a useful device exploited, e.g. in humour. In the future, it would be advisable to perform more in-depth research attempting to analyse the frequency with which each ambiguity type appears, for instance in language-based jokes. In other words, we would set out to discover which ambiguity type is the most productive in terms of humour. Although we have included some remarks concerning the frequency with which some ambiguity types occur in different contexts, these are only our predictions which have not been proved.

Furthermore, we have focused on the practical application of ambiguity in intentional contexts. Nonetheless, this linguistic phenomenon can also result in accidental contexts, e.g. in newspaper headlines. Thus, it would be valuable to search for and analyse newspaper headlines involving structural ambiguity.

Additionally, it would be useful to conduct comparative research on Polish and English lexical and syntactic jokes in order to check which of the two languages uses ambiguity more frequently and regularly.

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Three paradigm shifts in translation studies:
An overview

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Abstract

With the development of such disciplines as linguistics, literature, sociology, psychology and the rise of postcolonialism and feminism, more and more theories are applied to translation studies (TS). These theories not only offer new perspectives but also bring new turns to (TS). On the basis of Thomas Samuel Kuhn's Paradigm Theory (1970), and Long Jixing's (2012) study on "Turns of Translation Studies", the present study attempts to demonstrate that the turns of (TS) widen the definition of translation, and that both affect and contact each other closely. That is, a new definition is widely accepted always generates a new turn, and the new turn tends to breed a next new definition and so on and so forth, hence the development of (TS).

The focus will be on three paradigm shifts; the first two have been examined and analyzed by many scholars; and the third one represents 'the next turn in translation' as Edwin Gentzler argues. The three turns are (1) linguistic paradigm; (2) cultural paradigm, and (3) social and psychological paradigm. A special emphasis will be on the third turn on the basis that it is the future developing trend of translation studies, especially it extends the scope of (TS) to include not only language, context, but also the inside world of human being (The Identity Issue).

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Approaches to translating English idioms into foreign languages

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Abstract

In the following paper the attention is focused on the complexity involved in the translation of idioms. First, emphasis is put on the review of the characteristics of idioms and fixed expressions across languages. The study is based on comparative research of translating English idioms into foreign languages according to different translation strategies. The choice of appropriate and feasible translation strategies is discussed. Further, the prevailing translation theories and procedures proposed by well-known authors are summarized, which are used as a framework by translation practitioners when overcoming the difficulties they encounter. Recent studies which reflect current and highly valued theories of translation, and influence the practice of translation in general are also examined, while the questions how different translators cope with the aspects of idioms while translating idiomatic texts are answered. Culturally specific and thus the pragmatic meaning of idioms within a translation process should be more considered than the literal meaning.

Keywords

translating idioms; translation strategies; equivalence; relevance theory; functional equivalence theory; skopos theory; pragmatics

1. Introduction

The recognition, understanding and appropriate translation of idioms is considered to be one of the most difficult parts of a language study. Moreover, every idiom has its own cultural background. Due to this fact idioms are dependent on culture and the culture is therefore one of the most important parts in comprehension of the idiomatic meaning. Awwad (1990, pp. 57-67) considers two areas of difficulty when translating idioms: a) misinterpreting the intention of the writer or speaker and b) recognizing the cultural differences among languages. This consideration goes hand in hand with Nida (in Sans 1990, p. 103) who insists on the existence of three presuppositions which must underline the semantic analysis:

"- No word (or semantic unit) ever has exactly the same meaning in two different utterances.

- There are no complete synonyms within a language.

- There are no exact correspondences between related words in different languages."

He rejects any possibility of perfect communication and states that all communication is one of degree and he indicates that the cultural fact symbolized by a word provides the denotative meaning, whereas the emotional response in the culture is the basis of connotative meaning (ibid.). This perception suits perfectly to the nature of idioms and the approaches needed for their translation.

2. Definition of idioms

Various definitions of idioms have been suggested in the linguistic literature or in the literature of translation theory, as well as in the preface of dictionaries of idioms. Some of them are presented in the following paragraph.

Webster's New World Dictionary of the American English (1988) defines an idiom as *"an expression established in the usage of a language that is peculiar to itself either in grammatical construction or in having a meaning that cannot be derived as a whole from the conjoined meanings of its elements."*

In the Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (2003, p. 741) an idiom is defined as *"a phrase which means something different from the meanings of the separate words; the way of statement typical of a person or a people in their use of language."*

Moon (1998, p. 3) defines an idiom as *"an ambiguous term, used in conflicting ways. In lay or general use, idiom has two main meanings. First, an idiom is a particular means of expressing something in language, music, art, and so on, which characterizes a person or group. Secondly, an idiom is a particular lexical collocation or phrasal lexeme, peculiar to a language"*.

Baker (1992) distinguishes idioms from collocation by the transparency of meaning and flexibility patterning. According to her (1992, p. 63) idioms are *"frozen patterns of language which allow little or no variation in form and often carry meanings which can not be deduced from their individual components".* She (ibid) excluded five things that normally can not be done to an idiom as it will lose its sense: the translator can not change the order of the words in an idiom; can not delete a word from it, can not add a word to it; replace one word by another one and change its grammatical structure.

Newmark (1988, p. 104) considers an idiom to be *"an extended metaphor, which has two main functions: pragmatic (cognitive) and referential (aesthetic)."* The pragmatic function is to appeal to the senses, to interest, to surprise, to delight.

To put it another way, an idiom is an expression whose meaning is not compositional, and does not follow from the meaning of the individual words

which make up of it. That is why a lot of idioms can not be translated literally because their meaning cannot be predicted from the usual meaning of their constituents.

3. Translation of idioms

As Valero-Garcés states (1997, p. 35) *"there seems to be an agreement among linguists that an idiom does not translate word for word."* She adds (ibid.) that even apparently simple translation equivalences may be deceptive. She suggests this might be a reason why the realisation of the difficulties of translation led to the adoption of more contextually-oriented approaches. The translation of idioms can therefore be approached from different perspectives: functional equivalence theory, skopos theory, pragmatics and relevance theory.

Functional equivalence in translation is according to Nida (1964, p. 166) *"the closest natural equivalent to the source-language message"*. According to Zhang and Wang (2010) using the term of *equivalent*, Nida suggests trying to make the response from target language receptors as proximate as possible to that from the source language receptors. They further state that a functional-equivalence translation is mainly concerned on the equivalence of the receptors response rather than the equivalence of language forms. This means that Nida established the importance of readership in the translation process. Kussmaul (1995) writes that the functional approach has a great affinity with skopos theory. From the functional point of view a translation is dependent on the knowledge, expectations, values and norms of the target readers, who are influenced by the situation they are in and by the culture. These factors determine whether the function of the source text can be preserved or has to be modified or even changed.

As Nord states (1997) s*kopos theory* focuses on translation as an activity with an aim or purpose, and on the intended addressee or audience of the translation. To translate means to produce a target text in a target setting for a target purpose and target addressees in target circumstances. In skopos theory, the status of the source text is lower than it is in equivalence-based theories of translation. The source is an offer of information, which the translator turns into an offer of information for the target audience.

The inability of semantics to adequately explain the sociolinguistic and other non-linguistic components of verbal communication gave birth to *pragmatics*. Pragmatics is the study of language use and language users. It sets out to explain what people wish to achieve and how they go about achieving it using language. Through pragmatics, contextual meaning is analyzed to discover the real meaning. It is important in pragmatics to talk about implied and intended

meaning, assumptions, purposes and goals of people in communication and various types of actions.

Relevance theory tries to explain the method of communication that takes into account implicit inferences. It argues that the audience will search for meaning in any given communication situation. Relevance theory is an inferential approach to pragmatics. Huang and Wang (2006) state that from the relevance-theoretic point of view, pragmatic translation should achieve interpretive similarity to the original in relevant aspects. The translation should resemble the original in aspects that make it adequately relevant to the reader by offering adequate contextual effects and at the same time should involve optimal processing effort.

4. Overview of the existing translation strategies of idioms

There are different types of correspondence or degrees of equivalence between idioms in the source and target language. These are connected with various difficulties when translating them. That is why the solutions, methods or strategies available to the translator are different, too. Baker (1992, pp. 72-78) defines the following strategies for translating idiomatic expressions:
1. Using an idiom with the same meaning and form which involves using an idiom in the target language,
2. Using an idiom with the similar meaning but different form,
3. Using a paraphrase when a match cannot be found in the target,
4. Using compensation to make up for any loss or meaning, emotional force, or stylistic effect, which may not be possible to reproduce directly at a given point,
5. Using omission if the idiom has no close match in the target language and its meaning cannot be easily paraphrased.

Based on literature review of functional equivalence theory, Zhang and Wang (2010, pp. 882-887) put forward nine strategies which can be applied when translating idioms:
1. Literal translation - keeping the same form as the source language and is further subdivided into:
a. Direct translation - original images and figurative meanings of target language idioms correspond with those in the original form or an idiom of the original language does not lead to cultural deformation in literal translation and can be accepted by readers of the target language.
b. Literal translation with annotation - the annotation explains the historical background of an idiom or its origin is completely explained.

c. Amplification - adding necessary words in the translation without changing the original meaning and helps the target readers deepen their understanding of the translated text.
2. Free translation - using different expressive forms to put across meanings in the source language.
3. Other methods
a. Combination - using both literal and free translation. We have to bear in mind that free translation can on one hand erase the misunderstanding and make the translated version easily understood, while on the other hand the exotic flavour in the original text can get lost.
b. Omission deals with the superfluous wording in order to achieve a concise and idiomatic representation.
c. Borrowing - finding an equivalent idiom in the target language.
d. Transposition - transferring the translation of a certain part to another place in the text for the purpose of the overall arrangement of the sentences and the meaning is guaranteed.
e. Integration - integrating the meaning of the source language idiom with the meaning of some other part in the text as a whole.

These strategies go beyond the linguistic system which means that they do not consider only the issue of whether an idiom with similar meaning and similar form is available in the target language. They also reflect on the appropriateness or inappropriateness of using idiomatic language and the context in which the idiom is translated.

5. Illustrative examples of translating idioms into foreign languages
In this part the overview of three studies which focus on different approaches to the translation of idioms is discussed. Various authors analyse the translation of idioms under the aspect of the previously mentioned theories and strategies. Strakšien (2009), Motallebzade and Tousi (2011) and finally O'Mara (2007) offer insight into translation procedures applied by translators of Lithuanian, Persian and Spanish/Catalan origin.

Baker's (1992) proposed translating strategies were taken as the framework of the studies.

In the study *Analysis of Idiom Translation Strategies from English into Lithuanian* by Strakšien (2009) four basic translation strategies for translating idioms were employed:
1. Idiom to idiom translation using an idiom of similar meaning and form, and using an idiom of similar meaning but dissimilar form

2. Paraphrasing comprising explanatory and stylistic paraphrase
3. Literal translation
4. Omission

According to the author following tendencies concerning the equivalence in translation were revealed:
1. Preserving the effect and meaning of the original idiom,
2. An effect of interference of another language due to the fact that paraphrases often contained the structure of the original idioms,
3. An effect of foreignization by using literal translation,
4. Favouring the local colouring over fluency and transparency.

In the study *Employing Compensation Strategy in Translation of Idioms: A Case Study of the Translation of Mark Twain's Adventures of Huckleberry Finn in Persian* written by Motallebzade and Tousi (2011) three basic translation strategies for translating idioms were employed:
1. Translating an English idiom with a Persian idiom
2. Translating an English-language idiom with a non-idiomatic Persian phrase
3. Translating an English non-idiom, with a Persian idiom

The author discovered the following tendencies concerning the equivalence in translation:
1. Avoiding of translating idioms with an idiom and looking for other strategies for translating difficult cases,
2. Compensation used as one possible strategy in order to preserve the idiomaticity of the original text and to avoid the loss caused by translating,
3. Translator's effort to compensate an idiom by omitting it and putting it in another place.

In O'Mara`s (2007) study *Translating colloquial idioms/metaphors in The catcher in the rye: a comparison of methaphorical meaning retention in Spanish and Catalan texts* four basic translation strategies for translating idioms were engaged:
1. Paraphrasing,
2. Equivalence,
3. Literal translation,
4. Omission.

The author discusses these tendencies concerning the equivalence in translation:

1. Frequent use of the technique of paraphrasing or modification.
2. Avoidance of preserving rhetoric, national and regional characteristics in the target language.

To draw several conclusions from the reviewed studies, which cannot be still generalized, paraphrasing seems to be the most commonly used procedure in dealing with idioms. This procedure is adopted in translation when the translator cannot find a similar idiom in the target language or she/he believes using an idiom is not suitable for stylistic matters. As Tabačková and Gálová (2012, p. 114-115) put it: *"When translating idioms we have to focus on keeping their meaning in the text and looking for the appropriate solution."*

8. Conclusion

To summarize the outcomes of the overviewed theories, strategies and studies on translation of idioms it can be said that *"if the main target of a translator is to produce as nearly as possible the same effect on his readers as was produced on the readers of the original, we will meet a lot of instances, where this effect cannot be achieved"* (Sans 1990, p. 106), then the translation of idioms, which are deeply culture-bound, have a special historical background and different origin, is the best example to be offered. One must agree with Newmark (2007, p. 109) that *"the sociological factor is represented by the context, where idioms bind the text to social groups and backgrounds, proving that translation is not produced in a vacuum."* The translator should have knowledge about semantics and lexical sets in source language to develop strategies for dealing with non-equivalence in semantic field. Besides this, the translator should not forget that language and culture are closely related (especially in terms of idioms) and both aspects must be considered for translation.

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How does education influence the reception of English film title translations in Poland?

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Abstract

The aim of the paper is to check if and how education in a particular area changes the reception of differently rendered translations on the basis of film title translations, as there are many methods of transferring them, from translocation to complete reformulation.

In order to answer the question surveys among three groups of receivers were conducted: among those not knowing the foreign language from which a title is translated (English), those who learnt it and those who are additionally educated in the art of translation. The study shows if they evaluate titles rendered with various methods in the same way or if there are any differences dependent on their knowledge.

Keywords

film titles, reception of translation, knowledge of English, translation methods

Translation studies may be considered from many different points of view. The areas of the discipline were shown by Holmes in his work "The name and nature of translation studies". One of the part of his famous map of translation studies was translation criticism, belonging to the applied branch of the discipline. It contains "the evaluation of translations, including the marking of student translations and the reviews of published translations" (Holmes in Munday, 2001, p. 10-13). However, this area is relatively underrepresented in publications on translation studies, although it is quite crucial for the examination of the translation process. The reception study lets us ascertain if a translation is successful or not, as it does not exist in vacuo – it is the receivers for whom the texts are translated, and they can evaluate the translation.

According to Hans J. Vermeer's skopos theory, "the claim that the translator has no specific addressee or set of addressees in mind" is unfounded, because "one must in fact be orienting oneself towards a certain restricted group of addressees, not necessarily consciously – but unconsciously. (...) [the set of addressees] certainly exists, vague in outline, but clearly present (...). In many cases such an addressee-type may be much more clearly envisaged, more or less consciously, than is assumed by advocates of the claim that translations lack specific addressees" (Vermeer, 2004, p. 226- 227).

Who are the receivers of movie titles? Considering reception, one must also

bear in mind that "the TT is normally read as if the work had originally been written in the TL, the translator's contribution being almost completely overlooked" (Munday, 2001, p. 157), therefore it seems that smoothness and fluency of the translation should be valued most. However, naturally translators focus also on other aspects, like fidelity towards the original, or transference of some culture-specific connotations. Therefore, many translation techniques are used, accentuating different attitudes and placing different factors as foremost. The diversity of transfer methods is especially perceptible in translating titles. One can enumerate a plethora of techniques and, what is more, they all are more or less evenly represented and it seems that no guidelines for their use exist; it is mainly a translating person's decision. For instance, Anna Gavling analysing the English-Swedish book titles translations, observed as many as nine methods:

> "Keeping the original title;
> Translating the title literally;
> Literal translation with modifications;
> Keeping part of the original title and adding a literal translation;
> Adding a Swedish tag to the English title;
> Adding a Swedish tag to the literal translation;
> Translation with an omission;
> Creating a new title loosely related to the original title;
> (…) Creating a completely different title" (Gavling, 2008).

Movie titles rendition techniques are as fruitful as literary ones, but they appear to be more troublesome for receivers, who more often compare them to the original ones. For instance, Tanış Polat writes that Turkish versions of German film titles are often criticized (Tanış Polat, 2013). The same situation is with English-Polish film titles, which this article focuses on. On the Internet and in the observation of every-day talk, one can encounter some statements made by viewers, who notice that a Polish version of an English title is an example of an unsuccessful translation. The situation is much rarer when it comes to book titles.

How may the reception of the translated film titles be studied? The method which seems most appropriate is using questionnaires, since thanks to them a researcher can reach different groups of viewers, which is not possible e.g. while using reviews in which only professionals' opinion is given. A film is a mass product intended for varying publicity and it should be evaluated by them, not by some chosen group of people. At this moment the question arises: who exactly are the movies translated for? It was said that there is always some recipient, even if sometimes not precisely stated. As film is a mass product, can a recipient

be anyone, an "average man"? Indeed, but it also sounds reasonable to claim that a recipient should be a person who does not know the source language and therefore needs translation. And now it is the time to wonder about the prominent role of education in reception. Are the viewers criticizing translation mainly those who do know the source language? If yes, what do they need the translations for? Is the translation intended also for them? How does the language knowledge change the perception of translation in regards to the methods used in it? How does the knowledge of translation skills influence the reception?

In order to answer the above-mentioned questions, a study on reception was conducted. The same questionnaire concerning the film title reception study was designed and filled out by three different groups of the Polish receivers: those who do not know the English language at all or know only single expressions (which does not allow them to communicate), those who have at least communicative language competence and to translators, who apart from graduating from the English philology possess also the professional knowledge and experience concerning the art of translation (it was a general translation knowledge, not limited to those who deal only with film or literary translation). The groups will be afterward referred to as group A (not-knowing English), group B (knowing English) and group C (translators).

In the research sixty three people were questioned. Each group consisted of twenty one people, therefore the division was very even. The main difference between the respondents was the above mentioned level of comprehension of English. Apart from that, each of the groups constituted of varied people – of different age, sex and place of living (different regions of Poland, cities and villages) to avoid a situation that some other factor will influence their choice (e.g. if one group consisted only of males and some other of females, their preferences could differ because of that, not because of their level of education). However, one additional factor – age was connected with the factor of education – as there are younger people who know English and are translators than older ones. This is a natural effect of the country's education policy: the older people mostly did not learn English during their schooltime, unlike the younger ones.

The aim of the study was to examine how titles transferred by diverse methods are received by the various groups and if there are any noticeable differences in this. The methods chosen for the survey were based on those aforementioned by Anna Gavling, but in a reduced number. The methods used were: keeping the original title, literal translation, literal translation with modification, keeping part of the original title and translating the other part, keeping the original title and adding a sub-title in Polish, translation with a

change, creating a completely new title.

Firstly, the respondents were to determine their knowledge of English in this way dividing into two first groups. The questionnaires for translators were sent directly to them.

The next question concerned the evaluation of seven real-life examples of Polish versions of the English titles, each rendered via a different method (from among the above mentioned). The respondents were to decide about each title, if they find it very good, good, average, poor or completely unsuccessful. They had to give grades to the titles that would correspond to their evaluation (very good – 5, and the worse, the lower grade). The titles were chosen accidentally to imitate the real-life situation of a list of movies, that could be found e.g. in a cinema's repertoire. Of course, in some cases the respondents could know a movie, which could influence their choice, but also while choosing a film to watch people have some additional knowledge apart from the title, very often they know the plot from reviews or from other people and have other information, for instance about the actors starring.

The third question was similar, but this time the English original versions of the titles were provided in brackets, which could suggest to the respondents that they evaluate translations, not original titles (however, they were again asked to evaluate titles). This was to check if there are any differences in reception of the target text if one is aware of the source one, or if there is no difference. Obviously, it concerns more the people who know the language, but even those who do not may notice, for instance, that the Polish title is much longer, or that some international word from the English title is not present in the Polish one.

In the last question, the respondents were presented with seven invented Polish versions of an invented English title. These were also transferred in seven ways: literally, literally with a subtitle, literally with slight modifications, in a completely new way, with original version left, with original version left and literal translation and with original translation left and a sub-title in Polish. Again, the task was to evaluate the titles, which they consider the best, etc. and also provide appropriate grades. This part of questionnaire was necessary, as it allowed to focus on the titles alone, not being disturbed by other factors. It was to check if there is any difference between the evaluation of title translation in context and without context, which would additionally show how considerably the context influences the reception of the translation.

As it turned out, the results in each group were not extremely divergent, however a few interesting observations could be noticed. Firstly, as far as the overall grade of the titles evaluated is concerned, it was the biggest in the group A. It was more similar in the remaining groups, but slightly lower in the

translators' group.

The exact results are presented in the table below:

Table1

Group	Overall grade (number of points)
A	1459
B	1381,5
C	1364,5

The difference may be attributed to the fact, that the respondents knowing English were not only looking at the translated titles as such, but were more sensitized to the comparison with the original, and more critical. This thesis can be supported by the fact that translators seemed to be even more critical than the people knowing English. In the translators' group there was also a great difference between titles with no English version provided and the two with the English version. The number of points was respectively 508, 5; 449 and 407. This also shows that the translators were more critical when they knew they dealt with translations. In the group A the evaluation of the titles with only Polish versions was also the highest, but the differences were smaller (507/490/462) and in the group B it was not the highest (488/490/403,5).

As it can be seen, in all of the groups the last group of titles (different versions of one English title) was graded the lowest. One of the explanation can be that the originally invented English version (*The Scent of Paper*) was not very encouraging to watching in itself and as a result all its Polish versions were not either. Contrarily, in the case of the titles from other groups, they were mixed and next to poor titles there were also better ones, which made the overall grade higher.

Having discussed the general evaluation, let us move to the more specific one, relating to the evaluation of titles rendered by different methods. Firstly, the result of assessment of the titles without their Polish version will be discussed. Despite the lack of the English version, the rendition techniques are also visible – for instance in translocation or combining English and Polish phrases in the titles. Moreover, it can be visible if the decisions to change a title or translate it literally contributes to a title's success. As these were real-life examples, some of the respondents could know the English versions from elsewhere and bear them in mind while evaluating.

It turns out, that according to the group A, a title *Underworld: Bunt Lykanów (Underworld: Rise of the Lycans)* – part translated, part kept in the original was

regarded as the worst (grade: 49), The best was for them a newly created title, *Tajemnica Zielonego Królestwa* (*Epic*) – grade 87. The second worst was a translocated, left in the original title – *Spring Breakers* (grade: 67), and the second best was *Lot (Flight)* translated literally (grade: 80).

In the group B the worst graded titles were again *Underworld: Bunt Lykanów* (62) and *Spring Breakers* (63). The best turned out to be *Lot* (77) and *Jak urodzić i nie zwariować – What to Expect When You're Expecting* – changed in translation but related to the source version. In the case of group B the differences between the titles were nevertheless not as conspicuous as in the group A. There is a possibility that they could be slightly different if the respondents were different.

In the group C, the differences between the best and the worst graded titles were again greater. The worst graded title was *Spring Breakers* (51,5) and *Underworld: Bunt Lykanów*, but it was evaluated much higher than in the remaining groups – 72. The best graded were, similarly to group A, *Lot* (83) and *Tajemnica Zielonego Królestwa* (81).

As the results show, the evaluations of the seven titles translated differently are similar in each group. This shows that when no source version is provided for comparison, titles with English elements are not the most encouraging for a movie watching. Changing title in translation may make sense and make the title interesting, but also the literal translation is regarded good if it is smooth. The results can be also caused by the fact the respondents evaluated movies, not the titles, but if it was the case in some single situations, it certainly was not to a bigger extent (even if most of them knew all the movies, which is very little probable), because: a) in the questionnaire there was a stipulation highlighting that the titles in themselves should be evaluated, not the movies, b) the movies were not necessarily graded as their titles elsewhere, for instance in a Polish Internet movie database Filmweb.pl *Underworld: Bunt Lykanów* scores 7,2 points, whereas *Tajemnica Zielonego Królestwa* – 7,0 (data from 20.03.2014) and c) some respondents added their comments to the questionnaire – and in them they focused on the titles, not the movies, e.g. one person claimed she liked the title *Lot* because it was short and concrete, another person wrote that *Underworld: Bunt Lykanów* sounds weird.

In the case of real-life translations with their source language versions provided in brackets, the group A evaluated *Po prostu walcz* (*Never Back Down*), a literal translation with modifications, as the best (grade: 81). Second best was entirely literally translated title *127 Godzin* (*127 Hours*) –77. As far as titles graded as the worst are concerned, these are a created title, in which changes are unrelated to the source version – *Najpierw strzelaj, potem zwiedzaj* (*In Bruges*) – 62, as well as a similarly graded translocated title, *Broken Flowers* and a title with

English version and Polish addition: *Wielki Mike. The Blind Side* (*The Blind Side*). They both had 63 points.

In the group B, the best graded title is literal translation *127 Godzin* (81), the next is *Po prostu walcz* (75), and the least attractive turned out to be *Wielki Mike. The Blind Side* (63) and *Resident Evil: Zagłada* (*Resident Evil: Extinction)*, part translated, part left in the original – 64.

In the group C the best graded title was *127 Godzin* (87), the next was *Po prostu walcz* (76). Among the worst graded there found themselves *Najpierw strzelaj, potem zwiedzaj* (45) and *Wielki Mike. The Blind Side* (52, 5).

It seems that having the translation all respondents tended to value more literal translations and disliked changes as well as clumsy double titles. The first group, perhaps because they do not know English, evaluated English only title very low, although in the remaining groups the results were different. Apart from that the results were very similar in all three groups. Were the titles chosen as best particularly excellent as such and those chosen as worst did not sound good in Polish or were the respondents also influenced by the method of rendition? The last analysis will help to answer this question.

In the last question the respondents were asked to grade the different versions of one invented English title (*The Scent of Paper*). Because the versions were perforce similar, less divergent that it was the case when the titles related to different movies, therefore, the grades were also more similar.

In the group A the highest grade was obtained by the title translated literally with modifications – *Zapach książki* (79). Next, there was a word-for-word translation – *Zapach papieru* (69). As the worst version the respondents regarded double titles – original English version with a literal translation – *The Scent of Paper. Zapach papieru* (56) and original version with a sub-title in Polish: *The Scent of Paper: Historia drukarza* (62).

In the group B the best titles were firstly *Zapach papieru* (66) and then *Zapach książki* (61,5). The worst turned out to be *The Scent of Paper: Historia drukarza* (47) and a literally translated version with an additional sub-title in Polish: *Zapach papieru: Historia drukarza* (53).

In the last group the best title was again *Zapach papieru* (68) and a literal translation with a sub-title in Polish: *Zapach papieru. Historia drukarza* (63,5). The worst were *The Scent of Paper. Zapach papieru* (49,5) and a translocation from English, *The Scent of Paper* (51,5).

As it can be visible, the results with the titles devoid of any context are similar to the results in case of the real-life titles (more literal translations are preferred, double titles, especially combining English and Polish are rather disliked).

Conclusion

Summing up, can any regularities be observed? Does education influence the perception of translated film titles? Firstly, as far as the general grade is concerned, the education has an impact on awareness of translation non-perfection and more critical approach towards it. As for the preferences concerning certain translation methods, the differences are less striking than similarities, which shows that a title appeals in the same way to every recipient, no matter the level of knowledge (there was only one case in which a title, *Zapach papieru. Historia drukarza,* was regarded as the best in one group and the worst in some other). Every viewer is the same recipient, when s/he deals with a translation. Generally longer titles (with explanations, half English/half Polish titles) were evaluated poorly by all the groups. Of course, it does not mean such versions should not appear – sometimes their appearance may be justified – when e.g. a movie is based on a computer game, its name appears in the title and some sub-title in Polish in relation to a title is added. The respondents noticed that the English titles in most cases do not sound well and are unnecessary, what is more an original title often appears on a movie poster, so there is no need to put it again in the Polish title. The questioned people from all of the groups also referred to such titles as translations – according to them, not only do they sound awkward, but also cannot be named "translations" at all.

As far as titles modified in translation are concerned, they were found relatively interesting and encouraging in themselves, but when the respondents were aware of the original versions, they preferred more literal renditions (sometimes with modifications). Some changed titles may sound well, but comparing them to the original a receiver may feel deceived that s/he gets something different. Even if somebody does not know the source language, s/he can see that a title is built differently. One of the respondents from the group A wrote that he does not like when the title creators exaggerate with changes and modifications.

It would seem that the preference for leaving a title in the original will depend of the level of source language knowledge, but the questionnaire did not indicate this difference. *Spring Breakers* was evaluated low by all of the groups, *Broken Flowers* additionally by group A and *The Scent of Paper* by group C (which, however, could also testify about translators' awareness of the viewers' needs, not only about their own preferences). They were rather not preferred by any of the group.

In conclusion, the translation of film titles should be done for all viewers, it does not matter too much on the education, but rather on individual preferences. The study shows however the prevailing preferences in the Polish society.

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This paper is accompanied by a
a virtual presentation
at: http://www.jolace.com/products/jadwiga-suwaj-id-176-how-does-education-influence-the-reception-of-english-film-title-translations-in-poland-/

Japanese comics lost in translation.
Language transitions and the (mis)interpretation of the translated material

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Introduction

Manga is an ambiguous word referring to comic books created in Japan. However, in Japan itself it used to describe all sorts of comic books, regardless to their country of origin; whereas in other parts of the world, Manga refers to Japanese comics (Manga, n.d.).

It is a coined term invented by the woodblock (ukiyo-e) artist Katsushika Hokusai in 1814, which could be literally translated as *whimsical sketches* and its usage for comic books gained more popularity in the 20th century. Furthermore, according to Schodt, the word covers a much broader meaning, since Manga today can also mean caricature, cartoon, comic strip, comic book, or animation (Schodt, n.d.).

The medium grew over time and became one of the most pervasive forms of entertainment and communication. Also, Manga has an important place in the cultural heritage of Japan and is a significant part of the civil arts, dealing with a wide range of themes and topics. Ito (2005) states that:

> *"Like any other form of visual art, literature, or entertainment, manga does not exist in a vacuum. It is immersed in a particular social environment that includes history, language, culture, politics, economy, family, religion, sex and gender, education, deviance and crime and demography. Manga thus reflects the reality of Japanese society, along with the myths, beliefs, rituals, traditions, fantasies, and Japanese way of life"* (Ito, 2005, p. 456)

Non-Japanese readers find Manga confusing. No matter how well and into what language translated, it still remains Japanese in visual style, story and even in language. Culture and language are intertwined entities, thus readers need to acquire a certain level of intercultural competence to gain a proper understanding of its content. Moreover, the cultural terms and references also have little resonance for Western readers, which also may disturb the reading

process. As noted by Schodt (n.d.), "manga are written and drawn by artists thinking in Japanese, not English, so it can take a non-Japanese a little more work and a little more patience to read them, even in translated form."

Elusiveness and foreignization

In translating a Manga from Japanese into English, translators have to deal with all of the distinctive grammatical and social traits of the Japanese written language; as well as with the visual language elements which are specific to the native audience.

The main problems that the translators will face in the medium while translating are due to the incompetency of the two languages. For instance, in grammatical terms, the different word order may provide some difficulties. The English language generally follows a subject-verb-object sentence structure (Užáková et al., 2011), whereas the order in Japanese is reversed and sentence structure is topic–comment. So, word order is normally subject–object verb with the tendency to employ suffixes and particles to mark the grammatical function of words (Clark, 2009; Miyagawa, n.d.) This means, that certain grammatical functions work differently and it is important to understand the grammar of both languages to produce a correctly translated and comprehensible product.

Another aspect that is highly elusive in translation is the relatively small library of possible sounds of the language. In brief, Japanese, compared to English is a narrow language, which is characterized by the reliance on homophones, since it is language with a simple phonetic system (Clark, 2009; Miyagawa, n.d.). To illustrate this, in numbers, if the average English speaker uses about 10,000 words daily in their vocabulary, than the average Japanese speaker may use about 7,500-8,000 only (A Word about Professional Translation and the American Manga Industry. n.d.). This is made apparent if we consider situations where the English speakers have a lot vocabulary at their disposal to nuance the exact meaning they want to convey; while the Japanese speakers will rely on grammatical inflection to convey the message, so that just one word can be taken several different ways depending on context (Seeroi, 2012).

According to Clark (2009) *"It is difficult to imagine a language with a more complicated writing system than Japanese"* (p.65). It is composed of four different character sets (retrieved from Japanese-Language.Aiyori.org, n.d.):

- Kanji-the Chinese characters and the usual script to indicate content words
- Hiragana-that are syllabary used to indicate function words and common items as well as proper nouns;
- Katakana-used to indicate foreign words
- Romaji- Latin alphabet used to Romanize Japanese

All these elements are widespread use in Manga and anyone who is seeking to read the original script of the medium needs to know how to understand them. Moreover, together with the social and cultural nuances, the way that the character sets interact with one another can tell the native reader a lot about the nature of the narrative (Brenner, 2007; Rampant, 2010). They form a system that appears to be, without prior knowledge and insight, utterly not decipherable for the not native audience. This is "*further complicated by the fact that each kanji generally has from two to as many as 10 or more pronunciations depending on the context*" (Clark, 2009; p. 65).

Because if its rich register and complex writing system, many layers of the implicated meaning provided by the Japanese language are lost or completely omitted by localization. Still, compromises are possible. As noted by Rampant (2010) recent translations of Manga are attempted in a concept of *foreignization*. It is a translation method in which the foreign elements are retained, rather than replacing everything by culturally equivalent elements of the target culture. For example, honorifics are left intact and the onomatopoetic sound effects are Romanized. Cultural references and their original substance are usually explained in footnotes, mostly, when it seems to be impossible to translate them into English without losing some meaning (Rampant, 2010). Thus, even unfamiliar expressions will be more easily understood by the foreign readers.

Gender differentiated speech

The Japanese language has some grammatical and lexical constructions marked by a far greater awareness of age-, class- and sex-related differences, and these are indicated in the dialogue and speech of the characters. Unlike other languages, for instance English, it employs a vast range of gender-specific elements Grant & Okada, 2008). The gender-differentiated speech becomes especially noticeable by the utilization of masculine and feminine forms of personal pronouns, unique to the language. These social nuances act as indicators and customarily mean that every speaker identifies gender, social status, the listener's social status, and the nature of social situation, purely by the choice of words (Unser-Shutz, 2010). "The obvious problem here is that all of these words translate to the same thing in English [...]. Thus, in a literal translation the effect is often lost" (Grant & Okada, 2008; p. 46).

First personal pronouns and their social implications (retrieved from Grant and Okada, 2008):
- watashi: gender neutral, standard term for the self, polite
- watakushi: exceptionally polite and dignified , used by women in a formal setting

- atashi: polite/informal, standard feminine term
- uchi: Kansai/ Western dialect of atashi
- atai: Tokyo dialect version of atashi
- boku: informal, used by men/boys of all ages
- ore: informal, used by boys wanting to appear older in a boastful tone
- washi: masculine form, used often by elderly
- sessha: an archaic, masculine form to oneself, formerly used by samurai and ninjas.

Second personal pronouns and their social implications (retrieved from Izawa,n.d.; Unser-Shutz, 2010):
- Name+honorific: -san (gender-neutral), -kun (masculine), -chan (feminine), -sama (respectful version of -san) are the most commonly exerted suffixes (Brenner, 2007), and foreignization tends to leave them intact in translations (Rampant, 2010). In some situations a status+honorific may be used. For example, a shop clerk is likely to address a visitor as o-kyaku-sama: honourable customer (Izawa, n.d.).
- anata: polite form for 'you', also used by women to address their husband
- anta: a casual form of anata used by women
- kimi: informal formerly polite, sometimes also rude way to address someone
- omae: masculine form of anata or used in a close relationship
- kisama: a vulgar form, indicates great hostility towards the addressee.

According to Izawa (n.d.) "In many cases, polite discourse demands that "you" is not used" to address the opposite party. It is very important from the perspective of the native audience, that Manga as tool of entertainment encompasses the fundamental parts of the sociolinguistics of the Japanese language. Since as Ito (2000) argues, "It is very influential for children and adults alike because it 'teaches' the readers the roles, expectations, rights, duties, taboos, and folkways of Japanese society whether the reader is aware of it or not" (p. 14).

Interpreting word play and cultural references

Is it worth changing the original text for the sake of fluidity? Most translators will face this question at some point, especially when puns and word plays need to be translated. Humour is often culturally specific, but few categories of humour are as language dependent as the Japanese puns. These are a prime source for laugh in Manga and are often unsuccessfully translated into English.

Because of the limited number of different syllabic combinations, as note above, these puns are based on linguistic ambiguities, like homophony (Dybala et al., 2012). Translators usually must find the corresponding phrases and the set of words, in their target language, to try to retain all the 'Japanese-ness' of the original (Galgani, 2002; Rampant, 2010). However, to mirror the puns and finding a pair of homonyms that have similar meanings in two different languages is a very demanding toil.

According to Galgani (2002), "Sometimes it's just plain impossible to do a literal translation that makes any sense or can fit into the space at hand because there is so much culture tied up into the word or phrase". Furthermore, "Foreignizing a joke by way of literal translation can impact in two ways: first, if it is explained through a footnote, the reader is interrupted from the story; second, the reader could simply not understand the cultural equivalence" (Rampant, 2010; p. 224).

In the Manga Sakurasou no Pet na Kanojo, lit. The Pet Girl of Sakura Dormitory by Kamoshida Hajime and Kusano Houki, the reader may experience the above mentioned issues. Figure 1 is an example of a translation that had to deal with a pun and a cultural reference. In this particular case, the translator choose to leave out the footnote from the actual page; instead he/she highlighted the specific terms used and featured the explanation at the end of the chapter. The pun is explained in the same manner.

The male character refers to the traditional Japanese style of stand-up comedy called manzai, in which a slapstick routine is done by two performers (Manzai, n.d.). To be more specific, he connects the course of the conversation to a manzai's neta. Neta jokes are stories about stereotyped situations or characteristic traits of people; they are popular and clichéd jokes with a longer narrative that are repeated many times (Ōshima, 2006). Manzai comedians often make use of neta jokes as part of their performance and this particular scene could be viewed as a humorous imitation of such a comedy routine. So, as per RAMPENT, the Western viewer's reading rhythm is not obstructed by the non-present footnote but without the sufficient background knowledge on the cultural reference, they may not apprehend the significance of the term and its relation to the sequence of the story or the nature of the joke. Consequently, the female character's play with words is also based on a popular neta, which is occasionally adapted into the medium.

In brief, it is a parody used to portray a newlywed couple. The husband comes home after a long day of work and his wife greats him with these words that may act as a subtle sexual invitation or suggestion:

A-na-ta? Gohan ni suru? O-furo ni suru? Soretomo...watashi ni suru?
(Dear? Do you want a meal? A bath? Or on top of that...me?)

In this case, the comedic effect of the act is further heightened by the pun, which is usually not part of the neta. The character makes use of the last sentence of the joke by replacing the 'me' with seemingly random words. Doing a literal translation of these could cause some confusion and the non-native reader may not understand the initial meaning of the joke. Although, the male characters tsukkomi (verbal reprimanding) helps to at least construct a meaningful joke, when translated into English (Manzai, n.d.).

This is a typical Japanese pun that makes use of the simple phonetic system of the language. The mechanism and structure is based on vowel transformation by replacing the first vowel of the word with a similar sounding one (DYBALA et al., 2012).

{base phrase (vowel 1)} → [punning phrase (vowel 2)] → [punning phrase (vowel 3)]
watashi → mawashi → tawashi
('me' → sumo wrestler's loincloth → scrubbing brush)

Even though the English translation is still successful in conveying the essence of the joke, yet because the translation is linguistically literal, it does not come closer to the 'feel' of the original pun.

Conclusion
In conclusion, this example page perfectly illustrates the linguistic difficulties and ambiguities, along with other possible cultural references that translators and readers alike may encounter while reading the medium. "Manga uses all of these vocabularies, and the quality of the translation can be judged both by its faithfulness and its ability to transform the story's dialogue and description into a whole that conveys the same spirit and meaning as the original tale " (Brenner, 2007; p. 70).

Differences between the English and Japanese language, and even more, the limited number of possible homonyms is a challenge while trying to create a translation as close as possible to the original. Despite all efforts, because of the complicated Japanese writing system, some level of meaning disappears in the English text. On the other hand, Manga is an excellent means to know and understand the features of Japanese culture. It is believed that recognition may

lead to the subsequent convergence of the readers into Japanese culture and lifestyle in a broader sense.

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Appendix

Figure 1

Translation & language teaching and learning

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Abstract

Translation as a teaching method had been for a number of years in the core of language education. Being 'a must' methodology in the eighteen and nineteenth century, in the context of Greek and Latin teaching and learning, translation became the principle method in effectively teaching and learning modern languages. For a number of years the Grammar Translation Method played a crucial part in second and foreign language contexts, with certain activities forming teaching and learning best practices at a time.

This contribution will attempt to thoroughly explore translation as a teaching tradition of the past and examine its role nowadays, under the prism of reviving translation as an effective method and as a literacy practice in the teaching and learning of languages.

Virtual paper

(Available also at: http://www.jolace.com/products/elena-s-xeni-cyprus-id-197-translation-language-teaching-and-learning/)

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Teaching the Beatles as poets

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Abstract

The Beatles' lyrics provide students with a window into the chaotic milieu of the 1960s: the war and the peace movements, the power of civil rights action, the annihilation of authoritarian structures, and the disintegration of social mores. Yet beyond that, their lyrics are timeless poetry that informs contemporary events and conveys the kaleidoscope of experiences and emotions that compose the human experience.

In this course, the Beatles lyrics are interwoven with poetry from across the ages, and students learn to compare and contrast the lyrics with this poetry. For example, the work of the English Romantic poets especially lends itself to these comparisons, since the Second Generation Romantics were the "rock stars" of the early nineteenth century.

One important aspect of this course is to look beneath the surface of the words – to discover what is being said that is not apparent without careful scrutiny and knowledge of both the authors and their times.

The mechanics of poetry are subtle aspects of the course; these are taught in conjunction with the poetry, rather than as separate topics.

Through this course students gain a myriad of skills; they learn to appreciate the Beatles' lyrics as poetry and thus all genres of music lyrics as such. Finally, they come to understand that poetry is a ubiquitous part of their lives, and ultimately, a valuable guide to understanding both their interior and exterior worlds.

Keywords

Beatles, lyrics as poetry, Romantics

Introduction

The Beatles' lyrics provide students with a window into the chaotic milieu of the 1960s: the war and the peace movements, the power of civil rights action, the annihilation of authoritarian structures, and the disintegration of social mores. Yet beyond that, their lyrics are timeless poetry that informs contemporary events and conveys the kaleidoscope of experiences and emotions that compose the human experience.

This course is exceedingly popular with students (The cap at Curry is 30 so it tends to be available only to juniors or seniors, since they have priority in the scheduling process. But my daughter took a Beatles music course at Arizona State University and there were 300 enrolled.) as so many of them have parents of the baby boomer generation who love the Beatles and have familiarized their children with the Beatles music. Indeed, many students demonstrate an

exhaustive knowledge of the music, but have little understanding that the lyrics represent some of the most beloved poetry of all times. Rarely, a student will enroll in the course without any knowledge of the Beatles' work at all. These are some of the best students, as their questions bring up issues for discussion that go right to the basics of the lyrics and their references to the culture of the 1960s and 1970s. Indeed, since the professors who teach a Beatles course tend to have their songs integrated into their DNA, it is good to be reminded that this is not true of the students.

So how does it make sense to create a Beatles course? At Curry, the course has evolved; it was originally taught as purely the Beatles work with the mechanics integrated into the entire course rather than as stand-alone lessons. Students tend not to be very interested in mechanics such as rhyme scheme, strophic lyric, elegiac lyric, meter, foot, etc., although these terms are important aspects of the Beatles poetry. Still, it remains much more useful to integrate these as they apply to each individual lyric.

The second phase of the course was to make comparisons between the Beatles lyrics and those of other artists. Examples of this are as follows:

Beatles lyrics:	**Comparison lyrics:**
	I Saw Her Standing There
	The Rain, the Park, and Other Things
	The Cowsills
Ask Me Why	*Everything That Touches You*
	The Association
P.S. I Love You	*Miss You*
	The Rolling Stones
There's a Place	*Bron-yr-Aur*
	Led Zepellin
Strawberry Fields Forever	*Our House*
	Crosby, Still, Nash and Young
Blackbird	*The Times They Are a-Changin'*
	Bob Dylan

Yesterday	*Turn, Turn, Turn* The Byrds
Here Comes the Sun	*Here Comes Sunshine* The Grateful Dead
The Word	*Songs of Freedom* Santana
Lucy in the Sky *With Diamonds*	*Heroin* The Velvet Underground
Within You Without You	*Crystal Blue Persuasion* Tommy James and the Shondells
Julia	*So Long Mom* Tom Lehrer
A Day in the Life	*The End* The Doors
Because	*Mercy Mercy Me* Marvin Gaye
Carry That Weight	*The Weight* The Band

The method of this second incarnation worked quite well because there are so many songs from the Beatles' era that allow students to envision them as poetry and to make thematic comparisons. It also allows students to suggest songs for the class and to use their favorites in their essays that compare the Beatles work to a vast catalogue of other music lyrics.

Take, for example, the theme of temporality in *Yesterday* and The Byrds' *Turn, Turn, Turn.* McCartney's lyrics sadly wish for another time. He says:

> Yesterday, all my troubles seemed so far away
> Now it looks as though they're here to stay
> Oh, I believe in yesterday

> Suddenly, I'm not half the man I used to be
> There's a shadow hanging over me.
> Oh, yesterday came suddenly . . .

This leads to a discussion about time, how it affects us, how it can be either friend or foe, depending on the circumstances. In *Turn, Turn, Turn* The Byrds address time by evoking Ecclesiastes 3:1:

> To Everything (Turn, Turn, Turn)
> There is a season (Turn, Turn, Turn)
> And a time to every purpose, under Heaven
>
> A time to be born, a time to die
> A time to plant, a time to reap
> A time to kill, a time to heal
> A time to laugh, a time to weep

These lyrics continue the theme of time as they perfectly contrast the good and the evil that have their place in every life.

In the third incarnation of the course it was important to move the course into the realm of conventional poetry, the Beatles lyrics, the lyrics of other musical artists, and poetry from across ages and cultures were woven together.

It is clear that the Second Generation Romantic poets have much in common with the Beatles in terms of their ideology and even their lifestyles; this is particularly true of Percy Bysshe Shelley and Lord Byron (George Gordon). Shelley and Byron were exceedingly popular; they were chased all over Europe by women wishing just to sleep with them, just as the Beatles were (and still are today). Their lifestyles are reflected in those of the 1960s' generation. They practiced free love (Lord Byron with Clair Clairmont, Shelley with Mary Godwin) and their lives were rife with scandal; they finally left England in order to live more freely. They experimented with opium and frequently used heroin and its derivative, laudanum. In other words, these poets were the godfathers of "sex, drugs, rock 'n' roll". They were culturally and socially savvy, yet they chose to ignore all convention. They were also quite involved in the protest movements of their time – Shelley with the Irish fight for liberation from England (*An Address to the Irish People and Proposal for an Association of Philanthropists)* and the war against the working class in England (*The Masque of Anarchy*), and Byron in the Greek war against the Turks. Still, there are countless poets to work with other than the Romantics.

While students respond quite well in terms of making connections between the Romantic poets and the Beatles, they do ultimately understand and appreciate the intersection of themes with a myriad of other poetry and the Beatles lyrics; the Beat poets and the poets writing in the 1960s are especially popular.

The following is a short list of conventional poetry that works well thematically with the Beatles lyrics:

The Beatles	Complementary Poetry
Misery	*Tenebrae* Geoffery Hill
Here, There, and Everywhere	*She Walks in Beauty* Lord Byron
Revolution	*London* William Blake
If I Needed Someone	*Gestalt Prayer* Frederick Perls
When I'm Sixty-Four	*Sonnets from the Portuguese #43:* *How do I Love Thee?* Elizabeth Barrett Browning
You've Got to Hide *Your Love Away*	*Gay* author unknown
She Said, She Said	*Contemplating Death* Sandi J. Holland
I Don't Want to Spoil *The Party*	*The More Loving One* W.H. Auden
Help	*When I Have Fears* John Keats
Nowhere Man	*I'm Nobody, Who are You?* Emily Dickinson

In My Life	*Funeral Blues*
	W.H. Auden
Eleanor Rigby	*The Love Song of J. Alfred Prufrock*
	T.S.Eliot
I'm Only Sleeping	*The Lotos Eaters*
	Tennyson
Money Can't Buy Me Love	*The World Is Too Much With Us*
I Am The Walrus	*The Walrus and the Carpenter*
	Lewis Carroll
Happiness Is A Warm Gun	*The Goblin Market*
	Christina Rossetti

The following is an example of how these pairings are taught using Frederick Perls' *Gestalt Prayer* and the Beatles *If I Needed Someone*. Perls says:

> I do my thing and you do your thing
> I am not in this world to live up to your expectations,
> And you are not in this world to live up to mine. You are you and I am I
> And if by chance we find each other, it's beautiful.

Thematically, this can take students' down many roads. Perls celebrates individuality and questions the likelihood of any two people coming together. At the end of the poem he celebrates the fact that *should* chance bring people together, it would be "beautiful." The title itself emphasizes this, since the meaning of the word "gestalt" is an organized whole that is more than the sum of its parts. Still, chance may not bring two people together and Perls stresses the fact that we are all individuals, responsible, ultimately, only for ourselves.

In *If I Needed Someone* The Beatles theme is also individuality:

> If I needed someone to love
> You're the one that I'd be thinking of
> If I needed someone

> If I had some more time to spend
> Then I guess I'd be with you my friend
> If I needed someone
>
> Had you come some other day
> Then it might not have been like this
> But you see now I'm too much in love
>
> Carve your number on my wall
> And maybe you will get a call from me
> If I needed someone . . .

While there is an attraction, there is also emphasis on "if" which casts doubt over the possibility that the relationship will, in fact, ever begin.

An important aspect of this course is to look beneath the surface of the words – to discover what is being said that is not apparent without careful scrutiny and knowledge of both the authors and their times. For example, the song *Please Please Me* refers to oral sex. And *You've Got to Hide Your Love Away* refers to being homosexual. Both of these themes would have been taboo – even in "swinging London" in the 1960s; for instance, it was not until 1967 when homosexuality was decriminalized in England and *You've Got to Hide Your Love Away* was released in 1963. *Martha My Dear*, seemingly about a woman, is actually a song about Paul's sheepdog, *Hey Jude* was written by Paul to comfort Julian Lennon during his parents' divorce; Sexy Sadie expresses Lennon's disgust with the Maharishi Mahesh Yogi.

Students are surprised to discover these facts. Indeed, there are so many Beatles lyrics that tell a completely different story than what is immediately apparent that students make it a game to uncover as many "hidden meanings" as they can. And beyond that, they also begin to read other poetry deeply to find unexpected connotations.

Through the Beatles philanthropic, peacenik (*Eleanor Rigby, From Us To You, Blackbird*) and revolutionary lyrics (*Revolution, All You Need is Love, Carry That Weight*) students learn what the culture of the '60s was like. They describe their generation (Millennials) as self-involved, lazy, and conflict-averse. When asked individually if they would be willing to engage in a movement for justice as so many college students did during the '60s, it is rare to find one who says they would. Teaching this aspect of the Beatles work gives them a lens through which to view a time when college students cared deeply

about social justice. Some examples that impress them are the Freedom Riders, the shootings at Kent State during an anti-war protest and John Carlos' and Tommie Smith's Black Power salute at the 1968 Olympics. Surprisingly, (or perhaps not) students are not at all impressed by the successful efforts of the counterculture movement to get the 26th Amendment passed, lowering the voting age from 21 to 18.

Teaching the Beatles as individual artists after the band split (April 10, 1970) is an important and appropriate way to conclude the course. Students are certainly interested in the songs, especially in the fact that they all became such activists post break-up. They began to actively work for peace and the annihilation of poverty.

John and Paul indulged in politicizing their lyrics, something they had done, yet mostly by intimation, as Beatles. Ultimately, this resulted in some of their lyrics being banned by the British Broadcasting Company. McCartney's *Give Ireland Back to the Irish,* released in February of 1972, sympathized with the "enemy" at a time when Northern Ireland was in dire turmoil. The song was written in sympathy for the victims of "Bloody Sunday" but most importantly it was a protest against the restrictions of daily life imposed on the Irish by the British army.

The "Bloody Sunday" massacre took place on January 30th, 1972. During a protest against the internment of suspected Irish nationalists, thirteen unarmed Irish civilians were shot dead and 17 more injured. Perhaps McCartney recognized his own Irish roots at this time, both of his parents being of Irish descent.

John Lennon was fully Irish only on his father's side, but was even more Irish nationalistic than McCartney. His songs *If You Had the Luck of the Irish* and *Sunday Bloody Sunday* are far more radical than McCartney's *Give Ireland Back to the Irish.*

Influenced by his sojourn to India as a Beatle and his friendship with Ravi Shankar, George Harrison organized the Concert for Bangladesh. It was the first of its kind, bringing together a spectacular line-up of rock stars to raise money for charity.

Ringo also took part in the Concert for Bangladesh and ultimately founded his own charity, The Lotus Foundation.

The politicization of their lyrics along with their philanthropic works demonstrate how the individual Beatles recognized that they had a much deeper role to play concerning social and political justice. Freed from the restrictions of being Beatles, and having no financial worries, they now began to work resolutely, using their fame and fortune to promote charitable causes.

Students enjoy learning about these endeavors by the Beatles for several reasons. They appreciate the fact that Lennon, McCartney, Harrison and Starr didn't just disappear in the way that many, many band members do, but continued to work not only philanthropically, but creatively; that they didn't just rest on their laurels, which they certainly could have; and that their activism, rather than diminish, became much stronger.

Students are also quite curious about the Beatles' biographies. Of course, all of these details reside in their lyrics, so these questions lead directly back to them. Students want to know such facts as where the Beatles grew up, what their family lives were like, who their girlfriends were, and where they live/d post-Beatles. It is a critical part of the course to examine the autobiographical lyrics, for example:

Lennon, like his predecessors Shelley and Byron who left England forever, felt constricted in England. He couldn't be creative or walk around freely without being instantly surrounded by fans. And having visited New York City where he felt very much at home and free to enjoy the city without being bothered. New Yorkers are notoriously "cool" and most wouldn't dream of acknowledging a celebrity. So this was the perfect place for him; he left England for good and moved to New York City in 1971.

McCartney remained in Britain; he owns homes in Scotland – High Park Farm and the Mull of Kintyre – and in London and Sussex.

A discussion with students regarding where Lennon and McCartney chose to live post-Beatles reflects, in Lennon's case, his desire to be anonymous when he chose, and in McCartney's case, his profound patriotism regarding Britain. These propensities are expressed in their lyrics. In *Watching the Wheels* Lennon says:

> People say I'm crazy doing what I'm doing,
> Well they give me all kinds of warnings
> To save me from ruin,
> > When I say that I'm o.k. they look at me kind of strange,
> > Surely you're not happy now you no longer play the
> > game,
>
> People say I'm lazy dreaming my life away,
> Well they give me all kinds of advice
> Designed to enlighten me,
> > When I tell that I'm doing fine watching shadows on the
> > wall,
> Don't you miss the big time boy you're no
> longer on the ball?

McCartney, however, writes lovingly of places in Britain; for example, in *Mull of Kintyre* he says:

> Mull of Kintyre
> Oh mist rolling in from the sea,
> My desire is always to be here
> Oh mull of Kintyre
> Far have I traveled and much have I seen
> Dark distant mountains with valleys of green.
> Past painted deserts the sunset's on fire
> As he carries me home to the mull of Kintyre.

Conclusion

Teaching a literature course that focuses on the Beatles lyrics may sound frivolous. In fact, it is anything but that. Through this course students gain a myriad of skills; they learn to appreciate the Beatles' lyrics as poetry and thus all genres of music lyrics as such. Finally, they come to understand that poetry is a ubiquitous part of their lives, and ultimately, a valuable guide to understanding both their interior and exterior worlds.

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Myths and misconceptions about children's literature

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Abstract

Myths and Misconceptions do exist about Children's Literature, as it is the case for every scientific discipline. At times they address the role of children's literature (ChL) in society and in history or its specialized areas. On other occasions, myths and misconceptions are related to the language, the structure, the themes, the plot and/or the content of ChL. Every so often, how ChL is/should be taught and used in-class and out-of-class is an issue around which various myths are constructed.

In this paper the myths and misconceptions of ChL are critically reviewed as a contribution to attempts made to clarify the gray areas surrounding the study of ChL, planting rigor grounds for its development.

Virtual paper

Available also at: http://www.jolace.com/products/elena-s-xeni-cyprus-id-199-myths-and-misconceptions-about-childrens-literature/

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The comparative study of poems composed by Forough Farrokhzad and Emily Dickenson

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Abstract
This investigation had been done in the domain of comparative literature between Persian and English literature. The goal of this research was to find same horizons of thoughts between two poetesses with two different cultures and language – ForoughFarrokhzad of Persian literature and Emily Dickenson of English literature.
Key words
Comparative literature, Emily Dickenson, English literature, ForoughFarrokhzad, Persian literature.

Introduction

Comparative literature is one of criticism branches of literature which investigates and compares the literary works from different countries and different cultures. ForoughFarrokhzad and Emily Dickenson for their huge similarities in thinking, ontology, politicalhuman studying, society, and personal life had been compared in this research.

Research Questions

Studying these poetesses' works by pay more attention to their circumstances, social position, and effects that they may had on each other, can make such questions:
Did they live in the same environment?
Did they have any similarities in their thoughts?
Did they have any effect on each other?

Explanation of Comparative Literature

Comparative literature is a branch, which shows difference between cultures and nations. So giving an exact explanation of it, is a complicated work. Comparative literature is mostly found in works which has multiple languages (Marcel, 1372/1993, p. 36). Kafafi remarks:

"Comparative literature studies the literature conflux in various languages and it's complex relationship in past and present and its historical relationship in art, literary schools, streams of consciousness, subjects, and etc." (1382/2004, p. 12).

Importance of Comparative Literature

As GhanimiHelal said (1382/2004), comparative literature is important for it reveals the sources of streams of consciousness and the art of literature. Each stream of consciousness encounters with the international literature at first, and then co-operates to justify the consciousness of human beings. In comparative literature we can find the equal points in people's minds more than anything else (p. 491). It can be said that comparative literature makes a new era in literary investigations, and must be known as a different literature branch.

A brief History of Comparative Literature

As comparative literature was born in French, it can be considered a French science. The word "Comparative Literature" introduced by Francois Villemain - a professor of Sorbonne University - while teaching foreign literature in 1207 (Damrosh, 1383/2004, p. 127).

The French School of comparative literature was the center of attention until 20th century after the second World War, when the necessity of knowing other nations in order to attain peace appeared (Damrosh, 1383/2004, p. 128).

Comparative literature is one of the branches of literarycriticism which investigates the cultural relationship between nations through literature; on the other hand, I think it is a cultural interaction among nations over time.

Goethe, the German poet had a great influence on development of the concept of comparative literature. Goethe, willman, and John Jack Ampere had a great rule to create comparative literature. As Saint Bo mentioned: "Ampere was the greatest person who established the history of comparative literature". Some English and German works appeared after him from poets and critics such as Mathew Arnold and Maupassant. Briefly, it should be mentioned, comparative literature didn't bound to European countries, it was spread to the other countries soon.

Comparative Literature Schools

Literary works in comparative literature compared in 3 fields: languages, cultures, and academic disciplines. As the word "Compare" presents both similarities and differences, we can use comparative literature for any literary

works that seem to have some similarities and differences. Two French and American schools explain comparative literature as below:

French School

As it mentioned before, comparative literature was born in France, so French school's view point is the most important one. As the aim of comparative literature is to compare the literary influences by focus on lingual, cultural, and academic differences between two nations, it is impossible to compare a pair of literary works created in one nation. Those who communicate by a single language have the same intellectual concepts. So there is no variation or difference among the literary works written in a nation (Taha, 1387/2009, p. 25).

American School

The American school of comparative literature was introducedduring the second comparative literature international congress in Northern Carolina University by René Wellek (1930-1995) just after the Second World War. This point of view emphasises on aesthetics, art, and manner. It traverses beyond the boundaries. (Anooshirvani, 1387/2009, p. 13).

Comparing French school and American school, the French one is trying to find influences which exist in literary works by two nations and creates research boundaries, while American school doesn't allow any boundaries in research (Anooshirvani, 1387/2009, p. 3).

Research Data

Forough Farrokhzad's life and works

Forougho Zaman Farrokhzad was born in 15th Dey (6th of January) 1313/1934 in Tehran. Her parents were MohamadFarrokhzad and BatulVaziriTabar. Her father was a colonel in army and his job was the main reason to be a dictator in home, but her mother was a kind and simpleminded person. The family included 6 children, 3 girls and 3 boys (Baghaei, 1390/2011, p. 5).

She received an incomplete early education; she abandoned formal learning after she finished the first 3 years of high school and never received a high school diploma. Later on, for a short period, she attended the Femal Technical School to study painting and sewing, but Forugh's main art was writing poem, something that she began in her mid-teens. By the time of her 16th age, she began composing sonnets following the traditional poems.

Several factors made Forough's social life. First is her marriage to a government employee called ParvizShapour, later on a critic and caricaturist. After the birth of their first child, a boy named Kamyar, in 1954, the family moved to Ahwaz. A daring, petite, and attractive young woman-the first to wear new fashion cloths in Ahwaz-Forugh couldn't endure being just wife for a long time in

a little town. The marriage broke down on that year and Kamyar's supervision went to his father.

Perhaps the most important factor was the way Forough showed her emotions openly in her poems that for centuries were forbidden by religious authorities, and conservative literati. The efforts of benevolent critics who tried to separate Forugh's personal views of morality from the freshness of her ideas and approaches from her versification also fell down the way side.

If Forugh lived longer tie, we would find out a better understanding of Iranians society on that time. If her latter poems would be an indication, she foresaw much will happen to Iran during the decade. Anyway, she said her opinion. A brief chronology of Forugh's main activities between 1955 and 1967 are as follow (Bashiri, 1378/2000, p. 1-3).

Some of her works are: *Rebellion, Captive, I Feel Sad for The Garden, Wall, Sin, Another Birth, The Wind Will Carry us Away, We Should Believe that the Cold Season Begins.*

Chronology of Forough's life
1935
Born in Tehran, one of 6 children of a middle class family
1948
Finished elementary school; began writing sonnets
1951
Finished high school; married to ParvizShapour
1953
Her son, Kamyar, was born; the family moved to Ahwaz
1954
Her marriage to Shapour is broken down; Kamyar's supervision went to his father; Forugh became devastated
1955
Asir (the captive), her first collection of poems was published in Tehran
1956
Divar (the wall), was published. The volume was dedicated to her ex-husband, Shapour; traveled to Europe for the first time and approached a new sight of world and herself.
1957
'Osiyan (Rebellion) is published; becomes an assistant to movie producer EbrahimGolestan, although their association and friendship became controversial, they worked together until Forugh died.
1959

She traveled to England to study the art of the film. TavallodiDigar (Another Birth) was completed. The volume, published posthumously, was dedicated to EbrahimGolestan who had helped the poetess enormously during their nine years of association. At this year Forugh began editing the film A Fire.

1960

Played a role and assisted in the production of the film Courtship dealing with Iranian courtship customs

1961

Co-Produced the film Water and Heat as well as made a commercial for the Kayhan newspaper

1962

Played a role in and assisted with the production of an unfinished film calledThe Sea. The theme of the film was based on SadeghChubak's short story "Why Did the Sea Become Stormy?" She also worked on a film about a leper colony in Tabriz. The film was called The House is Black

1963

Received grand prize for "The House isBlack " at Oberhausen Film festival in Germany.

1964

First anthology of her poem was published.

1965

Her life was the subject of a 15-minute film documentary produced by the UNESCO

1967

Visited Italy. Planed to play on the stage theater based on Bernard Shaw's St. Joan in Tehran; passed away in a car crash (February), at the age of 32.

1974

A posthumous collection of her poems was published (Bashiri, 1380/2000, p. 2).

Life and Works of Emily Dickenson

Emily Elizabeth Dickenson was born in 10th December 1830/1209 in Amherst in western Massachusetts, and died there on May 1886/1265. Her parents were Edward Dickenson (1803-1847) and Emily Norcross Dickenson (1804-1882). The family included three children, 2 girls and a boy. The Dickensons were well-off and well educated (Bohluli, 1390/2011, p. 84).

In 1860 when she was 30, she fell in love with Charles Wordsworth, one of their family friends. After one year Charles left Emily and went to California for work. It was a big romantic failure for Emily. She always was seen with white cloths after that fiasco, and people called her "*Secluded Queen"*. On that period

Emily composed her masterpieces, but she left home less than before and became seclude. She never married until the end of her life. In 15th may 1886 when she was 56 years old, she passed away because of nephrogenic disease. After Emily's death, her sister, Lavinia, burned her private letters (Bohluli, 1390/2011, p. 86-88).

"During this housecleaning, she found a box which wondered her. More than 1700 poems! Emily kept the poems in order to compose them in 52 pockets. Lavinia introduced the result of Emily's effort to the world" (Movahed, 1385, p. 191).

Emily Dickinson enjoyed the writings of an impressive list of contemporaries such as Emerson, Thoreau, Hawthorne, Longfellow, Whittier, Lowell, and Oliver Wendell Holmes, Sr. she also read from the Victorians, Charlotte Bronte, Elizabeth Barrett Browning, Thomas Carlyle, and George Eliot, and the Romantic poet Lord Byron. She also loved "David Copperfield" by Charles Dickens. When she discovered Shakespeare she asked, "Why is any other book needed?" In her home she hung portraits of Eliot, Browning, and Carlyle (Gamber, p. 2).

After several friends, a nephew, and her parents died, Dickinson wrote fewer and fewer poems and stopped organizing them, as she had been doing for many years. She wrote that "Dyings have been too deep for me." In 1890 Lavinia published Emily's works and since 1920 Emily's works became valuable for the world of literature.(Gamber, p. 3).

A brief chronology of Emily's main activities between 1830 and 1890 follows:

Chronology of Emily's life
1830
Emily Elizabeth Dickenson was born in Amherst, Massachusetts. She was the second of three children of Edward and Emily Norcross Dickinson.
1840
Emily and her sister Lavinia began classes at Amherst Academy, a converted boys' school. In her seven years of schooling there, she was frequently absent due to illness.
1844
Second cousin and good friend Sophia Holland died of typhus. Thirteen-year-old Emily was deeply shaken by the girl's death.
1846
Leonard Humphrey, an educator in his early twenties, took over as principal of Amherst Academy. Dickinson grew close to him as a friend and mentor. He was one of several older men she referred to throughout her life as a master.
1847

Dickinson completed her studies at Amherst Academy and enrolled at the Mount Holyoke Female Seminary (later Mount Holyoke College). Mount Holyoke classified its students into three religious categories: women who were "established Christians," women who "expressed hope," and those "without hope". Dickinson was dissapointed.

1848

Less than a year into college, Dickinson quitted her studies for reasons that remain unclear—possibly poor health, homesickness, her parents' wishes or her dislike of the school. Her brother Austin arrived at Mount Holyoke to escort her home.

1850

Dickinson's friend and former principal, Leonard Humphrey, died unexpectedly at the age of 25. "The tears come, and I cannot brush them away; I would not if I could, for they are the only tribute I can pay the departed Humphrey," Dickinson wrote to her friend Abiah Root.

1855

For the first and only time in her life, Dickinson traveled outside the borders of her home state. With her mother and sister, she spent three weeks in Washington D.C. visiting her Congressman father; she then spent two weeks with relatives in Philadelphia. After their return, Dickinson's mother fell ill.

1856

Dickinson's brother, William, married Emily's friend, Susan Gilbert. The new sisters-in-law have an intense, tempestuous relationship. Though Dickinson craved Gilbert's approval, the aloof, brooding Gilbert frequently hurt her delicate sister-in-law's feelings.

1858

Dickinson started making formal copies of her poems. Some of her verses appeared in the Springfield Republican, a paper edited by her friend, Samuel Bowles.

1862

After reading an essay by literary critic and abolitionist Thomas Wentworth Higginson in The Atlantic Monthly, Dickinson wrote him to ask him to review her poetry. They strike up a correspondence that lasts for years.

1864

Poems appeared in Drum Beat to raise money for Union soldiers' medical expenses. Dickinson also published poems in the Brooklyn Daily Union.

1867

Dickinson began to voluntarily withdraw from social life, preferring to speak with visitors through a door rather than face-to-face. It was her most productive

period of writing. She stayed socially active by sending numerous letters to favorite correspondents.

1870

After repeatedly declining his requests for a meeting or photograph, Dickinson met Thomas Wentworth Higginson, her pen pal of eight years. "She came toward me with two day-lilies, which she put in a childlike way into my hand, saying softly, under her breath, 'These are my introduction' Higginson recalled of their unusual meeting.

1872

In 1872 (or possibly in 1873), Dickinson made the acquaintance of Massachusetts Supreme Court Judge Otis Phillips Lord. They exchanged numerous letters over the years. Scholars speculate that the two may have become romantically involved after the death of Otis's wife in 1877.

1874

Dickinson's father, Edward, died of a stroke in Boston at the age of 71. He was buried in Amherst. Instead of attending her father's services, she listened to the funeral in her room upstairs.

1882

Dickinson's mother, Emily Norcross Dickinson, died. Her death relieves Emily, who had spent much of the last 30 years caring for her bedridden mother.

1883

Gilbert Dickinson, William and Susan's son and Emily's favorite nephew, died of typhoid fever.

1884

Dickinson's maybe-boyfriend, Judge Otis Phillips Lord, died.

1886

Emily Dickinson died of Bright's Disease—a kidney ailment now known as nephritis. After her coffin was carried—per her instructions—through fields of buttercups, she buried in West Cemetery in Amherst.

1890

Dickinson's sister, Lavinia, discovered hundreds of Emily's unpublished poems in her desk after her death. They were published together for the first time four years after Emily's death and become wildly successful, going through eleven printings in two years.

Contents of Forough and Emily's poems

We can classify contents of Forough's poems as follows: honesty in declaration of feelings**,** love, lover, beloved**, f**eminism**,** disappointment**, n**ihilism,

Death**,** God, faith, religion**,** decline of values**,** freedom**,** and nature (Saeidpour, 1388/2009, p. 38).

The value of Emily Dickenson's works didn't recognize until 50 years after her death. In her poems we can see the equal experiences of life which means she used her own experiences in life for her poems. The traditional thoughts of her father, that he didn't permit her to read many kinds of books, was the reason that we can't see any pastiche in her poems (Bohluli, 1390/2011, p. 129).

Emily Dickinson's sister, Lavinia, gathered Emily's poems and published them in 1890. Editors changed some of her words, punctuations, and capitalizations to make them conform to a certain standard. Later editions restored Dickinson's unique style and organized them in a roughly chronological order.

Emily Dickinson's poems have many identifiable features. Her poems have been memorized, enjoyed, and discussed since their first publication. Many critics consider her to have been extraordinarily gifted in her abilities to create concise, meaningful, and memorable poems.

The major themes in her poetry include friends, nature, love, and death. Not surprisingly, she also refers to flowers often in her poems. Many of her poem's allusions come from her education in the Bible, classical mythology, and Shakespeare.

Dickinson did not give titles to her poems, an unusual feature. Others have given titles to some of her poems, and often the first line of the poem is used as a title.

She wrote short lines, preferring to be concise in her images and references. A study of her letters to friends and mentors shows that her prose style was composed of short iambic phrases, making her prose very similar to her poetry.

Existence of common and contrast between Forough and Emily's poems
Love

Love is the deepest and the most beautiful relationship that exists among human beings, and poem is the best way for declaring it, for feeling is the only similarity between two persons. The poet uses all the elements of nature and life in order to describe his/her beloved.

In the works of these two poetesses, love was one of the contents which declared in the form of poem with 2 different languages. This element was more colorful in Forough's poems.

In love, Forough is looking for a relationship without any media. She wants a true love. She doesn't like modern loves which are <Hyperbolic and full of calenture>or <Very elementary and painful>. Foroughbelieves to a true and touchable love.

Night is colorful with your dream
My heart is full of your odor
You are my fervid body beats
Fire in the shadow of my eyelash (Farrokhzad, 1371/1992, p. 68).

Emily's European culture, society, and belief was so different with Iranian culture. In her poems love is very generalized and ambiguous. She couldn't talk frankly about love like Forough, because she never got married. We shouldn't forget that she lived 50 years before Forough, and her poems were affected by traditional believesof that time.

In Dickenson's time, women didn't have freedom like today. She showed her prudency in her song. For being in a man's arms, she hid herself in a flower:

I hide myself within my flower
That wearing on your breast
You unsuspending, wear me to-
And angels know the rest
I hide myself within my flower,
That fading from your vase
You, unsuspending, feel for me-
Almost loneliness (Qtd. in Johnson, 1995, p. 246)

Sin

Another similarity that I found in their poems was indicating theForbidden Fruit as a symbol of sin and passion. In Islamic culture the forbidden fruit is Wheat, Forough knew it, but she used Apple as forbidden fruit, which is Israelite. This subject matter shows that she was affected by western culture (qtd. in Akbari, 1389, p. 178).

Everybody knows, everybody knows
That you and me, from that morose aperture
Saw the garden, and picked the Apple
From that branch (qtd. in Movahed, 1385, p. 59).

And now Emily indicates wheat!
Forbidden fruit a flavor has
That lawful orchards mocks
How luscious lies within the pod
The pea that duty locks- (qtd. in Saeedpour, 1388/2009, p. 23).

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Feminism

Feminist criticism explores the way in which literature and other cultural productions reinforce or undermine the social, cultural, economical, and psychological oppression of women. Feminism has often focused upon what is absent rather than what is present, reflecting concern with the silencing and marginalization of women in a patriarchal culture, a culture organized in the favor of men (Guerin, Labor, Morgan et al, 1386/2005, p. 222).

In 19-20th century women begin to try to gain their rights and the women we are talking about were the poetesses who object the society about women.

Forough is always concerned about the traditions and injustice that existed about women. In Emily's poems, we can find just 2 poems about women and the role that they are playing at home and society. Her poems show the first signs of feminist. Forough's poems are the full fledged objection of Emily. This poem from Emily is similar to Forough's thoughts:

She rose to his requirement –dropt
The playthings of her life
To take the honorable work
Of woman, and of life-
If ought she missed in her new day
Of amplitude, or awe (qtd. in Saeedpour, 1388/2009, p. 46)

Death

Death is an unwanted end for all people and they always think to it, though nobody but a poet can imagine his/her death. In the poems which I surveyed from these 2 poetesses, death had beenimagine with different faces. In Forough's works death is a subject that we can find it several times.

In Emily's works, death is detailed, for since she was a child, she encountered with the loss of her friends and family. She wrote about her soul flying and entering to another world. As she wrote in "*Poems*":

I felt my life with both my hands
To see if it was there
I held my spirit to the glass
To prove it possible
*I turned my being round and round (*p.33)

God, Faith

In this research I considered 2 poetesses which one of them born in an Islamic, and another one in a Christian family.In Iran,Forough was talking about a mother that she is prayingall her life long, and talking to God. In Emily's poems

existence of God and believing in Paradise was crystal clear, too. In her point of view, God is supersensible. Although we can't see him, but his existence is incontrovertible (Bohluli, 1390, p. 165).

A species stands beyond
Invisible as music
But positive as sound
It beckons, and it baffle
To gain it men have borne
Contempt of generation (Dickenson, 1990, p. 44)

Nature

In Forough's poems nature's perspectives had a special position. She used the elements of nature for declaring her own feelings to the reader:

The sunlight of my eyes, became cold
My tears like rain, paint
What if I was silent like autumn
The leave of my dress my dreams, became yellow (Farrokhzad, 1371/1992, p. 54)

Emily didn't use nature for expressing her feelings, in her poems we just encounter with nature as nature:

It shifts from leaden sieves
It powders from all the wood
It fills with alabaster wool
The wrinkles of the road (Dickenson, 1990/1369, p. 19)

Hope and Hopeless

Hope is an element which helps people to encounter with agony and pain. People like Emily and Forough, that their lives spent in hopelessness always think to death.Forough didn't use the word "hope" unless when she wanted to talk about lack of it. Emily was not familiar with hope either:

I am not used to hopsse
It might intrude upon
It's sweet parade- blaspheme the place
Ordainted to suffer (Dickenson, 1990/1369, p. 123)

Conclusion

Comparing two thoughts from two different cultures is one of the most important studies in order to find the root of the thoughts of great people.

In this research we tried to compare the thoughts and poems of two great poetesses from two different cultures and languages. After explaining Comparative Literature, we investigated about Forough and Emily's life, works, and thoughts. We found these contents: love, sin, feminism, death, God, faith, and nature.

Our research showed that these two poetesses had many common and contrasts which were related to their lifestyle, society. They both lived in their society but they were separated and sometimes rejected by people, for their thoughts and appearance were not the same with them. Their appearance was different with normal people. In our opinion maybe they were more famous and successful if they live these days.

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Enhancing student schematic knowledge of culture through literature circles in a foreign language classroom

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Abstract

Improving student understanding of a foreign language culture is anything but a peripheral issue in the teaching of a foreign language. This study reports on a second year required English course in a university in Japan that took a Literature Circles approach, where students were asked to read short stories out of class and then discuss these stories in class. Although students reported that they did not gain any special insights into the target language culture presented, they did report that reading fiction as source material for classroom activity helps with the acquisition of a vocabulary set that is more closely associated with lifestyle and culture. Procedures of the class and the issues that emerged are described and interpreted in the context of the English education system in Japan.

Keywords

literature circles, vocabulary acquisition, intercultural communication, Japan

Introduction

Communicating effectively in a foreign or second language requires more than just mastery of the linguistic code, intercultural competence also underlies effective foreign language communication. Meaning that the study of a foreign language should not simply be a matter of learning an isolated linguistic code as an object of academic study, it should involve practice in using the language in intercultural contexts, leading to the development of real-world communication skills. Communicative events are rarely out of context, and given that cultural conventions shape how communicative events unfold, such events are rarely culture-free. Knowledge of a linguistic code alone is often insufficient for effective communication.

In Japan, English education has undergone a series of reforms over the past thirty years, to address the constant problem of needing workers who can communicate effectively with the world outside of Japan. The word *kokusaika* (internationalization) emerged as a popular expression during the 1980s as Japan expanded its economic might, and today, three decades later, the term is still widely used to describe the ongoing need for Japanese working in professional fields to cultivate the necessary skills to participate actively within the international community. The Ministry of Education, Science and Technology

(MEXT) has taken many initiatives to promote the development of more communicative English skills. It has encouraged communicative teaching methods, in place of traditional grammar-translation teaching methods, as one such remedy. In 1994 the ministry introduced a new course of study in Japanese high schools, English Oral Communication, in order to foster more communicative speaking abilities. In 2003, MEXT announced the *National Action Plan to Cultivate Japanese with English Abilities* aimed at improving the communicative English abilities of Japanese high school students. In early 2014, MEXT announced the "full-scale development of new English education in Japan" in order to improve communicative English speaking skills for the 2020 Olympics.

However, while there is much discussion about educational reform, many obstacles remain which prevent teachers from taking up these initiatives and trying to help students improve their intercultural communication skills. Gorsuch (1998) has identified three obstacles which act to inhibit the development of intercultural communicative English skills in Japanese high schools and these three factors are still very much relevant today: a heavily grammar oriented curriculum with too much *yakudoku, a* grammar translation activity where complex English grammatical patterns are rendered into Japanese, the university entrance exam system, which demands that students possess a passive understanding of complex grammatical rules, and finally a lack of teacher training in communicative teaching methods.

High school teachers are constrained by the university entrance exam system in Japan and often feel, quite rightly, that their first responsibility is to help students pass these entrance exams and gain access to an elite education and a chance at a better life. Unsurprisingly, many teachers spend a great deal of the available class time focussing on isolated elements of grammar to help students better answer these exam questions correctly and will often neglect the teaching of English as a tool for intercultural communication.

Students in Japan rarely have opportunities to use English as a tool for giving and getting information, processing information, reporting information, or synthesizing and comparing information; that is, English is rarely used as a tool of academic endeavor. Given the need to both enhance student abilities to use English as a medium of information exchange and also promote intercultural understanding, this study investigates the validity of using a *Literature Circles* approach as a way to improve communicative skills while introducing a cultural component through the use of target language literature as source material for the class.

With such a clearly defined need, language teachers are being urged to develop curricula that can foster communicative language skills and also intercultural competence. One way to accomplish this is through the use of literature. The Modern Language Association Ad Hoc Committee on Foreign Languages (2007), for example, recommends raising intercultural competence by having students read, comprehend and analyze narratives in the target language. And one way to teach literature communicatively is through the use of Literature Circles (LC), a type of peer discussion class activity put forward by Harvey Daniels, an American teacher and researcher. First of all, reading has long been recognized as a useful pathway to L2 mastery. As noted by Barrette et al. (2010), literature is one type of target language narrative that exposes students to comprehensible input, facilitating language acquisition. Secondly, reading which is followed up with communicative activities that force students to output language has also been found to be highly effective for both vocabulary development and language acquisition in general. (see for example, Altman, 1997; Coady, 1997; Joe, 1998; Ellis and Xe 1999). Lastly, using literature as source material for classroom discussion exposes students to words, phrases and idioms that are more associated with lifestyle and culture than they might otherwise encounter in a typical EFL/ESL classroom.

Source Material

The source material chosen for the class was a story graded and written for intermediate EFL students. The book was written with simplified grammar and a limited vocabulary set, chosen to match the level of the class. The reading material was selected following the advice of Nation, (2001) that adequate comprehension can be achieved when students read materials in which 98% of the running words are known. The book was also chosen because of its format, two short stories, divided into 6 chapters, which made it ideal for use over a 15 class term.

The two stories were both detective stories, and focussing the reading on a single genre can help students develop a better feel for the language, style and literary conventions associated with that genre. Furthermore, there is some research which suggests that having students focus on a single genre rather than a wide variety of genre is advantageous for second language acquisition, as students get multiple exposures to a vocabulary set which is associated with that particular genre. (see Krashen 2004) Both stories were *whodunit* mystery stories set in Washington, D.C.. The main character in the stories was a female detective of mixed Chinese- Peruvian heritage working for the Washington D.C. police department.

By focusing on the mystery genre, students were repeatedly exposed to words that they might not encounter in a typical EFL/ESL class. For example, some of the words and expressions that were used repeatedly and associated with the detective story genre included: dust for fingerprints, drugged, wall safe, combination, glance nervously and so on. Other words more associated with lifestyle included: prescription, allergic, allowance, fiance, prescription, sigh, mumble and so on. The use of these stories gave students exposure to a wider range of words and expressions.

Class Procedure

Students came to each class having read one chapter from the book as homework, typically 7 pages or 2,000 words. In addition to the reading, students had to check their understanding by doing a series of comprehension check questions. In class, students were put into groups of four to do discussion sessions which were then repeated four or five times to build fluency.

Following the advice of Furr (2004), the Literature Circles (LC) were set up as follows:

1. *The instructor selected materials appropriate to the level of the class.*

Although in L1 educational contexts, most practitioners of LC recommend that students select their own books to read in order to promote interest and raise motivation, in an EFL context having graded texts that are somewhat more easy to read can help students more easily comprehend the story, promoting reading fluency and allowing students to enjoy the text by *getting to meaning* more effortlessly. To make sure students were reading materials appropriate to their level, the materials were selected by the instructor.

2. *Small temporary groups were arranged at the instructor's discretion.*

In order to better manage the group dynamics of the class and maximize student participation, groups were formed and changed using a random numerical system. Students were not allowed to choose their own groups in an effort to avoid having all the strong students together in one group, or having groups of friends form cliques together. When groups are formed and reformed according to a random numerical system, students get opportunities to interact with a wider variety of people than they might have had they formed groups by themselves.

3. *The whole class read the same material.*

In L1 LC, students read different stories. However, in an EFL context, all students read the same story. This means that all students will be familiar with the basic content of all the spoken interaction during the group discussion and can better understand the discussion, leading to improved fluency.

4. *Students discussed the source material using a predictable and structured format.*

In order for LC to work well, a certain amount of student training is needed. Students need to become familiar with their roles. A structured and predicable format helps students to understand what is expected of them, and what is expected of each role in the discussion.

Within their groups, each student was assigned a role on the day of the class. The roles were as follows:

a. *Leader*: leads the discussion and asks questions.
b. *Summarizer*: summarizes the story to date and also the current week's chapter.
c. *Detail master*: answers questions asked by the leader about details of the story.
d. *Vocabulary master*: explains the meanings of words using their own words.

5. *Students were allowed to use written prepared notes to help with their discussions.*

The role of the summarizer demands that students be able to relate the narrative. Allowing students to create story maps, helps the summarizer give a more detailed account of the main story.

6. *The teacher played the role of facilitator, not a group member or an instructor.*

Once groups have been set up and the students understand what is expected of them, the teacher needs to step back and allow the students to take responsibility for the maintenance of group discussion.

7. *Task repetition was crucial for fluency development.*

Discussion sessions typically last five to seven minutes. Bearing in mind the value of task repetition, having students do these sessions multiple times leads to improved performance. Students learn from their mistakes, improve their fluency and also gain confidence with each repetition. Repetition can be facilitated by changing the group membership, so that each group has entirely new members with each cycle. Changing group membership also gives the activity some communicative purpose, as fresh discussions can be had with the new members.

8. *In between cycles, the teacher provided models.*

In between cycles, the teacher gave his own summaries of the story to date, the chapter being done that week, explanations of some vocabulary items and

examples of questions and answers to the details of the story as models for the students to emulate should they choose to.

9. *At the end of each story, students did project work to facilitate review.*

As a review project, poster sessions can be held by having students present on a specific character from the book in small group poster presentations.

Questions

The present study investigated student opinion about the LC approach from a number of different perspectives.The following questions were asked:

1. Had students previously experienced an LC approach?
2. Was the experience positive or negative?
3. Did this approach contribute to vocabulary learning?
4. Was LC more effective than traditional methods in helping students learn new words?
5. Was LC more effective than traditional methods in helping students learn how to use their new words?
6. Did students feel that the use of fictional literature as source material helped foster a better understanding of words associated with lifestyle and culture?
6. Did students feel that learning these sorts of words was valuable.

Method
Participants

The participants in the study were 78 second year chemical engineering university students (53 males and 25 females) studying English as a required second year course at a well regarded science university in Tokyo. Most of the students in the class were quite motivated to learn English, seeing English as important for their futures. Although the English proficiency level of the students was not directly measured during the course of this study, given that all students passed a rigorous entrance exam to enter the university, most of the students in the chemical engineering department could be said to be at an intermediate or *threshold* level (CEFR B1) of English proficiency. There were 78 students registered in the class, however we were only able to use survey data from 62 students due to either incomplete data on the questionnaire or student absences on the day the survey was administered.

Instrumentation

To investigate these questions an 11 item questionnaire was administered at the end of the course. The questions were asked in Japanese and students were

encouraged to make further comments in either English or Japanese. A translation of the questionnaire is included in the appendix.

The Results

Most students in the study had not previously experienced literature circles, as 82% of students reported that it was a novel experience for them. In addition, the majority of students felt that the classes were useful, with 75% of students rating the approach as positive. Students gave a variety of reasons for their positive and negative ratings. The most common reason cited for a positive rating was that students were able to use and think in English. Other reasons given were that students were able to actively participate and participate equally due to the defined speaking roles. Others cited the need to preview before class as contributing to an overall positive experience. The two main reasons given for a negative rating were that there were a few students that didn't properly prepare for the class and that there were some gaps in student motivation, meaning that students who didn't participate actively impeded some of the group discussion.

In terms of learning new vocabulary, literature circles was not felt to be superior, however in terms of learning to *use* new vocabulary, literature circles was rated as being more effective than traditional methods. When asked to compare literature circles with more traditional approaches in terms of helping students learning to *use* newly acquired vocabulary, 66% of students rated LC as being superior, 10% rated LC as inferior and 24% rated LC as being equal to other more traditional approaches.

In terms of gaining an understanding of a target language culture, although students reported that they did not gain any significant understanding of the target language culture through the use of LC, they did feel that using fiction as source material is useful for learning words typically associated with lifestyle and culture, with 94% of students reporting affirmatively that reading fiction is helpful for gaining an understanding of words associated with lifestyle and culture.

The results from the questionnaire are reported in Table 1.

Table 1.

Questions	Yes	Unsure	No
1. Have you previously experienced *literature circles*?	11	-	51
2. Was the experience positive?	47	-	15
3. Did the approach contribute to vocabulary learning?	26	28	8
4. Was LC more effective than traditional methods for helping students learn new words?	14	28	20
5. Was LC more effective than traditional classes in helping students develop an understanding of how to use words?	41	15	6
6. Does literature, (fiction) help 'cultural' vocabulary acquisition?	58	4	0
7. Is it useful to learn words that are associated with lifestyle and culture?	24	37	1

Discussion

That students did not find a role for LC in promoting a better understanding of the target language culture, possibly suggests that a more overt approach to the teaching of culture was needed. Murphey (1988) has suggested four general approaches to the teaching of cultural content, two implicit approaches, where culture is not taught explicitly but is assumed to *come with* the language, and two that are more explicit. The LC approach used in this study is an example of the former, suggesting that perhaps more attention could have been focused on culture by adding cultural content as an explicit educational objective rather than leaving it embedded within the source material.

Student opinion on the role of LC in promoting vocabulary acquisition was mixed. However, given that many methods of learning vocabulary have been

shown to be effective, the results are not surprising. Vocabulary is learned through repeated exposure and deeper levels of linguistic processing. This can be accomplished in many ways, and is not limited to group in-class discussion. For example, in a study comparing integrated and isolated form-focused instruction, File and Adams (2010) found that isolated form-focused instruction can lead to higher rates of learning than integrated instruction. However, both integrated form-focused instruction and isolated form-focused instruction were superior to incidental exposure alone. As LC uses an integrated approach, student opinion seems to match these research findings.

Student impressions of LC was most positive in its role facilitating a better understanding of how to use newly learned words. Words needs to be met and met again to facilitate retention and they also need to be used and used again to consolidate learning to a point of being able to use newly learned words with confidence. As Schmitt points out, "the overriding principle for maximizing vocabulary learning is to increase the amount of engagement learners have with lexical items," (Schmitt, 2008: 329) and with an LC approach, students need to recall and summarize the story in addition to having to define and explicitly discuss vocabulary items, which increases the amount of engagement students have with the lexical items.

Student opinion about LC in its role promoting vocabulary use once again matches research findings which have shown that learners who have had their attention focused on vocabulary items are better able to recall and use those words. Depth of processing or degree of elaboration has long been associated with more effective learning. (see Laufer and Hulstijn, 2001)

Laufer and Hulstijn (2001) have proposed a task-induced involvement model of vocabulary acquisition named the *Involvement Load Hypothesis* which proposes that words which have been processed with higher involvement loads, defined as being based on the cognitive dimensions of *search* and *evaluation* involving noticing and the deliberate allocation of attention to a word's form-meaning relationship, leads to higher levels of retention than words which have been processed with lower involvement loads. With respect to LC, the tasks associated with the role of *Vocabulary Master* force students to come up with their own definitions and explanations of newly learned words during group discussion. This focuses student attention on form, and forces students to process words with higher levels of involvement.

Conclusion

The goal of this article has been to put forward the LC approach as a way to introduce cultural content into foreign language classrooms. Not only does the

the use of literature as source material provide a vehicle for cultural content, the class procedures also give students many opportunities to practice the language, leading to language acquisition and improved fluency.

There are of course limitations which need to be noted. The study was limited to measuring student opinion and even though the qualitative data tended to match previous empirical studies, quantitative research is needed to further elucidate the role LC can play in promoting intercultural understanding, language acquisition and fluency development.

The results also suggested that the cultural content found in the source material should be pointed out more explicitly through awareness raising activities. This suggests that some adjustments need to be made to the current class procedures. That being said, if cultural content is to be added to foreign language curricula, literature circles seem like a promising vehicle to deliver that cultural content while helping students to achieve higher levels of fluency and provide students with opportunities for language acquisition. In the context of the educational system in Japan, introducing literature circles into the classroom seems like a good way to meet many of the curriculum goals that have been expressed by MEXT. If Japan is looking to the 2020 Olympics as a way to stimulate further educational reform, literature circles could be one option.

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Appendix

Questionnaire
1. Have you previously taken a class that has used a literature circles approach?
2. Do you think literature circles is common in Japan?
3. What was your impression of literature circles? Positive or negative?
4. Could you describe some of the positive and negative aspects of the approach?
5. Was LC useful in helping you improve your vocabulary?
6. Did you feel that LC was more effective than traditional approaches in helping you develop your vocabulary?
7. Did you feel that LC was more effective than traditional approaches in helping you use newly learned vocabulary?
8. Do you prefer fiction or non-fiction?
9. Did you feel that *Whodunit* helped you to learn something about North American culture?
10. Do you feel that reading fiction is helpful in learning words associated with lifestyle and culture?
11. Do you feel that learning words associated with lifestyle and culture is important?

Authentic materials
in developing intercultural communicative competences

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Abstract

Authentic materials are believed to be the best types of materials for developing intercultural communicative competences of foreign language learners. Authentic materials bridge the gap between the classroom and the outside world and they bring reality to the classroom. Authentic materials are those which were not created or edited for language learners, consequently most everyday objects in the target language qualify as authentic materials. Exposure to the authentic materials allows language learners to make contact with the real-life language, customs and way of life of the target culture. Using authentic materials in teaching culture is a great motivational factor and it helps learners to recognize that there is a community of users who live their lives in this other language. Authentic materials include audio, visual and printed materials. This paper discusses and gives examples of activities how to use authentic materials in developing socio-cultural knowledge, sociolinguistic competences, pragmatic competences and non-verbal communication.

Keywords

Intercultural communicative competences, authentic materials, English language

Development of intercultural communicative competences (ICC) is with no doubt one of the main priorities of foreign language teaching. Research studies (Europublic, 2007; Kostková, 2012; Zerzová, 2012; Reid, 2012) in the subject of analyzing curricular documents have declared, that despite the national and school curricula emphasize the importance of ICC, they only generally describe the subject and do not specify how to achieve the goal. The CEFR (2001), which serves as the base document for developing national curricula, also emphasizes development of ICC. However, the CEFR does not elaborate on the development of ICC for each level of proficiency. The CEFR only describes the competences in general, and the aspects of ICC are only included in individual competences and therefore the connection with ICC is not immediately obvious. Consequently, foreign language teachers are often confused and do not know which aspects of culture to teach, what materials to use and what teaching techniques to use with the aim of developing intercultural communicative competences of their learners.

Based on CEFR, general and communicative competences connected to culture have been excerpted and summarized and put into clear diagrams, which can serve as a basis for cultural teaching (Reid, 2012). In the component of socio-cultural knowledge the empirical knowledge relating to day-to-day living, shared values, beliefs, history and taboos of social groups is considered to be essential to intercultural communication. Existential competence is considered to be culture-related as it includes the sum of personal characteristics, personality traits, attitudes, self-image and one's view of others. Skills of cultural awareness, to see contrast between own and target culture and ability to overcome stereotypes are important components of ICC. Sociolinguistic competences refer to linguistic markers of social conventions (use and choice of greetings, address forms, turn taking, rules of politeness, register differences, etc.). Pragmatic competences are concerned with the functional use of the language. The cultural component is very important here, as it includes suggestions, requests, introductions, invitations, correct use of please and thank you, etc. "Non-verbal communication" is an important part of intercultural communication. Paralinguistic features, such as gestures, facial expressions, eye contact, body contact, proxemics; extra-linguistic speech sounds for expressing silence, happiness, disgust, approval, disapproval etc.; and prosodic features such as loudness, pitch of the voice are very delicate features in intercultural communication. They vary from culture to culture and can cause great misunderstandings if perceived or performed inappropriately.

There are a lot of materials that could be used in teaching culture. Several English language textbooks offer materials developing ICC in separate parts called "cultural pages". However, it is often difficult to convince English teachers that the teaching of culture is not a secondary goal. Culture is an inseparable part of foreign language teaching (Byram, 1998, 1997; Dunnett, Dubin, Lezberg, 1986; Kramsch, 1993, 1998; Brooks, 2001; Cullen, 2000; Straub, 1999; Robinson, 1988; Huhn, 1978), because language without culture is a set of symbols which can be misinterpreted, if they are not understood in the right cultural context. Nowadays, authors of English language textbooks are aware of the necessity to develop ICC of learners and are trying to make more effort to create culturally relevant texts, recordings and activities. However, materials in English language textbooks are adapted materials, which have great advantages, but also disadvantages. One of the greatest advantages is that they are designed according to the pedagogical and psychological characteristics of the learners. They are created for a particular age group, language proficiency and suitable topic, and they are easier to use for foreign language teachers. The greatest disadvantage of adapted materials is that information can be quickly out of date,

e.g. when teaching popular arts, which are popular and motivational topics for young learners. According to Daskalos and Jellum Ling (2005) textbooks often use fabricated texts (e.g. travel stories or visits by families to foreign countries) and these have a tendency to feel forced and irrelevant. Another disadvantage is that adapted materials do not always use real every-day language, nor portray real picture of foreign cultures. Adapted materials are limited to texts, pictures, audio and video recordings (authentic materials offer more resources).

Authentic materials are with no doubt the best materials for teaching cultural aspects, as they bridge the gap between the classroom and the outside world and they bring reality to the classroom. Daskalos and Jellum Ling (ibid.) claim that authentic materials focus mainly on contents and meaning and not on linguistic forms and structures. Authentic materials do not replace textbooks, but could be very beneficial additional materials or a substitution for certain texts that might not be well suited for the specific classroom. Most everyday objects in the target language qualify as authentic materials. According to Nunan and Miller (1995) authentic materials are those which were not created or edited for language learners. Exposure to the authentic materials allows language learners to make contact with the real-life language, which can be a great motivational factor and it helps them to recognize that there is a community of users who live their lives in this other language. Authentic materials include audio, visual and printed materials.

Audio materials include TV programmes, commercials, news, weather reports, films, cartoons, phone messages, podcasts, radio programmes, music, internet audio materials, audio-recorded stories, announcements at the stations and airports, shops, etc. *Visual materials* include photographs, paintings, drawings, wordless street signs, images, pictures from magazines, newspapers, postcards, stamps, coins, wordless picture books, toys, food and any items. *Printed materials* include newspapers, magazines, books, TV guides, catalogues, lyrics to songs, restaurant menus, product labels, street signs, tourist information brochures, maps, letters, greeting cards, junk mail, school notices, billboards, public transport schedules, traffic tickets, application forms, information on the internet, packing slips, packaging from various items, food labels, etc.

There is a great choice of authentic materials, which could be used in teaching culture in foreign language lessons, but teachers need to pay a lot of attention in choosing appropriate materials. Teachers should set up criteria for selecting materials, which would suit the specific groups of learners. The materials should fulfill the requirements of the curriculum topics, interest of learners, usefulness, language level, age and background knowledge of learners. The authentic materials need to be culturally appropriate, but at the same time comprehensible

for learners of English as a foreign language. It needs to be kept in mind, that authentic materials are based on native speakers' culture, which might appear alien or inappropriate to language learners.

Ianiro (2007) recommends several steps in using authentic materials in teaching English. The first step is to identify learners' needs and goals for learning target language and culture. Learners should be invited to participate in the process of choosing authentic materials, for example they are asked to bring recipes, newspapers, labels and other non-school materials to the classroom. Learners might consider these materials inappropriate for school, based on their earlier academic experiences. Teachers should discuss with learners the aim and rationale for using authentic and their connection with target culture. Teachers and learners could become partners in collecting materials. Authentic materials are easily and inexpensively obtainable. Especially the internet is a rich source of all kinds of materials. Nuttall (1996) recommends that the authentic materials should be suitable in content (interesting and relevant), exploitability (the way authentic materials could be used) and comprehensibility (appropriate level of language).

Benefits of authentic materials in developing intercultural communicative competences are immense. They remind learners that there is a real world community that functions exclusively through the use of the target language. Authentic materials help learners to use language in "real life like" situations. Learners are exposed to the real use of language and they are immersed into the real world of the target culture while they are in the classroom. Authentic materials, especially texts, videos, songs need to be actual, as they are culturally sensitive and can become quickly out of date. They can be used for all language levels, from basic to advanced, but need to be carefully chosen. Finally, they have a positive effect on learner motivation as they provide real cultural information and exposure to real language (Richard, 2001). For example, it is more beneficial to use a current newspaper to search for relevant and up to date weather forecast, than to use an out dated text for searching nouns or verbs (which is a typical school-based approach).

Authentic materials are exciting to use, but it is inevitable that we might face some problems. Certainly, there are disadvantages with authentic materials. First of all they are very difficult and time consuming to choose culturally appropriate, up to date and comprehensible materials. Real-life language is often difficult to understand, as it uses dialect words, idioms, complex language structures. Language can be culturally biased for certain groups of people and learners might have problems decoding the language. Unsympathetically used can cause frustration with the language learners. Listening to authentic language can also

cause problems, as there are many different dialects and accents (Martinez, 2002).

Although, there are some disadvantages with using authentic materials, but there are still many more advantages, especially with developing intercultural communicative competences of learners. In fact, it is hardly possible to develop ICC without using authentic materials, particularly the sociolinguistic, pragmatic and non verbal competences.

To be more practical and specific, several activities using authentic materials with the aim of developing intercultural communicative competences are listed here.

Teaching about customs, for example the Slovak All Saints´ Day and American Halloween is an example of developing *socio-cultural knowledge.* First of all, the teacher and learners discuss the habits of the All Saint´s celebration in Slovakia. The teacher tries to find out from learners what they know about Halloween, trick and treat custom, costumes, parties, pumpkins, etc. Learners are encouraged to name films and describe the Halloween customs. The topic can be supported by authentic photographs of both cultural habits. There are many youtube videos showing cultural habits, which learners could watch and by the technique of noticing, learners pick and write down the peculiarities of the shown habits (e.g. http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=vtnWYMmTUR8). This activity is especially suitable for young learners, but a modified version could be used with older learners too.

The following activity develops *sociolinguistic competences* and it practices greetings, address forms, turn taking, politeness and register. For example, authentic menus could be used, which can be downloaded from the internet. First of all, learners need to understand the types of food in the menu. The best way of working with menus is to practice ordering food in role plays using the correct sociolinguistic phrases (useful phrases can be found: http://www.speakenglish.co.uk/phrases/at_a_restaurant). This type of activity would be useful with older or adult learners, right from the beginner´s level of language proficiency. For younger learners, role plays practicing a similar type of phrases, for example buying toys in a toy shop, could be used.

The correct use of "please and thank you" belong to *pragmatic competences.* The following youtube videos could be used with young learners. The first video (http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=l-64adnmlqY) is showing a cartoon story, where a Crawford the Cat encounters many different animals and uses please and thank you in various situations. Pupils can watch the story and count how many times the words please and thank you were used. Pupils should notice the types of situations, where these words were used. Role plays can be used practicing the

correct way of saying please and thank you. Polite phrases, requests and offers are presented in the song available on youtube (http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=vaZ26-noUEc). With the technique of noticing, pupils should remember phrases, which they can practice in role plays.

When teaching *non verbal communication*, e.g. greeting gestures, which are different in various cultures, authentic photographs (visual) and youtube videos (audio-visual) can be used. The lesson should be started with eliciting background knowledge of learners about the greeting gestures they know (to name typical greeting gestures for home culture and for some other cultures). There are a lot of videos available showing various greeting gestures, which could be shown to the learners (e.g. http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=nzblFWCf3ck). The teacher gives a list of greetings with the name of countries where they are used and photographs representing the greetings (e.g. hand shake, hand kiss, fist shake, bow, kiss, cheek kiss, wave, nod, hug, nose kissing, shoulder tapping, high five, kowtow, etc.). Learners try to match greetings with the photographs. A guessing game can follow, where pupils act out gesture greetings and other pupils guess the culture where these greetings are used. The teacher should also warn learners about certain gestures being inappropriate in different cultures. For example the hand gesture in American, British, but also Slovak culture for excellence, or OK means "zero" or something worthless in French culture. There are many available videos showing gestures, which should be avoided in various cultures (e.g. http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=OWFPHW7BCCI). This type of activity could be used in all levels of language proficiency and age levels.

To conclude this paper, there is no doubt that authentic materials provide a rich source of cultural material. Teachers should not be afraid to use authentic materials, as they are great fun, very motivational and educational. Certainly, the authentic materials should be carefully chosen and prepared, but they are worth it. Finally, the chosen cultural materials should be freely discussed by learners and compared to their own culture in the relaxing atmosphere of the language classroom. If learners are regularly exposed to authentic materials, they could become more familiar with them and in the future be able to partially avoid a cultural shock when visiting the culture in question.

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Considering culture in developing an EFL curriculum for K-8 learners in Turkey

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Abstract

Intercultural awareness is an important goal of foreign language education; but including culture in an English curriculum in a way that meets both the needs of learners and the aims of the learning program can be problematic. To demonstrate how program designers may address the issue, this study explores how pedagogy, contextual factors, and concerns about the teaching of home, target and other world cultures were considered in developing an English language curriculum for K-8 learners in Turkey. A model of the final implementation is presented, along with related materials.

Keywords

Curriculum development, foreign language education, home culture, target culture, world culture

Introduction

With an increasing emphasis on developing intercultural competence in learners of English as a foreign language (EFL), the integration of culture and language has become a central focus of EFL education. As a result, an immense body of research has been devoted to resolving questions such as whose culture to teach and how it should be taught, as well as to understanding the various drawbacks related to the inclusion of culture in English language instruction (Çelik & Erbay, 2013). However, despite this focus on the teaching of culture, its incorporation in English language teaching programs, not to mention efforts to implement cultural instruction in the classroom, has not always been successfully carried out. In the Turkish context, for instance, Türkan and Çelik (2007) note that the inclusion of culture has encountered numerous difficulties, such as substandard teaching materials and teachers' lack of familiarity with English-speaking culture, as well as an already dense curriculum and limited classroom time. Therefore, there is a need for ongoing effort to determine how culture can be most effectively integrated in EFL learning, taking both the needs of learners and curricular requirements into account.

As a means to demonstrate how this issue may be addressed from a curricular perspective, this study explores the recent development of an EFL curriculum for K-8 learners in Turkey, calling attention to the pedagogical and practical issues

related to the integration of cultural elements in a modern elementary English language teaching program. Following the discussion of the program development, the methods of incorporating cultural elements are described; examples from the new curriculum itself, as well as the related teaching materials that were developed in accordance with the curriculum, are also provided.

Developing an EFL Curriculum for K-8 Learners

Since its acceptance as a member of the Council of Europe (CoE) in the late 1940s, the Republic of Turkey has closely aligned its educational policies with those of CoE countries, giving ongoing attention to maintaining contemporary standards for education. This focus has entailed periodic overhaul of the public school curriculum. Most recently, the Turkish Ministry of National Education (MoNE) has set forth a comprehensive series of reforms aimed at revitalizing the primary and elementary education system. The resulting policy encompassed a transition from the previously required eight years of elementary education, followed by four years of secondary education; the new educational model consists of three four-year segments corresponding to the primary, elementary and high school levels and is widely referred to as the "4+4+4" program (MoNE, 2013). One important feature of this program, which also mandates that children begin their primary education one year earlier than under the former system, is its emphasis on improving learner outcomes in English language instruction. In this respect, the starting level at which English is to be taught has been decreased from the fourth to the second grade. As a result of this shift, students now begin learning English at six to six ½ years of age, rather than at the previous age of nine to nine ½ years. Along with other methodological concerns related to English language education, this structural change created an immediate need to redesign the existing English Language Teaching (ELT) curriculum. The new program, which was accepted by the MoNE in February of 2013. was developed in cooperation with the Scientific and Technological Research Council of Turkey (TÜBİTAK). As the senior researcher on this project, the first author of this article was closely involved in its design.

Theoretical and Pedagogical Considerations in Developing the New ELT Curriculum

A thorough discussion of the learning theory and pedagogical issues that were considered in formulating the new teaching program is beyond the scope of this paper; however, the main points are discussed briefly here in order to clarify the rationale for the program design.

Language learning and young children. In order to determine how best to meet the needs of young learners, the program designers turned to the latest research, which draws heavily on Vygotsky's theory that young children learn best in the context of social interaction with teachers, as well as their peers. With respect to foreign language learning, in particular, Cameron (2001) points out that young learners acquire new knowledge most effectively in a hands-on environment, carrying out tasks that they perceive as fun in a safe, enjoyable atmosphere. Accordingly, the curriculum encompasses learner-centered tasks and activities that are aimed at the relevant age groups, as well as accounting for a variety of different learning styles (MoNE, 2013). The recommended activities include role play, dialogue, songs and chants, Total Physical Response (TPR) exercises, art projects and story-telling.

Relevance to learners' daily lives. Influential theorists such as Hymes (1972) and Widdowson (1978) have stressed that effective language learning can only occur when the forms and lexis of the target language are taught in an authentic communicative context that has real meaning for learners. Therefore, the program designers structured the curriculum around familiar topics such as family, home, friends, school, and other age-appropriate concerns (Kırkgöz, Çelik, & Arıkan, 2014; MoNE, 2013).

Communicative Competence and the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR)*. Another major consideration in designing the new curriculum was the need to account for the principles of the *CEFR*. This document, which is widely accepted as a foundation for foreign language teaching and learning, emphasizes the development not only of communicative competence, but of intercultural awareness (CoE, 2001). Furthermore, as researchers such as Byram (1991) and Kramsch (1993) have argued, language and culture are so closely intertwined that learners of a foreign language cannot fully comprehend or create meaning without some understanding of the target culture. Accordingly, in order to foster communicative competence in English, the program designers believed that in addition to the language skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing, culture should be included as a fundamental feature of the new teaching program concerns (Kırkgöz, Çelik, & Arıkan, 2014).

Incorporating Cultural Elements in the Context of EFL Instruction for K-8 Learners

As per the rationale outlined above, the final implementation of the new teaching model was structured not only around the linguistic features of

English, but also around the introduction of cultural elements (CoE, 2001; MoNE, 2013). In this respect, the designers believed that, due to the global status of English, focusing solely on the culture of "native" English-speaking culture would be misleading and inappropriate, as with Baker (2012) and Çelik and Erbay (2013). Therefore, the cultural aspects of the curriculum were aimed at raising learners' awareness of world cultures, as well as home and target cultures (MoNE, 2013). Accordingly, the finalized curriculum stipulates that:

Elements of both the target culture and international cultures are presented in a positive and non-threatening manner (Elyıldırım & Ashton-Hayes, 2006) in keeping with the themes of each unit, at the same time stressing the value of home culture in order to avoid the formation of negative attitudes. Learners/users are exposed to simple phrases in world languages that include greetings, counting and so on as they learn about aspects of other cultures that are similar to or different from their own (MoNE, 2013, p. IV).

An example of the incorporation of culture in classroom learning is provided below, in Figure 1.

Unit/Theme	Communicative Functions and Skills	Suggested Lexis/Language Use	Suggested Text and Activity Types	Assessment
2 *Friends*	Asking someone's name **Greeting and meeting people** **Making simple inquiries** **Listening** • Students will be able to understand simple expressions used when greeting and meeting someone. • Students will be able to understand when someone introduces him or herself. **Speaking** • Students will be able to use everyday expressions for greeting and meeting someone. • Students will be able to ask questions to learn some-one's name and find out how he or she is doing. • Students will be able to introduce themselves. **Intercultural Awareness** • Students will be able to greet people others in other languages in addition to Turkish and English.	What's your name? — My name is ... — I'm Moody. — Moody. How are you? — I'm fine. You? — I'm okay, thank you. How are you? — Great, thanks. Hello! Hi! Good morning! Good afternoon! Good evening! Good night! Good bye! Bye! Salut! Salaam! Hallo! Bon jour! Hola! Guten Tag! Ciao! Ahlan we Sahlan! Hej! Ni Hao!	**Texts** Conversations Illustrations Rhymes Songs **Activities** Arts and Crafts Chants and Songs Communicative Tasks Drama/Miming Drawing and Coloring Flashcards Games Labeling Listening Matching Questions and Answers Reordering TPR	**Projects** • Students record their voices while greeting each other. • Students prepare masks to represent imaginary characters and then meet others and introduce themselves. • Students prepare a poster to show how speakers of other languages greet each other.

Figure 1: Elementary English Language Teaching Program (Grades 2-8): Grade 2, Unit 2 (MoNE, 2013, p. 3)

As the figure above indicates, this teaching unit is centered on the theme of "Friends" and introduces common greetings and introductions. In addition to the greetings in English, students are exposed to several international greetings; and the assessment portion of the unit includes a suggested activity (creating a poster) intended to reinforce this skill.

Implementation of Teaching Materials According to the Curricular Model

In addition to his work on the curriculum itself, the first author oversaw the development of a series of teaching texts and supporting materials based on the guidelines set forth in the new teaching program. As specified in the curriculum, cultural elements were presented alongside the structural and lexical aspects of English (see Figures 2, 3, 4 and 5 below).

Figure 2: Culture learning activity, Student book, Grade 2, Unit 2 (Çelik, 2014a, p. 17)
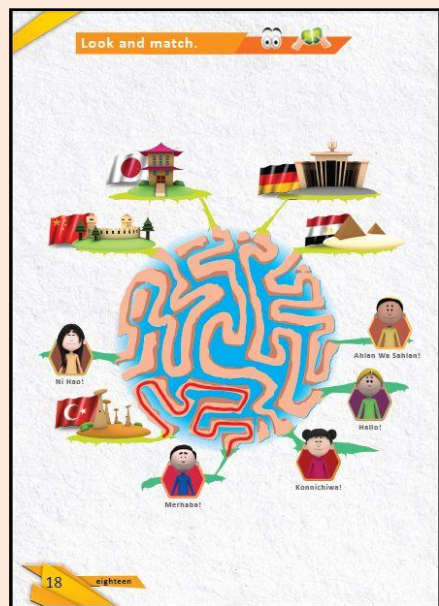
Figure 3: Culture learning activity, Student book, Grade 2, Unit 2 (Çelik, 2014a, p. 18)

Figures 2 and 3 illustrate exercises from the student book *I know English* (Grade 2) (Çelik, 2014a). These activities correspond to the "Intercultural Awareness" function, as well as the "Suggested Language Use" found in Grade 2, Unit 2 of the curriculum (see Figure 1). As the examples show, cultural elements are incorporated within a lesson on basic greetings and draw attention to world cultures, as well as home and English-speaking cultures. In Figure 2, learners are first introduced to international greetings alongside the flags of each of the countries represented; and in Figure 3, learners are prompted to match these greetings with related cultural symbols.
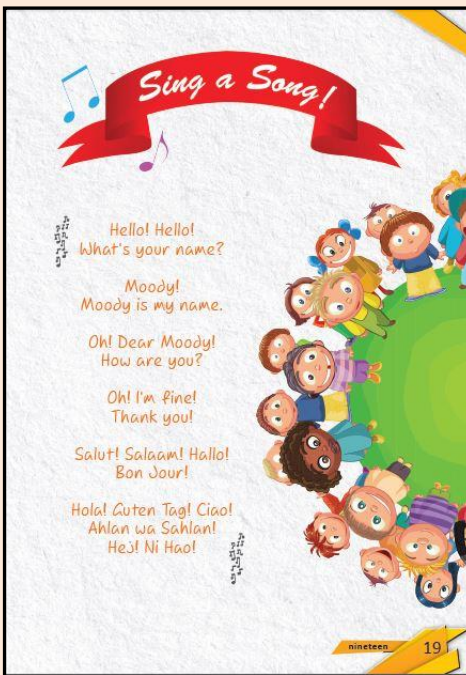

Figure 4: Culture learning activity, Student book, Grade 2, Unit 2 (Çelik, 2014a, p. 19)

Figure 5: Culture learning activity, Student workbook, Grade 2, Unit 2 (Çelik, 2014b, p. 17)

In Figure 4, a final exercise from *I know English* (Grade 2, Unit 2) (Çelik, 2014a) combines English and international greetings in a song, reinforcing the linguistic structures and promoting retention. Finally, Figure 5, from the workbook designed as supporting material for the *I know English* grade 2 student book (Çelik, 2014b) shows a simple matching activity that further reinforces the international greetings covered in the unit.

Conclusion

Teaching about culture, and English-speaking culture in particular, is an important, but often controversial topic. Issues such as teachers' lack of awareness of the target culture and world cultures, insufficient teaching materials, lack of time, and even animosity toward foreign cultures are frequently cited as obstacles to including cultural elements in the foreign language classroom. However, given the importance of cultural awareness in allowing meaningful communication to take place, this aspect of language education cannot be reasonably overlooked. This study demonstrates that an ELT curriculum and materials can be designed in such a way that learners can explore various aspects of foreign culture alongside the linguistic features of the language in a manner that is affirming, engaging, and relevant.

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Between tradition and present. Implementation of folk art and culture into the foreign language education of high school students

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Abstract

The paper is focused on the issue of folk art and culture and its interconnection with the foreign language education of high school students. In this paper we would like to share our experience with implementation of an international project Comenius entitled *Folk Art and its Influence on European Culture* which has been created by nine high schools from Europe and was launched in 2013. This project contains two basic dimensions : (inter)cultural and (pluri)lingual. We will discuss about our visions and actual educational results not only on cultural level but also on lingual level as an innovative element of foreign language education.

Keywords

folk art and culture, foreign language education, project

1 Introduction

This article deals about our experience with implementation of folk art and culture into the foreign language education of high school students, especially French language education.

Within the Faculty of Education at Catholic University in Ružomberok we have in years 2009 – 2012 successfully implemented an extensive project entitled *Discovering of the Lost in Time (Arts and Crafts of Ethnographic Character of Liptov and Orava regions)*. The most important outcome of the project was the establishment of an excellent academic workplace named C-ET-ART (Center of Ethnography and Art) with a unique academic collection including numerous artifacts as a result of extensive research activities. This project became a useful platform for another project which was launched by the state grammar school in Ružomberok in 2013. We talk about the project Comenius entitled *Folk Art and its Influence on European Culture*. This project has been created by nine European high schools (concretely from France, Wales, Italy, Romania, Bulgaria, Hungary, Slovakia, Czech Republic and Poland) interested in discovering particular domains of folk art in each other's territory and also the ongoing impact of folk art on contemporary culture. The project contains two basic dimensions: cultural and lingual.

In the framework of the cultural dimension we can point out a necessity to return to local identities, to be able to live together thanks to a shared observation of different cultural aspects. Thanks to the project exchange programme, students can experience Europe through different social and geographical environments what is the ideal way to reduce or eliminate prejudices or stereotypes. The use of foreign languages in the context of a common students research topic is a motivating element of the project which aims to stimulate learning of more than one foreign language. We hope that working together in foreign languages will raise the level of motivation to progress linguistically. Thus, the project creates an added plurilingual value what is a great challenge not only for students but also for their teachers.

In this paper we would like to share our experience with implementation of the both projects and to discuss about our results not only on cultural level but also on lingual level as a part of foreign language education.

2 Two projects creating the space for a perfect symbiosis between academic research and educational practice

In this part of article we would like to focus our attention on concepts of two basic projects which serve us to realize our educational activities with high school students. Firstly we will offer insight into successfully accomplished project *Discovering of the Lost in Time*, which can be considered as a good starting platfom for quality and also professional implementation of actually running international Comenius project *Folk Art and its Influence on European Culture* with the beginning in September 2013.

2.1 Discovering of the Lost in Time (Arts and Crafts of Ethnographic Character of Liptov and Orava regions)

This project was realized with the support of operational programme Research and Development within the European Regional Development Fund from October 2009 to February 2012 at the Faculty of Education of Catholic University in Ruzomberok.

Our principal aim was to discover, record and continue to develop ethnographical riches specialized in traditional folk fine and music art in regions of Liptov and Orava. The project is rather a pilot project with long-term integration of themes on folk regions of Slovakia into the educational, artistic and research environment of the Catholic University in Ruzomberok.

The project provided a space for many activities. We would like to mention some of them, which we consider the main pillars of the implementation of principal project ideas:

- introductory congress *Present dimension of folk art and culture*, within the frame of which was realized an international conference *Present values of folk culture and art in education*, seminar, creative workshops, concerts, exhibitions;
- terrain research *Meeting in time with folk culture of Liptov and Orava* collecting ethnographical artifacts and charting of presence of "living" traditional crafts in regions of Liptov and Orava;
- establishing the *Center of Ethnography and Art* (C-ET-ART) which represents a unique academic workplace with a precious collection of various folk artifacts useful not only for educational and research purposes but also for realization of therapeutic creative workshops (music therapy, art therapy, ergotherapy);
- cycle of creative workshops *Conjunction of the tradition and the present* including the realization of five workshops intended to students and teachers of music and arts (*Simplicity and beauty*, *Search for the archetype in the community and country, Musical art, Craft has a golden bottom, Art in craft and music*);
- final art festival *Discovered in Time* was the last activity which solemnly completed the project by exhibition, concerts, creative workshops, conference and colloquium.

One of the most important project results and outputs is the Center of Ethnography and Art (C-ET-ART). This center is open not only for students of Catholic university (especially students of arts, preschool and elementary pedagogy and social work) but also for pupils from primary and secondary schools, art schools, music schools and also for children from orphanages, their tutors and educators (the center provides creative worshops, courses of ergotherapy, music and art therapy).

The mission of this center is to collect and update the material and spiritual artifacts of traditional culture of Slovak regions, as well as beyond them, at the academic grounds. When we were preparing this project we had in mind particularly the principal goal which was to create an area for development of folk culture and art education. At that time we still had no idea that our project will expand its mission and will find its application in French language education of high school students involved in the international project Comenius entitled *Folk Art and its influence on European Culture.*

2.2 Folk Art and its Influence on European Culture

In a European context we feel more and more a necessity to return to local identities, to be able to live together. We feel also a need to remind our students as a future generation of their own roots. The project entitled *Folk Art and its influence on European Culture* that we started to implement within a state grammar school in Ruzomberok in cooperation with seven more European high schools (unfortunately Italian partner resigned before the start of project), has for its object to allow our students to discover the folk art in each other's territory and the continuing impact of folk art on contemporary culture.

3 Research and educational problems

In this time of advanced technologies we feel the will to give to our students opportunity to raise their awareness of their cultural heritage. The schools involved to the project are situated in a variety of areas, from large towns to rural communities. By experiencing Europe through different social and geographical environments, our students share the desire to construct a common understanding of our cultural past and present. Through a greater understanding of their own culture, promoting their own culture to foreign partners, we expect our students to develop their awareness both of their own identity and likewise of a common European identity. This project is a perfect way how to reduce or eliminate prejudices and stereotypes.

We would like to open our students' eyes on their surrounding folk heritage in terms of traditional crafts, folk art and music, architecture, dance, clothing, textile techniques, production of everyday objects, gastronomy, literature and legends. These different aspects of popular culture are thematically concentrated in one partner country. During the project realization periode, each partner organizes one week meeting for all partners. Different partner teams come to this meeting prepared. Every meeting is preceded by serious research on the proposed theme to be able to carry out the activities planned during the next visit. Slovak students do their research in the above-mentioned Center of Ethnography and Art (C-ET-ART). This research is led by experienced university pedagogues, language teachers and ethnographers.

Main educational objectives

We can pronounce these main objectives which lead our principal educational activities :
- to stimulate students to learning of more than one foreign language;
- to give to our students opportunity to raise their awareness of their cultural heritage;

− to get students to encounter other cultures;
− to offer opportunities for students from different countries to work together and understand different ideas and approaches;
− to live cultural experiences abroad and to create a dialogue between Western and Eastern cultures;
− to look for the connection between local folk art and European identity;
− to reduce or eliminate prejudices and stereotypes;
− to improve skills of using modern IT technologies by students and teachers.

Strategies and activities to achieve the objectives

The first step to start to accomplish these objectives was held on institutional level. The project became a priority within each partner institution by creating European Comenius space on the schools' websites to inform the local community about project activities and products and by including the subjects of the projects into curriculums in all schools.

We can resume basic educational activities into three groups: preparatory research activities, meetings in partner countries and preparation of project outputs.

Preparatory research activities are held on institutional level in cooperation with all partners. The giving tasks are properly connected with the topic of the next exchange students' mobility. These tasks are adapted according to students' age, abilities and skills to involve possibly all students in all stages of work on projects. We try to heighten students' awareness of local folk art by manipulating and learning craft techniques. Slovak team has an opportunity to accomplish the proposed practical tasks in the above-mentioned Center of Ethnography and Art (C-ET-ART).

Meetings in partner countries strengthen the students' self-confidence and both national and European identity through learning about different aspects of European folk arts, having experiences of the project activities and meeting other students of the partner schools. Meetings differ according to the topic which deals one of the proposed domain of folk art and culture. Students are experiencing a teenager's everyday life elsewhere in Europe and establishing lifelong friendships. They are encountering new education, family and social climates. In the framework of exchange programme they are also participating in regular lessons in each host country in the local language and thus they can better understand the importance of communication and speaking foreign languages. They can personally live new experiences of dance, singing, performing music together, acting, making pottery, cooking and eating, public speaking and presentation skills.

The cooperation of foreign language teachers of all schools is important during the meetings but also on the Internet to work out some study materials and project outputs. Teachers are also confronting their own teaching techniques with those practised over the borders to enrich, question and innovate their individual and team activity.

Particular topics by country

France (Lycée Polyvalent Hector Berlioz, Côte St. André) – influence of folk music on Berlioz's music and folk music in general;

Wales (Caerleon Comprehensive School, Caerleon) – traditional weaving techniques, spinning and the use of wool;

Hungary (Zrinyi Miklos Gimnazium, Zalaegerszeg) – folk influence on rural architecture, each team prepared and presented a short film about local building craft techniques;

Poland (IV Liceum Ogólnokształcące imienia Henryka Sienkiewicza, Częstochowa) – local folklore in the writing of Sienkiewicz, folk influence on literature, each team will prepare a short text to illustrate the cohabitation of local history and literature;

Romania (Colegiul National "Mihai Eminescu", Buzau) – folk influence on contemporary fashion, exploration of traditional dress and its continuing presence today. Each partner prepares for the fashion review by obtaining or making clothes for the show and practising for the presentation;

Czech Republic (Mendelovo gymnázium, Opava) – legends and folk tales;

Bulgary (Vocational Technical High School "Vasil Levski", Vidin) – architecture and urban development, analysis of local architecture;

Slovakia (Gymnázium Ružomberok) – folk dance, closing project festival which will gather together the topics studied over the two years. An exhibition of the various folk art productions from the two years of the exchange will be displayed.

Partial and expected results

- *project web-site* to inform public about all local and common project activities;
- *online dictionary* which lists vocabulary and expressions specific to the folk art domain (general, music, architecture, cooking, handicrafts, literature, fashion) and which is constantly completed by all participants in their national languages;
- *newsletters* which sum up the week in each host partner country;
- *students' facebook page* where teams post information about their work;

- *blog* to put on some photos and videos of each meeting, but also to post the participants' reactions and commentaries;
- *recipe book* to collect national dishes and specialities of each partner country;
- *short films* and *powerpoint synopsis* of folk art aspects and influences in students' own language, in English or in French;
- *original recordings of local folk songs*;
- *confection of clothes* for the fashion show.

This project offers many opportunities for students from different countries to work together and to understand different views, ideas and approaches. It is very important for young people to compare ideas, opinions, problems, interests to develop a spirit of unity. It is supposed to emphasise the significance of mutual understanding and cooperation in order to have an intensive European dialogue, and to continue building Europe with respect to each other's individual features.

Besides gaining experience, perfecting the students' language skills will certainly help them to learn more about the other countries. All participants will be more aware of cultural differences; but able to see that there are many more similarities and shared aspects among us all. And this is the space for participating teachers to appropriately incorporate these different aspects of intercultural education into the foreign language education.

4 Plurilingual education and its implementation into the project context

As we have already indicated in the previous text, one of the most important objectives of our partner cooperation is to stimulate learning of more than one foreign language and getting students to encounter other cultures. It is therefore necessary to adapt foreign language curricula, especially for us, the French language curricula. We need to cooperate with cross-disciplinary teaching teams to visit the subject through history, geography, philosophy, literature, music, art, and of course modern languages.

Mother tongue has an important place in the framework of the project activities. It is allowed even for presentations of students' research results in combination with English or French language. Thus, students listen and know the mother tongue of each partner. Our students can develop the vocabulary related to the folk art and text writing skills while preparing and editing the contributions to the online dictionary or newsletters. We consider this plurilingual aspect as an added value of the project. Within stay in Wales (February 2014) and Hungary (April 2014), the Welsh and Hungarian partner organized everyday language sessions. During these sessions, students and

teachers taught and learned each other's languages. At the end of these stays, each participant was able to introduce himself and to say a few basic phrases in Welsh, French, Bulgarian, Romanian, Hungarian, Polish, Czech or Slovak language.

In point of foreign languages, students improve their foreign language skills mainly in English and French language through compiling the online dictionary, editing the newsletter, translating the materials for activities during the visits, writing the multilingual protocols of activities, taking part in the language lessons in the partner schools, chatting and mailing on the Internet with colleagues from the partner schools, studying basic phrases as well as some folk songs in all partner languages.

Before each stay, a specific preparation or survival guide is given to the students including some basic vocabulary and useful phrases, as well as indications of local traditions and protocol, to enable them to operate in the country they are visiting. Selection of students for the stay takes usually the form of competition for the best and most original presentation or short film related to the topic of stay. The project, however, does not apply only to students who attend a particular mobility. The project offers a variety of activities for students who stay at home, properly motivating them to express their interest in mobility to another country.

Before any mobility, we organize also preparatory meetings with chosen students. During these meetings, we are working with these students on specific vocabulary useful for the research issue, then we are working on overall presentation, correct pronunciation, but also on interactive aspect of presentation. In this way, the cooperation of foreign language teachers of all schools to work out educational materials is inevitable.

Somebody might ask why we teach our students such specific "folklore" vocabulary, which is essential for the implementation of their own research and presenting the results, but not so necessary for their everyday communication. One aspect in favor of our efforts lies in the situation and "genius loci" of our school. It is the region of Liptov with deep-rooted sense of preservation of cultural heritage. This region is also closely related to tourism, which is one of its priority economic sectors. Our students will be able to utilize their acquired knowledge also in this area. During the final meeting of the project partners in Slovakia, the students will be able to experience their guide skills in practice.

The use of foreign languages in the context of a common research topic is a motivating element behind the project. We have already noticed that working together in foreign languages will raise the level of motivation to progress linguistically.

The urge to offer different learning approaches to our students, via concrete experiences on foreign soil helps them to develop their own learning strategies, and overcome the lack of interest displayed in the acquisition of pure knowledge. We hope to encourage the students to think about how and what they learn by immersing them in a real-life experience.

As we have already mentioned our project supports plurilingual principle of language education. All basic documents under which the Slovak language policy is oriented, promote this principle. Plurilingualism takes in European linguistic context privileged status and it is an appropriate response to the promotion and maintenance of European linguistic diversity. In one of the basic documents of the Council of Europe, the *Guide for the Development of Language Education Policies in Europe*, the authors state that Europe is not a political entity such as a nation, respectively a state. For a nation or state, it would be sufficient to include one (or more) official national languages to be able to derive a form of unity or identity. Europe represents fundamentally different grouping of nations and can be characterized as pluralistic space with significantly linguistic and cultural diversity. Probably there is no single language that Europeans would qualify for a language peculiar to this area (Beacco & Byram, 2003).

In the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment*, the term plurilingualism is explained as follows: „the plurilingual approach emphasises the fact that as an individual person's experience of language in its cultural contexts expands, from the language of the home to that of society at large and then to the languages of other peoples (whether learnt at school or college, or by direct experience), he or she does not keep these languages and cultures in strictly separated mental compartments, but rather builds up a communicative competence to which all knowledge and experience of language contributes and in which languages interrelate and interact." (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, 2001, p. 4)

According to these arguments, for a student there is no longer the norm "native speaker" of a country or a given social category, but the emphasis is put on communication and collaboration among students in the European area. Thus, *plurilingual competence* gets the key position (Hubert, 2009).

4 Conclusion

Unfortunately at this stage of the project implementation we can acquaint the public only with partial results and experience. We tried to offer and discuss the main ideas and visions of our work. We propose a reflection on the first months of the project realization at state grammar school in Ružomberok in cooperation with seven European project partners. Experience and especially satisfaction and

educational results of our students (not only of cognitive character) testify that we are going in the right direction. So far we have executed three research and educational mobilities (France, Wales, Hungary). In the near future we plan to implement four other mobilities (Poland, Romania, Bulgary, Czech Republic) while in Slovakia we will organize the final meeting of all partners, where the project principal results will be presented.

During the implementation of educational tasks, we observe and measure key competences as well as communication in foreign languages, cultural awareness and expression, digital competence, social and civic competences. For this purpose we continuously use measurement tools like questionnaires and tests of language skills, especially for testing participating students in chosen national languages and for measuring the acquisition of cultural and linguistic knowledge. Finaly every hosting partner country prepares after each meeting a kind of feedback via newsletters summarizing principal areas of educational activities and established goals. At the end of the project (May 2015), these activities will be evaluated and the results will be interpreted in accordance with the focus and mentionned objectives of the project. We believe that we will have an opportunity to present these results and outcomes within a similar forum.

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Towards the need for a hands-on approach to teaching foreign cultures in the EFL classroom

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Abstract

The need for incorporating culture in EFL instruction has been widely recognized from a theoretical perspective, and a great deal of effort has been expended in terms of educational policy to address this issue. On the other hand, implementing cultural instruction on a practical level remains a considerable challenge; and in educational settings where teachers themselves lack familiarity with the target culture and where educational materials are deficient in this respect, cultural instruction may often be ignored. This study offers a sample task for teaching about culture, illustrating how teachers, as well as learners, can become students of foreign cultures while avoiding common pitfalls.

Keywords

Cultural awareness, ELT, English as a foreign language, Foreign language learning, Lesson planning

Introduction

The need to consider culture as intrinsic to foreign language learning is not a new issue, yet as Çelik (2012), Çelik and Erbay (2013), Sercu (2002) and Wagner (2014) have noted, educators often encounter difficulties in including culture as an integrated element of language instruction. Confusion as to which elements of culture to teach and whose culture should be taught – particularly when it comes English as a foreign language (EFL) instruction, where the definition of *target culture* is notoriously complex (Çelik & Erbay, 2013) – may result in these issues being minimalized, or even neglected altogether, in the classroom; and furthermore, when culture is included in a foreign language curriculum, classroom teachers frequently lack sufficient knowledge of the topic, and teaching texts do not always provide an accurate or satisfactory view (Türkan & Çelik, 2007). However, Wagner (2014) points out that cultural instruction does not have to consist of knowledge that is handed down from the teacher to the students; nor does it have to rely solely on the material presented in teaching texts. Rather, learning about culture can become a mutual, hands-on exploration that allows both learners and their teacher to discover not only elements of foreign cultures, but also facets of their home culture they may not have

previously considered, and to reflect critically on both. By engaging in active learning, children are more likely to perceive a lesson as meaningful and to internalize the new material (Cameron, 2001).

A Sample Lesson Plan for Teaching about Culture

The lesson plan presented here demonstrates how teachers and learners can work together toward an understanding and appreciation of culture in a way that meets the needs of learners, in addition to curricular requirements. Throughout the process, research-based considerations are addressed. While a specific age group and proficiency level is addressed here, the lesson can be adapted to accommodate learners of varying ages and abilities, and in a wide range of learning contexts.

Lesson Theme: "What Do You Like for Breakfast?"

In order for effective learning to take place, learners should be able to relate to the lesson; in other words, it should have some relevance to their experience (Hymes, 1972; Widdowson, 1978). Therefore, cultural instruction should involve familiar topics, rather than abstract concepts that will have no meaning beyond the lesson. In this example, young learners will focus on the names of various food and drinks as they talk about traditional breakfast items from home and international cultures.

Age and Proficiency Level of Learners

This lesson targets beginning learners in the 4th grade, or 8 ½ - 9 years, in terms of Turkish primary education. Prior knowledge of the communicative function *expressing likes and dislikes* (e.g., *"I like …"; "He does not like"; "Do you like…?"*) (MoNE, 2013) is assumed.

Learning Objectives

In this example, culture and language learning are presented side-by-side in order to demonstrate how the two elements can be successfully combined. By doing so, learners have the opportunity to see how the language really "works" in an authentic communicative environment (Hymes, 1972; Widdowson, 1978). At the same time, they are given the opportunity to reflect on the similarities and differences between home and world cultures.

The learning objectives in this example are drawn from the Turkish elementary English language teaching (ELT) program, addressing the curricular goals provided for Grade 4, in unit 10 of a 10-unit course (MoNE, 2013). See Figure 1 (below) for details on the communicative functions, lexis/language use, and intercultural awareness aspects of the unit.

Unit/Theme	Communicative Functions and Skills	Suggested Lexis/Language Use	Suggested Text and Activity Types	Assessment
10 *Food and Drinks*	**Accepting and refusing** **Expressing basic needs** **Expressing feelings** **Making simple inquiries** **Making simple requests** **Listening** • Students will be able to recognize simple words and phrases about food and drinks. • Students will be able to comprehend offers about their basic needs. • Students will be able to identify others' needs and feelings if stated in simple and clear speech. **Speaking** • Students will be able to ask and answer questions, initiate and respond to simple statements about their basic needs and feelings • Students will be able to express how they feel and what they want in simple and short sentences and phrases. **Intercultural Awareness** • Students will be able to identify popular food across cultures.	bread butter cheese cupcake, -s honey milk olive, -s pasta soup tea now/later Are you hungry? — Yes, I am, and I want some ..., please. — No, I'm not hungry. Do you want a sandwich? Want a sandwich? Would you like a sandwich? — No, thanks. I'm full. — Yes, please. What about an apple? — Not now, thanks. — No, thanks, maybe later. Is she thirsty? — Yes, she is. / No, she isn't. I want some milk, please. Pizza, sushi, kebab, fish and chips, Turkish delight Pizza is an Italian food.	**Texts** Advertisements Captions Cartoons Conversations Coupons Illustrations Lists Menus Picture Dictionaries Posters Products Rhymes Signs Songs Stories Tables **Activities** Arts and Crafts Chants and Songs Communicative Tasks Drama/Miming Drawing and Coloring Flashcards Games Labeling Listening Matching Questions and Answers Real-life Tasks Role-Play and Simulations Speaking Storytelling TPR	**Projects** • Students prepare a card game of matching pairs of pictures of food and drinks to play individually or in groups. • Students prepare a menu for an imaginary restaurant by using drawings and visuals. **Dossier** • Students complete and hand in the European Language Portfolio.

In accordance with the curricular goals outlined above, the lesson objectives are as follows:
1. Learners will be able to recognize simple phrases related to food and drinks, and to ask and answer questions about their basic needs and feelings.
2. Learners will be able to identify popular food items from international cultures.

Duration of the Lesson
The lesson may be carried out over the course of 2-3 class periods; the plan may be modified and elements may be included or excluded as needed by classroom teachers to meet any time constraints within their learning context.

Preparation
If Internet access is available in the classroom, the teacher should identify appropriate web pages describing traditional breakfast foods of world cultures. Otherwise, the teacher should collect information, with as many visuals as possible, on breakfast foods from numerous cultures, including home culture, various English-speaking cultures, and cultures from around the world.

Materials/Resources

Suggested materials for the lesson include paper, crayons, pencils and scissors, as well as classroom Internet (if available).

Procedure

1. The teacher introduces communicative functions such as *"Are you hungry? "Yes I am! / No, I am not hungry" … "Would you like …?" "Yes /No thanks, I'm full," "I want some …, please,"* as well as the words for common foods and drinks associated with breakfast (e.g., *milk, honey, olives, bread, butter, cheese, cereal, tea,* etc.). Learners practice asking and answering as a class or in small groups, talking about the breakfast foods that they would like/would not like to eat.

2. The teacher and learners work together to discover what children in other cultures eat for breakfast, using either Internet resources or materials the teacher has brought to class. The teacher may call attention to similarities and differences between international cultures and home culture (e.g., *"Who eats eggs for breakfast?").* As with any lesson on culture, the teacher should take care not to emphasize one tradition as inferior or superior to the others (Çelik, 2012).

3. Learners work in groups and are allowed to choose a culture (using both home and world cultures). With support from the teacher, learners will create a simple role play around a restaurant theme or family setting, asking and answering what they would like to have for breakfast according to the culture they have chosen.

E.g.:

Turkish culture: *"What would you like for breakfast?" "I would like bread, cheese, honey, olives and tea."*

American culture: *"Would you like eggs for breakfast? "Yes, please" / "No, I want pancakes and sausage, please!"*

Slovakian culture: *"Are you hungry?" "Yes, I want bread and eggs and meat!" "No, I am thirsty. I would like some juice, please."*

Japanese culture: *"Would you like rice, soup, and fish?" "No thank you, I want tea."*

4. Learners work in groups to prepare posters with the title "My (Turkish/American/English/Japanese/etc.) Breakfast," drawing and labeling the related breakfast foods and drinks. Each group presents the finished poster to the class (or, with the support of the teacher, students can create PowerPoint slides of the breakfast items and combine them for a class presentation). As an alternative to the group posters/PowerPoint slides,

learners may create individual drawings and present them to the class. If applicable, the drawings can then be added to a language learning portfolio.

Conclusion

The sample lesson presented here demonstrates how culture can be effectively incorporated in English language teaching in a manner that is both engaging and meaningful to learners. No specialized knowledge is required of the classroom teacher, and the cultural aspects of the lesson are taught in tandem with the required language skills, rather than treated as a separate issue. The structure of the lesson allows for authentic communication in the target language; furthermore, learners are encouraged to notice the similarities and differences between home, target and world cultures as they explore a familiar and appealing topic in a supportive environment.

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Globalization and cultural erosion:
Impact on sexuality in Nigeria

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Abstract

An important component of culture among different people of the world is sexuality. In Nigeria discourses on sexuality are strictly placed in the purview of family and religious circles, higher institution of learning, in the hallowed walls of national and state assemblies, and pages of news papers. The adventt of globalization has brought an increase in sexual awareness and reorientation among Nigerians. The pre-globalised Nigerian culture was characterized by restriction of sex and related issues to family life between a man and a woman who are joined in marriage. In addition, virginity or girl-child chastity was considered a thing of pride for the bride's family and as such any one who dared to deviate from the norms was deemed to have brought shame upon her family and was stigmatized by the entire community. Further still, every member of the society was guided by general rules as set by societal expectations, superstitions, taboos and culture. All these formed the identity and value system of the people and individuals that failed to conform were usually sanctioned heavily. However, with the advent of globalization, the fast changing world of information dissemination and cultural imperialism, traditional ideas about human sexuality are changing fast across Africa, Nigeria inclusive. The focus of this paper therefore is to examine the impact of globalization on sexuality in Nigeria. Recommendations are also made that parents should re-educate the Nigerian child by employing didactic values of the African indigenous languages through teaching their children folk tales and songs that will neutralize the negative influence of globalization as well as reinforce the indigenous African value systems in homes.

Keywords

culture, globalization, sexuality, indigenous values

Introduction

Nigeria, like many other African countries, has her fair share of people living with HIV and AIDS, sexual diversity, and sexuality-related controversies. Discourse relating to sexual orientation, identity, and violence in Africa in general and Nigeria in particular has been hotly conducted in family and religious circles, higher institutions of learning, in the hallowed walls of the national assembly, the different houses of assemblies in the 36 states of the federation and on the pages of the country's newspaper. However, the advent of globalisation has brought about increase in sexual awareness and re-orientation amongst Nigerians.

Sexuality as a term has emotional and psychological dimensions which play very important roles in the development of human personality either consciously or unconsciously. Therefore, the exposure through globalization, to foreign cultures and other sexual orientations has led to the emergence of new cultures, languages, dressing, values and liberalization of the sexual ethics or beliefs amongst Nigerians. This is evident in the fact that many taboos, old traditions and customs relating to sexuality are wavering and the new sexual awareness seem to be gaining ground fast.

Sexuality refers to the feelings and activities connected with a person's sexual desires. It also refers to a person's sexual orientation- be it homosexual,. heterosexual, bisexual or transgendered. To Amanze (2010), sexuality is the reproductive mechanism and the basic biological drive that exists in all species and can encompass sexual intercourse and sexual contact in all its forms. The World Health Organisation (WHO) has provided us with a comprehensive definition of sexuality. It states that:

Sexuality is a central aspect of being human throughout life and encompasses sex, gender identities and` roles, sexual orientation, eroticism, pleasure, intimacy and reproduction. Sexuality is experienced and expressed in thoughts, fantasies, beliefs, attitudes, values, behaviours, practices, roles and relationships. While sexuality can include all of these dimensions, not all of them are always experienced or expressed. Sexuality is influenced by the inter-action of biological, psychological, social, economic, political, religious and spiritual factors.

Sexuality in Nigeria had since evolved from what it was during the traditional or pre-globalization era when sex was considered as a thing not to be trifled with. Sex organs were not even called by their right or biological names and issues surrounding sex, sexuality and morality were not to be discussed outside. For example, Amanze (2010) observed that the language used in conversation on issues pertaining to sex and human sexuality in Africa is replete with euphemisms which are usually done in the process concealing the meaning of the subject under discussion.

In the traditional Nigerian society, particularly among the traditional Yoruba ethnic group, sex was strictly either for the purpose of procreation or carnal gratification and not a topic to be discussed with little children. Therefore in pre-globalised traditional Nigerian communities, sex was restricted to family life, between a man and a woman and meant only for persons who are joined in marriage. Also, virginity or girl-child chastity was considered a thing of pride for the bride's family. Anyone who dared to deviate from the norm brought shame upon his family and was stigmatized by the entire community.

Further still, every member of the society was guided by general rules as set by societal expectations, superstitions, taboos and culture. This formed the identity and value system of the people and individuals that failed to conform were usually sanctioned heavily. However, with the advent of globalization and the fast changing world of information dissemination and cultural imperialism, traditional ideas or national views about human sexuality are changing fast across Africa, not excluding Nigeria . The focus of this paper therefore is to examine the influence of globalization on sexuality in Nigeria.

Theoretical Framework for the study

This study is hinged on the cultural imperialism theory as postulated by Herb Schiller (1973). The theory focuses on the cultural aspects of imperialism. That is, the creation and maintenance of unequal relationships between civilizations when they come in contact, thereby favouring the more powerful civilization. The term cultural imperialism emerged in the 1960s and it is based on the conquest and control of a nation's culture by a more powerful nation, Cultural imperialism theory suggests that ideas, worldviews and cultures of the more powerful nation, in this case the western nations, dominate the media around the world through the tool of globalization which has a great influence on the third world nations. This has dire consequences on the continued survival of the cultures in most developing countries of the world as westernized cultures, views and ideas are imposed on them thereby destroying native or indigen3ous cultures.

In addition, Alexandra (2003) described cultural imperialism as the practice of promoting a more powerful culture over a least known or desirable culture. It is usually the case that the former belongs to a large, economically or militarily powerful nations and the latter belongs to a smaller, less powerful one. Cultural imperialism can take the form of an active, formal policy or a general attitude. The modus operandi of cultural imperialism can be likened to a form of colonization in that, the cultural product of the developed country invades the developing countries and overwhelm the indigenous cultures of these countries.

Bello & Adesemoye (2012) submitted that based on the assumption of the cultural imperialism theory, humans do not have the free will to choose how they feel, act, think and live. Therefore when cultures come in contact through whatever medium - the internet, television, music, technology or religion and the culture of the western world imposes itself on the cultures of the third world countries, such influences question some of the fundamental beliefs of the indigenous cultures and the way of life of the people and issues on sexuality,

Other studies (Rauschenberger, 2003: Hamm. 2005) have traced the emergence of cultural imperialism in historical perspective:

Speculation of cultural imperialism emerged in the post World War 11 under various names including neo-colonialism. soft imperialism and economic imperialism. Over the years, it has gained numerous other labels such as media imperialism, structural imperialism, cultural dependency and synchronization, electronic colonialism, ideological imperialism and communication imperialism. Such theories describing cultural imperialism emerged in the 1960s and gained prominence by the 1970s. Such research encouraged the establishment of international organizations such as UNESCO, designed to research and monitor global information flows.

Also, Schiller (1973) described cultural imperialism as the sum of the processes by which a society is brought into the modern system, and how its cultures or value systems are attracted, pressured, forced and sometimes bribed into reshaping or changing its orientation to conform to. or even promote the values and structures of the dominant centre of the system.

Globalization and Sexuality in the 21st Century Nigeria

Sexuality in Nigeria has taken a new dimension since the turn of the 21st century as globalization has gradually taken the centre stage and imposed global views, ideas and identities on the traditional Nigerian way of life. Fafowora (2008) described globalization as the process of integrating economic, political, social and cultural relations across international boundaries and nations. It principally aims at making the world a global village through the homogenization of political and socio-economic theory across the globe with the accompanying increase in the breakdown of trade barriers and the increasing integration of world market.

The main idea behind globalization is to reduce the effect of time, space and geographical boundaries in human relations and business transactions. To Bello (2010), globalization is aimed at unifying the world in all thinkable ramifications: social, cultural, economic, political, educational etc. and this has undoubtedly come with serious challenges that have influenced the lives of people all over the world since its emergence,

In addition, globalization is capable of influencing greatly the socio-economic, political, educational and cultural life of many countries of the world, especially the developing countries. It has raised questions on the appropriateness of certain traditional beliefs, customs, religion, language and the indigenous justice system. It has influenced the Nigerian value system, especially on issues that bother on sexual orientation and behaviour. According to Bello (2010), the cultural fabrics of most of the developing countries of the world have suffered a seemingly irreparable damage in the face of globalization. This is because the mass media and the so-called new

media - radio, television, computer, newspaper, magazines, books, billboards, cinema, recordings, films, internets etc, have all by content and production eroded the cultural values of Africans. Also, the operations of Nigerian mass media, like in many other African countries, are patterned on the western model which invariably erodes our cultures and general opinions on important discourse both locally and internationally.

Since sexuality is central to human life, and it is generally perceived by all Nigerians, irrespective of tribe and religious affiliations, as the heartbeat of society; the influence of globalization on sexuality is fast redefining conventional Nigerian traditional views and beliefs concerning this topic. Traditional and cultural worldviews concerning virginity, sex, gender and marriage are fast changing due to the cultural erosion occasioned by the embrace of globalization.

In addition, Ojo & Fasuba (2005) argued that debates on sexual orientation and identity in Nigeria, especially the adolescent's sexuality behavior in Nigeria and sub-Sahara Africa is seriously going through transformation from what it used to be in the past. They attributed this to the effects of globalization as dictated by the internet, industrialization, education, exposure and enculturation through importation of various western films and foreign cultures which were alien to the Nigerian cultures in particular and Africa as a whole. Ojo & Fasuba concluded that the internet more than any other agent of social change has contributed in no small measure to the removal of guilt, fear and shame associated with unconventional sexual activities and pornographic films.

Similarly, Bello and Adesemoye (2012) concluded that as long as the developing countries continue to come into contact with and promote western cultures and ideas, these citizens of these countries will always act. feel, think and live like their counterparts in the western civilizations act, feel, think and live.

Also, Longe (2007) observed that the current sexuality trends among teenagers and Children in Nigeria are culturally alien to the Nigerian societin the past. These changes have been attributed to unregulated exposure westernized cultures through contacts with the many agents of globalisation. The current trend of sexuality in Nigeria portends dangers for the sustenance of the nation's culture and the people's way of life as the social, traditional and religious worldviews concerning sexuality are fast being eroded by the demanding weights of globalization. In the last five years, there has been a huge increase in the cases of sexual harassment, under aged defilement, indecent dressing or nudity, rape, incest, bestiality, and homosexuality to mention just a few.

Stychin (2004) observed that globalization has greatly influenced the concept of sexuality across national boundaries especially in the realm of gay rights. According to Stychin, all over the world, a globalization of human rights has occurred, whereby human rights have become a key criterion by which the progress of nations is

evaluated. There has also been an increase in the globalization of same sex sexualities as identities and the reality of this is evident in Africa. For example,the issue of gay relationship and marriage dominated international discourse recently even to the point of being a subject of legislative discourse in the two chambers of national assembly in Nigeria

Globalization has been a major contributing factor to the universality of same-sex sexualities and identities and it has influenced the movement for contemporary lesbian and gay identity politics of sexuality, identity, and liberation since 1969 (Altman, 2002). This movement has since taken a global dimension to issues on same-sex sexuality and defined distinct sexual identities in categories that are labelled as gays and lesbians, or both. Blasius (2001) argued that the individual (in terms of gender) with whom one has sexual relations with is the key to who you are.

Obidoa (2010) described Nigeria as a nation that is currently experiencing rapid social change, due to the forces of globalization. According to the study, globalization and its' accompanied influence on sexual orientations in Nigeria has led to the continued growth of the HIV/AIDS epidemic particularly among young people. HIV/AIDS statistics show that young people between the ages of 15 to 24 years constitute one of the most affected groups in the country. Obidoa asserted that there is an emerging body of evidence showing that global economic and cultural forces impact youth sexual risk through various avenues. These avenues include socio-cultural factors, particularly global popular youth cultures and socio-economic processes initiated by globalization, and they affect the sexual behaviors of young people in Nigeria.

Some studies (Davis & Whitten, 1987; Hoad, 2004) have traced the emergence of diverse sexual orientations in Africa back to the pre-colonial time; these studies identified factors such as military training, rites of passage from age grade to adulthood or other special ceremonies conducted for the purpose of initiation into manhood and need for sexual satisfaction through artificial phalli especially in polygamous homes. However, sexuality has since taken other forms in the 21s century African society and the focus of this paper is to examine the influence of globalization on the current trends in sexuality especially in Nigerians.

Assessing the current changes on human sexuality in areas of sexual orientations such as pornography, homosexuality, Awake, March 2013 Vol. 94. No.3 pg 10 - 11 states:

Today, pornography is more popular and accessible than ever before... Researchers continue to debate the likelihood of people acting on fantasies fueled by pornography and its effects on people which include depression, social isolation, damaged relationships and other sad consequences.

More than ever before, through the instrument of globalization, pornography has gained a wider scope of acceptability among Nigerian youths and secondary school students. With most of these students visiting internet cafes solely to visit or watch pornographic sites and they equally download pornographic contents into their cell phones. These activities and many others that globalization present to the youth through the western world mass media has led to an increase in their sexual awareness and early involvement in sexual activities. This has had serious adverse effects on the lives of these youths in terms of premarital sex, unwanted pregnancy, abortion, drug abuse, indecent dressing, rape etc.

Iheanacho (2012) stated that one of the main factors of society and human transformation is premised on the concept of glonalisation which has eroded the spirit of African socialism and communal values. Iheanacho identified cultural globalization as central to the current levels of transformation in African countries, like Nigeria. Accordingly, the effects of the contact with other cultures through globalization and its numerous elements such as language, technology, music, ideology, belief etc. in the indigenous Nigerian societies has given rise to new perceptions, life style and alteration in a people's worldview, individual aspiration, personality formation and indeed the transformation of society.

Further still, apart from the socio-cultural and biological aspects of sexuality which deal with the general societal beliefs on acceptable sexual behaviours and human reproduction as well as the physical means with which to cam- it out. sexuality also has emotional and psychological dimensions which play very important roles in the development of human personality whether people are aware of it or not. Cultural globalization has influenced the conception of sexuality in Nigeria especially going by the comments credited to the Senate President, Federal Republic of Nigeria, David Mark on the national network news of December 6,2013:

I want to invite you all to join the crusade of decency in our society. There are many good values we can copy from other societies, but certainly not this one (same-sex marriage). We have to prove to the rest of the world, who are advocates of this unnatural way, that we Nigerians promote and respect sanity, morality and humanity. Every individual is a product of the union of a man and woman.

Enwegbara (2012) described globalization as a cancer and argued that unless it is made to undergo drastic overhauling just like it was done to capitalism in the 20th century; the economic value systems and cultural heritages of the most developing countries stand on the brink of extinction. Iheanacho (2012) identified global awareness in sexuality such as gay marriage as yet another dimension of the challenges that globalization has brought on African traditional and religious beliefs. Nigerians, like many other Africans, are increasingly taking to secular life and embracing the new cultures that globalization offers.

Akinnaso (2012) described the influence of globalization on Nigeria as 'cultural erosion7. This term cultural erosion, according to Akinnaso (2012) is the systematic devaluation sometimes leading to the deletion, of certain aspects of our cultures due to foreign influences of religion, colonization and globalization. Such influences could wipe out a people's memory of their past; their traditional cultural practices; their language and their worldview, including their perception of reality. Enwegbara (2012) concluded that the influence of the overwhelming weight of globalization on the survival of minority cultures and economies could trigger a global protest and the rise of a new communist movement in most developing countries in the not too distant future.

Globalisation and New Sexualities in Nigeria: The way out.

Globalization is a global phenomenon that cannot be stopped in view of its utilitarian values is some aspects of life; the purpose of this aspect of the paper is to suggest possible ways by which Nigeria can embrace globalization while at the same time preserve her cultural heritage.

Okonkwo (2008) asserted that most negative impact of moral decadence which has developed into 'unnatural' or 'unafrican' forms of sexuality in Nigeria and other African countries is the erosion of that sense of shame, courtesy and right and wrong in the past three decades. The cultural erosion by globalization has brought upon us a reorientation of our traditional core values of honesty, integrity, and equity communal social responsibility and has left us in this dire state of social and culture corrosion. According to Okonkwo, Nigerians have fallen for the negative influence of globalization and thus, perverted their original nature. Something needs to be done fast in order to salvage the future of the nation from extinction.

The influence of globalization on the worldviews, value system and the way of life of Africans in general and Nigerians in particular has taken a worrisome dimension and should be of concern to all Nigerians. Iheanacho (2012) opined that globalisation is taking negative toll on the indigenous African knowledge and skill. Also, many Nigerian languages, and those of many other African societies have been predicted to be on the part of extinction. The loss of indigenous languages is the loss of and traditional knowledge, values and customs that define us as Nigerians. Efforts need to be doubled to preserve our indigenous languages through the vehicle of education,

Indigenous languages should be reintroduced as mother tongues in Nigerian homes and parents or family circles need to employ the didactic values of the African indigenous languages by teaching their children folk tales of songs that will neutralize the negative influence of globalization as well as reinforce the indigenous African value system in homes. The only solution to the 'mis-education' of the Nigerian child is to 're-educate' him in the Nigerian way, by using the indigenous languages in the

homes. Nigerians and indeed Africans need to resist the imposition of the language of the globalised world by promoting the use of indigenous language. A loss of language is the same as a loss of culture and identity, and this could have serious impact on sexuality in Nigeria.

In addition, the imposition of globalization on our indigenous cultures has eroded our cultural knowledge and this has strained the values of community life, solidarity and corporate existence for which Africans are known. These values are being replaced by individual spirit and cut-throat competition of the capitalist propelled global system (Iheanacho, 2012). The loss of indigenous cultural identity and knowledge has greatly imparted on our sexuality as there have been wanton increase in the cases of incest, rape, bestiality and other negative sexual orientation considered alien to the traditional African society.

Further still, education remains the only solution to current influences of globalization on Nigeria. Apart from the use of indigenous languages in education in the lower primary schools as stated in the National Policy on Education (NPE, 2004), traditional moral instruction can be introduced in schools for the purpose of re-orientating the students on the indigenous value system. Efforts should also be focused on indigenous sex education in schools and at home because we live in a dynamic world where people can easily access information on any topic from anywhere in the world. Failure to explain or teach the indigenous worldview on sexuality could make the Nigerian youths to accept pornography, homosexuality, bestiality, masturbation and other forms of sexual orientations that are alien to indigenous beliefs, customs and traditions.

Nwegbu, Eze, & Asogwa (2013.) suggested that the government as an agent of change should repackage and re-inculcate absolute values through the use of libraries, mass media, and advanced information technologies to counter the negative changes that are emerging today. Also, there is a need for the legal protection of cultural heritage of Nigeria, especially the intangible aspect of culture such as indigenous languages, folk music, arts etc. Cultural libraries could be established in the different local government areas in the country for the purpose of preserving the nation's culture.

In addition, efforts should be geared towards the celebration of positive indigenous beliefs on sexuality such as virginity, chastity, and traditional views on premarital sex. Corporate organizations and media institutions should be compelled to exhibit and celebrate indigenous views of sexual abstinence and faithfulness in relationship rather than endorsing nudity and other sexual vices through their advertisement and sales promotions. The preservation of the indigenous African culture should be the responsibility of every African in the face of massive cultural erosion which is spearheaded by globalization.

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