Routledge Research in Language Education

INTERDISCIPLINARY RESEARCH APPROACHES TO MULTILINGUAL EDUCATION

Edited by
Vasilia Kourtis-Kazoullis, Themistoklis Aravossitas,
Eleni Skourtou, and Peter Pericles Trifonas

ROUTLEDGE

Interdisciplinary Research Approaches to Multilingual Education

Recently intensified global mobility has reinforced the interest for ethnolinguistic diversity and multilingualism in education and society. *Interdisciplinary Research Approaches to Multilingual Education* brings together current interdisciplinary perspectives in multilingual and second language education to examine research and language teaching in specific countries, as well as different aspects of multilingual education that include language policies and ICT applications.

Containing context-specific practical interventions and relevant theoretical approaches, it considers the contemporary challenges of language policies and practices to inform teacher and curriculum development based on international empirical research. The chapters of this book are centered around the following themes:

- Educational programs and policies
- Teaching and learning
- Linguistic diversity
- ICT and language learning

This book will be of great interest to academics, researchers and postgraduate students in language education, bilingual education, second/foreign language learning, CALL, and applied linguistics. It will also appeal to educational administrators and those involved with language education policies.

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Routledge Research in Language Education

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Foreword

Enrica Piccardo

We live in highly dynamic social configurations, where the points of reference we were familiar with are often modified, or even disappear, within short time spans. The globalized, and still globalizing, world we inhabit is undergoing both processes of standardization and opposite movements aiming to acknowledge, value, and build on diversity and differences. This magmatic social landscape is mirrored by the world of education where innovation is happening in all domains, from policies to pedagogy to the integration of information and communication technologies. As is understandable, languages are at the forefront of this phenomenon, as they span from being a tool of everyday use in the ordinary exchanges of our everyday life to being a means through which culture(s) are shaped and conveyed, economic transactions are conducted, political treaties are discussed, and all disciplines are taught and learned. Learning languages, especially second and foreign languages, is therefore a process of deep personal, social, and economic investment which deserves consideration and reflection.

All stakeholders are increasingly aware that this process is highly complex and needs to be tackled from different angles in order for it not only to be effective but also to contribute to acceptance and inclusion, and thus eventually to equity.

With its choice of a wealth of different and yet complementary perspectives, this edited book, *Interdisciplinary Research Approaches to Multilingual Education*, sets itself precisely this high and noble aim, helping to cast light onto diversity in different domains and contexts, linguistic, socio-cultural, methodological, geographical, not only to highlight its challenges but also its huge potential.

One characteristic of the book that stands out is the number of its contributors and editors who are themselves individuals used to shuttling between languages, cultures, and traditions. This type of book is representative of the direction our societies are taking, their patchwork-like nature, where the different elements composing the patchwork once assembled together contribute to a harmonious pattern without losing their own specific and individual features.

The organization of the content into four parts is very effective in helping one to navigate the complexity mentioned above. How could one discuss teaching and learning of second/foreign languages without, at the same time, taking into consideration the implications that educational programs and policies may have on that same teaching and learning, without embedding the very actions of

teaching and learning within the vast constellation of linguistic diversity? How could one not see the importance of the shift towards an increasingly technological and technologized world, where information and communication technologies not only facilitate new or existing interconnection but also provide a platform and support to a broader range of expressive and creative possibilities?

As Michalis Damanakis aptly underlines in chapter 11, every person is acting as a social agent, every person is a rational and dialogic being, every person is also full of feelings and desires. Diversity, albeit important, is insufficient as a term per se to capture the endless individualities and the thousand nuances that each individual trajectory brings with it, the kaleidoscopic nature of each individual identity. Recognizing diversity is very different from accepting it and both are different from managing it. Not surprisingly, he quotes Julia Kristeva's complaint that "*for a stranger we can only supply a negative definition*." "[A stranger is] *he who is not part of the team, he who 'is not an insider,' the other*" (2004: 123), at the same time reminding us that Kristeva also said that the foreign element lies within our very selves. This double nature of the stranger, the other out there and the other in ourselves, is what makes the very idea of balance between identity and assimilation so difficult, so fragile.

From the sociolinguistic perspective, language is a powerful indicator of the – stronger or weaker – sense of belonging of immigrants, as the investigation on code-switching in three Italian communities in the UK aptly underlines (De Salvo). But the swing between more and less flexible language policies is itself a sign of feelings of security or insecurity vis-à-vis 'the stranger': empowerment of the historical minorities can be perceived as a threat for the Nation-State (Mavrommatis, Kapoutsi, & Karagianni). And any danger, be it real or imagined, be it geographically close or in a very distant context, can jeopardize dialogical and developmental relationships: this is another face of the globalized world.

Nonetheless, walking on this thin ice is not only possible but also increasingly safer precisely because it is a shift away from a deficit perspective, from fear of difference to an active interest in diversity. Navigating plurality can be extremely enticing and once the process has started, new doors open, new connections are visible where only obstacles, barriers, and issues were envisaged beforehand.

This is what this book advocates. The *how to* is amply illustrated by the many contributions and empirical studies collected in the book. The reader is invited to build on the different realities presented and use them as guides to explore both the real and the virtual.

Plurilingualism is a reality both in everyday practices in the classroom (Galante) and in the educational policies of a less known but very stimulating context (Stampolaki), with all the potential of information and communication technologies, from augmented reality (Koutrumanos & Sofos) to learning logs (Zorbas), from virtual museums (Maric) to blogging (Evangelidi), to the versatility of reusable learning objects (Mitsikopoulou). All these are examples of the wealth of possibilities for teachers and learners alike to embrace plurality, to feel a sense of extended community, to not be afraid of complexity but to see its potential and sense of freedom. Once this step taken, it will be natural to embark on a

process that will naturally succeed in fostering a sense of inclusion of and in multilingual communities from the earliest stages (Ragnarsdóttir), a process of real democratization.

A foreword to a book with so many different contributions necessarily does a disservice to those of them that do not come under the spotlight, but the value of the book relies precisely in its wealth of diverse perspectives and voices. I invite you to explore them yourself.

Part A

Educational programs and policies

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1 Linguistic rights and educational policies

Aspects of minority language education in Europe

Giorgos Mavrommatis, Syrmo Kapoutsi, and Anastasia Karagianni

Introduction

The Nation-State, this 'new' form of political and social organization which succeeded the centralized monarchical State or, in cases, the large multinational empires, followed certain routes and procedures in order to be recognized as sovereign political formation in the position that the church, the feudal lord, or the king had been holding until that time.

The cultural and linguistic homogenization of the nation/people, the downgrading or the elimination of pre-existing internal discrimination (stratus/class, religious, parochial, family/clan, etc.), the promotion of social coherence and the strengthening of political and cultural ties, the cultivation of collective consciousness and the creation and strengthening of national economy, provided the main conditions for the consolidation of the new political construct. For the newly created European Nation-State, the development and expansion of formal and under central control National Education was the measure for the dissemination of the national(istic) ideology (Hobsbawm, 1962).

From that time onwards, National Education has been playing a key role in the national homogenization process by creating a common culture based on literacy, by preferring and imposing a certain (type of a) language and a certain national myth. National Education consists one of the fundamental functions of the State, since it legitimizes the identification of the political and the cultural properties of this nation; actually the base on which the Nation-State stands (Gellner, 1983). For these reasons, European National Educational systems worked, and still work, systematically in order to achieve linguistic homogeneity, while, in parallel, they aim at marginalizing and finally at eliminating minority languages, which, in most cases, were/are the language of minority (ethnic or national) communities.

This was rather the rule for all European Nation-States until the mid-20th century, for both materialistic (political–economical) and symbolic reasons. In all nation-building processes, the elements that characterize the nation – and, most of the times, these elements are the language and/or the religion – are of great importance, since they operate, inevitably, as markers, delimiting the national community, separating the in-group from the out-group, the 'intimates' and 'locals' from the 'strangers' (Triantafyllidou, 1998; Yuval-Davis, 2004).

In European Nation-States, at least until the mid-20th century, there was no convergence of views on what a minority is and what rights a minority can enjoy. Actually, the discussion on this issue was moving between two poles: one was the (central government's, the communities', and, in cases, the Kin-State's) will to strengthen the minority, not only by providing the possibility to exercise rights (such as the learning/use of the mother tongue), and also by providing special rights to eliminate *de facto* inequalities; the other pole was the (central government's) desire to restrict the minority in order to prevent potential outbreak of secessionist movements, which would compromise the integrity of the National-State.

However, in cases, Nation-States were providing to specific minorities the right to use and cultivate their language and culture, the right to circulate information in the minority language, the right to found and operate schools and cultural institutions etc. After WWII, International Organizations and National governments started dealing systematically with issues connected with the historical minorities in Europe, based on the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights. A turning point in the route of assertion-attribution of rights to minorities was the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights of 1966, which defines (article 27) that "[i]n those States in which ethnic, religious or linguistic minorities exist, persons belonging to such minorities shall not be denied the right, in community with the other members of their group, to enjoy their own culture, to profess and practice their own religion, or to use their own language," while the most recent relevant legal texts are the European Charter for Regional and Minority Languages of 1992 and the UNESCO's Universal Declaration on Linguistic Rights of 1996.

Focusing on issues connected with the education of minorities, and especially with the teaching of language and culture, we have to note that: one of the major issues that appear in bilingual-education systems is the balance tried to be kept between majority and minority language (the time each language holds in the curriculum, the allocation per teaching subject, etc.). These kinds of decisions are integrally related with the desired level of fluency, as well as with other, political and symbolic matters.

The importance of this issue relates mainly to an intra-minority dilemma. Minorities generally, on the one hand, wish to achieve a high level of fluency in the majority language (and culture), expecting or knowing that this knowledge will help them to improve their conditions of life, to participate in the administration, and to influence political decisions. On the other hand, though, most of the minority members fear that this process will result in weakness or even in loss of their mother tongue and their particular community culture, in isolation from their community, and, finally, in the destruction or loss of their identity.

Other key questions regard the means through which the community/minority culture is to be taught. As a rule, historical minorities wish – in cases demand – the minority culture to be taught, in the minority bilingual educational systems, in parallel with the (imposed, by the central Government) state/

official/dominant/majority culture. The problems that appear here are not only technical and operational (production of teaching material, selection, and training of teachers, etc.), but also political, connected with power relations between majority and minority (Cummins, 1996; Husén et al., 1992). Such problems might occur, for instance, around the teaching of history, when the minority perspective on the past collides with the majority perspective, especially in those cases in which the creation of the minority is product of a war between the Nationality State and a neighboring State, which stands in the position of Kin-State for the minority. Similar problems often arise with regard to the teaching of geography, when there is controversy around names and eventually around the exact definition of the geographical spread of the language and therefore the minority culture; finally, with the geographical area in which a certain cultural/ethnic/national community, now being a minority, had spread during the time under study.

Finally, minority educational policy, as all policies, is actually a vector sum, resulting from the intentions and the power the involved agents have (direction and magnitude of the vectors). In this context, intra-minority conflicts as well as the type and quality of the relations between State of Nationality and Kin-State, or between the Regional and the Central Government, play a key role.

In this chapter,[1] we present a comparative study between eight cases of Regional and Minority languages in Europe,[2] focusing in the minority language education. More specifically, we studied the Basque language in Spain, the Basque language in France, the Catalan language in Spain, the Catalan language in France, the German language in Italy, the Slovene language in Italy, the Slovene language in Austria, and the Croatian language in Austria.

The criteria, according to which the languages and the communities/regions were selected for this study, were the location (West and South-Central Europe), the number and the status of the speakers/community, the relations of the linguistic community with the Nationality State, and the history of the State (mainly time and way of the creation of each Nation-State).

The study takes shape in three parts. In the first part there is a brief presentation of each language community, with specific references to history especially during the 20th century.[3] In the second part, we present in the form of two tables with eight rows, one for each case, the most important information. In the third part, we proceed to a brief comparative analysis based on the data presented in the tables

The cases

Catalan in Spain

In Spain, Catalan is the official language alongside Spanish in the autonomous communities of Catalonia, the Balearic Islands, and most of the Valencian country, and, further, it is spoken in the eastern part of Aragon (Franja) and in a small

part of Murcia (Figure 1.1). In 2001, the Catalan-speaking population of those areas was approximately 11,000,000 people (Sorolla, 2011), with fluency that varies. Particularly in Catalonia, the Catalan language has a specific legal status related to its recognition as the language of the country. Catalan is a language of high status, since it is considered as an important element of cultural identity for the speakers, who are in most cases distinguished for their high educational, economic, and social level (Miller & Miller, 1996).

During the 19th and 20th centuries, a revivalist movement, 'Renaixença,' created a linguistic reunion of all Catalan-speaking lands and raised political awareness. During the Second Spanish Republic (1931–39) a Statute of Autonomy was established in Catalonia, which, after the Spanish Civil War, was abolished by Franco's dictatorship (1939–75) that completely forbade the public use of the language. The revival of Catalan only started after Franco's death, when the new Spanish Constitution of 1978 recognized the establishment of self-governing regions, and permitted the autonomous communities or regions to have other local languages as co-official alongside Spanish, the official language of the state. In 1990 the European Parliament officially recognized the value of the Catalan language and set its use within the context of the European Communities as a goal to be achieved. In 1992 Spain signed the European Charter for Regional and Minority Languages and ratified it in 2001 (Areny et al., 2013).

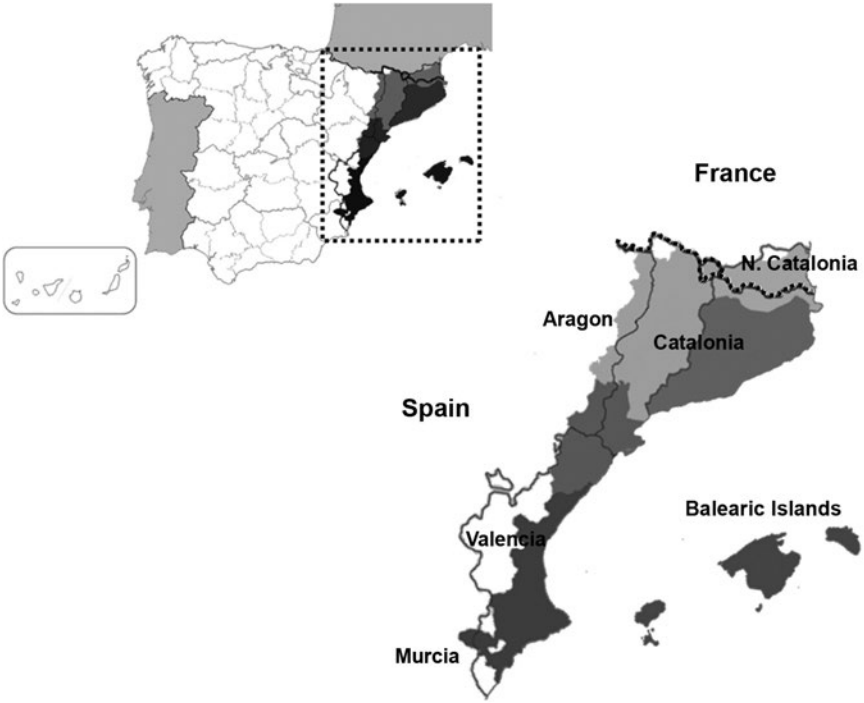

Figure 1.1 Catalan in Spain and France

Catalan in France

Catalan is also spoken in southern France, in Eastern Pyrenees (Figure 1.1), by 126,000 inhabitants in 1997, a 34% of the area's total population (Poot & Dongera, 2005). The region benefits from the proximity and dynamism of Southern Catalonia, although the difference between North and South Catalonia is significant, in terms of recognition and promotion of the language and also its use in society (Balcells, 2013).

The northern Catalan counties were annexed by the Kingdom of France under the Treaty of the Pyrenees after the Franco-Spanish War (1659). However, since the Revolution (1789), and because of certain political reasons related to the French national idea,[4] for centuries, Catalan in France did not enjoy recognition. Since the Deixonne law (1951) and subsequent implementation measures, such as the Savary circular (1982), the Catalan language and culture may be taught in schools for public education, if the teacher is willing and able to do so (Poot & Dongera, 2005). Hence, although the position of Catalan in the education system of Northern Catalonia has improved during the last decades, it still is a delicate issue (Arnau & Xavier Vila, 2013:11).

Basque in Spain

Basque has traditionally been spoken in the Basque Country, which is comprised of seven historical provinces. Four of these provinces belong to the Spanish state and include the three provinces in the Basque Autonomous Community (BAC) (Araba, Bizkaia, Gipuzkoa) and Nafarroa (Figure 1.2). The Basque Country is considered among the most developed regions in Europe (European Commission, 2016). The total population of the Spanish Basque Country was 2,638,416 in 2001. Over a quarter of them claim to be competent in Basque (Gardner, 2005).

During the 18th century the use of Basque was reduced because of pressure from the stronger neighboring languages, namely French and Castilian Spanish. Furthermore, the Spanish civil war (1936–39) stopped any attempt to link the Basque language to education. The situation became worse when Franco's dictatorship (1939–75) declared that the use of language other than Spanish is permitted only in fireside gatherings (Cenoz & Perales, 2001). Things changed only after Franco's death, by the Constitution of 1978. The language has since been made co-official throughout the BAC and in part of Navarre (Gardner, 2005).

It is worth noticing that the use and the promotion of the Basque language in the area is connected to strong political struggles. Founded in the 1950s, the Euskadi ta Askatasuna (ETA), quickly evolved into a political movement with an armed action for Basque independence. From 1996 to 2002, many terrorist attacks attributed to the action, which caused tensions in the Basque minority community relations with the Spanish majority. In 2011, ETA announced the cessation of armed activity. Insofar expansion of the Basque language is for many linked to nationalist politics (Gardner & Zalbide, 2005:58).[5]

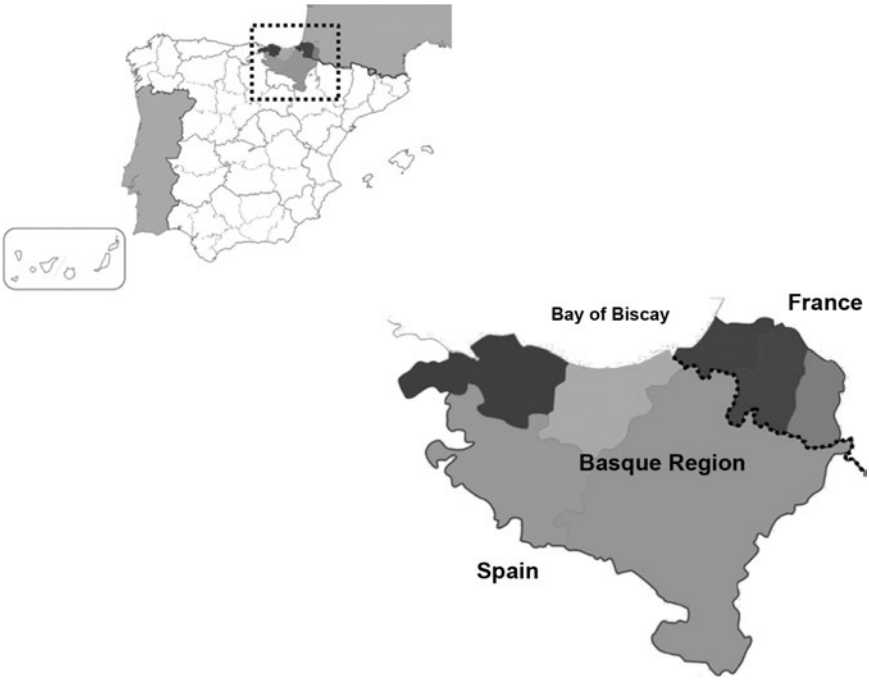

Figure 1.2 Basque in Spain and France

Basque in France

Lapurdi, Nafarroa Beherea, and Zuberoa are the rest of the aforementioned historical provinces belonging to the North Basque Country in France (Figure 1.2). There were 54,648 Basque speakers in 2001, a 24.7% of the total population.

The will for cultural and linguistic uniformity within the French Nation-State led to the substitution of other languages by the French language between the end of the 19th and the beginning of the 20th century. To this day, France still refuses to ratify the European Charter for Regional and Minority Languages. The recent 'Fillon Law' (2005) of orientation is considered as a climb-down in the recognition of regional languages in the educative system due to the fact that regional languages will only be taught as an optional language, and responsibility for their promotion will return to the regions (Stuijt & Sanchez, 2007).

Since regional languages have no specific status yet in France, Basque has never been used by the authorities in the North Basque Country. The recognition of the Basque language as a linguistic reality led to the creation of the Public Office of the Basque Language (OPLB) in 2004. A series of structural agreements were made between the OPLB and the Spanish Basque autonomous government concerning concrete issues (Harguindéguy & Itçaina, 2011).

German in Italy

In northern Italy, the area of Alto Adige/South Tyrol, sharing its borders with Switzerland and Austria, constitutes along with the province of Trento one of the five autonomous regions in Italy (Figure 1.3). It is characterized by the large presence of German speakers, who, according to the census of 2001, constitute the 69.15% (296.461 inhabitants) of the total population (ASTAT, 2003); a group of Italian speakers and a minority of Ladin speakers are also settled in South Tyrol.

Until 1919, South Tyrol belonged, as part of the historical Tyrol, to the Habsburg Empire. During WWI, the Treaty of Saint-Germaine ceded South Tyrol to Italy. In the immediate post-war period the Italian government took no measures to protect the German-speaking minority. Between 1922 and 1943, the fascist government ruling the country attempted to Italianize the territory. After this period, during the time of the German occupation (1943–5), power relationships were reversed, until Nazi Germany capitulated in 1945. In 1946, Austria and Italy agreed on the self-government for South Tyrol with the Gruber-Degasperi Agreement, which was attached to the Peace Treaty of Paris in 1947, so that the German- (and Ladin-) speaking population would be protected (Pircher et al., 2004; Lantschner, 2008; Wisthaler, 2013).

The Autonomy Statute of 1972, which was amended in 2001, granted rights and liberties to the province of South Tyrol, enabling it to protect its linguistic

Figure 1.3 German in Italy

minorities. In particular, the Autonomy Statute granted cultural autonomy and gave the minority languages parity with the Italian, thus granting all citizens equal rights (Wisthaler, 2013). Lastly, Italy signed (1995) and ratified (1997) the EU Framework Convention for the Protection of National Minorities, and signed (2000) but has not yet ratified the European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages.

Slovene in Italy

The Slovene-speaking minority in Italy mainly lives along the border between Italy and Slovenia, residing in 39 municipalities of the Friuli-Venezia Giulia Region (Figure 1.4). There is no official record by the Italian government about of the size of the Slovene-speaking population; the Slovene Research Institute though, estimates that there are 95,000 Slovene speakers who are members of the minority, 100,000 speakers of the minority language, and 183,000 people who understand the minority language (Bogatec, 2004). In this region, Italian is the dominant language and Slovenes are thus considered bilingual, since they speak Slovene and Italian and their respective dialects (Čok & Pertot, 2010).

Within the Habsburg Empire, Slovenes were perceived fundamentally as socially subaltern rural populations (Paciotto, 2009). The protection of the Slovene minority in Trieste was first defined by the Peace Treaty signed in Paris

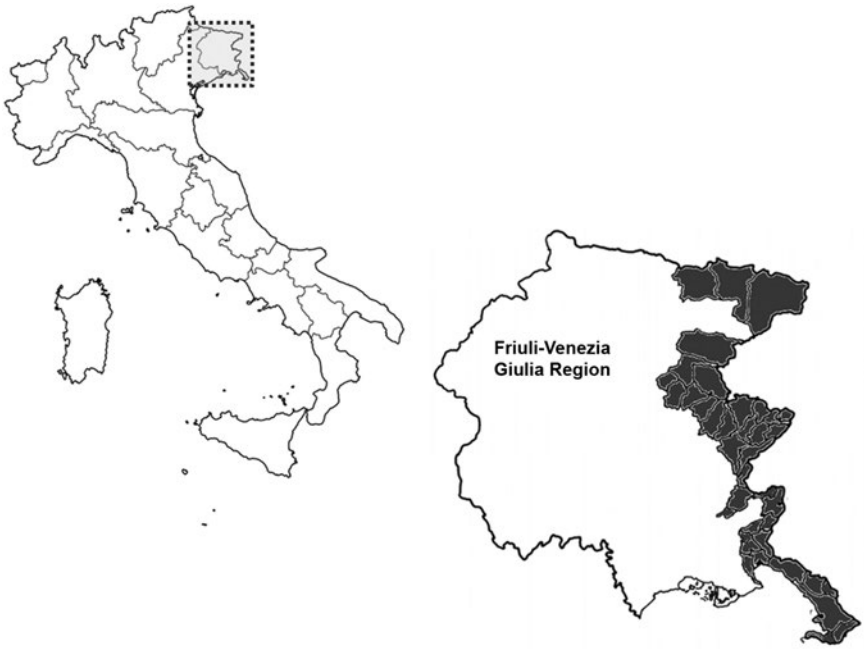

Figure 1.4 Slovene in Italy

(1947) between the Allied Powers and Italy after the WWII and by the Special Statute as Annex II to the London Memorandum in 1954. The protection of the Slovene minority throughout the territory of Friuli-Venezia Giulia was reconfirmed on the same basis in the Osimo Agreements between the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia and the Republic of Italy (1975) and confirmed again after Slovenia's independence.

The Slovene community is also entitled to some rights granted by the state of Italy. The Italian Constitution states that the Italian Republic protects linguistic minorities through special measures. Furthermore, pieces of legislation arising from national and regional laws, and municipal and provincial statutes and decisions have regulated the right to use Slovene in public (Čok & Pertot, 2010). The legal status of the language, though, differs considerably from one province to the other.

Croatian in Austria

The Croatian-speaking minority in Austria resides in the easternmost region of Burgenland and also in Vienna (Figure 1.5). Language rights, though, are administered according to territorial principles, thus applying only to those members of the minority living in the province of Burgenland (Baumgartner, 2001). According to 2001 census, 19,374 people in Burgenland reported to use Burgenland Croatian as their everyday language (Statistics Austria, 2015).[6]

Figure 1.5 Croatian in Austria

Having fled the Ottoman Empire and having been enticed by Hungarian and Austrian landowners to repopulate their estates, the Croatian speakers settled in parts of Western Hungary, South Western Slovakia, and South Eastern Lower Austria in the 16th century. In 1921, after the annexation of the larger part of the Burgenland region from the Hungarian part of the Monarchy according to the Treaty of Versailles, the Croatian minority was internally polarized between the Social-Democratic camp, aiming at socio-economic integration into the Austrian market, and the Christian-Democratic camp, aiming at the protection of the Croatian ethnicity (De Frantz, 2007). At that time, economic difficulties also led to massive emigration to Lower Austria and to the United States (De Cillia et al., 1998). After the annexation of Austria by the Third Reich in 1938, the minority language groups were persecuted, and their assimilation was accelerated. Since 1945, not much was done to protect the ethnic minorities in Burgenland and to promote their languages. Even the establishment of minority rights in the peace treaty between Austria and the Allies of 1955, which recognized the rights of the Croat minority to be educated and have access to judicial and administrative processes in their own language, had little impact in practice (Holzer & Münz, 1995).

Slovene in Austria

Slovene is an autochthonous language spoken in the southernmost Austrian provinces of Carinthia and Styria since the 6th and 7th centuries. After the referendum in 1920, about 100,000 Carinthian and Styrian Slovenes officially became a minority in the First Austrian Republic. In this chapter, though, we focus on the Slovene settlement in Carinthia, because Styrian Slovenes "have not attained the enforcement of linguistic rights, and their organisational structure is almost non-existent" (Rasinger, 2014), even though they are officially recognized as a minority.[7] Since the end of the Austro-Hungarian Empire, the number of Slovene speakers in Carinthia has dramatically declined. Today, they are scattered over Carinthia and only in few settlements they still constitute the majority (Figure 1.6). According to the 2001 census, 14,010 people reported to use Slovene as their language,[8] a proportion of 2.5% of the entire Carinthian population, in glaring contrast with the 100,000 in 1880 (Rasinger, 2014). Austria has ratified European regulations on minority groups and languages, and constitutionally guaranteed basic educational, linguistic, and organizational rights for Slovenes (Paulston et al., 2007). Minority rights for Slovenes in Carinthia are recognized under the State Treaty of 1955 and are based on territorial principles (McLaughlin & Busch, 2005).

As Rasinger (2014) has noted, "the social and political situation of Carinthia's Slovenes has historically been a problematic one." Until the 9th century, Slovene was the language of the political elite in the Dukedom of Carinthia. In 1848, under the Austro-Hungarian Empire, the emancipation movement for 'United Slovenia' demanded for total equality of the German and Slovenian language, but only prospered some concessions (Paulston et al., 2007; De Cillia et al., 1998).

Figure 1.6 Slovene in Austria

The next decades, from the end of the 19th century onwards, the attempts of assimilation and Germanization had been escalating. At the end of the Second World War, and after having been persecuted since Austria's annexation to the Third Reich in 1938, the early governments of the Second Austrian Republic extended generous policies to Slovenes, because of Yugoslavia's pressure for Carinthia's detachment (De Cillia et al., 1998), but never fully implemented them (McLaughlin & Busch, 2005). Since the 1970s, continuous pressures of nationalist organizations and regional governments have been taking place, reflecting a generally restrictive minority policy.

Comparative analysis

In this section we present two tables with eight rows, one for each case, showing the most important information. In the first table (Table 1.1), we present data regarding the population and the socio-economic status of the community,[9] the relations community has with the State, the use of language (time of attribution of linguistic rights and sectors where the language can be used), while in the second table (Table 1.2), we present data regarding the use of language in education.

Language Community	*Population (in thousands approximately)*	*Socio-economic – political status (estimation)*	*Relations with the state (estimation)*	*Influential Kin-state/ political entity*	*Public use of language*						
					Time of attribution/ concession	Signs	Media	Art	Science	Public administ.	Before the court
Basque in Spain (BAC)	**500th (2006)**	**+**	**Str.Confr**	**ǂ**	**1978**	**Y**	**Y**	**Y**	**Y**	**Y C L**	**Y**
Basque in France	**80th (2001)**	**–**	**Confr**	**Y**	**1951**	**Y**	**Y**	**Y**	**N**	**N**	**N**
Catalan in Catalonia	**7.565th (2012)**	**+ +**	**Str.Confr**	**ǂ**	**1978**	**Y**	**Y**	**Y**	**Y**	**Y C L**	**Y**
Catalan in France	**125th (2004)**	**–**	**Neut**	**Y**	**1951**	**Y**	**Y**	**Y**	**N**	**N**	**N**
German in Italy	**297th (2001)**	**+ +**	**Neut / Confr**	**Y**	**1946** (1972)	**Y**	**Y**	**Y**	**Y**	**Y C L**	**Y**
Slovene in Italy	estim. **100th (2001)**	**= –**	**Neut / Confr**	**Y**	**1947** (1975)	**Y**	**Y**	**Y**	**N**	**Y**	**N**
Croatian in Austria	**22 th (2001)**	**=**	**Neut**	**Y**	**1955**	**Y**	**Y**	**Y**	**N**	**Y**	**Y**
Slovene in Austria	**14 th (2001)**	**–**	**Confr**	**Y**	(1869) **1955**	**Y**	**Y**	**Y**	**Y**	**Y**	**Y**

Notes on Markers

Status: **(=)** same as , **(-)** or **(- -)** lower than, **(+)** or **(++)** higher than the average percentage of people speaking the main official language/ the language of the majority

Relations with the State: ***Neut*** (Neutral) - ***Confr*** (Confrontational) - ***Str.Confr*** (Strongly Confrontational)

Time of attribution: *De Jure* recognition

Public administration: Indicator *'C'*: correspondence with the State in Minority language
Indicator *'L'*: publishing of legislation in Minority language

The symbol **(ǂ)** is used in the cases of Catalan and Basque in Spain, since there no other influential Kin-State or political entity to refer to.

Table 1.1

Language	Pre-school education Foundations		Primary Education Schools		Secondary Education Schools		Tertiary Education Foundations				Vocational Training Foundations				Teachers' training Foundations			Production of educational material	
	U.C.G.C. / U.L.G.C.	Others	U.C.G.C. / U.L.G.C.	Others	U.C.G.C. / U.L.G.C.	Others	U.C.G.C./ U.L.G.C.		Others		U.C.G.C./ U.L.G.C.		Others		State of citizen ship		Kin-State/ Political entity	State of Citizenship *or* Local/ Provincial authorities	Kin-State/ Political entity
							Object	Medium	Object	Medium	Object	Medium	Object	Medium	Public	Private			
Basque in Spain (BAC)	**Y**	**Y**	**Y** H G S	**Y**	**Y** H G S	**Y**	**Y**	**Y**	**Y**	**Y**	**Y**	**Y**	**O**	**O**	**Y**	**Y**	**+**	**Y**	**+**
Basque in France	**N**	**Y**	**N**	**Y**	**N**	**Y** H G S	**Y**	**Y**	**N**	**N**	**N**	**N**	**Y**	**N**	**Y**	**N**	**N**	**Y** Private	**Y**
Catalan in Catalonia	**Y**	**Y**	**Y** H G S	**Y**	**Y** H G S	**Y**	**Y**	**Y**	**Y**	**Y**	**Y**	**Y**	**O**	**O**	**Y**	**Y**	**+**	**Y**	**+**
Catalan in France	**Y**	**Y**	**Y**	**Y**	**Y**	**Y**	**Y**	**N**	**O**	**O**	**Y**	**Y**	**O**	**O**	**Y**	**N**	**Y**	**Y** Private	**Y**
German in Italy	**Y**	**Y**	**Y** H G S	**Y** H G S	**Y** H G S	**Y** H G S	**Y**	**Y**	**Y**	**O**	**Y**	**Y**	**N**	**Y**	**Y**	**O**	**Y**	**Y**	**Y**
Slovene in Italy	**Y**	**N**	**Y** H G S	**N**	**Y** H G S	**N**	**Y**	**N**	**N**	**N**	**Y**	**Y**	**N**	**N**	**Y**	**N**	**Y**	**Y**	**Y**
Croatian in Austria	**Y**	**Y**	**N**	**N**	**Y** H G S	**N**	**N**	**N**	**N**	**N**	**N**	**N**	**N**	**N**	**Y**	**N**	**N**	**Y** Private	**N**
Slovene in Austria	**Y**	**Y**	**Y** H G S	**N**	**Y** H G S	**N**	**Y**	**Y**	**N**	**N**	**Y**	**Y**	**Y**	**Y**	**Y**	**N**	**N**	**Y**	**Y**

Notes on Markers

U.C.G.C. / U.L.G.C.: **U**nder **C**entral *or* **L**ocal **G**overnment **C**ontrol
The State or the Local/ Provincial government has the administration and provides more than 50% of the funding

Others: private, under the control of the community (administration – funding), the church, the kin-state, etc.

Indicators next to **Y**es when the minority language is used as a medium of instruction in teaching ***H**istory*, ***G**eography* or ***S**cience* (Mathematics - Physics)
Indicator ***'O'***: when no specific data have been found
Indicator ***'Private'***: when the educational material is mainly developed by the teaching staff, individual associations, private organizations, etc.

Table 1.2

Short discussion on some findings

The extremely limited (for such a comparative study) space of the present chapter obliges us to refer only to some of our research findings and make some points.

In this presentation, we attempted to present a sort of map, having in mind that it is extremely difficult for a researcher to proceed to categorizations and taxonomy in such a study. Here, we arrived at a specific 'narration,' after grouping cases and phenomena with specific criteria and sense of importance/value, actually cutting out information (evaluated as of minor importance) that might be characterized by the communities, activists, States, or other researchers, as important or even critical.

The time of attribution of linguistic rights and the kind of the rights the State attributes is strongly connected to the political philosophy and the needs of the Nation-State, the status and the history of the community, the relations between the State and the community, while, quite often, the Kin-State has also been involved.

We note that in France, the existence of citizens with cultural/linguistic/ethnic differentiation is almost unthinkable, while in Spain, the attribution of linguistic and political/administrative rights, came only after a big crisis that threatened not only the cohesion but the very existence of the State.

All the bilingual models we referred to, intend to achieve additive bilingualism (language of the community – language of the State). However, since there is no precise – in cases, not even available – data on the school performance and the dropouts, we cannot say if they succeed and to what level.

One of the very few 'clear' ascertainments, that result from our study, regards the connection between the status of the linguistic community and the presence and use of the community language in tertiary education. From the eight cases under study, only the Basque-speaking community in Spain, the Catalan-speaking community in Spain, and the German-speaking community in Italy are in the position to use their community language as a medium for the instruction of other scientific subjects in tertiary education.

The time when linguistic and educational rights were attributed to linguistic minorities by the Nation-State, as well as the type of these rights, is strongly connected to the sense of the security of the State. This is because the empowerment of the historical minorities (most of which are also ethnic/national minorities, with connection to neighboring and, in cases, enemy States) is often perceived as a threat for the Nation-State.

What we observe here is that, only when the Nation-State feels adequately safe (as is the case in the European Nation-States a decade after WWII), or extremely hard-pressed (as in the case of Spain) proceeds to the attribution of such rights. Thus, we can claim that the Kymlicka's theory (2007) on 'securitization of rights' regarding to historical minorities/sub-national entities is affirmed (once more).

Notes

1 The work presented in this chapter is part of a wider research in progress, operated in "Innovative Pedagogical Approaches in Multicultural Educational Environments" MA Program, in the Department of Education Sciences in Early Childhood, Faculty of Education Sciences, Democritus University of Thrace, Alexandroupolis, Greece (www.psed.duth.gr/index.en.shtml). An extensive form of this chapter (including more cases), was presented in the "Rethinking Language, Education and Diversity" Conference, 28–31 May 2015, Rhodes, Greece (http://rlde.aegean.gr/rhodes2015/).

2 Adopting the definition provided by the European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages (article 1) we consider as regional or minority languages "the languages that are traditionally used within a given territory of a State by nationals of that State who form a group numerically smaller than the rest of the State's population and differ from the official language(s) of that State. The definition does not include either dialects of the official language(s) of the State or the languages of migrants."

3 Here, we present a brief history of each linguistic community, based on information derived mainly from www.mercator-research.eu. We are more than certain that many brief histories of the specific communities can be presented, based on different or even the same sources.

4 From this point of view, the (knowledge and dominance of the) French language is associated with the unity of the country and the equality of its citizens. The French political system is based on a single unified state with a centralist structure. French is the only official language in France; the other languages are designated 'regional languages.'

5 To a smaller degree, an action of the separatist organization ETA took place also in France until 2011.

6 A further 2,456 people in Vienna declared Burgenland Croatian to be their language (Minority Rights Group International, 2008).

7 With less than 2,000 speakers around Radgona Corner, the Styrian minority is characterized as being 'hidden' (Paulston et al., 2007) or 'ignored' (De Cillia et al., 1998).

8 Of those, 12,554 (2.38%) are Austrian citizens.

9 During our study, we observed that in some cases there is no official data or estimation of particular linguistic communities' population, thus we accept and quote estimations of researchers working with these cases.

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2 Building a multilingual learning community

Educational partnerships with parents in a multilingual preschool in Iceland

Hanna Ragnarsdóttir

Introduction

Linguistic and cultural diversity among preschool children and their families in preschools in Iceland has been growing over the past years and currently around 11% of all preschool children have mother languages other than Icelandic (Statistics Iceland, 2015). In some preschools in Iceland the ratio of immigrant children is 50–80% (Reykjavíkurborg, 2015). This relatively new reality brings challenges to preschools in Iceland, and many of these have responded by developing interesting initiatives to include diverse families and their children and ensure their active participation in the everyday school activities.

The aim of the study was to explore the process of building a multilingual learning community by establishing educational partnerships with parents in a multilingual preschool in Iceland. The chapter draws partly on data from the same preschool gathered in the Nordic research project *Learning Spaces for Inclusion and Social Justice: Success Stories from Immigrant Students and School Communities in Four Nordic countries*, the objective of which was to draw lessons from success stories of individual immigrant students and whole school communities at different levels that have succeeded in developing learning contexts that are equitable and socially just. Learning spaces refer to school communities as well as other learning environments and practices than schools, which may be important or instrumental for the young immigrants' participation and success. In the project, students' success is defined as social as well as academic. By identifying success stories and good practices our aim was to provide guidelines for teaching and school reform based on these strategies (Ragnarsdóttir, Jónsdóttir, & Blöndal, forthcoming).

The chapter draws on data from one preschool in the *Learning Spaces* project as well as additional data gathered in a more in-depth study where the focus was on the process of building a multilingual learning community with parents and children.

Theoretical framework: critical approaches to education in multilingual settings

The main theoretical focus of this study is critical multiculturalism, multicultural education, and culturally responsive pedagogy (Banks, 2010; Gay, 2010;

Nieto, 2010). An additional perspective is literature and theories on inclusive and empowering educational strategies for meeting cultural and linguistic diversity of children and families (Banks, 2010; Brooker, 2002; Cummins, 2004; Gay, 2010; May & Sleeter, 2010; Noddings, 2005a, 2005b, 2008).

Critical multiculturalism is an important basis for this study as it critically addresses power relations within particular settings, communities, or schools and ways to ensure equality, empowerment, and participation (Banks, 2010; Nieto, 2010; Parekh, 2006). Approaches of critical multiculturalism focus on the position of minority groups in societies and their educational systems from a critical perspective and analyze the factors in the societal structures or educational systems which cause and maintain unequal status (see May & Sleeter, 2010; Nieto, 2010; Parekh, 2006). Parekh (2006) has claimed that societies need to find their balance and ensure equal opportunities and access of individuals through active communication and agreements. The same applies to schools in multicultural societies. According to Banks (2010) and Nieto (2010), educational systems need to critically address inequalities and ensure voice, dialogue, equality, empowerment, and social justice for their individual students and teachers. Nieto (2010) emphasizes that empowering multicultural learning communities should be developed within educational systems in multicultural societies.

Cummins (2004) has addressed the need for investing in social justice in educational communities and gaining understanding on how policy making, attitudes, beliefs, and expectations exclude some children while welcoming others. According to Cummins (2001), in order to create learning spaces that respond to the needs of linguistically and culturally diverse groups of children and families, schools need to consider how to implement socially just and inclusive practices that welcome diverse backgrounds and identities. Additionally, in order to develop inclusive practices, it is important to build on children's prior experiences and knowledge. Chumak-Horbatsch (2012) notes that most multilingual children are 'emergent bilinguals' entering early childhood education with some proficiency in their home language and a basic understanding of literacy. Many young children also have parents that wish for them to learn the new or majority language while developing and expanding their home language and literacy (Chumak-Horbatsch, 2012; Mosty, 2013). Transition into a new preschool where the linguistic environment and educational practices do not match the child's former experiences can have negative results for their language and literacy development if not addressed. Chumak-Horbatsch (2012) argues that monolingual practices carried out in multilingual settings silence immigrant children's voices with unforeseen and often serious consequences. Children quickly feel and understand that their language has no meaning, is sometimes not allowed, and that their way of speaking is less important and more primitive than that of the children speaking the language of the preschool. Results from a study on educational practices with multilingual children suggest that inclusive linguistic practices are needed to enhance the learning of all children in linguistically and culturally diverse learning contexts. Inclusive practices focus on a daily basis on multilingual, multi-literate, and multicultural lives of children and provide

language and literacy materials in the home languages while maintaining close cooperation with parents (Chumak-Horbatsch, 2012).

Culturally responsive teaching entails building on and using the cultural knowledge, prior experiences, frames of reference, and performance styles of ethnically diverse students to make learning encounters more relevant to, meaningful, and effective for them (Gay, 2010; Ladson-Billings, 1994). Teachers implementing culturally responsive teaching believe in their students and emphasize the development of all their strengths on a daily basis. They have a whole child approach rather than focusing on a limited ability of the child or deficits and do not blame the children for the shortages of the educational system. These teachers aim to develop a community of culturally diverse learners who celebrate and affirm each other and work collaboratively for their mutual success, where empowerment replaces powerlessness (Gay, 2010). In such context, care is also important. Noddings (2005b) claims that a caring relationship is one where both the cared-for and the carer contribute. In the case of the youngest students, this relationship could be seen to extend to the parents, emphasizing the importance of good communication and cooperation between home and preschool. It also has wider societal implications because: "To care means to respond to needs, and needs do not stop (or start) at the schoolroom door" (Noddings, 2005a:xxii).

To summarize, many scholars consider it essential to apply a holistic and caring-centered approach to learning in multicultural societies and to create learning spaces which empower linguistically and culturally diverse groups of children and implement social justice and inclusion.

Method

In the *Learning Spaces* project, case studies were conducted in schools at pre-, compulsory, and upper secondary levels in urban and rural contexts in Finland, Iceland, Norway, and Sweden (a total of 27 schools). Sampling was purposive in that all schools have succeeded in implementing social justice and creating inclusive learning spaces for all students. All schools had relatively high numbers of immigrant children or students. Internal and external evaluations and assessment of school authorities were used when selecting the schools in the project, and additionally, indicators such as average grades, test scores, and drop-out rates were used for selecting schools at the compulsory and upper secondary levels.

National curriculum guides, laws, and regulations on education in each of the four countries were analyzed, in addition to school policies and curricula developed in each school. Analysis took place concurrently through the research period using qualitative procedures of content analysis, coding, and constant comparison.

Finally, an electronic questionnaire was sent to all staff in all participating schools in the project. The survey covered issues of educational policy, support from politicians and educational authorities, the school community, leadership, staff, organization, students/children, and parents.

In the preschool in this study, data was collected through nine semi-structured interviews with preschool principals, preschool teachers, and

parents of immigrant backgrounds as well as observations. The languages of the interviews, either Icelandic or English, were chosen by the participants and some of the interviews were in both languages. The duration of each interview was on average one hour. Semi-structured interviews were chosen to elicit the views of the participants as clearly and accurately as possible (Flick, 2006; Kvale, 2007). This allowed the researchers to organize the contents of the interviews, while at the same time giving the participants opportunities for open discussions. Based on an interview framework, the principals and teachers were asked to describe their practices. Through a narrative account of their professional experiences, they were invited to tell their professional stories concerning their practices (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000). The parents were invited to share their experiences of the preschool. The narrative descriptions generated by this approach provided the researchers with an understanding of the representations of the educational settings. In addition, observations where field notes, photographs, and videos were collected for analyzing took place in the preschool. The researchers visited the preschool several times in order to observe various activities (Ragnarsdóttir, 2015).

Additionally, data in this study included a semi-structured in-depth interview with the preschool principal, focus group interviews with immigrant parents who have taken part in developing educational partnerships, including extracurricular courses and observation of the extracurricular courses.

All interviews were recorded and transcribed verbatim. Data was analyzed through the qualitative procedures of content analysis, coding, and constant comparison of data. The transcripts were read and re-read by the researchers and analysis was collaborative and thematic through discussions. Excerpts from the interviews below which were in Icelandic have been translated into English by the author.

The study was reported to the Data protection authority (DPA) and informed consent was obtained from all participants.

The preschool

The preschool is located in a part of the capital area where languages and backgrounds of inhabitants are very diverse. Around 25% of families in the area are recent immigrants to Iceland. Around 80% of children in the preschool have other heritage languages than the majority language, Icelandic. There is high unemployment rate and poverty in the area. However, recent various initiatives in the area have included cooperation in projects between schools on different levels and parents.

The preschool was founded in 1980 and is organized into three divisions based on age. One third of the staff have immigrant backgrounds. Out of a total of 57 children, 46 (approximately 80%) have immigrant backgrounds. The preschool's motto is "*Don't fear diversity – embrace it.*" Its core values are: equality, well-being, language, democracy, play, and creativity. The preschool strives to make both parents and children feel welcome and that they are valuable

members of the school community and its policy is child-centered, focusing on child-initiated play. The preschool provides mother-tongue support as well as Icelandic language classes for parents. The preschool has been awarded several grants for development projects to support mother-tongue teaching, to promote democratic participation within the preschool, to foster preschool–parent collaboration, to strengthen ties between different school levels (preschool/primary school), and to facilitate cooperation with a local sports team.

The school ethos is reflected in active communication with parents and children across languages and cultures. Both in interviews with parents and in observations the transnational competence of teachers was obvious. The leader of the school conscientiously reaches out to parents to offer them assistance with different matters regarding their children and themselves. Our interviews with parents gave a clear message of parents sensing trust, acceptance, understanding, and respect when communicating with the leader. Teachers and the rest of the staff develop a deeper knowledge and understanding by reflecting on everyday practices and simultaneously creating a true learning community. The school conducts an internal assessment every year as a part of its annual report that it sends to the municipal school authorities. This is carried out with input from all divisions as well as individual teachers, the rest of the staff, and comments from the parents. This school has developed its own ambitious language and literacy policy inspired by the municipality's literacy policy which focuses on emergent literacy and active bilingualism. Policy and practice in this school are under revision and no stone is left unturned in the quest to create a true learning environment where individual needs are met.

The leadership in the preschool is also supportive and participative. Initiative taking by staff, children, and parents is encouraged and all members of the school community are encouraged to influence school policy. Parents and staff express how their voices are heard and how they are encouraged to develop new ideas and share them others in their school community. The leader strives to build a learning environment for diverse children and their families centering on respect and devotion. Some leaders, although working in stressful conditions, go out of their way to meet the needs of children and their families.

In the preschool, the linguistic and intercultural knowledge of teachers with immigrant backgrounds are shared in daily communication with children and parents, by using diverse language skills. Many of the immigrant parents feel more confident talking to a member of staff who shares their experience of moving between countries and being an Icelandic language learner. However, these individuals are not responsible for teaching the children their heritage languages or interpreting very sensitive or emotional matters between parents and the preschool. Rather, these teachers are active in initiating support for the children.

The parents in the preschool share the view that preschools should be open and flexible and develop a feeling of security and competence in their children. They prefer teachers with personal, open, and relaxed attitudes. The parents interviewed are generally satisfied with their children's preschool and this is reflected in their evaluation of the preschool.

Some challenges appear in the data from the preschool. One is that the leader is working in very demanding conditions. Staff retention is low and a low percentage of staff have degrees in education or child development. It is often very time-consuming for the leader to go the extra mile in working with and supporting parents and children with diverse needs (Ragnarsdóttir, 2015).

Building a multilingual learning community through educational partnerships with parents

The principal has a clear vision of creating a multilingual community in her school, guided by values of equity and social justice and developing educational partnerships with the parents. She emphasizes reaching out to the community through an open-door policy for parents and preschool facilities available for meetings and mother-language learning after preschool hours. Personal communication is emphasized on a daily basis, and formalities in relationships between the preschool and parents have deliberately been reduced in order to facilitate stronger educational partnerships with parents.

There is a special focus on involving newly arrived immigrant parents in the school community. This is realized, for example, by parents suggesting educational activities and cooperation activities. Mother languages are supported, and Icelandic as a second language support is provided for children and parents. Extracurricular activities are also provided for both parents and children.

The principal is bilingual and has an understanding of what it means to be a recent immigrant in Iceland. She explains her view on communicating with immigrant parents:

> I am bilingual myself but it is increasingly Icelandic we use, I feel they do not have to speak Icelandic perfectly, and the staff is really emphasizing this, we have had a number of courses about prejudice and you know, how we meet people in the middle or half-way and show patience.

Means of communicating with parents include face-to-face contact on an everyday basis, emails, ads (translations in different languages), staff speaking different languages, secret-Facebook groups, and parents are encouraged to bring friends and their children to the preschool.

The principal emphasizes good communication with parents during transition, when the children are starting preschool. About this she notes that:

> We changed our transition and welcoming process completely. . . . When they are here we are very relaxed and we cooperate in creating the settings for the children.

The transition and welcoming process includes developing and decorating the settings for the child, such as hangers and shelves in cooperation with the parents.

A personal space for the child is thus created in the preschool and both the child and parents have a role and agency in developing this. This may take some days and in the meantime the principal, teachers, and parents form a close and informal relationship, talking about various matters concerning the child and the preschool. According to the principal, such first encounters are crucial for all partners in the educational partnership and make the transition as well as the following daily educational activities much more rewarding.

Extracurricular activities for parents and children have been developed in recent years in the preschool. These activities include courses for parents and children in Icelandic as a second language and art-based activities which are used to facilitate language use and acquisition. The courses were first provided after preschool hours and later on weekends. Parents have been active in developing the courses and suggesting activities, and staff have provided support for the children as needed. The principal has applied for funding from various agencies and organizations to finance the courses.

The principal explains how she began thinking about the courses:

> I am overwhelmed by the role that the school can take in empowering and supporting parents . . . so I thought, there is an opportunity to do something and reach out to parents.

She also talks about the importance of involving parents and making sure they are active educational partners:

> I want the parents to have agency and to know that . . . we are real partners and ready to reach out. . . . The courses are developed from the needs of the parents . . . like what do you want from this course?

The courses are not only intended for involving the parents, but also to ensure that parents, children, and the preschool staff form a partnership where all partners are active. The parents were expected to communicate with the children about what they had learned:

> They were expected to give something back to the children. . . . When the first term was over we discussed how we wanted to proceed the next term.

The result was that the courses and activities changed every term according to the needs and wishes of the parents, who also consulted the children. Activities were very diverse, as well as the focus of each course.

The immigrant parents were very content with the courses and with the principal. The following comments reveal this:

- There has always been good communication . . .
- We always know what is going on in the preschool

- She made a course where we can bring the children and the staff help take care of them. . . . We were all learning and it was very nice.
- We made a play for the kids for Christmas. . . . And it was great fun for the kids and ourselves to make this play and learn Icelandic at the same time . . .

A course observed included newly arrived parents, grandparents, and children doing art work, playing, singing, and dancing, led by an art teacher, who taught Icelandic words and sentences through these activities. Parents and children repeated these words in Icelandic and their home languages. The sessions were characterized by happiness, laughter, and active children and adults.

Through the extracurricular activities the parents get to know the preschool settings and each other and mutual trust develops. Development of educational partnerships and a multilingual learning community in the preschool has been successful. There are, however, some challenges. The principal has to constantly seek funding for additional support and extracurricular activities.

More generally, a preschool with such a high number of children who have mother languages other than Icelandic and many of whom are recent arrivers in Iceland is a demanding working environment, although rewarding. Working under such pressure can cause the danger of burn-out. There is also the question of including and educating all staff and ensuring succession of knowledge and experiences.

To summarize, the findings from the interviews and observations indicate that the preschool has generally succeeded in forming a strong collaborative relationship and an inclusive culture with immigrant children and parents. The preschool has developed different strategies and practices in collaboration with parents and in implementing inclusion and social justice. Policies are child-centered and inclusive and practices observed include: child-initiated play that stimulate active participation; appropriate language strategies; inclusive practices; culturally responsive teaching, care, and communication with children and parents; interpreters available to parents; translated information for parents; and bilingual teachers building bridges in communication with children and parents.

Discussion

Creating an inclusive, just, and welcoming community for all children and their families is a challenge for preschool teachers and principals in Icelandic preschools where diversity is growing rapidly. Findings from this study indicate that when this challenge is met with an open mind and a capacity to develop culturally responsive practices and structures, all children and families benefit. The findings reveal that the preschool is succeeding in creating a multilingual learning community where children and families feel welcome and included. Findings from interviews with teachers and principals and observations in the preschools indicate that learning spaces have been created where the needs of all children are met and various educational practices and care are implemented to ensure

a supportive educational and nurturing environment (Gay, 2010; Noddings, 2005a, 2005b). Findings also reveal that the preschool has created learning contexts where culturally responsive pedagogy (Gay, 2010) is implemented.

The principal, teachers, and other staff in the preschool emphasize democracy, equality, and diversity in their daily practices and communication. Findings from interviews with the parents of immigrant backgrounds reveal that when preschools succeed in making them active partners in the preschool community (Nieto, 2010), they tend to view the preschool community as a gateway into the larger Icelandic society. Furthermore, the parents express their satisfaction with the educational partnership with the preschool and the personal daily communication. They also express their trust towards the principal and other staff of the preschool.

Findings from the interviews with the teachers and principal reveal successful practices with language and communication, building second language learning environments for the home languages of the children. Furthermore, educational partnerships with parents are emphasized in order to build mutual trust and support the linguistic development of their children. This has been observed in findings from other studies emphasizing the importance of building on linguistic and cultural experiences, identity, and knowledge of children and families with culturally responsive pedagogy and practices (Banks, 2010; Brooker, 2002; Chumak-Horbatsch, 2012; Cummins, 2001, 2004). A school that manages to implement strategies that are based on inclusive and culturally responsive practices can serve as an important bridge into the new society at large for immigrant children and their families.

In the preschool in the study, child centered activities and child-initiated play stimulates active participation. Culturally responsive teaching in action was reflected in the care and communication with children and parents. Translated information for parents and interpreters were available to parents if needed. Seeing bilingual teachers in action build bridges in communication with children and parents was also very inspiring. Teachers with good knowledge of appropriate linguistic scaffolding were active in supporting the Icelandic second language learners in the group through play and daily activities.

Schools that succeed in creating socially just learning spaces do so through their policies and educational practices in cooperation with parents and communities. Such schools remain critical of their practices and constantly strive for improvement in meeting the needs of diverse groups of children and families. They possess the element of care, cultural responsive pedagogy, and a sense of purpose and strive for creating a loving and nurturing learning environment that facilitates learning and provides appropriate scaffolding for all children. Cummins (2004) has described the need for educational communities to invest in social justice and gain understanding on how policy making, attitudes, beliefs, and expectations welcome some children and exclude others. Findings from this study indicate that the preschool involved has reflected on its own policy and educational practices, acted on them, and created possibilities to invest in social justice and inclusive learning spaces where all children and families are welcome.

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3 Case study research on the less known multilingual educational program of Val d'Aran in Catalonia, Spain

Students' attitudes

Katerina Stampolaki

Introduction

The goal of this chapter is to explore if bilingual/multilingual education indicates that bilingualism/multilingualism can be one method that helps reduce prejudice and increase cultural acceptance. The barely known multilingual education of Val d'Aran (Catalonia, Spain) will be presented, with two local minority official languages: Aranes and Catalan, as well as Spanish and French as mediums of instruction in the curriculum. The case study examines the perceptions of native and non-native students towards the multilingual educational model, their national/cultural identity-ies, and their views about the local language and society. The positive results of this study could reinforce the belief that multilingual education could be the key to diminishing discrimination and prejudice early in life in classrooms by helping students gain multicultural and linguistic awareness.

Introduction of Val d'Aran

This small Pyrenean valley, surrounded by high peaks of more than 2,000 meters and located in Catalonia's north-western corner, is the land where the variation of the Occitan language, Aranes (langue d'Oc) is widely spoken. The Val d'Aran territory (Figure 3.1) has had a certain degree of self-rule within Catalonia since 1990, further recognized with the Catalan Statute of Autonomy from 2006. In addition, since 2010, Aranes is Catalonia's third official language (but Aranes doesn't belong to the official languages of Spain which are: Spanish, Catalan, Basque, and Galician).

In the area of Val d'Aran 10.000 habitants live in 620 square kilometers. The official languages are: Aranes, Catalan, and Spanish. According the National Spanish Institute of Statistics, 25% of the population uses three languages every day and 62% of the population would like to use the language Aranes more. However, Spanish is gaining territory and is the most spoken language in the valley. Of particular interest in the region is that the number

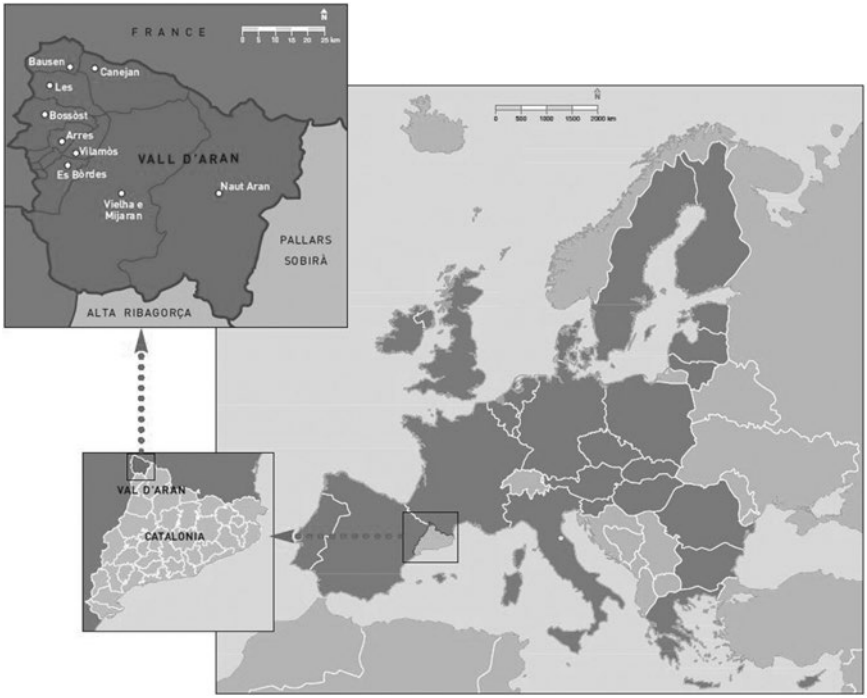

Figure 3.1 Map of Val d'Aran

Source: Catalan, the language of Europe, Generalitat de Catalunya. Retrieved from www20.gencat.cat/docs/Llengcat/Documents/Publicacions/Catala%20llengua%20Europa/Arxius/cat_europa_angles_07.pdf

of non-natives (mainly from the rest of Spain) is higher than the residents born in Val d'Aran.

The language of Val d'Aran: Aranes

According the agreement of the Autonomy of Catalonia of 2006, the Aranes language (Oxitan language) is the language of the territory of Val d'Aran and official in Catalonia. The language Aranes is protected, is the official language of Val d' Aran, and has been taught in all levels of education in the Valley since 1984. Aranes is the official language of the local government of Aran (González i Planas, 2001). For demographical reasons there are no Universities in Val d'Aran, but there are a lot of universities in Catalonia, such as the University of Lleida or the Autonoma University of Barcelona, that offer lessons in Aranes. The language Aranes is certified in all levels according the European language framework for foreign languages.

The multilingual education program of Val d'Aran

The multilingual education of Val d'Aran (Catalonia, Spain) uses two local minority official languages: Aranes (Occitan language) and Catalan, as well as Spanish and French as mediums of instruction in the curriculum. There is only one public secondary school in the region (Institut d'Aran). Minimum language requirements for the teachers are the three official languages in 'C' Level (except if they have studied one or more of these languages at school). The different modules use different languages as mediums of instruction: Mathematics in Spanish, Social Sciences in Aranes, Physics in Catalan, Physical Education in Aranes, Music in Catalan, Sculpture in French. This education model is unique in Spain since the other education systems use as languages of instruction one or two languages (in the rest of the autonomy of Catalonia only one language, Catalan).

The languages curriculum of the school of Val d'Aran[1]

Kindergarten (3–6 years old):

- Medium of instruction > Aranes.
- Oral introduction of Catalan and Spanish, two hours a week for each language.

Primary Education 1st cycle (6–7 years old):

- Medium of instruction > Aranes,
- Two hours Catalan and two hours Spanish

Primary Education 2nd cycle (8–9 years old):

- Medium of instruction > Aranes, Spanish, Catalan
- Two hours teaching < Aranes, Spanish, and Catalan.
- Introduction of the first foreign language > French

Primary Education 3rd cycle (10–11 years old):

- Introduction of the second foreign language > English

Secondary School (12–16) & Bachillerato (16–18 years old):

- Medium of instruction > Aranes, Spanish, Catalan, French
- Two hours teaching Aranes, Spanish, Catalan/two hours teaching of the two foreign languages

Comparison of the education system of Aran with the other education systems in Spain

As we can observe in table 3.1 below, the Aran education model is the only model in Spain that uses three official languages plus French as mediums of instruction. The other education systems use one or two languages.

Table 3.1 Language as medium of instruction and goal

	Language-s as mediums of instruction	*Language-s acquisition as the goal of the educational model*
Catalan model	Catalan	Catalan Spanish
Basque models	*Model A:* Spanish *Model B:* Spanish Basque *Model D:* Basque	*Model A:* Spanish *Model B:* Spanish Basque *Model D:* Spanish Basque
Galician model	Galician Spanish	Galician Spanish
Aranes model	Aranes Catalan Spanish French	Aranes Catalan Spanish

Overview of relevant research in Val d'Aran

International scholarly research on multilingual education explores the attitudes of students towards the multilingual educational systems or the relationship between language and identity that the students declare. However, they less explore the relationship between multilingual education and the development of cultural identity and the attitudes of students towards the multicultural reality of their region. There is little research about Val d'Aran in general as shown below:

- the level of use and knowledge of the different official languages and especially of Aranes
  (González i Planas, 2001); (Lapresta-Rey, 2005); and (Suïls-Subirà, 2001)
- the Arane' s identity
  (Lapresta-Rey, 2004, 2005)
- the multilingual educational system
  (Suïls-Subirà, 2001)

Contribution and added value of the research

This case study examines the perceptions of native students (born in the Val d'Aran) and non-native students towards to the multilingual educational model, their cultural identity, and their views about the local language and society. The educational model has three official languages as mediums of instruction (Aranes, Spanish, Catalan) plus a foreign language (French). Two minor languages (Aranes

and Catalan) are used as mediums of instruction. All the languages are from or next to the region. As mentioned above, of particular interest in this region is the large percentage of non-natives compared to natives in the area.

This research is a first attempt in the region of Val d'Aran to search for a possible relationship between the multilingual education system and the development of the cultural identity and the attitudes of students towards the multicultural reality of their region. The ultimate goal would be to see if there is any evidence that the multilingual education program of the Valley reduces prejudice and increases cultural acceptance.

Research goals

The research goals of this case study are:

- the regional/national identity of the students
- the multilingual educational system
- the multicultural reality of their region
- the sociolinguistic situation of the students
- the opinions of native and non-native students about the local language and traditions of Val d'Aran

Research hypotheses

The research hypotheses have been checked with the null hypothesis (H0)

- 1st: The place of birth of the students does not affect their desire to learn and use the local language Aranes
- 2nd: The place of birth of the students does not affect their recognition of the local language and culture
- 3rd: The opinion of the students towards the multicultural reality of their region is not influenced by the regional/national identity that they have chosen
- 4th: The students accept the multilingual educational system, independent of their place of birth.

Research design and methodology

This investigation belongs to the category of Empirical Descriptive Research. The research tools were two surveys in which the majority of the questions were closed-ended. The methodology was based on primary research with a sample survey investigation of the attitudes of 66 students (60% of all students, since it is the only school in the region) who attended the secondary public school (academic year 2011–12) of Val d'Aran. The first questionnaire has been used in the dissertation of Suïls-Subirà (2001). This questionnaire was adapted to the multilingual education system of Val d'Aran and was developed to check the use of the different languages by the students, the role these languages play in their everyday life, the student's perceptions about the different languages, and multilingual education, in general.

The second questionnaire has been created by the University of Murcia, Spain, to measure the perceptions of cultural diversity. This questionnaire has been used by Moret-Vendura in her dissertation and measured the perceptions of the students of Andorra (Moret-Vendura, 2008). This questionnaire, as well, has been slightly adapted to the multilingual reality of Val d'Aran.

Sample

The sample included students that attended the only secondary public school in the valley, aged 15–18 years old (i.e. 60% of all students in the secondary public school). Sixty-eight percent were born in the Val d'Aran, 18% in the rest of Spain, and 14% outside Spain. On the other hand, only 35% of their parents were born in Val d'Aran, 48% in the rest of Spain, and 17% outside Spain.

Main findings/results

Language use of the sample

According the results, 55% of the students that participated in the research always speaks in one language at school and 44% speaks in two or more languages. 60 to 65% of them always speak in two or more languages outside school.

Table 3.2 shows the results of the first questionnaire about the perceptions of the students about the study and use of the languages that are part of the curriculum.

Table 3.2 Perceptions of the students

Table		*Totally agree*	*Agree*	*Neutral*	*Do not agree*
I think it is a good thing that all the children in Val d'Aran study:	Catalan	54.5 % (36)	33.3 % (22)	4.5 % (3)	7.6 % (5)
	Spanish	77.3 % (51)	15.2 % (10)	4.5 % (3)	3.0 % (2)
	Aranes	68.2 % (45)	19.7 % (13)	7.6 % (5)	4.5 % (3)
	French	45.3 % (29)	34.4 % (22)	14.1 % (9)	6.3 % (4)
	English	83.1 % (54)	15.4 % (10)	1.5 % (1)	–
We should all try to speak more:	Catalan	41.4 % (24)	39.7 % (23)	10.3 % (6)	8.6 % (5)
	Spanish	45.8 % (27)	35.6 % (21)	6.8 % (4)	11.9 % (7)
	Aranes	69.2 % (45)	20.0 % (13)	6.2 % (4)	4.6 % (3)
	French	33.9 % (19)	35.7 % (20)	17.9 % (10)	12.5 % (7)
	English	71.7 % (43)	20.5 % (15)	3.3 % (2)	–
I live in Val d´Aran and for this I should speak and study:	Catalan	63.5 % (40)	19.0 % (12)	11.1 % (7)	6.3 % (4)
	Spanish	67.2 % (43)	23.4 % (15)	6.3 % (4)	3.1 % (2)
	Aranes	78.1 % (50)	15.6 % (10)	1.6 % (1)	4.7 % (3)
	French	39.0 % (23)	35.6 % (21)	10.2 % (6)	15.3 % (9)
	English	61.0 % (36)	27.1 % (16)	3.4 % (2)	8.5 % (5)
The inhabitants of the Val d'Aran should try to speak more:	Catalan	31.1 % (19)	37.7 % (23)	21.3 % (13)	9.8 % (6)
	Spanish	31.1 % (19)	36.1 % (22)	23.0 % (14)	9.8 % (6)
	Aranes	85.9 % (55)	9.4 % (5)	1.6 % (1)	3.1 % (2)
	French	27.1 % (16)	37.3 % (22)	25.4 % (15)	10.2 % (6)
	English	31.0 % (18)	37.9 % (22)	22.4 % (13)	8.6 % (5)

National/cultural identities of the students

In reference to the identities of the students, the results are the following: 36% feels Aranes, 13% Catalan, 18% Spanish, 5% European, 8% other (Table 3.3). Furthermore, 16% of the students have chosen double identities (e.g. Aranes and other, Aranes and Catalan) and 3% have chosen triple identities (e.g. Aranes, Catalan, and European). Half of the students born in Val d'Aran chose an identity or identities other than Aranes (Table 3.4). This multilingual environment has as consequence that a high percent of the students choses two or more national/cultural identities. Apart from that a very interesting point is that the bilingual or trilingual students didn't always choose two or more identities, which shows that they don't always connect the national /cultural identity with the use of the languages. This conclusion differs from the conclusions of the research of Minke de Jong in her research "Language and identity. A case study of a multilingual family" (Minke de Jong, 2010). In this case study, she researches the relationship between the use of the language-s and national/cultural identity that members of a multilingual family chose. The members of this family chose a national/cultural identity according the language they felt safer using.

Table 3.3 Results: Identities of the students

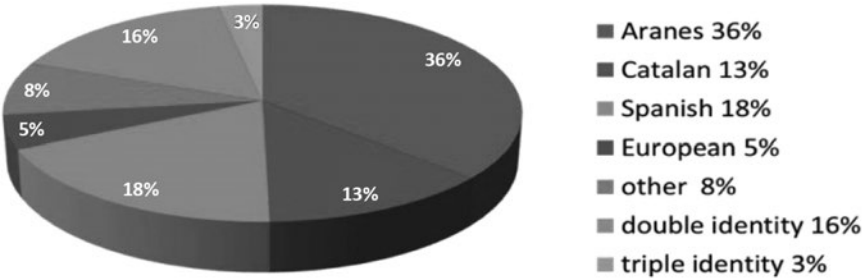

Table 3.4 Identity

Place of birth	*Identity*		*Total*
	Aranes	*Other*	
Val d'Aran	22 (48.9%)	23 (51.1%)	45 (100%)
Spain	12 (6.7%)	10 (83.3%)	12 (100%)
Outside Spain	0 (0%)	9 (100%)	9 (100%)
Total	24 (36.4%)	42 (63.6%)	66 (100%)

Multilingual environment

The results of this research agree with the results of the research of Suïls-Subirà (2001) that showed a high level of the different languages spoken in the region and as well a multilingual reality in the everyday life of the students. According the results, the students that use two or more languages in their everyday life is between 44–65%.

In answer to the question which languages the students speak with the other students in the school yard, the results were: 31.8% always speaks Spanish, 6.1% always speaks Aranes, 25.7% always speaks in two languages and 36.4% always speaks three languages (Spanish, Catalan, and Aranes).

The results are similar when the students answered the question, which language they speak with their friends outside school: 32.2% always speaks in two languages and 27.3% of the students always speaks three languages. In answer to the question, which language/languages they speak with adults outside school, 21.2% always speaks Spanish, 9.1% always speaks Aranes, 4.5% always speaks Catalan, 34.1% speaks in two languages and 30.3% speaks in three languages. According to the students' answers to the question, in which language/s they read stories, 42.4% always reads in Spanish, 1.5% always reads in Catalan, 24.2% reads in two languages, and 30.3% chooses to read stories in three or more languages.

Multilingual educational system

The overwhelming percentage of the students (80%) is very positive towards learning the three official local languages of the region, as well as learning the foreign languages, English and French. Furthermore, they are very open to learning more languages.

Social inclusion

Proof of social inclusion of the non-native students of the Val d'Aran is their very positive opinion about the local language, Aranes. They believe that all the inhabitants of the valley should study and use Aranes more in their everyday life. This is an important social inclusion factor as the language Aranes is not necessary in the region, in order to find a job, to work, or to use in the valley. The non-natives that choose to learn Aranes, enjoy a positive reaction by the natives, since knowing Aranes is recognized as an indication of respect, mutual recognition, and social inclusion (integrative motivation). On the other hand, in countries with a main national language, the knowledge of this language by the non-natives mainly has a practical reason such as finding a job (instrumental motivation type) (Gardner and Lambert, 1972).

RESULTS: 1st hypothesis:

The place of birth of the students does not affect their desire to learn and use the local language Aranes (Table 3.5).

Table 3.5 Place of birth

I live in Val d'Aran and for this I should speak and study Aranes	*Place of birth*			*Total*
	Val d'Aran	*Spain*	*Outside Spain*	
Strongly agree/Agree	98%	82%	88%	94%
Neutral	0%	9%	0%	1%
Disagree	2%	9%	12%	5%
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%

If we compare these results with the research of the Rojo Robas et al. (2005) who have studied the perceptions of students in secondary schools in Catalonia and Basque country about the different languages in their education systems, the native students have shown a clear preference for the local languages (i.e. 71% prefer Catalan and Basque) and less preference for Spanish (58%). In reference to foreign languages, they have shown a clear preference for English (57%) and are neutral in respect to French. The non-native students, on the other hand, have shown a clear preference for Spanish (69%) and for English and French (57%) and less preference for the local languages.

According to this research, one out of every two non-native students in Val d'Aran totally agrees to learn and use the local language, Aranes, more. In this way, we can see differences in the students' perceptions, even in the same autonomy of Catalonia. If we consider that "We can take into account that learning a L2 can give students a more positive attitude (Sánchez & Rodríguez, 1986). Also, when bilingual or multilingual education programs are developed in the right circumstances, this seems to improve and increase acceptance of the new culture and the people that represent it" (Genesee et al., 1986). Then we might find that at least a part of the reason that the students have a positive attitude towards all the local and foreign languages that are part of the curriculum is because of the multilingual education program and the work of the inhabitants and the local government in this direction.

Multicultural society

The highest percentage of the students is positive towards the multicultural reality of their region. The native students towards other cultures, represented by people who live in the area of Val d'Aran. Their neutral to positive attitude is something that should certainly be further investigated in order to understand the factors that affect it. On the other hand, the results of the research of Baigorri et al. (2004), which studied the opinions of the students in Extremadura, Spain, about the immigrants in their region, has shown that the opinion of most of the students towards other cultures in their territory was negative to very negative.

As stated above, this research has shown a rather good perception of the students in Val d'Aran towards the multicultural reality of the region. The students of Val d'Aran have a relatively neutral to positive opinion towards the multicultural society. Most of the students, independent of the place of birth, are positive towards the multicultural society, and they are neutral to positive towards social inclusion.

The fact that the native students in Val d'Aran are not negative towards the other cultures of their region, although the valley is quite isolated and has high numbers of non-natives, is a very important element that needs to be further investigated since this is rather the exception and not the rule in regions with high numbers of immigrants.

Conclusion

The aim of this research was to present the multilingual educational model of Val d'Aran in Catalonia, Spain, as well as the sociolinguistic framework of the region. Apart from this, another aim was to measure the perceptions of the students of the public school of Val d'Aran, in reference to the multicultural reality of their region.

As shown above, the results of this research are exceptionally positive and optimistic, for all the questions that were studied. Although the region of Val d'Aran contains elements which could be considered dangerous for the peaceful living between the different cultural groups, (i.e. the geographic isolation of the valley, the small number of the population and the increase in the number of immigrants which exceeds the number of the natives), we can observe a high level of tolerance from the part of the native students towards the multilingual reality of their region as well as a high degree of social integration and intention to speak and protect the local language and culture from the side of non-native students, that are not born in the region of Val d'Aran. Non-native students not only learn the local language, but also according to the results of this research, support the protection of the language and its further use by all the residents of the region. Also, almost all the students agree, in exceptionally high percentages, with the multilingual model which is applied to all educational levels.

The non-ethnocentric education based on multilingualism, the support of two of the local languages with low prestige, promoting them as official languages of the region, and the hard work by the local government and educational institutions in Catalonia in this direction is perhaps the key to tolerance from the side of native students towards non-native ones, but also the key to the social integration of non-natives in the local society. It is a model that deserves to be studied and further applied, not only because of the high results of the use of the different languages in the region, but because it seems to have a positive influence in the everyday interaction between the different national and cultural groups living in the valley. Above all, it manages to transmit these values to the new generations. The positive results of this study could reinforce the belief that multilingual education could be the key to diminishing discrimination and

prejudice early in life in the classroom environment, by helping students gain multicultural and linguistic awareness.

Note

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4 Diversity in language teaching and democratization of education

A critical approach

Marianthi Oikonomakou and Emmanouil Sofos

Content and aims of the study

Strengthening of the procedures that can contribute to further democratization of education is inseparable from the cultivation of a climate of dialogue and respect for diversity in the classrooms. At the institutional level, the principles governing the context of teaching language and other courses are reflected in the teacher guidelines of each curriculum. Since the utilization of students' cultural capital is left to the individual teacher and is not always easy to detect, what is left to determine whether the theoretical principles inform the teaching practice is the study of the textbooks that students use. Thus, the textbooks' development and the content and directions of language activities provide useful guidance on how the concept of diversity is negotiated.

With respect to the conceptual extensions which constitute our research parameters, our study focuses on the use of the concept of *linguistic variety* (Delveroudi, 2001) in primary education investigating how it is related to the principles of (a) *a communicative textual approach* (Charalambopoulos, 2000) and (b) *critical literacy* (Dinas, 2013; Tsiplakou, 2007). Therefore, having as a starting point the long coexistence of *demotic with katharevousa* (Kakridi-Ferrari & Chila-Markopoulou, 1996:26–27), what is attempted is the elaboration of the way that the geographical varieties, the sociolects (Kakridi-Ferrari, 2006), and, at the same time, ethnic, cultural, and linguistic diversity are negotiated in the classroom (Skourtou, 2007). More specifically, we attempt to investigate the degree in to which groups with different social and linguistic traits get involved in the process of learning either via rendering their existing cultural particularities, in the framework of the prescribed activities, or via the methodology guidelines that are given to the teachers.

Since the procedures that enhance the democratization of education add to the further improvement of its quality (Pedagogical Institute, 2007:30), emphasis is given to the effort of sensitizing students about social problems by (a) providing sufficient information and (b) developing a critical stance concerning minority rights violation and social exclusion, through the targeted activities suggested in the textbooks.

Theoretical framework: diversity and democratization in L1 Curricula

Both Greek Primary Education Curricula (Pedagogical Institute, 2003, 2011) make distinct reference to the social dimension of language in L1 language teaching. An investigation of their guiding principles can show that they aim at strengthening the procedures of developing democratically thinking citizens, capable of actively participating in the social structures (Pedagogical Institute, 2003:14). In this way we underlie in the current curriculum, the effort of familiarizing students with different types of texts that have been extracted from various sources and use a variety of semiotic functions (Pedagogical Institute, 2003:17). Our basic parameter is the development of students' communicative skills in order to be capable of consciously and effectively producing discourse appropriate to their communicative needs. Meanwhile, the produced discourse is linked with (a) the modification of the external reality and (b) the acquisition of a basis for developing *critical linguistic awareness* that will allow the critical evaluation of messages (Fairclough, 1992). Thus, in the latest curriculum, the social dimension of language is reinforced, (Halliday, 1978), while (a) the analysis of the language choices is realized under the burden of certain effects with respect to sociocultural conditions or needs and (b) the interpretation of these conditions and needs is made on the basis of economic, political, and cultural developments (Pedagogical Institute, 2011:7–8). Therefore, the main aim that is posed by the curricula includes the interlinking of linguistic forms with mechanisms of constructing identities, ideologies, attitudes, and behaviors (Pedagogical Institute, 2011:9).

Respect of diversity is cultivated simultaneously via the familiarization of students with other language features and forms. Via studying the structures of social and geographical varieties (Delveroudi, 2001) as well as other languages, the learners combine linguistic awareness to the basic structures of the model language. The framework of these principles is deemed to be important for the objectives of the L1 Language Programs. More particularly, emphasis is given to the knowledge of the language tradition and the enhancement of the language awareness of the students, the creative understanding and use of diachronic elements of the Greek language which still function, along with the sensitization concerning the social and geographical varieties (Pedagogical Institute, 2003:18). What is also emphasized (Pedagogical Institute, 2011:8–9) is the necessity for a more critical evaluation of the syntactic and morphological diversities of various word choices as indicative of certain social and cultural relations and the significance of the role of linguistic variety, both geographical and social, in tracing the deviations between the oral and written speech. Therefore, the students use thier language capital (i.e. the pre-existing/emerging knowledge of linguistic varieties or other languages from their local communities) and are asked to use them creatively by contrasting them with the model variety.

Some common features in the two curricula are: democratic principles that are based on equal opportunities for learning; the cultivation of polyphony in the school environment; the harmonious coexistence of various groups with different social and cultural characteristics; and the respect for human rights.

These features are embedded in the cooperative and creative character of the described activities concerning oral or written discourse which (a) grants the possibility of equal and democratic exchange of viewpoints and (b) aims at the re-examination and critical evaluation of the produced texts (Pedagogical Institute, 2011:10–11). The socio-oriented character of the teaching activities, which have as a point of reference the language level, the interests, and the needs of the students (Pedagogical Institute, 2011:16), should be also underlined. All these features point towards the development of a climate of mutual appreciation and respect for the language of the other people and the congruous coexistence with other languages spoken by the students.

The framework of the curriculum also promotes the integration of different groups of students in the class through the suggested methodologies for proper clarification of the teaching activities. More specifically, guidelines are given concerning students speaking other languages and students with special needs (Pedagogical Institute, 2003:43–44, 2011:4). The introvert mentality for the learning process is based on developing a variety of literacy practices both in school and out of school. Therefore, through the cooperation of the school with other educational organizations or institutions, the processing of texts is given meaning, as their development is not limited to the confines of a classroom and acknowledges (a) the multi-mental abilities of the students and (b) the individual/idiosyncratic way through which each one of them processes and incorporates the information provided by the external environment (Pedagogical Institute, 2011:17–18). Worth-mentioning is the emphasis attributed, especially to the most recent L1 curriculum, concerning the creative use of Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) in the direction of adopting new hybrid text genres and developing a critical stance in a rapidly changing society (Kalantzis & Cope, 2008).

Methodology of the research

The summative presentation of the teaching aims as laid out in both programs of L1 teaching in Primary Education (L1 curricula) indicated up to a certain extent how the institutional framework contributes, on the basis of principles, to the democratization of education via cultivating respect for heterogeneity and diversity. Our study is focused mostly on the textbooks for the higher grades of Primary Education (Iordanidou et al., 2006; Anastasopoulou, 2006) in order to clarify the extent of practical application of these theatrical principles in the classroom. These textbooks aim at familiarizing pupils with (a) various language features and forms or other languages or dialects and (b) different cultural, social, and situational contexts. More specifically, the categorization of language activities in main language textbooks by grade is carried out according to specific markings which underline their scope. The kinds of activities that are anticipated are those relating to reading comprehension, grammar, and vocabulary, cross thematic activities as well as oral and writing production discourse. In our research we have not taken into consideration exercises that do not bear any specific marking and

therefore their interpretation is ambiguous or unclarified. Meanwhile, the study of the various research parameters includes the way in which the diachronic dimension of Greek language is negotiated, along with its geographical and social varieties, as well as the topics of the textbook units in the frame of cultivating certain attitudes. The register of key topics that have been selected on the basis of their content, due to the suggested textual contexts, contributes to pointing out the degree of utilization of other peoples' cultural elements focusing on minority issues and human rights issues.

The textbooks' data analysis

Marked activities classification: introductory remarks

The data analysis, according to the suggested activities labeling, included the study of the three basic language textbooks for each grade. It was initially designed to indicate their common or differential characteristics. According to the results in Table 4.1, the main differentiation that is observed in the two grades is attributed to the different position that the language teaching system has in the senior grades. Emphasis is given to grammatical and lexical features in the 5th grade in contrast to the 6th grade where emphasis is given on developing communicative skills via a large spectrum of writing activities. Therefore, this different targeting influences the study of various research parameters which pose at their epicenter content issues as well as issues of analyzing certain language forms.

Linguistic variety and diversity

The familiarization of students with the historical language evolution was emphasized in only twelve and five of the total grammar and vocabulary exercises for the 5th and 6th grade (12.1% and 6.3%). These activities dwell upon the relation of the Greek language with its previous historic phases since they refer to scholarly

Table 4.1 Marked activities

	Reading comprehension	*Grammar/ Vocabulary*	*Cross thematic activities*	*Writing and oral production*
	N°	*N°*	*N°*	*N°*
5th grade	24	29	11	27
	17	32	8	27
	18	38	5	25
Total	59	99	24	79
6th grade	20	27	14	32
	28	29	9	30
	21	23	7	39
Total	69	79	30	101

language forms, indicatively, during the morphological declining of the verbs (6th TBb: 76)[1] or the etymological observations (5th TBb: 16). It is believed, for example, that students should learn to form families of words derived from ancient Greek nouns or verbs like *οίκος* και *φιλεώ-ῶ* (5th TBa: 14, 74). It is also worth noting that there is a small number of activities from other categories (reading comprehension and cross thematic ones) that focus on scholarly or ancient Greek-derived forms or phrases that explore (a) the relation of formal language to demotic in the frame of correspondence between schools (5th TBa: 72–3), (b) the diet habits of ancient Greeks (6thTBa: 52), and (c) the contribution of arts/literature in the Greek revolution of 1821 (6thTBb: 91).

In the case of geographical variety, the analysis brings about a small number of dialectical types or phrases, despite the increase of the relevant distributions in the last grade. However, this study does not deal with the extent of using the dialectic variety in the suggested texts but with the processing of the given phenomena through suggested activities. More specifically, the greater values concern the cross thematic exercises and reading comprehension activities of the senior grade (N° 2/30 which is 6.7% and N° 4/69 which is 5.8% respectively, against the corresponding N° 0/24 for the cross thematic ones and N° 2/59 which is 3.4% for the reading comprehension activities of the 5th grade). The lower values are spotted in oral production or writing activities (N° 2/79 which is 2.5% and N° 2/101 which is 2% for the 5th and 6th grades respectively). It is interesting to note the distribution of the thematic centers which focus on the use of popular phrases and proverbs (5th TBa: 20), the presentation and creation of Cretan poetic verses (madinades) (5th TBa: 81), and the finding and elaboration of popular forms or types of language in the fairy tales (6th TBa: 65). At the same time, the existence of dialectic elements is obvious in texts with religious content. Indicatively, we come across carols from various regions, ecclesiastical hymns (6thTBb: 32 and 6thTBc: 27) for Easter as well as traditional folk songs or mourning dirges (6thTBc: 33 and 39).

The study of other languages types and forms is limited. There are actually three references only (two and one for 5th and 6th grade respectively) in the frame of grammar/vocabulary activities. The activities are mainly experiential and deal with the translation of the names of games from foreign languages (5th TBb: 77), the processing of English football terms used in Greek (6th TBb: 79), and the language used on the Internet (6th TBb: 53). In combination with the above-mentioned features, the dominance of the target language is made obvious by the absence of activities which directly involve other language speakers or bilinguals in creative activities. There is clearly no systematic effort to position the Greek language in an international, multicultural framework via comparative approaches with different languages.

The familiarization of students with various social roles, albeit complex, is systematically achieved through their involvement in various situational contexts and via processing a variety of discourses. In this case, our point of reference is the cross thematic language activities through which the students' involvement is clear and linguistically defined. Therefore, the data processing shows that in the greatest part of the production activities about which no special reference is

made, the sender of the message is the student as it becomes obvious by the systematic use of the second-person plural in the guidelines of the activities.

However, as it becomes obvious from the cumulative table for both grades (Table 4.2), the student as sender of the message is asked to simultaneously undertake a variety of communicative roles with most prominent those of the journalist, the researcher, and the biographer, mainly in the framework of units dealing with anniversaries. The greatest values of the basic analysis are gathered mainly around the interdisciplinary activities of the 5th grade (33.3% in contrast to a 13.3% of the 6th grade) and in the writing activities of the 6th grade (11.9% in contrast to a 8.9% of the 5th grade). Finally, despite the pursuit of making students familiar with different situational contexts, there are few references on the stylistics of students' texts where the main distinction is between formal and informal register (Pedagogical Institute, 2011:13). Our investigation traced three cases where the necessity of adopting various stylistics forms is mentioned. The first two of these concern the composition of invitations for an art happening (5th TBa: 85–6, 6thTBc: 53) and the third concerns the creation of Christmas cards for various recipients (6thTBb: 34).

Democratization and literacy: text as social products

The pursuit for developing literacy practices in the school environment towards democratizing education is inevitably related to the creative utilization of

Table 4.2 Social roles in discourse production activities

	Discourse production activities	*Cross thematic activities*
5th-grade textbooks (a, b, c)	Animals (p. 59, 70), Farmers (p. 63)	Journalists (p. 63, 67)
	St Claus trees (p. 31), Members of the space expedition (p. 55), Biographers (p. 91), Group of revolutionaries in 1821 (p. 94)	Scenarists (p. 49), Researchers via questionnaire (p. 66), Biographers (p. 91)
	–	Advertisers (p. 6)
		Researchers/theatrical scenarists (p. 54), Journalists (p. 60)
6th-grade textbooks (a, b, c)	Classified advertisement employees (p. 32), Journalists (p. 36), Advertisers (p. 60)	Actors in the dramatization of the Polytechnic students' uprising (p. 75)
	Journalists (p. 14, 66), Villagers (p. 19), Client-sellers (p. 47), Webpage creators (p. 53)	Actor-dramatization of Nirvanas narrative (p. 37), Researchers (questionnaire-statistics) (p. 76), Biographers (p. 105)
	Journalists in an interview about urban life (p. 15), Journalists – immigrants interview (p. 18), Visual story-drawings (p. 22), Cinema Critics (p. 44), Toys fabricants (p. 62)	–

various discourses. The thematic approach of the selected texts covers a large spectrum of ethnological, cultural, and intercultural references. Via a variety of discourses, the students become familiar with the different cultural habits and customs of Greece and of other countries. The initial processing of the data indicates that the teaching of various language means and structures (e.g. discerning the role of the verb tenses in narrative texts or the function of the adjectives in descriptive texts), involves the study of historical, folk, religious, and anthropological elements. After the data analysis according to the emerging topics, the main aim that is brought into focus is the demonstration of the personal experiences through an imaginary – or not – travel in time. In this way, traditions and customs constitute the focus of many activities which accompany texts in order to render them more comprehensible or suitable for the development of productive skills.

In both grades, the references to religious or non-religious traditions, as well as in folklore, have a quite systematic character. For example, the study of carols from various parts of Greece is suggested (6thTBb: 32, 39, 5thTBb: 27) along with Easter customs, (6thTbc: 27, 29 and 33, 5thTBc: 31) and other customs or habits of folklore origin. So, the synthesis of Cretan folklore rhymes (madinades) or the description of the architectural dimensions of the wind mills in Cyclades, along with recipes from various places, is also proposed. Special mention is also made to obsolete professions or old coffee shops which were related to the strengthening of social ties in rural or island environments (5thTBa: 16, 81, 5thTBb: 29, 6thTBb: 16, c: 14). A similar picture emerges from the examination of Table 4.3 which includes (a) the registering of cultural and intercultural characteristics and (b) the need for respecting human rights. Students are given the opportunity to deal with different aspects of those issues through targeted activities which are broader in the higher grades of primary school.

This approach which focuses on the critical study of social and cultural data, aiming at the cultivation of democratic values acquires a more systematic character because it is supported by the distinction of 17 chapters including thematic groups of texts. Apart from the data in the various types of exercises, the unit titles show that an effort is made in every grade to cultivate a respect for diversity. As Table 4.4 shows, involves explicitly articulated axes which permeate the bulk of the data.

Conclusion

This chapter has attempted to link diversity and linguistic variety (Kakridi-Ferrari, 2006) in its various aspects to L1 teaching. Through the study of educational policy, this paper has come to conclusions regarding: (a) how different languages and varieties are used in the teaching process and (b) how the procedures of reinforcing students' democratic values are implemented. How language variety and diversity is dealt with in school is nevertheless more complicated and multi-dimensional to the extent that it involves political and social stereotypes or evaluations and

Table 4.3 Different cultures and human rights

	Reading comprehension	*Discourse production activities*	*Cross thematic activities*
5th-grade textbooks	a. Friends from other countries (p. 72–3) b. Christmas in war zones (p. 24) c. Sports and culture: Ethiopian athlete (p. 63)	a. Traditions from other countries (p. 60) b. Greek and foreign monuments (p. 63)	a. Correspondence with friends from abroad (p. 74) b. Music instruments (p. 14), Physical phenomena in man's traditions (p. 61) c. Construction of Russian crown (p. 32)
6th-grade textbooks	a. Life in other places (p. 79), Houses from different countries (p. 34), Turkish recipes (p. 50), Types of family (p. 94) c. Sciences and women's rights/Tunisia (p. 16), Easter and Ramadan (p. 35), Museum for blinds (p. 65), War and peace, life of Anna Frank (p. 76), War and peace: a different school (p. 82)	a. Letter to the Mayor about refugees (p. 84), Refugees rights (p. 88) b. Letter to UN (p. 77), Customs from other countries (p. 24) c. Difficulties of blinds and individuals with visual problems (p. 66), Interview with an immigrant (p. 17)	a. Sami civilization (p. 81), Portugal and Europe (p. 91), Religions of the world (p. 92) b. Easter around the world (p. 35), Palestinians and Israelis (p. 82)

Table 4.4 Thematic units/chapters

	Folklore	*Historic references*	*Multiculturalism*	*Human rights*
5th grade	1. Christmas 2. Easter	1. National celebration of World War two (28th October 1940) 2. Polytechnic School Student's uprising against dictatorship, (17/11/1973) 3. Greek Independence	1. Our friends from abroad	–
6th grade	1. Christmas 2. Easter 3. Way of life and (old) professions 4. Way of life outside the big cities	1. National celebration of World War two (28th October) 2. Polytechnic School Student's uprising 3. Greek Independence	1. Life in other places	1. Museums 2. Peace and war

language attitudes which are formulated in the teaching field concerning varieties and forms which are often characterized as more or less 'prestigious' (Kakridi, 2000; Andersson & Trudgill, 1990).

The elaboration of aims and teaching guidelines of the two L1 curricula (2003, 2011) has demonstrated that the adoption of the communicative textual approach (Charalambopoulos, 2000) and critical literacy principles promotes the contact with various text genres and communication environments (Kalantzis & Cope, 2008), giving at the same time emphasis on the sociocultural particularities, interests, and experiences of the students. Language is dealt with, both as an instrument of communication and as a social product, through the study of linguistic choices and given the fact that interlinked ideologies and power relations cannot be ignored. Serious effort is made on the level of educational objectives in order for the students to familiarize themselves with various linguistic, geographical, and social varieties as well as the levels of stylistics of the Greek language and the diachronic perspectives of its historical course. Teaching guidelines are given at the same time, concerning (a) the ways in which we can use the multi-mental human resources of the school classroom and (b) the approach of both bilinguals and students with special needs which affect the cultivation of polyphony in the school environment and (c) the development of several literacy practices which extend beyond the narrow limits of the school through cooperation with social organizations. The creative use of ICT and more particularly of linguistic technology as a means for dealing with social exclusion is also promoted.

However, it should be mentioned that there are significant differentiations between the two institutional texts (Oikonomakou & Griva, 2014). The use of language varieties in teaching practices is more documented in the most recent curriculum, which has *critical literacy* as a point of reference (Tsiplakou, 2007; Pedagogical Institute, 2011:4). Thus, the basic difference that could be observed concerns the principal aim of language teaching in primary education. The ability to meet the communicative needs of the students is expanded, taking into consideration the necessity of transforming them into actively thinking democratic citizens. Consequently, a more systematic documentation of the suggested practices are encouraged, emphasizing at the same time the impact of the socio-political developments on the articulation of texts (Pedagogical Institute, 2011:4) and a more global approach of plurilingualism and diversity in the school. In the case of bilingual students, what is suggested, for instance, is the use of a *portfolio* concerning the study of the communicative and language needs in both languages (Pedagogical Institute, 2011:20). In this way, the identity of bilingual pupils (Cummins, 1999) and the respect of their language and cultural background is emphasized. The principles of differentiated and exploratory learning are implemented, and the creative and targeted utilization of new technological means are promoted in all grades, along with a more elaborated processing of oral discourse production.

The study of primary school senior grades textbooks – transferring the epicenter from the pedagogic theory to the didactic activity – has clearly demonstrated

a relative non-continuum between institutional aims and suggested activities according to each grade. More specifically, the relationship between the scholarly language (*katharevousa*) and the popular one (*demotic*) is reduced to a small number of suggested grammar/vocabulary activities (12.1% and 8.5% for the 5th and 6th grades respectively). The geographical variety, on the other hand, is demonstrated more via the topics of the texts and less via the targeted activities. Despite the total increase of distributions in the senior grade (5.8% and 6.7% in the total number of reading comprehension and interdisciplinary activities), the dialects of the Greek language are regarded mainly as elements of folk tradition and are examined in the frame of folklore references to habits and customs. We could consequently conclude that in Greek primary school the teaching of dialects has not assigned great importance, until now (Tzakosta, 2014; Tsiplakou & Chatzioannou, 2010).

However, students become more familiar with social varieties through the teaching of different text genres and communicative environments. Nonetheless, in a larger scheme of developing writing skills, the student produces speech experimentally performing himself/herself and addressing to his/her fellow students. The distinctive roles that he/she undertakes are usually limited (e.g. often those of the journalist, the biographer, and the researcher). The students are regarded as a uniform group since they are not expected to participate in concrete activities as students with different ethnological or other characteristics. In this role-playing, the interdisciplinary framework contributes a great deal, because, due to its flexibility, it drives the students towards realizing more creative and innovative actions; it is characteristic that the greatest values in relation to changing the sender's perspective are acquired in the interdisciplinary activities (38.5% and 13.5% of the total number of exercises for the 5th and 6th grades respectively). On the other hand, the use of dissimilar levels of style (where the distinction between formal and informal style is the dominant one) does not have any systematic character, whereas the comparative study of the relation between other languages and the Greek one is mainly experiential and confines itself to the field of linguistic borrowings.

The proposed thematic units, which cover a large range of cultural, folklore, and historical references, seem to function supportively with regard to institutional aims. Apart from two well-defined units, one for each grade, which are totally devoted to interculturalism, considerable effort has been made to gather and utilize material that involves minority issues (e.g. refugees, visually impaired individuals etc.), cultural traits, and religious traditions of other nations. Going beyond making democratic procedures stronger, what is pursued is the increase of students' involvement with in relation to issues of social organization or important social problems which are often located not only diachronically (e.g. kinds of family structure) but also in the students' immediate environment (e.g. the composition of a letter about a refugees' camp addressed to the mayor).

In summary, the study of the Greek school textbooks reflects a tendency to (a) deal with diversity in the school environment, but also (b) address the language attitudes of the educational community, to some extent. However,

it constitutes a point of reference that acquires meaning in the living reality where the teaching subject is molded through the participants' interaction. It is obvious that the enrichment of the communicative approach with practices emanating from critical theories (Archakis & Tsakona, 2013) has contributed to a more substantial investigation and activation of the other, i.e., diversity in all forms. The integration of ethnographic and sociolinguistic approaches, which could shed further light to the cultural habits, interests, and experiences, is something that could help at an institutional level. In this way, the procedures and social practices that permeate the production and understanding of meaning in various social and cultural contexts would be clarified and language would be better situated in its social dimension.

Note

1 For brevity reasons the label *TB* in capitals is used for each Grade's Student Book, whereas the sub-issues are labeled with the lowercase letters *a, b, c* respectively.

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Part B

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5 Nonverbal communication in wordless comics

Marianna Missiou

Introduction

As a multimodal medium, comic books have been increasingly addressing the challenges of our fast-changing world and the commensurately multifaceted communication media. Having developed their own language, they combine verbal and visual elements to transmit their message. Organized into sequential units, 'text' is conceived as verbal and visual.

In the case of wordless comics, the 'text' is conceived as visual only; therefore, they demand careful viewing for understanding and offer opportunities for varying interpretation of the message being conveyed. The artist relies on images to 'talk' with the reader, and the reader has to make an extra effort to clearly follow the story (Berona, 2008:20). Thus, the reader's status is strengthened as the unique interpreter of the meaning maker. Furthermore, the elimination of words stresses the medium's capacity, and exceptional clarity, expressivity of the drawing, and movements become crucial in the construction of the meaning.

As far as characterization is concerned, in wordless narrations, it is supported visually. The lack of words brings out the expressive role of movement; spoken words are replaced by body movements, gestures, and facial expressions. As a result, the reader relies on visual clues to understand the character's intentions, thoughts, mood, emotions, and, generally, personality.

The general aim of this article is to examine how a wordless graphic narration is constructed to express emotions, attitudes, and moods, and how these techniques reveal the personality of the character. We will first attempt to show the means by which comic book characters obey the 'micro-dictionary of gestures' (Eisner, 1990:100) by using reduction and hyperbole. Second, we will show how subtle psychological and emotional conditions become distinguishable by the use of a more sophisticated representation of gestures, postures, and facial expressions in combination with the techniques of comic books. We will discuss how readers decode images and develop meaning that sequentially follows the narrative structure of comics and how inferences are constructed to enhance characterization.

Kinesics in comics

Almost all types of emotions, moods, and attitudes can be expressed graphically by the kinesics code, one of the channels of nonverbal communication.[1] The

kinesics or body movements possess "intended or unintended communicative value" (Poyatos, 2002:185) and include various somatic activities such as gestures, manners, and postures, heaving chest, strides, and unseen footsteps, gaze movements and direction (Poyatos, 2002:185–186).

In modern visual narrations, kinesics are graphically expressed and enlivened. Will Eisner (1990) analyzes comics as a sequential language based, among others, on a codification of bodily movements such as gestures, postures, and facial expressions. These essential ingredients of comics' art represent an 'expressive anatomy,' part of a common 'memory of experience' (Eisner, 1990:100).[2] Eisner (1990) argues that human gestures and postures form a 'non-verbal vocabulary,' conserved in our memory (100). Furthermore, Fein and Kasher (1996) have demonstrated that people have a firm comprehension of the gestures used in comics and these gestures are understood to mean the same as similar 'real life' gestures.

The gestural code of comics, as described by Eisner (1990:102) and McCloud (2006:83), comprises elementary human gestures such as anger, fear, joy, surprise, deviousness, threat, disgust, sadness, surprise, and power. These basic gestures can be transformed and combined in order to create thousands of recognizable expressions (McCloud, 2006:84–86). Besides the external evidence of internal feelings, gestures and postures also serve to demonstrate "the enormous bank of symbols we build up out of our experience" (Eisner, 1990:102).

In a visual narration, more than any part of the body, the face is considered to invite the most attention and involvement and can eventually be used for communicating nonverbally (Eisner, 1990:109; McCloud, 1994:31). For the artist, the human face is a central challenge. Eyes, nose, mouth, and generally all parts of the face are components of a drawing semiotics. McCloud (1994) believes that man has a natural tendency to see faces in many forms (32). For him, the more 'cartoony' a face is, the more it allows identification with a large number of people (McCloud, 1994:31). Furthermore, the ability and the desire to read the emotional states of other people based on their body language and facial expressions are pivotal to the art of comics (Eisner, 1990:100–121), and artists use these devices to create plausible and valuable characters, as we will hereby attempt to demonstrate.

Characterization through kinesics

In wordless comics, as in every visual narration, artists develop strong, interesting characters by the use of techniques based exclusively on visual elements. The reader is then forced to look carefully at the illustrations in order to detect visual cues to character development. The physical appearance, the action of the character and his/her behavior expressed through it, direct and indirect speech, inner thoughts and emotions, and the interaction with other figures represent the basic elements of characterization. In wordless comics, these narrative elements should be accurately and clearly expressed visually in a meaningful way.

Obviously, some of these elements, such as physical appearance and action, are easily represented visually. Indeed, in picturebooks, it can be argued that

information about appearance is much easier communicated visually than psychological description, which can only be suggested, and needs "the subtleties of words to capture complex emotion and motivation" (Nikolajeva & Scott, 2001:83). It is also accepted that speech, inner thoughts, and emotions can be represented through the characters' body language, gestures, and facial expressions (Nikolajeva & Scott, 2001:87). However, from the comics' theoretical field, Groensteen (1999) supports that in comics' images do not need any words to clarify an unequivocal meaning, which is constructed through the imaging sequence (154). Morgan (2003) even goes a step further, arguing that the images are sufficient enough to tell everything, to give clues on space, time, thoughts, intentions, and that the verbal text (if any) is only used for reasons of economy. We will thus make the argument that everything can be told in a wordless narration, including subtle psychological nuances.

When the artist invents new characters, he draws from a common memory, from people who already exist, reproduced authentically or similarly, in a way that "either they perpetuate the tradition or they venture away to produce the feeling of surprise or novelty" (Groensteen, 1999:64). The implicit reader should be able to decode this 'psychological formulation' (Groensteen, 1999:64). In other words, the reader is invited to recognize the good ones and the bad ones. Through this manichaïstic scheme, the stereotypes emerge, since any visual narration must transmit the message instantly and clearly. Thus, the stereotype, as a generalization of a recognizable type, is based on the physique, hair, posture, clothing, facial features etc. and is quickly settled in cases when the style moves away from realism and reaches a caricature.

According to Winfried Nöth (1998), the visual transformation of nonverbal communication in comics may be characterized by reduction on the one hand, and hyperbole on the other (474). He explains that reduction is due to two main reasons. The one has to do with the "representational economy of the genre of drawing," as the three-dimensional visual space has to be rendered into two-dimensional lines and the movements have to be transformed into static images (1998:474). The second source of reduction is the stereotypes of the genre that limit comics to "a restricted inventory of nonverbal expression of elementary feelings (such as fear or anger), of human relations (such as love or aggression), and of everyday body movements (walking, running, etc)" (Nöth, 1998:474).

The character is the central element in any narration. In wordless narrations, as the character has no voice, his face, together with the movements and posture of his body are significant elements for characterization (1999:14). We have mentioned above that gestures in comics are reduced to a narrow range of movement, mainly because they obey the principle of representational economy that characterizes their narration. Thus, from the thousands of possible gestures, only some are selected to convey the intended meaning and it is up to the reader to decide if the choice is adequate. Furthermore, body posture is also an object of selection since it represents one of the many postures in a flow of movements that is captured in the panel, and is vital for the delivery of the message (Eisner, 1990:103). Emotions are also represented by facial expressions,

having a pivotal role, as they offer useful inferences that allow the reader to bolster his comprehension. Eyebrows, lips, jaws, eyelids, and cheeks respond to muscular movements and are important indicators of the person's emotions. The facial expressions, especially when the drawing is stylized, rely on conventions easily understood and form an inventory from which the designers draw in order to communicate the message. Stylized lines function as eyes, eyebrows, and mouths, in different combinations, and create a face that expresses the inner world of the character.

As comics obey the principle of the immediate and rapid transmission of the message, adequately served by the use of stereotypes, the facial features and movements of a character are often stereotyped, formed according to cultural elements and allow the reader to make snap judgments about what kind of character he is dealing with. If the character is sad, happy, or thoughtful, these emotions will be communicated through body posture, stance, and the look on the character's face. Simultaneously, these elements contribute to reveal his personality, as it is the case of the comics discussed below.

Basic emotions

Our first study case is Carine De Brab's wordless comics *Méchant Benjamin* (Naughty Benjamin). As the title suggests, it is about a temperamental preschool child. In the book, the young boy is the incontestable protagonist, while the characters he interacts with are limited to his mother, his nanny, and her cat. His face dominates the panels and graphic strategies such as simplification combined with exaggeration are used for drawing expressions. Facial expressions play a pivotal role as they show nonverbal hints that allow the reader to make inferences about the character and the plot and give a specific message about the personality of the character.

Starting from the cover page, the head of Benjamin is disproportionately drawn compared to its body, to draw all the attention. His face is dominated by exaggerated black thick eyebrows that operate as a barometer of his emotional state and mood. His eyebrows in a steep angle, swept towards the top lids, show anger while his body posture, with the hands strongly crossed, show sternness. His hair, as another sign of nonverbal communication, seems to follow his emotional state, since the tufts, accordingly, are at times straight or curly. Hair functions in a symbolic way. By its sharp shape, it symbolically expresses the fussy mood of the child. The combination of these features marks that the character is not only angry but tough.

Furthermore, the repetition of fixed facial expressions, that constantly indicate anger, guile, and yelling, define the personality of a temperamental and unbearable character. For example, the eyebrows are frowned, knotted, and arched, the wide-open bulging eyes look blinded by rage, and the mouth pushes fury to an extreme, exposing teeth and the tongue.

His temperament, revealed through facial expressions, is at times enhanced through the viewing angle. Close-ups allow details of facial expression to be

shown and, thanks to that, the reader can guess the character's feelings and emotions. In a way, it is as if he can gain some access into the character's mind.

Moreover, facial expressions can act as mirrors of interpersonal behaviors. For example, they allow the reader to recognize the personality of Benjamin in relation to his relationship with the nanny. Mouth and eyebrows lowered, avoiding his nanny illustrate the tension and distrust of Benjamin toward the nanny, moods that simultaneously dictate his behavior towards her.

The gestures are also indicative of the behavior towards her since Benjamin's hands and feet are often rolled up, to indicate his wrath. This attitude contrasts with that of the nanny, which is shown smiling, her body turned toward the boy, anticipating contact and communication, while Benjamin has his back turned away. The interpersonal relationship, in this case, is characterized by the difference in how they treat each other, namely the care shown by the nanny and the rejection by the child.

The character's gaze, the visual orientation of the eyes, dilation or constriction of pupils, the place of the iris in the eye make essential elements of nonverbal language. This is the case of the wordless comic book *La Sirène Gourmande*, by Pierre Bailly and Céline Fraipont. It's about Petit Poilu, a small "hairy" protagonist that leaves every day to school. On his way, he lives imaginary adventures. The main character drawing is rather simplified: a simple, tiny form, a black circle for the head, two round white shapes for the eyes and a characteristic red nose. As his mouth is often omitted, the eyes become pivotal in rendering his inner state.

Through the art of comics, complex and powerful emotions such as fear and surprise can be conveyed simply by two white circles and a dot in the middle touching no edges, as well as from the interplay of the eyelid, iris position, and pupil size. For example, even the smallest sign representing the iris shapes the expression, while it is enough to create perceptible differences and emit messages of nonverbal communication. Thus, in most cases, Petit Poilu's iris is depicted by tiny but important dots, suggesting for example confusion and light-headedness when they squint.

When the character's mouth is shown, it enhances emotions and moods. The shapes of the mouth, also drawn in most cases as a tinny line, lighter or strongly curved, are limited, and indicate surprise, pain, fear, or great joy. Variations in the mouth's shape state the intensity of emotion or mood of the character. However, the mouth is second to the eye in the ability to convey expression and emotion.

Complex emotions

We have seen how wordless comics use universal cues for depicting the emotions of the character and convey universally recognizable basic emotions understandable to readers of all ages. However, in books where plot and character development are more complex, kinesics of characters support more elaborated feelings, which require a higher-level of interpretation and participation on behalf of the reader. Sophisticated graphic strategies are thus used to show emotions, as it is the case in Shaun Tan's wordless comics *The Arrival*.

The protagonist, an immigrant, is shown in a large hall in which he is being inspected and issued his papers, while texts with unknown letters and shapes and strange objects are all around him. Small square panels show the character from the height of his chest. The panels consist of selected kinesics and face expression, depicted as fragments, and thus creating the sense of slowing down the narration. This effect contributes to the focus of attention of the reader on the character's mixed feelings, confusion, fear, and frustration. The protagonist expresses his confusion by squinting his eyes, scratching his head, and shrugging his shoulders. The combination of facial expression, posture, and hand gestures is symbolic of the fear of the unknown. It is also symbolic of the communication barrier the protagonist is experiencing as he does not understand what is being asked of him. In an unknown environment, he is left with nothing but gestures and facial expressions for communication.

Jan Baetens has shown how forms, gestures, and attitudes of hands can become a substitute of speech (2004). This is the case of a mute 'dialogue' going on between two strangers that do not speak the same language. The protagonist and a young woman try to introduce each other, and this conversation is taking place through gestures. Furthermore, the hands can also convey the intensity of feelings. For example, in successive frames, the viewing angle is focused on unified hands that then separate. The hands belong to the protagonist and his wife and show the separation moment just before he leaves for his journey.

Various fragments of facial expressions, body postures, and movements or details of the human body are displayed to convey inner emotional states. For example, the horror experienced by an immigrant telling his story to the protagonist is reflected in a panel that focuses on his face and then isolates the eye. In this, the reader can anticipate the feelings of fear of the harsh reality that the character has experienced before immigrating to the new land.

The gaze direction, even in its absence, can be as eloquent as gestures in interaction. The touch of the women's hand on her husband's, the depression in their faces that is evident with their eyes looking down and their tight lips are in strong contrast to the lack of eye contact. They do not look at each other. Even though the narration is wordless, it is as if we can 'hear' them exchange words of sadness for their upcoming separation.

Some body gestures and postures, as well as facial expressions, are subtle and difficult to interpret. Some images show basic emotions while some others show more complex emotions. In some drawings, it is easy for the reader to recognize them and therefore identify with the feelings of the character. But others are more difficult to decipher. For example, we see the character wandering in the streets where everything seems unfamiliar. The big clock is different than his watch, the streets seem like a labyrinth. Although the character's gestures show confusion, his face expression is empty and the reader does not know at all what he thinks and how he feels. Body movements and facial expressions could be described as reluctance, somewhere between sadness and confusion, to create the feeling of an unsurpassed distance between reader and protagonist.

Conclusion

In the world of wordless comics, the idea of nonverbal communication is vital. An artist can combine visual elements to transmit his/her message to the readers, while his/her expressivity will be defined in the images, and he/she can use these images to show both complex and basic emotions. The importance of understanding the use of kinesics in the analysis of wordless visual narrations and the creation of the character cannot be underscored. Notably, the smart combination of gestures, gaze movements, and facial expressions are comprehensive in the description of a given situation, leading to a lucid communication between the parties involved. In this regard, this chapter has discussed the information process with close reference to the nonverbal aspects, interpretation, and the characterization in a communicative gamut. Wordless comics use 'texts,' which are widely regarded as visual modes of communication. The exclusion of words in such comics achieves expressivity through the drawings that depict comprehensible movements, facial expressions, and body postures. The characterization in the wordless comics is also achieved through the depiction of movements and the facial expressions of the characters. In this way, the comprehension of the reader is based on the visual expressions portrayed by the comics. The intended communication values are highlighted significantly through the aid of somatic elements. Ergo, kinesics tries to analyze comics through the codification of nonverbal cues, gestures, gazes, walking patterns as well as other body movements of the characters. In this sense, the reader easily relates the gestures in the comics to the gestures in real life to display certain emotions as well as the inner status of the character-displaying additional observational cues like fatigue or physical disabilities. A variety of postures, gestures, manners, gaze movements, strides, and other bodily movements can be used by the artist to demonstrate the personalities of the characters. In addition, the illustrator can use this kinesics to communicate his/her feelings, emotions, attitudes, and moods in a comic. The characterization is authenticated through detailed somatic movements, gestures, and facial expressions to spark various elementary feelings. In complex narrations, however, the deployment of nonverbal cues is – at times – bypassed for more erudite strategies. Although body and facial expressions correspond to basic emotions, more subtle and sophisticated strategies are used and the reader must combine many more elements to fully understand the inner world of the character. This implies that the more complex the wordless narration is, the more emotional primaries are mixed to make emotions emerge. To propagate the inner emotions, feelings, and the status of the character effectively, the wordless comic has to adopt a specific strategy that will meet the thematic, educational, recreational, entertainment, and the emotional needs of the readers.

Notes

1 The other channels are paralanguage, proxemics, haptics, olfactis, physical appearance, and dress and chronemics (Neulip, 2015:281).
2 According to Eisner (1990), the other basic elements of comics are: drawing style, spacing of panels (closure), time, gestures, image-text relations, and use of color.

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6 Plurilingualism in linguistically diverse language classrooms

Respecting and validating student identity

Angelica Galante

Introduction

During a recent social event I attended in Toronto, Canada, I had a fascinating exchange with an immigrant woman who, knowing my interest in language education and applied linguistics, revealed concerns about her recent experience learning a new language: "*I have just finished a Swedish course and I found it pretty easy because I already speak Icelandic. Now I am learning Norwegian and I feel Norwegian falls somewhere in between Swedish and Icelandic. It feels like I am not really learning another language. All I have to do is focus on learning a few odd words and spelling differences. It is so easy that I feel like I am cheating*" (L. Theron, personal communication, March 7, 2015). Many who are in the process of learning an additional language share the same sentiment: rather than acknowledging their previous linguistic knowledge as an advantage, a sense of guilt for using this knowledge to facilitate language learning emerges, negatively impacting their identity. It is not surprising to hear anecdotal accounts like this one given the fields of language education and applied linguistics have historically focused on languages as separate entities.

This chapter challenges this notion and proposes an alternative way to view previous linguistic knowledge as a benefit rather than a source of guilt. It also argues that in multilingual and multicultural contexts, language education can implement practices that can revert the regretful sentiment shared by many, particularly those with a rich linguistic repertoire, and encourage a guilt-free language learning experience that respects and validates student identity. A brief introduction of plurilingualism as an alternative framework for language learning is provided, as well as samples of pedagogical practices I have repeatedly used in my own language teaching. Although the samples provided have been implemented with adult English as an additional language (EAL) learners in a Canadian university, they are not exclusive to this particular context and can be easily adapted to other language classrooms and student populations.

Canada's multilingual context

Canada has over 200 languages spoken as a home or first language (Statistics Canada, 2012), and in many Canadian urban centers (e.g., Toronto, Vancouver,

and Montreal), it is not uncommon to hear several languages on the streets and in public domains. This linguistic diversity has the potential to grow given that people from other countries continue to choose Canada as their country of residence, many seeking professional and educational experiences for themselves and their family members. As a result, many new immigrants have the urgent need to learn English, one of Canada's official languages, as an immediate attempt to integrate into the Canadian society.

A vast majority of adult international students and newcomers to Canada enroll in EAL programs prior to entering post-secondary institutions. In the past 40 years, EAL programs, offered by language centers, colleges, and universities in many countries, including Canada, have typically followed methodologies that promote and maintain an English monolingual ideology in the classroom (Cook, 1999; Lin, 2013). In a monolingual framework, learners are required to follow a *native speaker* model of language acquisition and use English only during classroom practices while having their previous linguistic knowledge (i.e., first and/or other additional languages) ignored. This framework reduces the value of learners' previous linguistic backgrounds, maintaining what Freire (1970) has called the 'banking system': learners are viewed as empty individuals who need to be filled with knowledge, as if they had no previous experience. Not recognizing or valuing EAL learners' previous linguistic knowledge takes away an advantageous opportunity that can facilitate additional language learning (Cummins, 2007). Fortunately, recent years have hinted at a decrease of strict monolingual practices, and more attention has been given to pedagogies that are linguistically inclusive (Cenoz, 2009; Cummins, 2007; García & Sylvan, 2011; Hua, 2008). In multilingual contexts such as Canada, following the English monolingual ideology for language learning is a disservice to international students and newcomers who are learning one of the country's official languages – English.

The concept of plurilingualism provides an alternative framework that recognizes and values the use of learners' linguistic and cultural backgrounds when learning a new language. Because of its inclusive nature, plurilingualism has great potential to validate and respect student identity in linguistically diverse language classrooms.

Shifting paradigms: towards plurilingualism

The monolingual framework for language learning, although still prevalent in many classrooms, has been heavily criticized (Cook, 1999). In fact, the assumption that individual monolingualism exists is inaccurate as even those who are perceived as *monolinguals* use different registers and varieties within the same language to communicate (Canagarajah, 2011). Scholars from diverse contexts worldwide have been offering alternative conceptualizations for language learning. Just to name a few, dual literacies and translanguaging (Canagarajah, 2011; García, 2009; Lewis et al, 2012a, 2012b; Sayer, 2013); pluriliteracies (García et al., 2007); flexible bilingualism (Creese et al., 2011); code-switching (Hua, 2008; Riehl, 2005); bilingual immersion education (Swain & Lapkin, 2005); and multilingualism (Cummins,

2007; García, 2009; Hornberger, 2002; Moore, 2010) all hint at the use of the first language when learning an additional language. Essentially, this recent body of literature shares one major goal: the acknowledgement and validation of learners' linguistic knowledge as an important and valuable resource for learning languages.

Plurilingualism has been supported by many European language policy documents (see Council of Europe, 2001, 2006, 2007) and encompasses many of the concepts previously mentioned, but goes beyond the use of the first language as resource for learning an additional language. As plurilingualism has been rapidly gaining popularity worldwide, it has also been scrutinized, and one question plurilingual researchers are frequently asked is: *what is plurilingualism and how does it differ from multilingualism?*

To simply put, plurilingualism considers the interaction of languages in a dynamic way (Canagarajah & Liynage, 2012), rather than compartmentalizing them as individual entities. Contrary to multilingualism, plurilingualism does not keep languages separated; rather, it focuses "on the fact that languages interrelate and interconnect particularly, but not exclusively, at the level of the individual" (Piccardo, 2013:601). In plurilingualism, the integration of languages within a person's linguistic repertoire is activated and stimulated during the process of development of an additional language (Coste et al., 2009). Learners' linguistic repertoires are recognized, valued, and used for the transfer of linguistic and social skills between or among languages, which aids in new language learning (García & Sylvan, 2011; Piccardo, 2013). Plurilinguals access their linguistic repertoire and use different languages (or variations of the same language) for different purposes: for example, one with a particular group of people, another at school, and another at home. It is important to note that these languages and variations can also be used in a single interaction in which code-mixing, code-switching, and translanguaging are considered valuable competences for communication.

Plurlilinguals are not polyglots nor are they expected to speak multiple languages fluently. In fact, due to the numerous languages in their repertoire, plurilinguals are likely to have competence and proficiency of varying degrees in their languages (Moore & Gajo, 2009). For example, while a person may speak one language more or less fluently than another, this inequality in linguistic competencies is seen as the norm rather than the exception, moving away from the notion of deficiency (Coste, 2001). The Council of Europe (2001) has repeatedly stressed the importance of plurilingualism as it promotes a dynamic process of language development and use, even, but not only, at a limited level of knowledge in a language, rather than encouraging individuals to become fully proficient in many languages at the native speaker level. Besides moving away from language acquisition that follows the native speaker model, plurilingualism offers other benefits for language learners, as well as the social environments within which they interact.

Benefits of plurilingualism on student identity

Recent literature has identified several benefits of plurilingualism in language learning. Just to name a few, plurilingualism 1) supports the transfer of previous

linguistic knowledge and skills to help students learn a target language (Piccardo, 2013); 2) fosters an environment conducive to learning languages (not only a second language, for example) so learners can feel confident living and working in a context where linguistic and cultural diversity is already a reality (Coste et al., 2009): 3) offers a rich resource for developing higher cognitive flexibility (Le Pichon Vorstman et al., 2009; Psaltou-Joycey & Kantaridou, 2009), linguistic and cultural transfer, and enhanced creative thinking (Boekmann et al., 2011); 4) is an asset in both social and educational contexts (Marshall & Moore, 2013); and 5) enhances students' cultural empathy (Dewaele & Van Oudenhoven, 2009). Ultimately, plurilingualism positively affects student identity (Oliveira & Ançã, 2009; Pickel & Hélot, 2014; Prasad, 2013; Stille & Cummins, 2013) as it empowers language learners to maximize their linguistic resources by considering any linguistic knowledge as valuable.

Previously, I have argued that student identity is an important dimension that needs special consideration in language learning (Galante, 2014a, 2015a). In fact, identity has been given a lot of attention in the fields of language education and applied linguistics. Discussions of identities can be empowering to students as each individual has a unique life trajectory and exclusive experiences (Norton, 2013; Norton & Darvin, 2015; Norton & Toohey, 2011). The acknowledgement of identity in language classrooms can offer a unique opportunity for students to voice their feelings and motivations for learning a new language, as well as hindrances that affect their identity. For example, many newcomers face immediate challenges to find employment after immigrating to a new country. One of them is the lack of knowledge in the new language. As a result, they enroll in language programs so they can learn the new language and subsequently find employment. Many of these newcomers were considered successful professionals in their country of origin but are often identified simply as language learners in the new country, which may reduce their self-esteem. Certain identities that are socially imposed tend to highlight deficits (e.g., lack of knowledge in a language), disempowering language learners both in the classroom and in society (Cummins, 2001). To make matters worse, many language teachers focus on the instruction of the language and neglect student identity (Kramsch, 2009), limiting the opportunities for students to explore their own identities and the identities of others (Galante, 2015b).

Despite the benefits of plurilingualism and the acknowledgement of the importance of student identity, many language educators find it challenging to apply tasks that follow plurilingualism. In fact, the lack of connection between theory and practice is a central issue that that needs special attention. Even in countries where educational policies promote and support its practice, practical application is still a challenge (Pauwels, 2014; Pinho & Andrade, 2009). Because monolingual ideologies seem to prevail in English and other language programs, it is not surprising that teachers often lack preparation.

To address this issue, this article offers language educators practical ideas for tasks that follow plurilingualism. The tasks below focus on student identity and have been piloted multiple times with adult EAL learners in a Canadian university language program, with an overall rate of success.

Practical application of plurilingualism in language classrooms

While the tasks in this section have been implemented in an adult EAL program at a Canadian university, they can be easily adapted to other language classrooms and student populations as they are mostly student-driven and dependent on individual experience. Essentially, these tasks introduce plurilingualism to language classrooms that have previously followed monolingual ideologies and serve as a way to initiate discussions of language repertoires and linguistic inclusiveness while respecting and validating student identity.

Plurilingual self

As a way to familiarize EAL learners with the concept of plurilingualism, teachers can invite them to share the languages and cultures that have played a role in the development of their identity. As shown in Figure 6.1, a slide page with the question *How has your life trajectory shaped your linguistic repertoire?* along with items for discussion can allow a unique opportunity for learners to share and explore the importance of these languages in the development of their identity.

First, students can be allowed some time to reflect on the languages and cultures they have learned due to their experiences and the extent to which they have been developed. Second, in groups, they can share their life trajectory with others and discuss similarities and differences. Finally, teachers can invite students to report some of the languages and cultures they know to the class.

Language portrait

Based on Busch's (2012) conceptualization and reconceptualization (2015) of linguistic repertoire, the *Language Portrait* invites learners to draw their self-portrait

Figure 6.1 Slide with items for discussion

and place the languages and cultures on their bodies. These refer to not only languages and cultures they already know but to others they do not know and wish to learn. Through this creative process, learners are encouraged to describe their feelings (good and bad), and reasons (i.e., employment, education, immigration) for learning these languages/cultures. Two distinct language portraits can be seen in Figures 6.2a and 6.2b.

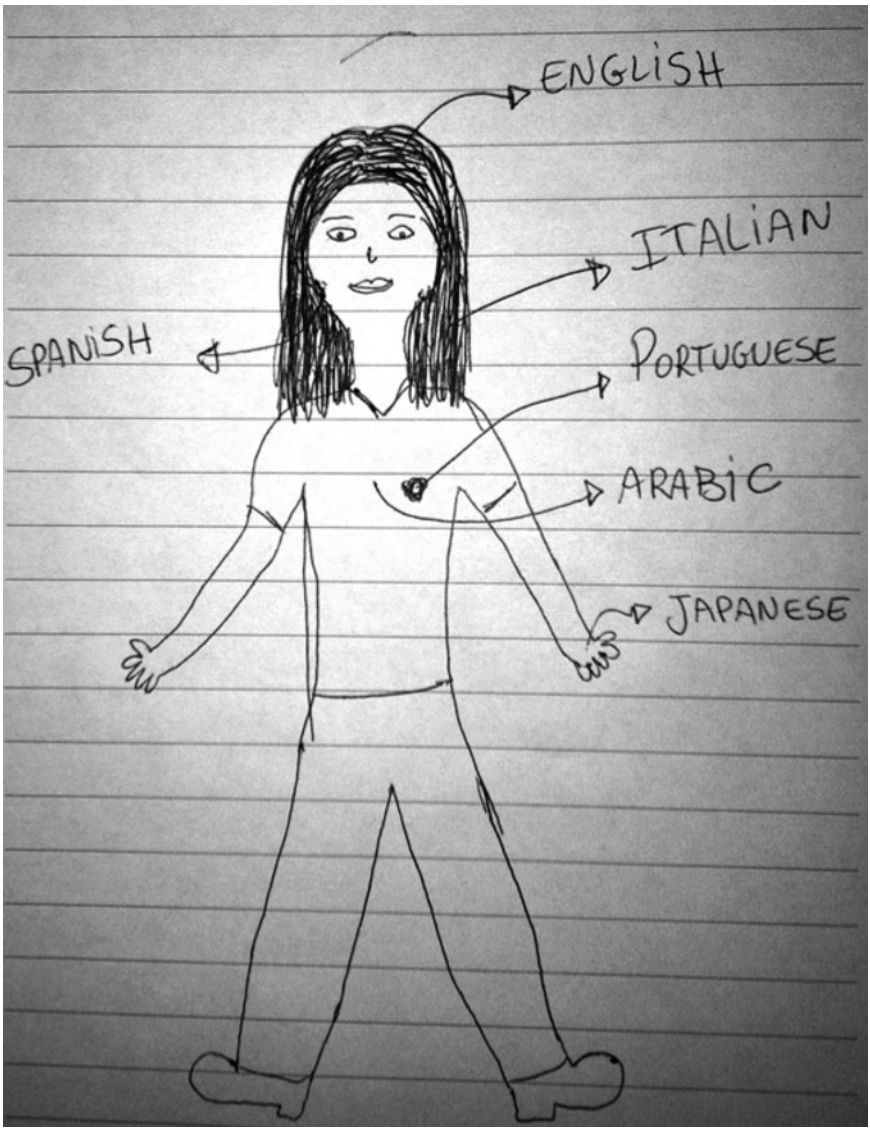

Figure 6.2a Adult EAL learners' language portraits

Figure 6.2b Adult EAL learners' language portraits

The uniqueness of each portrait is noticeable. Some significant components observed are: a language with emotional connections to the heart (Portuguese) (figure 6.2a) and the use of the student's own linguistic knowledge in written form (Korean, Japanese, French, Chinese, and English) (figure 6.2b).

After creating their *Language Portraits*, learners can be invited to share reasons why those languages and cultures were chosen. Reflections and understandings about their own linguistic and cultural repertoire are typically represented in their linguistic portraits in which their identities as plurilinguals are manifested concretely (Prasad, 2013). This task can help learners identify their own and others' individual linguistic and cultural diversity, explore their past and project future learning.

My plurilingual story

As a follow-up to the two tasks described above, language learners are encouraged to revisit their own historical linguistic and cultural trajectory, that is, all the languages and cultures that have played a role in their lives from the moment of birth until the present. This typically involves several hours of class time (or homework) for reflections of and sharing of their stories, culminating in a digital product. This task invites learners to: 1) write their own autobiography – in English and/or other languages – comprising the languages and cultures that have influenced their repertoire; 2) draw pictures of events that have influenced them to learn those languages/cultures; 3) create a digital video with the pictures along with a narration (mostly in the target language) of their own autobiography; 4) share this video with other classmates via links on Youtube; and 5) write a reflection of their own and others' plurilingual stories. A sample of this project (Galante, 2014b) is available at www.youtube.com/watch?v=9EfvwZ_bOcY (See figure 6.3 below).

While this is somewhat a time-consuming task, *My Plurilingual Story* offers several opportunities for students to recognize and value their linguistic and

Figure 6.3 Screenshot of a Youtube sample of a plurilingual story

cultural repertoire as well as their unique stories – not to mention practice of the target language and other types of literacy (e.g., visual, and digital, among others). As previously mentioned, this task can be suitable for many language programs and is not exclusive to EAL (see Galante, 2015c for a sample of this task for a Portuguese class in Brazil).

My plurilingual table

The use of lexical tables with vocabulary items is useful for additional language learning, particularly at early levels of proficiency (Lin, 2013; Swain et al., 2011). Simply put, this includes lexical items in the target language on the left-hand side with their equivalent in the learner's first, second, and/or third languages on the right-hand side, which can be expanded within a plurilingual framework to include even more languages. *My Plurilingual Table* includes learners' linguistic repertoire but goes beyond languages they already know. For example, as shown in Table 6.1, learners can first enter words in the languages they know and then get into groups with other classmates to learn these words in other languages. Learning the pronunciation of these words with their classmates can also increase awareness of phonological elements of other languages.

Certainly, it is not expected that teachers know all of these languages. Rather, learners should be given the choice of accessing any of the languages available in their repertoire, providing them with a sense of autonomy. In addition, this task affirms the development of their plurilingual identity. In many multilingual adult EAL classes in Canada and elsewhere, learners often have access to computer labs and/or their own mobile phones and/or tablets, already making use of tools such as Google Translate or online bilingual dictionaries. In the monolingual framework in which the *English-only* policy is encouraged in classrooms (Wiley & Lukes, 1996), learners tend to access these tools surreptitiously, fearing punishment from teachers. In a plurilingual framework, however, embracing these technological devices to scaffold the learning of lexical items in the target language, as well as raise learners' awareness to the plurality of languages known by their peers can enhance language learning. Ultimately, learners will be guilt-free when using their linguistic repertoire to learn a new language (Swain et al., 2011).

Intercultural encounters

Launched by the Council of Europe together with the European Union, the Autobiography of Intercultural Encounters is a 20-page document available

Table 6.1 Sample of My Plurilingual Table

English	*Greek*	*Portuguese/Spanish/ Italian*	*Chinese*	*Arabic*	*Thai*	*Russian*
document	έγγραφο	documento	文件	وثيقة	เอกสาร	документ

online which invites learners to record, share, and discuss encounters they have had with people from other cultures and linguistic backgrounds (see www.coe.int/t/DG4/AUTOBIOGRAPHY/AutobiographyTool_en.asp). By completing the document and later sharing their viewpoints with classmates, learners can develop intercultural awareness, which can lead to acceptance of different insights and viewpoints. This is a task, with multiple subtasks, that raises awareness of similarities and differences among cultures and languages, in line with a plurilingual framework for language learning, which can be easily applied in its entirety or in parts, along the course of the language program. The promotion of intercultural competence can facilitate respect for cultural and linguistic diversity at both individual and social levels.

Intercomprehension

Intercomprehension is "a form of communication in which each a person uses his or her own language and understands that of the other" (Doyé, 2005:7). For example, one person conveys a message in Spanish while the other responds in French, that is, no common language between the two people is used. Essentially, intercomprehension enables learners to use their plurilingual repertoire to understand texts in a new language. Teachers can provide audio and/or written texts in languages that learners know little about so they can develop plurilingual competence. Several intercomprehension programs have been implemented: EuroComRom (Eurocomprehension in Romance languages); IGLO (Intercomprehension in Germanic Languages Online); Intercomprehension in Slavonic Languages; EU+I (European Awareness and Intercomprehension); and ILTE (Intercomprehension in Language Teacher Education). However, all of these programs apply intercomprehension among languages from the same language families, and it is still unknown whether intercomprehension can be effective among languages from different families. Yet, because many language programs still follow monolingual ideologies, with little or no room for students to appreciate other languages, intercomprehension can be beneficial in the sense that students can compare languages they know, and highlight similarities and differences, encouraging them to develop metalinguistic skills. For example, a comparison among languages on phonological, morphological, and syntactic levels can help learners understand how similar and/or distinct languages are, helping them to draw generalizations about language items that are yet to be learned.

Conclusion

At the outset of this chapter, I described a recent account of an immigrant woman whose linguistic repertoire, although rich, was perceived as a source of guilt. I then challenged this perception by introducing how plurilingualism as a framework for language learning places value on this repertoire instead of regarding it as a deficiency. Given that several languages are spoken in Canada – and in many other countries – and that acknowledging these languages can benefit learners in

many ways, it is fair to suggest that strict monolingual ideologies do not have a place in language programs.

This chapter introduced the need for a paradigm shift in language programs that views linguistic inclusiveness as a key resource for additional language learning. Plurilingualism considers previous linguistic knowledge as a springboard for learning new languages, empowering learners to draw on their linguistic repertoire; thus, positively affecting their identity. Plurilingualism also goes beyond valuing individuals' own knowledge of languages as it extends to including other peoples' languages and cultures, as well as others they might want to learn in the future.

The plurilingual tasks described in this article can be used with adult EAL learners in multilingual classrooms across Canada and, with minor adaptations, in other contexts. By implementing these – and other – plurilingual tasks in the language classroom, teachers can deconstruct monolingual ideologies and develop pedagogical orientations that are more linguistically and culturally inclusive. Ultimately, when teachers embrace plurilingualism, they contribute to an environment conducive to language learning that respects and validates student identity.

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7 Factors affecting, and methods to improve, the language development of EAL learners

Kevin Norley

Introduction/overview and context

When reflecting upon the literacy and language skills of people within the country, the needs of the increasing and ever-diversifying immigrant community has also, naturally, to be considered. The question here that needs to be asked is, "How does the learning experience differ for the learner who is an EAL (English as an additional language) learner from that of an English native learner developing his/her literacy skills?"

A native learner acquires the English language from a very early age, whereas an EAL learner needs to learn the language. Hawkins (1984), in contrasting mother tongue learning during infancy and foreign language learning during school, argues that the motivation for mother tongue learning is greater than for foreign language learning because there is more in the way of discovery, excitement, and associated rewards. Amongst EAL learners, Wallace (1988:4–5) outlines the difference between those "who are learning English as a foreign rather than a second language, and have come to Britain usually specifically to improve their English" and those from "linguistic minorities who have settled in Britain" and who "are likely to have to function in daily life, work and education primarily through the medium of English."

The ability of an EAL adult learner to develop their literacy skills will depend on a variety of factors including their native language literacy skills (which in turn is a reflection of their educational background); personal circumstances and degree of motivation i.e. to what degree the learners need English in their daily lives e.g. work-related reasons, integration into the community, functional reasons (going to the doctor etc.); and the amount of exposure they get to the English language in their daily lives. Wallace (1988:3) explains that for teachers of adult literacy, functional literacy should be the goal for their learners i.e. to be aware that it's "part of everyday life in a personal and social sense."

However, she also argues that the degree to which EAL learners, who have a different first language and culture to that of the indigenous population, need and view literacy in their everyday lives depends on their social role within their community, and backs this up by giving examples of the varying literacy expectations on an Indian housewife and a Pakistani Muslim boy.

Amongst EAL learners, naturally the range of initial levels of acquisition can be quite vast i.e. from someone who has little or no knowledge of the English language and little experience of its usage, to someone who is nearly fluent. Furthermore, there will be a wide ability range in terms of the learners' potential to develop their English literacy skills within such a range of learners. Common learning difficulties which EAL learners experience, whatever their starting point, relate to the degree to which the phonological system and grammatical structure of their own language differ from the English language. Common errors in spoken English amongst EAL learners relate to learners translating directly from their own language into English (mother tongue interference), using their native language's grammatical structures. However, the EAL learner may have strong literacy skills in their other language(s) and these are transferable but less so if the other languages use a different phonological system, and are written in scripts other than the Latin; if the first language is written in a non-alphabetic script, then even less so.

In comparing and contrasting the issues faced by native and non-native speakers in learning to read, Wallace (1988:64) argues that since native speakers use the English language in their daily lives and have an "intuitive knowledge about their own language," then "reading is not an alien code," whereas for non-native speakers, they have to use "what they know of English to predict the structure and vocabulary of written English" and as such may have, depending on their English competence, "difficulty in anticipating certain structures in written texts." Furthermore, Devine et al. (1987) points out that amongst adults, research has shown that:

> When a reader and writer share cultural assumptions and knowledge about social systems and rituals, there is a much higher level of interaction of the reader with the text than occurs when such assumptions and knowledge are not shared.
>
> (Devine et al., 1987:43)

An EAL learner's native language literacy skills will also affect their English reading skills in that if they have, for example, a poor comprehension of punctuation, or a sound knowledge of punctuation conventions in the first language which are not the same as those of English, then this will serve as an additional barrier in reading to the understanding of text to that served by understanding of vocabulary and pronunciation of words; and similarly for writing, poor handwriting skills and/or a poor comprehension of punctuation, grammar, and spelling rules in the EAL learner's own language will compound a learner's difficulties in writing in another language.

Native learners who wish to develop their literacy skills however, are less likely to be concerned with English language usage, but more concerned with developing their reading and writing skills. The literacy skills which need to be developed, will naturally relate (as with EAL learners) to the level of literacy skills which the native learner already has. Those skills will, in turn, relate to the learners' own

educational experiences and socio-economic background, abilities, and interests. The incentives for the native learner to improve their literacy skills will naturally relate to their own motivation and personal and work-related circumstances.

EAL learners are less likely to be aware of the range of non-standard English dialects that exist in the United Kingdom than a native learner and as such, would need to be exposed during learning sessions to a range of dialects. Native learners on the other hand, who use non-standard dialects may not be aware of grammatical errors that they make in their spoken English (e.g. use of you was, 'you was,' 'I done' and 'we haven't got no' etc. are all quite common in non-standard dialects), and how this may impact on their written English. Also, it should be considered that there will be many EAL learners who, due to the areas they live in, may be equally, or more likely, to accept the non-standard colloquialisms around them as standard (e.g. 'innit?').

In the early stages of literacy where a sound-letter correspondence is being taught, care should be taken to ensure that the learner has an opportunity to hear the sound. Materials intended for native speakers often assume a knowledge of vocabulary (e.g. a picture of an igloo next to the letter I), but this knowledge cannot be assumed for EAL learners. When teaching vocabulary, the meaning, spoken form of the word, and written form of the word should all be emphasized with an EAL learner. If lessons are tailored to the needs of native learners, there is a possibility of neglecting one or other of the first two. Generally speaking, EAL learners will have a smaller vocabulary, and less of an instinctive knowledge of collocation (words that go with other words) e.g. traffic jam, traffic lights, draconian measures. A strategy employed by successful readers, that of guessing from context, cannot be employed by them unless the teacher ensures that there are not too many gaps in the text i.e. limits the vocabulary load. Writing frames, prepared for a range of levels, can be a useful strategy for developing writing skills in both EAL and native learners. Examples of writing frames (writing letters, applying for courses etc.) can be found in Writing Works (2001). Both EAL and native learners could benefit from the support of pictures.

EAL learners will want to advance their knowledge of the English language alongside their literacy skills (acquiring new vocabulary and structures). In supporting general English acquisition through the written and spoken word, teachers should avoid the danger of overloading the text with unknowns and thus sabotaging the developing literacy skills. It should also be borne in mind that EAL learners who have advanced literacy skills in their own language may feel insulted by the simplicity of the content of beginner's texts. Similar sensitivity is required with adult native speakers too, as they tend not to want to read childish texts. Furthermore, EAL learners who do read well in their other language(s) should be explicitly taught how to use a bilingual dictionary.

Learning theories

When reflecting on theories of language and development in order to choose an approach that would best enable any given learner to develop their literacy skills,

it can be considered that according to Knowles (1998:22), "Learning theories fall into two major families: *behaviourist/connectionist theories* and *cognitive/gestalt theories.*" Whereas cognitive development theories relate to understanding why adult learners have difficulties in dealing with quite advanced issues (Knowles, 1998), behaviorist theories are based on the idea that learning is a function of change in overt behavior and that those changes are the result of an individual's response to events (stimuli) that occur in the environment. The theory, as applied to language development, centers around the idea that a stimulus (such as the first sentence of a dialogue) meets with a response and that if that stimulus and response is praised or rewarded by the teacher, a stimulus-response pattern can be established with a learner which conditions that particular learner to respond in future instances. Reinforcement is the key element in the stimulus-response theory, where the reinforcement is anything that strengthens the desired response e.g. verbal praise, a good grade etc.

For a learner who is illiterate, language practice should take the form of question (stimulus) and answer (response) frames which expose students to the language in gradual steps. This requires that the learner makes a response for every frame and receives immediate feedback in the form of positive reinforcement on the basis that behavior that is positively reinforced will reoccur. If a learner is illiterate, it is likely that they will have arrived in the UK as an immigrant or refugee from a rural community within a developing country (in Africa or Asia) where literacy is not as highly valued as it would be in other types of community. As such, there is a likelihood that the learner will have come from a tradition where although oral fluency would be important, literacy skills such as reading and writing are less valued, particularly for women. Furthermore, if a learner is illiterate in their own language, it is likely that their language skills will have been acquired in an informal way rather than learned in a formal manner. Krashen (1981) outlines the difference between 'language acquisition' (the natural assimilation of language rules through using language for communication) and 'language learning' (the formal study of language rules as a conscious process).

In terms of theories of language learning, an approach which could be considered for an illiterate learner is the 'interactional view,' whereby according to Richards and Rodgers (2001:21), language is seen "as a vehicle for the realization of interpersonal relations and for the performance of social transactions between individuals" and therefore "as a tool for the creation and maintenance of social relations."

An illiterate person will initially need the native language to 'survive' in a community i.e. to be able to interact with others in carrying out everyday functions such as shopping, accessing services, and finding a job etc. It is important therefore that learning reflects realistic everyday life situations. In discussing adult learning theory, Knowles (1998) states that " 'adults are motivated to learn as they experience needs and interests that learning will satisfy' and that 'Adults' orientation to learning is life-centred; therefore, the appropriate units for organising adult learning are life situations, not subjects" (Knowles 1998:40).

In distinguishing between theories of learning and theories of teaching, Gagne (1985) has argued that while learning theories address methods of learning, teaching theories address the methods employed to influence learning. An example of such a method, which is based on the learning theory of behaviorism (discussed above) is the 'audio-lingual method.' According to Harmer (1991:32), the method makes "constant drilling of the students followed by positive or negative reinforcement a major focus of classroom activity." Basing the methodology on the stimulus-response-reinforcement model, mistakes are, according to Harmer (1991:32) "immediately criticised, and correct utterances . . . immediately praised."

Other teaching methodologies focus more on the humanistic aspects of learning, whereby it is argued that language teaching should, in focusing on learners' experiences, look to develop themselves as people and encourage positive feelings (Harmer, 1991). Advocates of humanistic approaches then would, according to Harmer (1991:36) tend to use classroom activities that made learners "feel good and . . . remember happy times and events whilst at the same time practising language." In terms of classroom activities that could be used to develop an illiterate learner's aural skills, it should be borne in mind that, according to Ur (1984:35), "a grasp of the phonology of the new language is a fairly basic requisite for learning to speak it" and also a prerequisite for later developing sound-written symbol relationships. With this in mind, she advocates listening exercises whereby the learner is given the opportunity to practice "identifying correctly different sounds, sound-combinations and intonations."

In order that the focus will be predominantly on developing the learner's aural perception skills, Ur (1984:35) suggests minimizing visual stimuli and 'contextual clues to meaning' through use of a range of recordings rather than live speech. At the word level then, the learner practices listening to and repeating words in isolation from each other. Time should be built into the activities by the teacher for error correction and positive feedback to the learner.

At sentence level, however, the difficulties for a learner increases as aural perception is hampered by the idiosyncrasies of English speech, such as word contractions, unstressed syllables, elision of consonants and variation in vowel sounds. In order to further develop the learner's aural skills, activities need now to be focused on sensitizing the learner to the 'blurring' of words that takes place in spoken discourse due to the above. The learner needs to listen to and repeat short phrases or sentences, still ensuring, as above, that they rely predominantly on their ear. Further aural activities can include: listening to recordings of short sentences and answering the question, 'how many words?,' and listening to recordings of short sentences and asking if certain facts are true or false. Care should be taken to ensure that there is not too much in the way of new language or utterances introduced into each session that may 'overload' the learner, and that time is allowed for continual error correction and feedback to the learner.

On the basis that both the above activities rely on a stimulus (the learner hearing words or sentences) and a response (repetition of the word or sentence), error correction, drilling, and positive reinforcement, it can be argued that they

lend themselves towards the audio-lingual teaching method and are hence based on a behaviorist learning model.

Comparing and contrasting tenses in pairs

Naturally, any group of learners starting a class will come from a variety of backgrounds and be motivated to learn English through a mixture of intrinsic and extrinsic factors. As such, the learners within a class will vary in their ability to learn. As far as it is possible, learners should be banded together in a class following an initial assessment of their speaking and listening, reading, and writing skills, against criteria relating to a given level. Assuming a given level following initial assessment, for example entry level 2, learning in classes can be initially delivered through focusing on common, everyday questions and answers, and expressions, that the learner is likely to be familiar with, and which do not require any broad knowledge of grammar or tenses, such as, 'How are you?,' 'What is your name?,' 'What time is it?,' and 'Where are you from?' etc. By restricting the variation in the grammar within the questions and answers to the components of the verb 'to be,' a tutor is able to focus on developing their learners' fluency.

For example, students should get used to the sound of contractions early on, and be given the opportunity to practice listening and responding to questions with them. As well as being encouraged to use contractions in speech, they should learn how to recognize and write with (and without) them.

Attention should also be paid at this stage to the pronunciation of unstressed syllables in speech, as a means of improving learners' fluency. Due to the nature of English as a 'stress-timed' language, it is common for an ESOL learner to miss out or 'pass over' unstressed syllables such as 'a,' 'the,' 'm,' 'are' and 'to.' The location and importance of these syllables can be reinforced through reading and writing exercises which clearly highlight the position of the unstressed syllables.

Present tense (everyday questions)

How are you? I am fine thanks I'm fine thanks
What is your name? What's your name? My name is . . . My name's . . .
What is his name? What's his name? His name is . . . His name's . . .
Where are you from? I am from . . . I'm from . . .
Where is he from? Where's he from? He is from . . . He's from . . .
Where is she from? Where's she from? She is from . . . She's from . . .
Where are they from? They are from . . .
What time is it? It is ten past eight. It's ten past eight.
What is the date today? It is the 12th of July
What's the date today? It's the 22nd of August
What is your job? I am a . . .
What's your job? I'm a . . .
How old are you? I am 26 years old. I'm 26 years old.
Where's the pen? It's on the desk.
Where are the pens? They are on the desk.

Where's the book? It's on the shelf
Where's the nearest toilet please? It's down the corridor on the right.
Is there a supermarket nearby? Yes, there's one in the center of town.
Are there many people in town today? Yes there are (many people in town today). No there aren't (many people in town today).
Are there any mountains in your country? Yes there are (mountains in my country).
No there aren't (any mountains in my country) etc.

The verb used to form the above sentences is, 'To Be' which is:

I am	We are (Kate and I are)
You are (s)	You are (pl)
He is (Fred is)	They are (James and Sarah are)
She is (Jane is)	It is (The car is; My idea is; etc.)

The verb also needs to be known in its negative, interrogative, and negative interrogative forms:

I am not (= I'm not)
You are not (s) (= you're not or you aren't)
He is not (= he's not or he isn't)
She is not (= she's not or she isn't)
It is not (= it's not or it isn't)
Am I?
Are you? (s)
Is he? (Is Fred?)
Is she? (Is she?)
Is it (Is the car?)
Am I not? (= aren't I?)
Are you not? (s) (= Aren't you?)
Is he not? (Isn't he?)
Is she not? (Isn't she?)
Is it not? (Isn't it?)
We are not (= we're not **or** we aren't)
You are not (pl) (= you're not **or** you aren't)
They are not (= they're not **or** they aren't)
Are we? (Are Kate and I?)
Are you? (pl)
Are they? (Are James and Sarah?)
Are we not? (Aren't we?)
Are you not? (pl) (= Aren't you?)
Are they not? (Aren't they?)

In the above, there isn't much change in the grammatical structure, but there is room to increase vocabulary (e.g. objects around the room, or professions)

in degrees appropriate to the abilities of the students within the class. On the basis that many learners will not necessarily have the level of English to understand explanations regarding tenses, they will need to be demonstrated, and learned through use i.e. combining speaking and listening, reading, and writing exercises. Use of tenses can be learned in the context of comparing the use of one tense in relation to another. For example, the present continuous can be explained through illustrating what is happening at the present moment ('now') or through describing momentary, or temporary, actions. This can be compared and contrasted with the simple present, which can be explained through illustrating events that happen all the time or sometimes, or that are true in general. The use of the present continuous in describing momentary actions, can be illustrated through pictures, such as in the following examples, then compared and contrasted with the use of the simple present:

Example 1 (present continuous): picture of a man teaching in a classroom

What's he doing? He's teaching.

Example 2 (present continuous): picture of a woman working on the computer

What's she doing? She's working on the computer.

Example 3 (present continuous): picture of a group of people adults around a table in a work setting.

What are they doing? They're having a meeting.

Example 4 (present continuous): picture of a cloud and rain.

Is it raining outside? Yes it is (raining outside).

The present simple:

1 He teaches part-time in the college.
2 She works on the computer every day.
3 They have a meeting every Thursday afternoon.
4 It usually rains in Autumn.

A way of further helping students to distinguish between the use of these 'paired' tenses, can be to highlight how the use of the subject and verb in the answer reflects the question. A common mistake made by ESOL learners in their spoken English is to omit the verb 'to be' from the present continuous, for example, *'I going to town later.'* Naturally, in the context of delivering learning in an ESOL class, such errors should be constantly and consistently corrected, and the proper use of the present continuous reinforced through structured written exercises. The exercise on pages 196–199, 'correcting mistakes made in everyday spoken English' in Norley (2012), for example, gives learners the opportunity to identify and correct such errors (in spoken and written English).

Present continuous vs present simple

PRESENT CONTINUOUS

What are you doing now?
I'm learning English; I'm sitting down; I'm reading a newspaper;
I'm looking at the board; I'm listening to music; I'm working on the computer.
What's Abdul doing?
He's learning English; He's playing football; He's playing on the computer.
What's he doing?
He's learning English; He's watching TV; He is filling in an application form.
What are they doing?
They are playing cricket; They're going shopping; They're walking home.
Is the computer working?
Yes, it is (working). No, it isn't (working).
Are the trains running on time?
Yes, they are (running on time). No, they're not (running on time) etc.

PRESENT SIMPLE

Where do you work? I work in Milton Keynes.
Where does he work? He works in Milton Keynes
Where does John work? He works in Milton Keynes.
What time do you get up in the morning? I usually get up at half past seven.
What time does she get up in the morning? She gets up at half past seven.
What time does Helen get up in the morning? She gets up at half past seven.
Do you like coffee? Yes, I do (like coffee). No, I don't (like coffee).
Does he take milk and sugar? Yes, he does. No, he doesn't.
Do they go there often? Yes, they do. No, they don't etc.

The verb that needs to be learned in the context of the above tense with regard to the questions, is 'to do,' as an auxiliary (or supplementary) verb, including in its negative, interrogative, and negative interrogative forms, since its structure, in each of these forms, can frequently cause difficulties with ESOL learners. A common error with the third-person singular interrogative for example is to use the 's' ending twice e.g. Does he likes his present? The exercises in the appendix (correcting mistakes made in everyday spoken English) includes examples whereby such errors can be identified and corrected (in spoken and written English).

To do

I do
You do (s)
He does (Michael does)
She does (Sarah does)
It does (The car does)

We do (Paul and I do)
You do (pl)
They do (Johanna and Graham do)

I don't	We don't (Paul and I don't)
You don't (s)	You don't (pl)
He doesn't (Michael doesn't)	They don't (Johanna and Graham don't)
She doesn't (Sarah doesn't)	
It doesn't (The car doesn't)	
Do I? Do we? (Do Paul and I?)	
Do you? (s) Do you? (pl)	
Does he? (Does Michael?)	Do they? (Do Johanna and Graham?)
Does she? (Does Sarah?)	
Does it? (Does the car?)	
Don't I? Don't we? (Do Paul and I?)	
Don't you? (s) Don't you? (pl)	
Doesn't he? (Does Michael?)	Don't they? (Do Johanna and Graham?)
Doesn't she? (Does Sarah?)	
Doesn't it? (Doesn't the car?)	

Throughout the students' learning process, the tutor should ensure constant and consistent correction of errors, such as those indicated above related to developing their learners' fluency and pronunciation generally. If, as is commonly the case with students developing their spoken English skills, they find themselves hesitating or pausing between particular words in a sentence which do not require a pause, then a line (/) can be put through the written sentence on the board to indicate where the hesitation is occurring. When this has been done, the learner can be given the opportunity to practice blending the two relevant syllables either side of the pause. This procedure can further help develop learners' fluency.

Present continuous vs past continuous

Here, the use of the present continuous can be elaborated on and developed to include the future. This can be best explained through linking its use with a time reference, for example:

What are you doing tomorrow? I'm working all day; I'm going to town;
I'm going shopping; I'm visiting my friend
When are you going to Pakistan? We're going there in the summer;
When is he starting his course? He's starting it next week;
What's she doing later? She's going to the theatre. etc.

This can be compared with the use of the past continuous, which can be explained in the context of putting across the idea that you are describing a continuous action that was happening in the past. For example:

What were you doing yesterday afternoon?
I was working. I was watching TV.

What were they doing yesterday evening?
They were working. They were watching TV.
Where was she going earlier?
She was going into town. She was going to the library.
Who was Colin meeting last night?
He was meeting his girlfriend. He was meeting his colleagues etc.

Again, the use of the verb in the answer can be shown to reflect its use in the question. The past continuous can be further illustrated through its use after 'while' and 'when.' For example:

'While I was cooking, I burnt myself.'
'I saw you when you were swimming.'
'She called while I was sleeping.'
'They arrived while I was taking a shower.'

As with the present continuous, a common error made by ESOL learners using the past continuous is to omit the verb 'to be,' for example, *'I working yesterday.'* As with errors made in the use of the present continuous, errors made in the use of the past continuous should be constantly and consistently corrected, and its proper use reinforced through structured written exercises.

Past continuous vs simple past

In order to explain the use of the simple past, you can put across the idea that you are describing an action that has been completed, and compared with the above for the past continuous. For example:

What did you do yesterday afternoon? I went to the cinema.
I went shopping.
What did Jean do yesterday afternoon?
She went to the cinema. She went shopping.
Where did you have lunch? I had it in the school canteen.
What did you have for lunch?
I had fried chicken and chips. I had a lasagne with a salad.
What did she have for lunch?
She had fried chicken and chips. She had a lasagne with a salad.
Who did you see at school this morning?
I saw the headmaster. I saw my son's form teacher.
Who did he see at school this morning?
He saw the headmaster. He saw his son's form teacher.
Did you go out last night?
Yes I did (go out last night). No I didn't (go out last night).
Did she collect her car? Yes she did. No she didn't.
Did he meet his friend? Yes he did. No he didn't.

Did they win the match? Yes they did. No they didn't etc.

Common errors in the use of the simple past, include using the past form twice, for example:

'Did you saw him?'
'I didn't went to the cinema.'

Past simple vs present perfect

The use of the present perfect (have + past participle) can be explained in the context of describing an event which has finished in the recent past (or is unfinished), whereas with the simple past, there is a specific time reference, for example: last week, yesterday, in April 1994, a month ago etc. With the present perfect, we often use the following time adverbials: yet, already, recently, just, never, lately, ever etc.

Have you ever been to America? Yes *or* Yes, I have (*means* yes, I have been to America).
Have you heard of John Lennon? No *or* No, I haven't (*means* no, I haven't heard of John Lennon).
I have never eaten marmite. *c.f.* I ate marmite last week.
She has just arrived. *c.f.* She arrived at 3 o'clock.
We have never been to Paris.
I have lived in England for 3 years.
We have known each other for 2 weeks.
He has worked there since September.
I have already told you.
She has already eaten.
We have not finished yet.

The verb that needs to be learned in the context of the above tense is 'to have,' as an auxiliary (or supplementary) verb, including in its negative, interrogative, and negative interrogative forms, as its structure, in each of these forms, can frequently cause difficulties with ESOL learners:

To have

I have	We have (Paul and I have)
You have (s)	You have (pl)
He has (Michael has)	They have (Johanna and Graham have)
She has (Sarah has)	
It has (The computer has)	
I haven't	We haven't (Paul and I haven't)
You haven't (s)	You haven't (pl)
He hasn't (Michael hasn't)	They haven't (Johanna and Graham haven't)

She hasn't (Sarah hasn't)
It hasn't (The computer hasn't)
Have I? Have we? (Have Paul and I?)
Have you? (s) Have you? (pl)
Has he? (Has Michael?)
Has she? (Has Sarah?)
Has it? (Has the computer?)
Haven't I?
Haven't you? (s)
Hasn't he? (Hasn't Michael?)
Hasn't she? (Hasn't Sarah?)
Hasn't it? (Hasn't the computer?)
Have they (Have Johanna and Graham?)
Haven't we? (Haven't Paul and I?)
Haven't you? (pl)
Haven't they (Haven't Johanna and Graham?)

For ESOL speakers who may have been living and working in the UK for several years, it is often the distinction between the use of the past simple and present perfect that is the hardest, and one of the last parts of grammar to be mastered. Mistakes such as those in the exercise in the aforementioned "correcting mistakes made in everyday spoken English" (for example, numbers 32, 33, 35, and 36 are commonplace). For learners who make such mistakes, written exercises and examples can be given along with constant and consistent correction of spoken errors. In addition, during reading exercises, learners can be asked to highlight examples of the past simple and present perfect tenses i.e. to identify them in context.

Learners also need to be given the opportunity to learn, through practice (speaking and listening, and reading and writing), the simple past and past participles of the most common regular and irregular verbs, which can be found listed in many language textbooks. Naturally, time allowing, if one is in a position to record learners' spoken English with a view to providing detailed and constructive feedback to assist their language development, then this should be done.

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8 Conversations within

Journal writing as an alternative form of exploration in foreign language pedagogy

Vasilios Zorbas

Introduction

Ever wonder why students feel 'numb' and resentful when it comes to writing? Or better yet why the mere thought of confronting a blank page prompts a variety of quietly panicked inner monologues, starting with: "what answer does he *really* want" or "is this a *trick* question"? A less confident student might even riff on "oh gosh what am I gonna write about? I don't know squat!" As teachers we may (or may not) be familiar with the thoughts that really traverse through the corridors of our students' minds. In our effort, though, to appear 'professional' and 'proper,' some of us tend to place the blame on *them* for the blemishes in *their* writing or even question *their* intellectual capacities without realizing that this attitude may eventually hamper any type of *quality* learning and intellectual growth irreparably in the long run, leaving behind remnants of 'staged' teaching situations where teachers were supposedly 'teaching,' and students (being the well-behaved and disciplined acolytes that they are) were supposedly 'learning.'

If the above situation rings all too familiar to you or even constitutes one of the most frightening realities of education today, try adding another dimension to it. Envision yourself in a situation where you have to teach a class full of pre-service EFL teachers (predominantly undergraduate college students) to whom English is *indeed* a foreign language and who, in return, will eventually be summoned to teach this thing called 'English' to English language learners who dwell in a non-English speaking environment. And when it comes to expressing themselves in *writing* in that foreign language, the scale, unfortunately, does not tip in these college students' (and future EFL teachers) favor either; thus, exacerbating an already discouraging situation to begin with. And as disconcerting as all of this may resonate, any attempt to dismiss the implementation of academic writing courses or to eradicate existing academic writing classes from an English department's curriculum is bound to handicap its graduates academically as well as professionally in the future.

At this point though, I am not going to debate the merits of (re)instituting an expository writing program in a college curriculum but try to curb my discussion to the value of employing nontraditional forms of assessment in the foreign language classroom and particularly look at a growing trend in progressive

education today called *journal writing*. Though journals go by numerous names (e.g., reading journals, learning logs, dialogue journals etc.) and serve a multitude of purposes as we will see, they can, nonetheless, prove quite efficacious in the foreign language classroom, and those of us on the progressive side of the ledger who have yet to experiment with this form of exploration are not only disservicing our students contemptuously but are equally depriving them of an intellectually stimulating experience and essence of education for which they are presumably spending the most vital years of their lives achieving.

Literature review

Reflection in teacher preparation

The importance of reflection in teacher education can be traced back to the pioneering works of John Dewey (1933) and Donald Schön (1987). Dewey (1933) argued that reflection is perceived as "the active, persistent and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge" (p. 9) paving the way for reflective practice in education in the latter part of the 20th century. Schön (1987), subsequently, introduced the concept of the *reflective practitioner* delineating two strands of the reflective practice: *reflection-on-action* and *reflection-in-action* which are both predominantly *reactive* in nature. The former mostly probes into a retrospective account of a particular event while the latter occurs during the unfolding of the actual event. Killion and Todnem (1991), however, appended an additional dimension to Schön's model which they termed *reflection-for-action*, and this primarily focuses on reflecting upon a desired outcome that will eventually guide future action; hinting at a more *proactive* in nature type of reflective practice. Thus, the reflection continuum is now complete "encompassing all time designations, past, present and future simultaneously" (Killion & Todnem, 1991:15).

At the turn of the millennium, Cochran-Smith (2001) argued that, in more professional terms, reflection could eventually play a more vital role in establishing a professional knowledge base for teacher education and preparation programs. This view was echoed in a more recent professional agenda of the National Council of Accreditation of Teacher Education (2006) in the United States where pre-service teachers were called upon (among other pressing issues) to fine-hone their ability to engage in meaningful reflective practice as well, within the classroom borders and beyond.

Reflectivity, however, did not only evolve horizontally. It also developed on a hierarchical level as well. According to van Manen's classification (1977), there are three levels of reflectivity: *technical rationality, practical action, and critical reflection*. These categories were also corroborated through Lee's (2005) work who found that teachers today identify similar domains in their reflective practice. *Technical rationality* mostly focuses on applying educational knowledge to attain goals that are pretty much accepted as given. At this level, both the ends of

education as well as the educational context are not regarded as problematic but constitute the springboard for further development. Progressing to the *practical action* level, the reflective practitioner now probes into the assumptions as well as the predispositions underpinning competing pedagogical goals while at the same time gauges the pedagogical consequences of a particular teaching action taken. The *critical reflection* level (being the pinnacle of reflectivity) transcends both the pedagogical goals and the teaching context and delves into the moral, ethical, political, and social considerations of the educational process while the practitioner assumes a non-defensive and open-minded stance. In a way, both planes of reflectivity foreshadowed the use of journals as a means of exploration in education in its broadest terms, paving the way for reflective thinking in the latter half of the 20th century and crossing well into the 21st.

Research context

This study is grounded in the constructivist research paradigm and constitutes a *case study* (Glesne, 2015; Cohen & Manion, 1989; Wells, 1999) through *participant* observation. It centers on investigating the use of three types of journals employed as a form exploration in a teacher preparation program by making references to actual students' writings from an undergraduate education (practicum) class I taught from the fall of 2007 to 2011 at the English department of the University of Athens (Greece): *Designing Dramatic Activities in the EFL Classroom*. This practicum was part of the department's EFL sequence with *student teaching* being the culminating experience. The majority of the students in this class (80 in total, 20 per group) were predominantly non-native speakers of English and approximately in their junior year.

In this course, we examined how drama practitioners made sense of drama as a mode of exploration. We attempted to translate their theories into meaningful educational purposes and sound classroom practices sensitive to the needs of foreign language pedagogy. Through in-class dramatic activities and by reading various challenging texts, students took on two *identity* roles (Cummins & Early, 2010) – that of a *learner* and that of an *educator* – and channeled their efforts into designing dramatic activities and tailoring instruction for English language learners. One of the hallmarks, however, of this workshop was the extensive use of the *learning log* and the *reflective reading journal*. Though students found this a tad intimidating in the beginning (since they were never used to this alternative form of exploration and assessment in their regular college classes), the majority of them claimed that it contributed to their growth as learners and was critical to their professional development and scholarship.

This study will revolve around three main goals: a) to illustrate the merits and manifold benefits of journal writing within a broader EFL setting, b) to investigate the multiple roles the participants took on throughout this process, and c) to explore the implications of this process for second/foreign language pedagogy with respect to cultural identity and linguistic diversity.

Data analysis

The learning log

As I mentioned earlier, keeping journals constituted an integral part of this class. One of the journals which students were responsible for was the *learning log*. Learning logs are basically a series of informal pieces of written texts usually bounded together in a notebook (diary) form into which students *pour all their thoughts*, *share their concerns,* or even *explore pivotal issues* discussed in class. Keeping a learning log, of course, is not only limited to the language arts classroom where writing is predominantly the 'norm,' but it can also be extended across the curriculum into other content areas, including the second/foreign language classroom where learning logs not only constitute a necessity but are also a vital teaching and learning tool, according to Suzanne Peregoy and Boyle (2008) and Andrea Peñaflorida [cited in Richards et al. (2002)]. Through learning logs:

- Teachers see what their students are learning.
- Students write on the knowledge they have gained from studying in their language class.
- Teachers can assess how much a student has gained or benefited from their language class.
- Students can keep track and evaluate their own learning.

In this class, the students were required to keep track of two essential things in their learning logs: first, they had to keep a *record* of the activities we've tried out in each session (i.e., details that would help them reproduce them on another occasion), and, second, they had to note the *emotional contours* of their participation in these activities. This reflection should indicate some depth of thought, but could take any form they felt would have been useful to them in the future. Sifting through the students' learning logs, the students focused on the following:

- appropriate classroom applications

  Above all, I believe that this kind of activity [*i.e., responding to poetry through drama (tableaux vivantes)*] reinforced the general idea about poetry and literature as well. That means that a poem, as in our case [*i.e., Fire and Ice by Robert Frost*], can have various effects on each individual and this is evident from the different visual interpretations each group displayed. People don't have just one but multiple perceptions (generally in literature) and the impressions they get from each poem or novel or story are unique for them.

  (M. P., *Learning Log 2*, Jan. 9, '08)

- how they felt about what they did and what the others had done as well

  The charade has been the most interesting, funny and difficult thing of all. Being separated into groups of students we have never hang out with before,

under a time limitation and being left to find a Greek title/song (this has been the hardest to me as I mostly listen to foreign music!) was challenging enough and kind of nerve-racking. At first, I thought that we only had a patched-up plan with my team and that we would end up in shame. Soon, I discovered that we all laughed at everyone's performance and that we were not there to criticize, judge or make fun of anyone, but to enjoy ourselves and seize the advantages of not only being part of a team, but also feeling like one.

(E. M., *Learning Log 1*, Oct. 21, '10)

- what they may have discovered regarding human motives and actions

  At the beginning of this activity [*i.e., search for your lost watch*], I was very nervous because I did not know how my behavior should be like as I had not become conscious yet of the new situation. However, as time passed by, I started to feel just like I had really lost my watch and then my behavior had changed. I felt more confident, comfortable and gradually realized that I was acting in a dramatic situation. This procedure was really entertaining in my opinion because I cooperated with my fellow classmates.

  (D. M., *Learning Log 1*, Dec. 19, '07)

- problems that arose (or which may arise upon replication) and potential solutions

  A problem that arose was the issue of "space" which was not appropriate for acting and moving around. The lack of freedom to move around has a negative impact on the motivation to act, the freedom of expression as well as the observation of what is going on. Also while performing the tasks, I observed that some students moved around with more and some with less confidence than others. Such a thing implies that some students need to boost their confidence a bit more through activities designed for this purpose in the classroom. Good confidence always aids the performer to get into the role faster, to make it real, to remain focused and to be serious about it. The way that we, future teachers, have felt about acting before this class might help us think of our future learners' attitude towards drama and be more considerate, understanding and supportive as we try to integrate drama into our teaching.

  (P. V., *Learning Log 1*, Dec. 19, '07)

- questions that were raised for them

  All in all, drama can give a new lease of life to language learning, provided that it is used appropriately. It is difficult, though, to organise and instruct such activities or to find the correct input. I believe that, for example, children's play can provide interesting input for such drama activities. But we must consider a lot of other things, such as how to deal with the English cultural identity as well as the language. So, to what extent folklore can be used as a source of inspiration? Should teachers expose learners to such

material and to what extent? What problems may arise? How the teacher should behave in these contexts?

(S. P., *Learning Log 1*, Oct. 21, '10)

- suggested follow-up activities or alternative activities to achieve the same goal

  One potential classroom application for all these activities could be the following: the teacher gives learners a work of art, for instance a poem, a passage from a novel or a reproduction of a famous painting and asks them to respond to it. They can respond to the work of art by translating it into another form of art, that is, to create a poem from a piece of music or to draw a painting. In this way they will break down the work of art to one or two elements and then put it back together albeit in a different form. This will give them the awareness that they need in order to fully appreciate how art operates, and it will be easier for them to respond eventually to art through drama. The final stage will be to improvise a dramatic scene from all this.

  (S. P., *Learning Log 1*, Nov. 4, '10)

- observations about the group dynamic and how it affected the exercises

  After the icebreaker, we did a relaxation exercise and then, a second activity took place, where we had to pretend to look for a lost object. Besides being exciting and fun, it was interesting seeing how everyone else reacted and all the students were really into the whole thing. Actually acting out the activity, the pedagogical aspect of the exercise was evident, as was noted in the discussion held afterwards. What I really consider to be a pro is that the use of such activities enable the TL students to place themselves in situations that are closer to real life, something which is important. Throughout the years I have noticed that foreign language students have a tendency to do well inside the boundaries of the classroom and prove to have problems with the FL once they are called upon to use it in an environment other than that of the classroom.

  (E. S., *Learning Log 1*, Oct. 21, '10)

The reflective reading journal

In addition to learning logs, students were also required to keep a *reflective reading journal*. The reflective reading journal is an outgrowth or a spin-off, if you will, of the learning log, as Atwell (1984) informs us. The need for such a journal springs from a reality that can no longer be ignored, in my opinion: *whenever we read a text, we engage in some sort of mental conversation with its author*. Every paragraph, every sentence or even every word sets off a chain reaction in our minds. This mental transaction between reader and text was extensively analyzed by Louise Rosenblatt (1938, 1978) who laid the foundations for the development of *reader-response literary criticism*. In her monumental work, Rosenblatt

(1978) probes into this transactional experience by making a clear distinction between 'efferent' and 'aesthetic' reading – that is, reading to 'carry away information' (efferent) and reading primarily aimed at experiencing or 'feeling' a piece of writing (aesthetic). The role of the reflective reading journal, however, isn't merely to keep a detailed record of this *transactional* journey. It actually transcends this stage and eventually becomes the *forum* where the *reader* assumes a more active role and challenges the *writer* in an ongoing (written) conversation.

In this class, students were required to record their reflections, reactions, and critical responses to the weekly readings in their reflective reading journals. Of course, they did not relegate their responses to a mere regurgitation of the basic points made by the respective authors. Quite the contrary. In their journal entries, the students actually *challenged* the authors' stances and views, *raised questions*, *presented alternative viewpoints,* and *considered implications* for foreign language classroom practice. Here are some highlights:

> I found the [*author's model*] lesson on Beowulf very interesting; especially the way that the teacher handled the activities before engaging in role playing in order to motivate his students. These activities were well-organized and well-controlled. Students seemed to respond to them well, since children of this particular age like engaging in activities that involve the use of their imagination. Despite all this though, I found the particular activities and the role-play difficult for children of nine or ten years old, whose mother tongue is not English. Greek students of that age, for example, do not have the fluency in order to respond to the demands of the activity on the archaeologists commenting on the tapestries (page 12) nor the role play of Beowulf. I would raise the level of the students. Another point that I would try to take into consideration would be the class participation in the role play since it is obvious from the transcript that some of the students have low or no participation at all.
>
> (I. S., *Reflective Reading Journal 1*, Dec. 17, '07)

> In general, I believe that negotiation is one of the most – if not the most – important aspects of education. The reason is that through negotiation students have the feeling that they have an active role in the teaching and learning process, and, as a result, they are not afraid of expressing themselves. In a few words, negotiation maintains the balance in a classroom. To be honest, though, the biggest challenge for me as a future teacher will be to create a balance in the relationship with my students as well as among my students. Balance which is the result of successful negotiation, can help in the teaching and learning process. However, the process of negotiation has pitfalls too. One of them (the most important, in my opinion) is that students might misunderstand the purpose of this process and cross the lines. In this case, respect will be lost totally, and the teacher will not be able to move on with his/her lesson successfully.
>
> (K. K., *Reflective Reading Journal 2*, Jan. 9, '08)

Dialogue journals

Coined by educational psychologist, Jana Staton, in 1979 (Peyton & Staton, 1991), the term *dialogue journal* refers to a type of journal writing that more or less resembles an informal written conversation among two or more individuals (where one responds to the other's journal entry) on issues which both parties deem pivotal and substantial. Jones (1991) argues that regardless of whether the journal entry to which the other party responds is taken from a student's learning log or reflective reading journal, the main goal remains the same: "to communicate in writing, to exchange ideas and information free of the concern for form and correctness so often imposed on developing writers" (p. 3). The keyword here is responding to *content* rather than form. Students who generally share their journal entries with other individuals (e.g., teachers or even their fellow classmates) and engage in this type of (written) conversation, do not merely seek editors to tidy up their grammar but are more interested in the other party's reactions to (or even feedback on) the issues they are exploring in their journals. Through dialogue journals (Peñaflorida, 2002; Calkins, 1986, Peregoy & Boyle, 1990; Peyton & Staton, 1991):

- Teacher and student write to each other, taking equal turns in writing and responding.
- Teacher and student share ideas and information.
- Teacher and student act as equal partners in the interaction between them.
- Teacher gives students assistance beyond what they already know how to do.

I personally agree with my colleague's views. However, he doesn't specify how exactly he would face the challenges inherent in these attitudes. For example, it would be useful to note down a suggestion or possible solutions to these problems. Even though he makes many good points, I would like to see something more specific. (H. K.)

My colleague presents some interesting assumptions regarding the teaching of drama in the foreign language classroom and examines the challenges and difficulties that may rise due to the language constraints and the multicultural background and the students' assorted learning styles. (P. V.)

I generally agree with my colleague, but I don't believe the teacher's role can be discreet. Of course, he/she must give them space but he/she must also monitor and direct them through each activity. (I. A.)

A great challenge would be to make learners discover the answers to their questions themselves. This is indeed a difficult part of teaching. Maybe it would be more effective if the answer to students' questions would be a question that will, eventually, lead them to the answers they seek. Learners, and especially the younger ones, need to develop their autonomy in order to write and speak fluently, but this can not be accomplished just by listening to English alone. They have to practice it as well. Teaching a foreign language through drama requires a variety of skills not only from students but also from teachers. They have to be very helpful, they have to direct the learners and even challenge them. Since I am both close to the role of the student as well as the teacher, I find this method very modern and quite interesting, and I think it motivates students to work effectively either individually or in pairs. (Y. H., *Reflective Journal 1*, December 5, 2007)

What this means, according to Peregoy and Boyle (2008), is that this form of journal writing does not simply "make writing purposeful in school." It actually provides students with "an audience for their [own] writing" – that is, a non-judgmental *ear* which is willing to *listen*, offer constructive feedback and present a different point of view.

In this class, the students were required to respond to entries from their classmates' reflective reading journals in light of the following questions:

- What assumptions is the writer making with respect to the issues being discussed?
- In what ways do you agree or disagree with what the writer is saying? Why?
- To what extent do you think the writer's views respond to the challenges of today's foreign language classroom? Why? Explain your answer.
- In your opinion, what issues do you think the writer has overlooked and what is your take on these issues? Explain your answer.

Lessons from the *sandbox*: implication for foreign language pedagogy

While much of the research in the early years of reflective practice (Hatton & Smith, 1995; Pultorak, 1996; Risko et al., 1999) yielded that pre-service teachers' journal writings weighed more on *descriptive* and *technical* rather than *critical* reflection, more recent research in the field (Bates, 2005; Kazoullis-Kourtis, 2011; Lee, 2005; Leu & Price-Rom, 2006; Zeichner & Liu, 2010; Zorbas, 2006, 2008) transcends the former planes of reflectivity and delves well into the latter domain, calling for the integration of *critical reflective practice* in pre-service teacher education programs within the greater vicinity of (foreign) language pedagogy.

Though the participants in this research had initially prefaced their journal entries with a *record* of the tasks and activities carried out during each session, they, subsequently, transcended the *descriptive* borders of their reflective plane and probed into more *critical* terrains. Most of their entries orbited around the principles framing *transformative learning* (Mezirow, 1977, 1989, 1990, 1991) where the hyphen between teaching and learning remains within each learner's reach and ownership, where learning communities (within and beyond the classroom) are seamlessly welded and remain essential to the learning process, and where the notion of a *learning community* (on which language and literacy are predicated) becomes social, ethical, aesthetical, and to a great degree political. It is precisely this approach to foreign language pedagogy that breathes value into those ontological underpinnings that we as a community of educators and learners on both ends of the pendulum come to comprehend and conceptualize through ongoing critical reflective practice where language facilitates a larger dynamic that envelopes both the practices of teaching and learning as well as the realities that frame and assign meaning to them (Zorbas & Kokoroskos, 2012).

It is within this community that educators take on *multiple identities* as well (e.g., learner, educator, parent, to name but a few) (Cummins, 1996, 2000;

Dear N___,
I totally agree with the way you critique this sample lesson because the teacher seems to be unfair sometimes towards students as some of them do not really participate in the procedure described. Also your idea about the 'circular rotation' of the roles is very interesting as it could provide a solution to the problem mentioned earlier.
Cheers,
D. M.

My teammate and friend, N___, raised some quite interesting objections which – I have to admit – made me think things through more carefully. I think that the class would be more effective this way in terms of role-playing. And also, I find the suggestion for discussion very creative since it definitely contributes to the development of teacher-student interaction in class. (D. K.)

After reading through the 'Beowulf' lesson, many questions were raised for me regarding the way this lesson was planned and the teacher's role. Although it's a carefully designed lesson, there are certain aspects I would revise. Despite the restricted space and the minimum physical action, instead of having students sit on chairs in an open circle, they could sit in a circle on the floor (boys and girls mixed up), and this way it would be more appealing and would resemble a camp-like situation.

Though the teacher's role seems really helpful and supportive, the way the roles were assigned seems quite unfair in my opinion. Certain students assume the role of Beowulf as well as the story-teller while others simply intervene whenever they feel like it. I would suggest a circular rotation of the roles.

Another issue I found rather odd was the fact that the teacher decided to have experts evaluating the learner-made tapestries. Is this always possible? Wouldn't it be better to discuss, compare, and contrast them and explain their answers? Wouldn't that prove much more useful in the end? (N. S., *Reflective Journal 1*, Dec. 5, '07)

Cummins & Early, 2011; Kourtis-Kazoullis, 2011) and cater to a wider spectrum of cultural and linguistic diverse populations across all levels of the educational strata (Kourtis-Kazoullis, 2011; Zorbas & Kokoroskos, 2012) and not relegate teaching and learning to a mere assembly line of homogenized learners where the 'experts' tinker with the product for 40–45 minutes, as it gradually glides itself along a rusty conveyor belt! And though *transformative learning* and *reflective practice* tends to dominate the realm of higher education, I firmly believe that these practices could easily be woven through the strands of the lower ranks of the educational strata (especially in Greece) where linguistic and cultural diversity are firmly wedded to translanguaging and multicultural awareness practices; ultimately, transforming learning into a *social* act instead of an array of compartmentalized chunks of knowledge hoarded over the years.

Concluding remarks

One of my exceptionally bright students (and quite a prolific writer, I may add) felt a tad befuddled and reserved when he had to commit his thoughts on paper or even share his journal entries with his fellow classmates. When he complained to me about it, I couldn't find any brief way of explaining it to him, so I spoke to him in a 'lingo' with which he is equally at home: *basketball*.

- *Journal writing is different from writing a paper or zipping through a question on an exam. Think of it like a basketball game. What would happen if I passed you the ball, and all you ever did was slam dunk it?*
- *I would win, I think. I'd be famous. Hey, I might even be Michael Jordan.*
- *Fair enough, but wouldn't it be better if you passed the ball around a bit more before you shoot? The other players want to play with you as well, you know. . . . No one here is going to toss your paper in the trash can, just because it came in the mail, and they're in a hurry. Nor will they just read the short sentences in big print only. They want the full scoop!*

What makes journal writing unique, what makes it a sought after teaching and learning tool isn't the complexity of its grammar mechanics but the honesty of the writer and the richness of the ideas being explored. Remember all those frustrating moments during our school years when we struggled with a paper, a paragraph, or even hunted for the right word without realizing that the truth and beauty of our writing lied right beneath our own noses? How many times has either one of us come to class eagerly willing to share our reactions to one of the assigned readings, and 'lo and behold' the teacher 'barges' into the classroom and shuts the discussion down making it clear that his/her interpretation is what *really* counts? How many times have we found ourselves in an awkward situation when we desperately wanted to voice our point of view in class (or even on paper) but were discouraged by our teacher who sought those responses which basically regurgitated the *correct* interpretation? It's quite intimidating and frightening at the same time, isn't it? Well, if we really want to rid ourselves of this shroud which propels us back to the Neanderthal era of education or even resembles the frightening reality I allude to in the beginning of this chapter, it's about time we leave the 'norm' that has been so religiously propagated from generation to generation behind (where we were supposed to mimic prolific writers) and set sail in the opposite direction by employing alternative forms of exploration in our classrooms.

. . . It's true that once upon a time we struggled to *learn to write* . . . but now we challenge what we learn through writing – that is, now we *write to learn*, and the journal is our unswerving companion in that turbulent yet uncompromising journey.

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9 Lived experiences among learners of Chinese origin in complementary schools in Spain

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Introduction

Research on children from migrant background in the Spanish context has developed rapidly in the last two decades and is still developing, as the trend of growth of the immigrant population in Spain has not stopped since the 1990s until now. According to the census data published by the Ministry of Labour and Immigration, whereas during the 1990s, there were reported almost 1 million immigrants, representing only 2. 5% of the total population, on January 1, 2014, the total number of foreign residents in Spain was 5,730,667, representing 12.2% of the total of the Spanish population.

Taking these trends into account, schools accurately reflect demographic changes experienced by Spanish society. While in 1999–2000, 107,303 students from migrant background were registered in Spain, in 2014–15, according to statistical data of the Ministry of Education, the number of students of migrant background has reached a total of 712,098 and represents 8.5 % of the total student body.

Even if the economic crisis has produced a significant decline in the migration flows (OECD, 2013), the presence of the migrant population has highly influenced the economic, social, and political life of Spain. The economic recession had reduced the immigration flows to Spain and there was a decrease in this sense. Contrary to this trend, the Chinese community is still growing.

Actually, the Asian population in Spain has been growing rapidly over the last two decades (Beltrán et al., 2006; Nieto, 2007). According to the 2014 Spanish Census, the number of Asian immigrants is around 361,554 (16% of total of the immigrant population), and the Chinese represent: 191,078 (3.88% of total immigrant population). At present, the Chinese form the sixth largest non-European Union foreign community in Spain and represents the most populous Asian nationality group.

In addition, we witness an increase in what concerns the complexity and variability within a group, regarding its demographic, social, cultural, linguistic, economic, religious, and ethnic characteristics, the geographical dispersion and concentration patterns, as well as the socialization, employment, or social inclusion configurations.

This growth of Asian population is reflected in the Spanish school and classrooms. We find a total of 64,248 pupils of Asian background (9.1% of total of immigrant student body), and 33,182 of Chinese origin (4% of total of immigrant student body). We have to be aware of these demographic changes in the actual society and the challenges it involves, as we want the school to help all children learn.

In particular, the census data about youth of Chinese origin born in Spain are largely missing, and if there are some, they are disseminated in different statistical databases, related to more general features of the immigrant population in general.

A brief review of the research on children from migrant background

Clearly, the evolution of migration flows in Spain has been a major issue for academia, for the national official bodies and for all teachers and educators fully immersed into the daily practice in schools. Moreover, it constitutes the top agenda of a whole range of studies and scientific events around immigration and the impact on education. The statistical data do not give us details of the stories of immigration and settlement of students and their families; it is not known how their personal and social stories intersect with language status and culture (both Spanish and heritage language).

Hitherto, authors like Aguado (2004); Bardaji Ruiz (2006); García Fernández (2006); and García Castaño et al. (2008) have already done an up-to-date detailed analysis of the research literature on the relationship between children from migrant backgrounds and education, in terms of the variety of topics and methodological approaches in order to advance the systematization and further understanding of the field. The topics addressed can be synthesized as follows:

> Most of the studies respond to a diagnosis of the situation of the children from migrant backgrounds in the Spanish education system given the novelty of the presence of these students in schools and the urgency and necessity to address this cultural diversity.
>
> (García Castaño, 1995; Franzé, 2002)

Educational practices and interventions have a compensatory feature (e.g. Spanish language learning, language immersion, welcome programs). These policies and practices relate to 'diversity' from a cultural, linguistic, and behavioral deficit perspective. According to academic and media accounts, policymakers, school administrators, and teachers are ill-prepared to handle their rapid influx into the classrooms, particularly in meeting the challenges of accommodating an ethnically and linguistically diverse student body.

A number of policy initiatives have been launched to meet the challenges of integrating immigrant children, including the provision of additional teaching

resources for specialist language training and support services, as well as the introduction of special integration classrooms in different regions of Spain. These welcome classes have been established, in theory, to help students – particularly those whose home language is not one of the official languages – to effectively transition into regular schooling; however, the downside of these welcome classes is that they keep the immigrant students segregated from the rest of the student body.

Few research projects provided a close-up perspective on immigrant students as they interact with education systems and society at large. The students' voices their lived experiences, their needs and expectations are overlooked (Mena Cabeza, 2009).

In Spain we find scarce research regarding the educational issues concerning the Asian students and their needs (Beltrán & Sáiz, 2004; Pérez Milans, 2011; Yiu, 2013; Aparicio & Portes, 2014). Chinese pupils remain relatively invisible within social and educational theory and research.

In the international academic arena, we can find the same relative absence: Asian students are often ignored and perceived as having "common experiences, background, aspirations and stories" (Parker et al., 2003:vii). At the international level (European) there is the same relative absence related to the heritage language and cultures and the complementary schools research. (Parker et al., 2003; Archer & Francis, 2005; Francis & Archer, 2005; Francis et al., 2009)

Research

Our research made a contribution to the current debates on immigrant pupils' experiences in schools and in the host society at large, and modestly filled in the existing gap in educational research regarding Chinese origin students and their life experiences in Spain. We were concerned about understanding their perspectives; making them 'visible,' by providing the chance for their stories to be told; and learning from them. This study is an attempt to contribute to the knowledge and deeper understanding of the learners of Chinese origin in Spain and how their language and cultural experiences are related to identity processes and education.

In this research we draw upon multiple perspectives: critical multicultural perspective (Cummins, 2000, 2001; Nieto, 2000; Sleeter & Grant, 2003; Aguado, 2004) which insists on drawing awareness on issues of social justice (Freire, 1972; Griffiths & Troyna, 1995) and power relations in our society.

As Nieto and Bode (2008:51) state: "multicultural education is for everyone regardless of ethnicity, race, language, social class, religion, gender, sexual orientation, ability and another difference." They make a clear reference to the inclusive principles of education as a right for all children, with special attention to the social, political, and economical conditions that frame and define the context.

The voice of immigrant students is central to this research as a testimony of how different social and educational structures affect their learning and identity and what educators can do to provide a high-quality education for them.

In this chapter we will share only one part of the life experience of one student I have documented since her birthday, paying particular attention to both positive and negative aspects of the young people's linguistic and cultural experiences within the complementary Chinese school setting and her family context. They are important in providing understanding concerning complementary schools and their impact on educational and social identities.

We are aware of the prudence of caution in generalizing from one single case. A single case study cannot be taken as representing the wider situation of Chinese students in Spanish schools and is not a 'walking stereotype' (Nieto, 2000).

However, we agree with Wright Mills's (1986) writings indicating the value of knowing an individual's personal life history to understand their social situation. The issues and perspective this student brings up here are probably similar to other young students of similar background and can give us some hints about the specificity of the situation. Moreover, by undertaking this type of research, we challenge the misconception of 'Asian origin students' as a homogeneous group, and present them with diverse backgrounds, cultures, and languages or lived experiences. (Zhou et al., 2003; Li & Wang, 2008).

Phillion (2008:296) states that "compared to theoretical studies this research is full of people with names, faces, experiences, actions, feelings and emotions." Therefore, one of the contributions to the advancement of knowledge in intercultural education is to show the people behind the labels, the theoretical or statistical data (Cook-Sather, 2006).

There was a need to select a research method that allows an in-depth exploration of the specificity of those stories and also, "includes the missing voice" (Denzin, 1989; Merril & West, 2009).

Our chosen research approaches were qualitative methodologies, particularly life history and narrative inquiry, as the most appropriate for exploring these experiences and to locate them within historical, economic, and cultural contexts (Pujadas, 1992; Goodson & Sikes, 2001; Moore, 2000).

Telling the stories of people represents the fundamental way in which knowledge is revealed to us. Narrative methods have been widely used in social sciences in general (Marinas & Santamarina, 1993; De Miguel, 1996; Bertaux, 1999) and, in the field of education in particular [e.g. Goodson (1992) on teachers´ lives and work; Bolívar et al. (2001) on the effects of educational reforms; Susinos and Parrrilla (2008) in the field of inclusive education]. Also, it was considered a powerful methodology in feminist research, social/class history, holocaust research and reminiscence/testimony work (Cole & Knowles, 2001).

International authors such as Clandinin and Connelly (1994); Carger (1996); and Phillion (2008) have carried out research with biographical narrative methodologies and have focused on understanding the educational experience of students from migrant backgrounds, with emphasis given to emerging issues such as teaching English as a second language teaching and learning strategies in multicultural schools, intercultural conflict, the construction of identity, and so on.

The biographical narrative methodologies for their ability to report, evoke, inspire, and promote thinking is an invitation to a dialogue with all education

professionals who care about the future of children. The life of every child needs and deserves to be known, narrated, honored, and respected and, most of all, linked to their personal and democratic development. We agree with Clark and Rossiter (2006:31) that the pedagogical potential of these methodologies is not only about knowing the story of a certain student, his/her lived experiences; it is about being able "to transcend those experiences and see the larger social and cultural structures that shape their lives and their meaning making. What more powerful tool could any educator want?"

Therefore, as Kouritzin (2000:11) specifies, "researchers and practitioners need to take responsibility for ensuring that other histories are recorded, and that these histories inform policy and practice." A close reading of the narratives, of the nested web of personal life stories of young people of Chinese origin, could help transform the actual society into a living and learning community and breaks away from dangerous assumptions regarding the Other. In this way, young people of Chinese origin and the others are immersed in a dialogue about the differences in a narrative space that creates conditions to enable these young people to tell their own stories and listen carefully to the stories of others (McLaren, 1994).

During a two-year period we have had the opportunity to be engaged in the study of a 22-year-old young woman of Chinese background, located within the particular social context of the city of Malaga, born in Spain and educated in the Spanish educational system. Besides her, in the research were also involved 'key informants,' like members of her family, friends, ex-teachers, etc.

The information-gathering process included a wide range of instruments such as biographical interviews with the protagonist and interviews with secondary characters (parents, teachers, and friends) in order to gather complementary information and all kinds of personal and official documents, a field diary, and artifacts: photos, videos. All interviews with the protagonist lasted 1.30–2.00 hours. All were recorded, transcribed, and analyzed. Also, we engaged in classroom observations and interviews with Chinese pupils and teachers in the Chinese supplementary school in Andalusia, and we analyzed a wide range of secondary data, specifically related to these types of schools.

For the analysis and interpretation, we carried out a combination of 'narrative analysis' and 'thematic analysis' (Bolívar et al., 2001; Riessman, 1992; Chase, 2005). We tried to make a detailed description of the context to reveal the historical and interactional features of the experience (Denzin, 1989) combining the descriptive, nuanced vision with the analytical one. In addition to the chronological story line, we tried to detail themes that arose from the story to provide an enriched framework of the meaning of the story (Huber & Whelan, 1999; Roberts, 2002).

Findings

What this chapter provides are some empirically based insights into the complex interplay of relationships within families and communities and how these have affected the heritage language and culture learning experiences of a particular young woman of Chinese origin, born in Spain.

As we have mentioned, the protagonist of our story is a young woman of Chinese origin, born in Spain, educated in the Spanish educational system. However, she is part of the migration experience. At the time of research, she was 22 years old. She has a large family; she is the second of five children. While all were born in Spain, each of them has had a very different life trajectory, which has influenced their future personal and social development and in the construction of their identity. Her parents came from a small village of poor peasant families. After a short immigration process in Europe, they arrived in Spain in the 1980s and since then they have lived in Spain.

In her life narrative, our protagonist was talking about the challenges related to her family in relation to immigration and their transition from Chinese environments (e.g., rural and small town) to a European urban environment. As a result of this situation, the parents decided to separate even from their own daughters. They sent one of the girls to China, to the grandparents, and found an adoptive 'Spanish family' to look after the little one. Meanwhile, they were working day and night to survive and pay their economic debts.

The childhood of the protagonist was marked by the situation in which she literally had to live in-between two families: the 'adoptive' Spanish family and the Chinese one. Thus, she learned Spanish as her mother tongue and later on, she had to learn her Chinese family's dialect in order to communicate with them and the Chinese Mandarin, as the official language of China.

Her parents spoke a dialect between them. They communicated with their children and other members of the community using this dialect, although the protagonist and her siblings spoke Spanish with each other. This situation led to communication difficulties with their parents. Moreover, due to language problems and to the long hours required in the catering industry, the parents have been unable to provide their children with any practical help with their schoolwork or provision of other educational resources.

Spanish language skills are totally absent in her father's case, and her mother has some basic /rudimentary notions of Spanish.

Heritage language and complementary school

Because the family and community environment valued the learning of heritage language and culture, they tried hard to convince the younger generations to attend the complementary Chinese school on weekends. Parents strongly emphasized the heritage language and culture; therefore, they represented the main influence in perpetuating the learning the heritage language (Zhou & Gatewood, 2000).

Our protagonist has been attending the Chinese school for seven years. Normally, children attend the Chinese school between 5–10 years. The majority of pupils started when they were three years old and left the school around the age of 18. They were second generation Spanish Chinese, i.e. Chinese origin pupils that came to Spain at an early age and Spanish families with Chinese adopted little girls, among others.

As Nieto (2007) argues in her monograph on the Chinese migrant community in Spain, there are many Chinese complementary schools, which are practical,

informal, and depending on the Chinese ethnic organizations in various parts of Spain. A main feature represents the institutionalized aspect of this type of schools: they teach the official language of the PRC – the Chinese Mandarin– as a sign of the Chinese national identity. It is considered a major strategy for the overseas Chinese younger generation to connect and engage with China. Therefore, the heritage linguistic dialects are not taken into account. The official language and culture is part of the nationalistic project of RPC and Taiwan to define the national Chinese identity. Language is not neutral; it is a power field of political ideological positions. The mission of these schools is beyond acquisition of the heritage language. The symbolic power of learning Chinese Mandarin is that it is related to belonging to a nation and the national identity sense making. For example, they use textbooks that make reference to the overseas Chinese communities as part of the Chinese nation, in symbolic terms, as all are descending from a single ancient symbolic figure associated with the Chinese people: the Yellow Emperor. The overseas Chinese should be proud of their heritage, the magnitude and legacy of their country and their ancestry. To be Chinese is a basic value and has to be taught in these Chinese schools. This message is present in all textbooks, didactic methodology, classroom practices, and discipline. To sum up, to be a patriot (to love and to devote yourself to great China) is an intrinsic value-based mission of these Chinese schools (Nieto, 2007).

When we consider the circumstances of Spanish language learning and Chinese Mandarin language learning and use, it was not surprising to find ambivalent opinions and doubts about learning Chinese, the difficulties of this long learning process in the narratives of our protagonist (Li, 2004).

There was a kind of detachment from the language, the cultural aspects of it, from various reasons. For example: teachers mentioned that some pupils openly resisted it because they identified themselves as Spanish, as they were born in Spain, or came of an early age to Spain so there was no need to learn the heritage language. They were obliged by the parents to attend the school.

Also, all resources and didactical materials were from Mainland China. Our protagonist thought that they were ideologically biased, so she openly expressed a critical vision towards them, i.e. a stand-up perspective.

On the other hand, learning about geography and history of China, as such a big country, was perceived as a waste of time, because she did not see any immediate value in learning it. Moreover, she considered it of no use and she did not feel motivated to learn all kinds of dates and historical or geographical facts that had no relation with her actual life.

Regarding the teaching and learning methodology, the didactic models were memory based, strongly transmission oriented (based on dictations, repetitions, and homework). Curriculum was based on textbooks for pre-primary and primary school level and, as our protagonist stated, they were: "*outdates, old fashioned and inappropriate*."

Nevertheless, the protagonist recognized diverse benefits of learning Chinese Mandarin in terms of values and skills. She said that she could acquire a proficiency level, so she was being able to communicate with other Chinese people. On the other hand, she gained openness towards other languages/cultures.

The school represented a community for pupils and parents, where they could develop strong peer relationships, i.e. a real social networking. Peer relationships were another solid reason to attend the Chinese school. This school represented a chance to meet more Chinese people and make friends. The protagonist felt happy there, which implies that she found a sense of belonging into the Chinese community. Even if she was not interested in the language learning per se, she continued to attend the school. She could identify and associate with it; she found a sense of belonging and a community power. She could share personal problems and ideas with her Chinese friends, who understand her perfectly.

Moreover, the school was perceived as a 'safe space' from discrimination (as echoed in international research). Related to these issues, another positive feature mentioned was self-confidence development, the sense of belonging, and the fostering of an ethnic identity.

Conclusion

The results reflect some of the challenges and complexities of the learning and maintenance experiences of the heritage language and culture. The life experiences in two families, two different education settings, the linguistic and cultural diversity provided multiple cultural frameworks to refer to when speaking about the protagonist´s life. In her narrative she said she saw both social dimensions (the Spanish and the Chinese) as crucial, but she displayed a varying level of engagement with each of them from total commitment to indifference, depending on the situation.

The heritage language and culture experiences, as well as the Spanish language education, are intrinsically related to the participant´s sense of identity and development.

Our protagonist displayed both positive and negative attitudes towards the heritage language and culture. On one hand, she offered an instrumental explanation of the learning and proficiency of the Chinese language and a critical position toward essentialist, nationalist views of Chinese culture (attitudes and values) and identity, on the other.

As a final thought we argue that the complementary Chinese school reflected in the protagonist narrative is an example of real living communities playing an important educative and social function for both Chinese community and the Spanish society.

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10 Stories, second language writers, and genre awareness

Maria N. Melissourgou and Katerina T. Frantzi

Introduction

Researchers have diachronically commented on the complexity of the writing skill. Raimes (1994:164) describes writing as 'a difficult, anxiety-filled activity.' If writing is complex, writing in a second language can only be harder as there is clearly lack of linguistic resources and depending on the learner's background there can be significant cultural differences.

This study investigates second language writing in testing contexts. Inferences drawn about test-takers' language abilities based on the scores from such assessments may result in high-stakes decisions such as university admission, graduation, citizenship, and immigration or access to jobs and promotion in professional contexts. Viewing time and word constraints, as well as anxiety levels as aspects affecting response (Gebril & Plakans, 2015; Melissourgou & Frantzi, 2015b), we believe that writing for testing purposes deserves more attention.

Tasks posed in this kind of testing belong to genre categories that tend to have a repetitive character. Hamp-Lyons (2003:174) notes:

> *Even in so-called general test contexts, the types of tasks set have broad genre/register patterns associated with them, and test-takers are often penalized if they do not write within those expectations.*

The students' exposure to these genres is often limited due to time constraints in teaching, unawareness of the importance of modeling genres in classrooms, or distance from authentic contexts. Conducting a genre analysis, we aim to give detailed guidance as to the demands of the writing tasks grouping together the common elements of the same genre. Hyland (2004:195) explains:

> *Genre analysis is a branch of discourse analysis that explores specific uses of language. It is driven by a desire to understand the communicative character of discourse by looking at how individuals use language to engage in particular communicative situations. It then seeks to employ this knowledge to support language education.*

Genre theory supporters (Christie, 1984; Derewianka, 1990, 1996; Devitt et al., 2004; Hyland, 2002, 2003a, 2003b, 2004, 2007; Martin, 1985, 2009; Nesi & Gardner, 2012; Paltridge, 2001, 2007; Tardy, 2006, 2009 among others) insist on the importance of giving the learners access to the genres they are going to use. Torrance (1996:5) states that

> *writing expertise is, in fact, like other kinds of expertise in that it is often highly dependent upon knowledge and specifically, on knowledge of genre. When this is the case, the writing task can often be performed relatively effortlessly.*

This study places emphasis on the language used in story writing, aiming to make candidates' preparation specific rather than general and evidence-based rather than intuitive. As Reppen (2002:321) explains,

> *for the L2 student, many writing conventions will remain a mystery unless teachers are able to bring these forms and patterns of language use to conscious awareness.*

Methodology

To investigate these issues, we have chosen corpus linguistics methods to accurately and fully process the language data quantitatively. The analysis of corpora offers research on language such accuracy, completeness, and speed that it would be impossible to achieve using traditional methods. Hyland (2004:224, 212–213) says that "the computer analysis of text corpora is an invaluable tool for genre analysis" used "to supplement intuitions – not to confirm whether something is possible or not but to describe whether it is frequent or not."

There are various types of corpora but the one we are using here is a specialized one and belongs to the pedagogic type. A pedagogic corpus is

> *a large enough and representative sample of the language, spoken and written, a learner has been or is likely to be exposed to via teaching material, either in the classroom or during self-study activities.*
>
> (Meunier, & Gouverneur, 2009:179–201)

The WriMA corpus was especially made for this type of study as there were no corpora available designed according to the strict criteria needed. It includes 1,151 model answers from 93 sources, textbooks, and websites addressing various well-known international English language exams and CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference) levels B1 up to C2 (Council of Europe, 2001).

For this study we are using the Stories sub-corpus consisting of 78 texts (15,558 word tokens and 2,255 word types). The sub-corpus has been POS (Part of Speech) tagged with TagAnt 1.1.2 (Anthony, 2014), and is analyzed using WordSmith Tools v. 6 (Scott, 2015). Manual annotation at the initial stage

has grouped categories such as proper names so that it is possible to count the occurrence of these categories as a group and notice significant use or lack of use in a genre without specific names coming up as key vocabulary. There are also tags for structural elements such as headings, paragraphs, and text borders. The metadata stored in Microsoft Excel sheets contain the prompt, the source, the targeted examination, and the word limit, if there is one. Although the core of this study is based on the analysis of the texts, there are instances where reference to prompts is made to draw conclusions.

Our analysis is based on frequent common words and keywords using the whole <name> corpus (253,025 tokens), as reference to extract keywords. Frequency refers to the number of times a token appears in the corpus and range shows the number of texts in which this token has appeared. For example, a word may be frequent in only two of the texts because of the specific theme the question provoked but the fact that this word does not occur in any other text does not make it a part of the basic vocabulary of this genre. In the few cases where there has been a different spelling of the same word due to British or American English we add the frequencies of both spellings.

Keywords are those words whose frequency (or infrequency) in a text or corpus is statistically significant, when compared to the standards set by a reference corpus (Baker, 2004; Bondi, 2010; Scott, 1997; Scott & Tribble, 2006). Based on Dunning's (1993) Log Likelihood statistical procedures this set of derived keywords with WordSmith tools is a robust basis for analysis compared to an individual's intuition about the keywords in any text (Scott, 2010:46, 51). If the corpus happens to be tightly designed in terms of genre as this one, then we can have words that are typical of the genre.

The additional advantage of using keywords for the analysis instead of common wordlists is that grammatical or functional words such as 'the' or 'because,' for example, occurring frequently in many genres will crop up in certain genres (sub-corpora in this case) as keywords. These would not usually be identified by the human reader as key, but they may be indicators of style and their appearance in the keyword list can prompt the researcher to go back to the concordances to search the reason for this. The <name> corpus as a whole is used as a reference corpus in this study so that comparisons are made to the rest of the genres in the specific context.

Looking closer at these words, we see how forms relate to functions at semantic, organizational, or stylistic level. Functional interpretation is further supported by seeing words in their immediate context using the concordance tool in WordSmith Tools software and noticing their dispersion in texts (dispersion plot tool) in cases we wish to check where a specific word is mostly used.

Extracting Concordance tables, we are provided with all of the instances of the search words in their context. This way we can have a more comprehensive view instead of decontextualized words. Apart from viewing concordance lines, one can further investigate collocation, that is, words in the neighborhood of the search word. By examining 'friend' words we are able to retrieve common lexical and grammatical patterns of co-occurrence. Observing these collocates, we

are able to identify frequent multi-word clusters which include keywords (e.g. as soon as).

Seeing prevalent linguistic features in relation to neighboring words and within sentences in concordances it is possible to interpret their functional role in the specific context. Words and phrases are chosen because "they are particularly well-suited to the purposes and situational context of the register" (Biber, 2014:192).

Token-level properties such as text, sentence, and paragraph length, words per sentence and word length are also provided. These features or some of them, sometimes called shallow discourse features, or basic text properties, have been used in various genre/register studies (McCarthy et al., 2009; Stamatatos et al., 2001; Crossley et al., 2014; Nesi & Gardner, 2012). Presenting means for these features can reveal common tendencies in building and presenting the appropriate answer. For example, big numbers in the length of words (in letters) and in the number of words per sentence may reveal a more advanced use of vocabulary and an ability to cope with complex sentences.

Processing of the corpus and results

Basic stages in a story include the 'Orientation' where the reader learns about the setting (where, when, and who), followed by the 'Complication' stage where the lives of the characters are complicated and problems arise. Then the complication may be resolved for better or worse at the Resolution stage (Board of Studies, 1998:37; Derewianka, 1990:42). Abbs and Richardson (1990:107) name the first part 'Exposition' and add the 'Climax' stage between the Complication and the Resolution stage.

As these stages are basic generic elements we present the shared and most prevalent features of stories in this corpus associating them with the stages of the genre wherever this is consistently done by many writers.

To illustrate the points made we refer to specific examples taken from the corpus. Any word or phrase taken from the corpus is written in italics.

A focus on humans in familiar contexts

One of the most common elements has been the emphasis on people as agents or people as recipients of what is happening. Characters are often named and there is great involvement of relatives and friends. Surnames are less frequent as the people involved usually belong to the writer's immediate context (*friend/s*). We found 193 instances of names distributed in 43 texts and only 13 of surnames distributed in six texts.

Location can also be named but not as often as humans (35 instances in 17 texts). Stories take place in everyday places and mostly inside rather than outside (*home-house, school, room*). When the event takes place outdoors, it is at the *forest* or at the *hospital* but only 10 stories used one of these settings. It seems that for the majority of the stories studied here, scenes taken from everyday life are sufficient and there is no need for imaginary unfamiliar settings.

Creating images

There are also a large number of adjectives describing age (*old, new*) dimension (*huge, long, big, small*), and physical properties (*cold, hard*). Adjectives have been used to set the scene and create pictures through words making the story more alive. Similes are also used to help the reader visualize the setting or understand the emotions described:

> e.g. *The sky was a beautiful shade of blue with clouds like cotton wool just a short distance above the peaks.*

However due to the short length of these texts and the readers' proficiency level figurative language in general is not employed extensively.

Personal involvement and first-person narration

I and *my* are a lot more frequent than the rest of the pronouns. Table 10.1 shows the frequencies for personal and possessive pronouns and the number of texts they occurred in.

The narrator is often actively engaged in the story and shares own real or imaginary experiences. When a story is told through first-person narration,

> *the storyteller adopts the voice of autobiography and the listener or, reader, imagines that he is listening to an intimate first-hand account of experience.*
> (Abbs & Richardson, 1990:127)

Studying the questions posed we are reminded that tasks often constrain the writer in the type of narration to use. For example, "The most exciting experience of my life" leaves no choice other than first-type narration and "Write a story that ends with the words: She knew the events of the day would change her life forever," calls for third-type narration. In third-type narration,

> *the author presents the story but remains invisible. The characters are 'out there.' We are introduced to them and learn about them as the narrative unfolds.*
> (Abbs & Richardson, 1990:164)

Table 10.1 Pronouns

Personal pronouns	*# freq./ # of texts*	*Possessive pronouns*	*# freq./# of texts*
I	627/70	My	260/53
It	225/72	His	94/27
He	222/43	Her	69/22
We	208/50	Our	48/25
She	103/32	Your	18/13
They	61/30	Their	14/11
You	51/27	Its	2/2

Table 10.2 Prompts and type of narration

Prompts and type of narration	*% of prompts in the corpus*
1st-person narration	52
Free choice	41 (of which 62% finally written as 1st p. narration)
3rd-person narration	7

In order to be accurate, we measured the instances where based on the question, the writer had a choice on the type of narration and found that only 41% of the questions in this corpus really offers this choice. First-person narration is explicitly asked in 52% of the questions and only 7% asks for third-person narration (Table 10.2 above). This can be an important finding for teachers preparing students for story writing, as there is little need for practicing third-person narration. The writer is free to choose in 41% of the prompts. Going back to the corpus we realize that where choice is offered, 62% of the answers are written as first-person narration.

Fast-paced action and suspense

Verbs are crucial in stories. We calculated the ratio for nouns to verbs in the corpus and discovered it was 1:1.[1] Compared to most written genres, where nouns are usually more than verbs, we can say that there is increased interest in actions and events and that stories are closer to spoken than written registers (Biber, 2006:47, Ferenčík, chapter 4.4).

As it is normally expected in storytelling, most action takes place in the past. However, when quantified, the extent of this phenomenon is astonishing. We measured the frequency of lexical verbs (not including auxiliaries) used to form four active voice tenses: Present simple, Past simple, Present Perfect simple, and Past Perfect simple. Past simple verbs far outweigh other verb tenses as Figure 10.1 shows. Action verbs predominate but there are also verbs referring to what humans 'felt' or 'said.' Table 10.3 shows the most frequent verbs related to their function. Verbs in bold are also keywords, meaning that they are typical

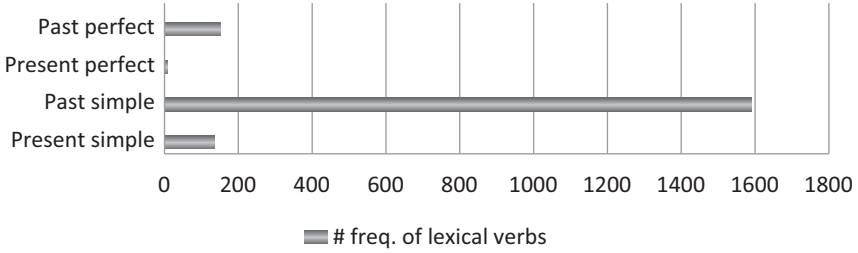

Figure 10.1 Four verb tenses in the corpus

Table 10.3 Frequent verbs and their function (keywords in bold)

Functional category	*Verbs*	*# freq./range*	*Verbs*	*# freq./range*
Material (action)	**got**	42/33	left	15/12
	went	39/30	**ran**	15/14
	go	32/24	**began**	14/14
	going	28/21	reached	14/14
	started	27/24	find	13/12
	get	26/20	found	13/12
	came	23/17	help	13/13
	do	22/21	fell	12/10
	took	22/19	tried	12/11
	walked	21/17	stopped	11/9
	turned	20/19	walking	11/11
	opened	18/14	**woke**	11/9
	lost	17/13	**climbed**	10/9
	made	16/15	come	10/9
	set	16/13	getting	10/10
	arrived	15/15	walk	10/9
Mental & Behavioral	**felt**	41/29	thought	19/15
	saw	40/29	**knew**	18/17
	looked	28/24	looking	17/15
	decided	27/22	know	15/11
	realized	25/23	**noticed**	14/14
	heard	21/15	like	12/10
	see	21/16	remember	11/10
	wanted	20/17		
Verbal (saying)	**said**	49/29	**shouted**	13/11
	asked	27/23	called	11/10
	told	26/17	**explained**	11/11
Relational (being, having)	**was**	469/77	been	53/32
	were	87/46	have	28/20
	is	19/15	are	14/12

of this genre and statistically they have less chance of appearing in other genres of English language testing as these were represented in the <name> corpus.

Narratives construct a pattern of events with a problematic and/or unexpected outcome that entertains and instructs the reader or listener (Board of Studies, 1998:37). Reflecting on experience or imaginary situations, they aim to hold the reader's interest with the unexpected development of events.

Apart from verbs, the sense of fast-paced action and change is further enriched by nouns such as *surprise* and adverbs such as *back, quickly,* and *suddenly. Back* is often used as the desired end point, symbolizing safety and calm, during or after a negative experience. The following sentences are examples of this use:

e.g. 1. *He knew he had to make it back to the boat . . .*
e.g. 2. . . . *as we shakily made our way back to the camp.*

Some adjectives used to set the scene are carefully chosen to prepare readers for the Complication stage. *Dark*, for example is easily associated with possible danger as in the following sentences:

> e.g. *While we were walking along the beach, we saw a cave, so we went inside. It was cool and dark. I turned on the torch and my friends followed me.*

Weather conditions are usually bad to raise the difficulty level. *Cold* can be close to *dark* as in the following example:

> e.g. *Soon it got dark and cold and I had nowhere to go.*

A rather unexpected genre-specific word is *door*. It is frequently associated with a person's entrance to the scene as well as with strong feelings.

> e.g. 1. *Then the front door opened and an old lady came out.*
> e.g. 2. *I was so excited that I slammed the front door behind me and ran away.*

Olson (2014:607) talks about the unexpected, exceptional event at the heart of the story giving a sentence which includes the word *door* and a person entering as an example of this characteristic in stories. He reminds us that "*in a story the unexpected occurs. The more unexpected, the better the narrative.*"

It seems that in the stories studied here a way to introduce the unexpected is someone not previously mentioned entering a room. The most frequent left collocate of *door* is the word *front* and the most frequent right is the word *opened*. Looking at the plot dispersion, door is mainly used in the middle of the texts. *Window* is also a keyword used in a similar way but is less frequent (door 26/18, window 10/9).

Another key element in these stories is the increased use of time related connectors (*then, when, later, after, soon, as soon as*). They consistently connect sentences in the middle paragraphs where the action is dense and the reader needs help to follow the narration of the events. *Suddenly* is a key connector showing that this unexpected change in the pattern of events is not necessary in the other genres included in this corpus. The dispersion plot reveals that *suddenly* is commonly used to introduce the Complication stage.

Finally, the use of contractions (*didn't, wasn't, couldn't*) and certain punctuation marks such as exclamation and question marks support the general liveliness of the texts. Dialogue is used in 58% of the texts and each test is found to include 1–6 instances.[2]

Emotions

Humans' psychological state is constantly described. In Table 10.3, there are a lot of verbs related to feelings and mental states. Looking at the dispersion plot of the verb *felt*, we notice that it is mainly used in the middle of the texts but also towards the end. *Nervous, relieved, excited, proud, happy, terrible,* and

embarrassed usually follow the verb *felt*. In particular, the protagonists usually feel *nervous* at the Complication stage and *relieved* or *not nervous* at the Resolution stage as in the following examples:

e.g. 1. *As the rescuer climbed down carefully and pulled me out, I felt relieved.*
e.g. 2. *"You're not nervous about sailing anymore, then," he smiled.*

The word *eyes*, is also key in this genre. As the following examples show it has been used to describe both humans (e.g. 1) and feelings (e.g. 2).

e.g. 1. . . . *with orange skin and huge blue eyes.*
e.g. 2. *He drove so fast that I kept my eyes tightly shut all the way.*

Token-level measures

As can be seen in Table 10.4, stories written as model answers in educational material are rather short preparing learners for word-limits in exam tasks. Writing less however is not necessarily easier as writers need to include all the previously mentioned stages in order to build a good story. Unskilled writers can easily get carried away while creating imaginary settings and interesting plots. It is a challenging task to control text, paragraph, and sentence lengths taking care to include all necessary stages at the same time.

Texts are usually segmented in three or four paragraphs with short sentences which also support the sense of movement and liveliness. Nearly a quarter of the stories have a two- to three-word title. Almost half of these cases are responses to prompts asking for a specific title (e.g. 'write a story entitled . . .'). We can say that in cases where the tasks do not ask for a title, the majority of writers in this corpus do not add one in their texts.

Conclusions and implications for teaching and further research

Helping the learner as a future candidate in these exams has been our main interest throughout this study, where we attempted to raise awareness offering insight into the shared techniques skilful writers use and the distinctive language features they choose to follow the conventions of the genre.

Table 10.4 Corpus text properties

Text properties (Means)	#
Word length per text	196
Paragraphs per text	3.7
Sentences per text	15
Words per sentence	12.9
Word length	4

This study has shown that short stories share some clear linguistic demands that could be taught explicitly and sought for in model texts used in the classroom. Some of these characteristics have also been reported in research on genre typology, however as observations only, not as measured occurrences (Derewianka, 1990; Glasswell et al., 2001). Awareness of genre-specific features especially when these have been quantified and have been based on a large sample of texts can aid teachers towards a faster and more objective way of rating answers. It can also help teachers identify more consciously the reasons a text may seem weak.

These findings can also be compared to learner corpora investigating genre-specific language use by learners, where learner corpora should be consistent with the specific genre and texts should be answers to tests of the same or similar type we have described in the beginning. Finally, the results of this work can be applied to research on genre-detection, an area that has gained a lot of attention recently.

Learners have access to a range of narrative genres since their early years, at home and then at school even before they are able to write in their mother tongue. (Hicks, 1990:46). In fact, story writing exists in the school curriculum in most educational contexts early enough while other genres such as reports, or exposition essays are considered more demanding and appear when learners are more literate. Therefore, candidates in language testing should opt for stories when they are given the choice as they are probably more aware of the conventions of this genre.

Notes

1 Without the auxiliary verbs. If these verbs are included, then the ratio is 0.9:1.
2 Where 'instance' is meant to be one or more sentences between quotation marks.

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Part C

Linguistic diversity

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11 Identity vs. diversity

Issues on recognition, 'management,' and acceptance of diversity

Michalis Damanakis

Introduction

This introductory chapter aims to (re) discuss some basic concepts, such as: identity, diversity, difference, recognizing and 'managing' diversity, engagement in dialogue and, on the other hand, to highlight some important parameters of the discourse on diversity, such as: recognition and 'management' of diversity on the individual and collective levels; diversity and power structures; diversity and the collective demand for equality; functions of diversity; diversity and self-differentiation; diversity and dialogical subjectivity; and pedagogic rhetoric in diverse societies.

The basis for this discussion comes from my experiences and knowledge of the country in which I studied and worked, Germany, and also of Greece and the Greek Diaspora, along with reviewing the relevant literature.

After making conceptual clarifications in the first section, the second and third sections are approaches to diversity at a social level; the second from the perspective of the dominant group and the third from the perspective of the minority. In contrast, the focus of the fourth section is diversity in relation to the individual.

Basic assumptions and conceptual clarifications

Rationality and 'diologicality' (engagement in dialogue)

The basic premise of the text that follows is that the main characteristic of man as a living being is *discourse* (*λόγος*) (in a dual sense: as thought and language at the same time) and as a social being *dialogue*. In other words, every person is a rational and dialogical being. People engage in dialogue not only with themselves or God, but, above all, with the other, their fellow men. As a rational being, each person has the ability and the capability to use discourse to analyze not only the environment but also his/her own self and thus acquire self-awareness.

The identification of a subject with the self and the attainment of self-knowledge is a necessary but not sufficient condition for communication and even more to engage in dialogue with one's environment. In order to maintain dialogue and ensure self-realization, the subject needs another subject, an interlocutor. Just

like in the words of Charles Taylor (1997:81) "The reason we need relationships is not our self-definition, but our self-realization." Even a hermit, who apparently seems to interact only with himself/herself, has God as his interlocutor (ibid, p. 82).

As a dialogical being, every human is at the same time a 'signifying' and 'signified subject' (subject and sub-text). It is so, according to the terminology of Peter Zima, the founder of the theory of the dialogical subject, 'hypokeimenon' (Zugrundeliegendes) and 'subjectus' (Untervorfenes).[1]

As an acting social subject, each person has the ability, but not necessarily the capability (because his self is defined by others), to interact with his environment, to define oneself and place himself in relation to other acting social subjects.

The recognition and acceptance of defining oneself and placing oneself by other subjects is not given, but it is directly related to their dialogical relationship, and is the result of the dialogue between them.

In other words, if social subjects are defining themselves by bringing forward their differences – or broadly speaking, through invoking diversity – then recognizing diversity is not a priori given, but is related to the dialogical relationship between the subjects.

Thinking rationally and engaging in dialogue are human qualities and anthropological categories and, in this sense, they are universal. This is the minimum assumption that I as a person am entitled to have for my fellow man. Retreating behind this anthropological assumption means that I do not recognize my interlocutor as a person (as human dignity) and therefore I can treat him/her as an object.

Man is a rational being, but does not think or always act rationally, because as a man he is not only governed by rational thinking, but also by feelings and desires.

Man is also a dialogical being, but that does not mean he or she wants and always seeks dialogue. To touch upon a recent and relevant example, Jihadists do not engage in dialogue with their fellow men, because dialogue means use of logical thinking and rational arguments. To interact (not engage in dialogue) with their environment, Jihadists use weapons.

Such extreme behaviors and fundamentalism in general, clearly demonstrate the limits of discourse on acknowledgement and acceptance of the diversity of the other.

There are, however, mild social situations also where the request for acknowledgement and acceptance of diversity do not result in conflicts, but lead to contradictions creating dilemmas for social groups or society as a whole.

The emergence of the axiom to the 'right to difference' and the subsequent invocation of this axiom, in some cases lead to confusion and contradictory situations. For example, invoking the right to a different education for different groups of people in order to cultivate their diversity, can lead to marginalization of different individuals and therefore to a violation of the principle of equality, but also limit the freedom of individuals to choose whatever form of education they want. In short, the axiomatic right to being different would, in its specific application, collide with values of equality and freedom.

Such confusions and contradictions occur, due to some extent, to the insufficient clarification and delimitation of the concepts of difference and diversity and their opposing terms: similarity and identity. That is why it is deemed necessary to rethink and clarify them.

Identity, diversity, difference

First, let's point out that conceptual confusions can also arise through the translation of a word from one language to another and furthermore through the uncritical transfer of a term, and in general through an approach from one ethnic and sociocultural context to another.

The conceptual problems arising from translation and transfer are already obvious in the title of this presentation. The term 'diversity management' refers to the English term 'diversity management' or 'managing diversity,' which essentially comes from the field of business and has recently been applied, as an approximation, lightly also in education.[2]

To therefore avoid misunderstandings and alien to our intentions expectations on the part of listeners/readers, we clarify beforehand that by the term diversity management we mean the methods and practices of use, handling, and treatment of diversity and identity by the people themselves but also by their partners in dialogue and communication. We also aim to use the terms as analytical tools by scientists.

In the case of scientific use of those terms we are interested in their effectiveness, i.e. their analytical power. On the contrary, we are not interested in the efficiency of diversity management in business settings, because as a business approach, diversity management is not concerned with the development of people, but with issues touching upon business strategies and increase of productivity. In this sense, it is all about taking a 'utilitarian stance on diversity' for the sake of productivity.[3] Let as reconsider the terms of identity, diversity, and difference.

We take it as a fact that between identity and difference there is a direct link and that the term of identity cannot exist without the idea of difference, because what gives to every human individual identity is what sets him apart from others. The difference, the non-identical (e.g. our personal life story) is what gives us individual identity.

On the other hand, things that are similar, the common elements are those that make up and define a collective identity. Similar and different elements, therefore, are inherent to the concept of identity.

But what is the relationship between the terms of diversity and difference?

Often, in the international literature, and even more so in Greek literature, the terms are used as synonyms, which makes the texts hard to understand.

The terms of diversity and difference are related, but not synonymous. In fact, diversity is an overlying term while difference an underlying one. The first is 'genus' and the second is 'type' (see Anastasiadis, 2011:276). According to C. Rosado (2006:6), diversity means the sum of differences people bring to an organization or group.

For example, the terms 'Heritage Language' in Canada and LOTE (Language Other Than English) in Australia, refer collectively to the linguistic diversity in the two countries, i.e. any language other than English, or French for Canada.[4]

Like identity, as a general concept, which is composed of individual identities (racial, ethnic, religious, professional, etc.), diversity, as an antonym term, is composed by many differences.

Which difference prevails each time – and possibly functions as a genus, and which types are included are defined by specific historical and social circumstances. Nowadays, for example, diversity is primarily religious, specifically Islamic. And in this diversity specific Islamic trends are included – such as Shiites, Sunnis, Salafis etc., and even in combination with the respective ethnic background of the believers.

Each dominant diversity is related to a specific historical and social context and may appear as a differentiated or undifferentiated concept.

Processes for the recognition and 'management' of diversity – from the perspective of the dominant group

Undifferentiated differences

Taking Germany as an example, we find that from the late 1950s until the early 1970s the others, i.e. non-German workers, were the so-called Gastarbeiter (guest laborers, mainly from the south-European countries).

Later, all the *different* populations were called Ausländer (foreigners). The term Ausländer condenses all the national, ethnic, religious, and linguistic diversity, in an undifferentiated and leveling manner. For example, the language of the Kurds from Turkey was not treated as different from the 'national' Turkish language and was not taught.[5]

Examples of undifferentiated differences can be found today in the Greek educational system, such as Reception Classes for children of immigrants without knowledge of Greek and Integration Classes for children with special educational needs. For economic and organizational reasons, Reception Classes for immigrants do not operate at present, but instead, students from immigrant backgrounds are included in the Integration Classes. Thus, the integration classes mark a kind of total diversity, composed of divergent differences (such as language, learning, cognitive, behavioral differences, etc.). All 'different' student populations are uniformly included in the same educational measure of 'external differentiation,' which aims at learning homogenization.

In Germany, in the decades from 1960 to 1970, children of *Ausländers* were called *Ausländerkinder* and their training was theorized by the so-called *Ausländerpädagogik* (Pedagogy of Foreigners). A pedagogical approach was developed along the lines of 'deficit hypothesis,' remedial measures, and assimilation of all different populations (regardless of individual differences) into the mainstream.

Later, scientists and politicians moved towards more differentiated terms and pedagogical approaches, such as, for example, 'Kinder mit Migrationshintergrund'

(children with a migrant background; in this population children of German origin but with a migration background could be integrated too), 'Multilinguale, multiethnische Gesellshaft' (multilingual, multiethnic society), 'Interkulturelle Pädagogik, Pädagogik der Vielfalt' (Intercultural Pedagogy, Pedagogy of Cultural Multiplicity) etc.

Similar developments can be seen in other European countries, including Greece. The transition from the '*deficit hypothesis*' and assimilation countermeasures to the '*difference hypothesis*' and the Pedagogy of Cultural Multiplicity characterizes the evolution of the concept of diversity in central and northern Europe.

Diversity vs. identity

Of course, in the 50-year-or-more course of diversity in European Nation-States the concept of (national) identity and the consequent sense of homogeneity were always present and functioned as a counterweight.

In Germany, for example, diversity was initially perceived as a transient phenomenon that does not threaten the national uniformity, because the Gastarbeiter were guests and thus would leave. Later, when it was realized that they wouldn't leave and hence the presence of Ausländer was a permanent phenomenon, in response an assimilation policy was created and through it the safeguarding of national homogeneity.

When the notion of multiculturalism became deeply embedded, the idea of a 'dominant culture' or 'Culture Guide' (Leitkultur) was created as counterweight. Yes, there may be many cultures, but only one is dominant, which may serve as a rule and guide for all; namely the German culture (die deutsche Leitkultur).

Today, in response to the atrocities of the Islamic State (IS) and the action of Jihadists in European countries (see the case of Charlie Hebdo, on 01/07/2015 in Paris), we tend to regress to a state in which identity and diversity, Christianity and Islam no longer are in a dialogical-developmental relationship, but in conflict. This is because the general socio-political and geo-political developments are in conflict.

The case of Charlie Hebdo highlights the limits of dialogue between two worlds with opposing, if not mutually exclusive values. On the one side is the free (and at times unlimited) expression and on the other fundamentalism: dogmatic, blind adherence to the Prophet of God, who is not even allowed to be illustrated.[6]

Diversity and the collective request for recognition and equality

Depending on the occasional social dynamics, diversity in general, and individual differences, in particular, can be invisible and silent or stand in the foreground. As a rule, diversity becomes socially important when paired with collective demands and above all with the request for recognition and equality, which in fact refers to relationships and power structures (see Auernheimer, 2010; Christopoulos, 2009:96).

Speaking in scientific terms, *diversity* becomes theoretically intriguing the moment it claims an equal conceptual status to that of *identity*. The recognition and acceptance of the concept of diversity as equal to the sense of identity amounts to a paradigm shift and can lead to unprecedented social upheavals.

In the case of gender relations, for example, the recognition of homosexual couples as equal to heterosexual ones implies the equal application of family law in both cases. The case that recognition of homosexuality does not, necessarily, mean equal treatment, emerged during the debate on the *'civil partnership agreement'* in Greece.

In December 2014, the minister of justice made a statement on marriage between couples of the same gender: "I won't discuss this; it's inconceivable." It was thus a recognition under certain conditions; not based on equal rights (see www.tanea.gr/news/greece/article/5185659/athanasioy /, access 23/03/2015).

The above example shows that at least when we analyze a social and political act, we should differentiate between recognition and management of diversity. The recognition of diversity does not imply equal treatment let alone acceptance. Also, recognition of diversity does not simultaneously imply recognition of the ways in which this diversity may be expressed.

In the case of religion, recognition of religious diversity would mean, for example, recognition of Islam as the official church in Germany by the Catholic, evangelical, and Orthodox Church.

The fact that a recognition process, and especially its application, is difficult and time-consuming, is evident in the debate which began in January 2010 in Germany, when the then Federal President (Bundespräsident) Wulf said that "Der Islam gehört zu Deutschland" (Islam belongs to Germany), which rekindled a debate four years later, when Chancellor Merkel has adopted this position.

"Islam does not belong to Germany, but Muslims living in Germany." This is the contrary position of the most moderate German politicians (see, e.g., the statements of the Prime Minister of Saxony, Stanislaw Tillich [CDU] in the newspaper DIE WELT, www.welt.de/politik, access 03/23/2015).

Individual and collective recognition of diversity

These two positives, but mutually opposing views refer to two different levels of recognition of diversity: the individual (Muslim believers belong in Germany) and the general collective (Islam as a total otherness belongs in Germany). Recognition, at a collective level, is socio-politically difficult because it is usually associated with collective demands.

Both views are refuted by the movement Pegida (Patriotische Europäer gegen die Islamisierung des Abendlandes – Europeans Patriots against the Islamization of the West), which grows mainly in Saxony and warns against the 'Islamization' of the Christian west.[7]

In this difficult debate over Islam and whether it belongs or not in Germany (at a collective level), German attention turns to Islamic organizations and in particular to the way they will manage the religious (Islamic) identity (collective

management) which, considered from the perspective of the ruling Christian group, is characterized as religious diversity.

Functions of ethnicity – from the perspective of the minority group: experiences from the project 'Greek education abroad'[8]

The issue of diversity (in the sense that, for example, the Greek origin population in the US is not entirely the same as those on the Black Sea) originally set by the very members of diaspora (communities, church, educational institutions).

To therefore avoid theoretical dead-ends, and any practical consequences, we adopted both terms as analytical tools. On the one hand, we used the term ethno-cultural identity (the quality of being Greek) to express the minimum common ethno-cultural elements of Greek origin populations in the diaspora. And on the other hand, we used the term diversity as the sum of the differences that occur in the Greek diaspora.[9]

The main object of our investigations was the analysis and understanding of the way expatriates/compatriots (Greeks) define themselves and view themselves in relation to: non-ethnic peers; people of the same ethnicity in their community; the metropolitan (national) center.

We are limiting ourselves to illustrating our research results regarding the question: What are the functions of ethno-cultural identity in the diaspora? How do entities taking part in it manage it to make sense for themselves? However, before presenting the results it should be noted that the social and political act that the dominant group considers as diversity and managing diversity, for the minority group is all about identity and identity management.[10]

Enriching function

Starting from America in the first three decades of the 20th century, we find that Greek immigrants reacted to the restrictive immigration policy, which in 1924 resulted in the adoption of the restrictive Law of the Reed-Johnson Act (see Michopoulos, 2014), and the racist climate formed by the actions of Ku Klux Klan, by establishing two organizations: *American Hellenic Educational Progressive Association* (AHEPA), 1922, and the *Greek American Progressive Association* (GAPA), *1923.*

The first was aimed at "supporting and promoting pure and uncontaminated Americanism among the United States Greeks" (Kitroeff, 2002:375) and the acquisition of American citizenship.

In contrast, the second organization, "gave greater emphasis to the need to preserve Greek heritage," but disagreed with the acquisition of American citizenship (ibid, p. 376).

This followed the 1917 renaming of *Socrates' School* in Chicago (founded in 1908) from '*Greek Community School*' to '*Greek-American-School*,' with a bilingual program from then on.[11]

Through these actions, the Greeks pursued a double goal: to bring together the community, on the one hand, and to bring about processes of integration in the American society, on the other. In other words, ethnicity is working, on the one hand, in a cohesive and compensatory way against oppressive and assimilative politics and, on the other hand, in an inclusive and non-separative manner.

Theoretically speaking, it could have worked not in a compensatory-inclusive manner, but in a compensatory-separative manner. But the belief in the 'American dream' and the subsequent possibilities of social advancement seem to have prompted the Greeks to a shift from Greek to Greek American identity. That is, in an identity that was not only Greek or only American, but a synthesis of the two, and, in this sense, an overlying identity.[12]

As Kitroeff (2004) informs us, the historical course of events led, by the latest, in the 1990s, in a multiple management of ethno-cultural identity, in the sense that others link their ethnicity with ancient Greek culture (with or without language), others only with Orthodox Church belief (usually without language), and some others with modern Greece. However, all these forms of management function in the logic of an enriching and non-obligatory character of ethnic identity[13] and are associated with the individual's right to distinguish oneself from others and create his/her own self.

Today the function of ethno-cultural identity of Greek Americans is primarily additive-enriching. Ethnic identity complements and enriches the US identity, which has primarily political characteristics.

Compensatory function

Examining people of Greek origin in the former Soviet Union we find that in the 1920s and until the mid-1930s, thanks to the ethnic policy of the Soviet Union, the Greeks have organizations, educational institutions, theaters, publishing houses etc. In other words, they cultivate their ethnicity in conjunction with the 'socialist ideals' of the October Revolution.

However, during the Stalinist period, especially after 1937, ethnicity now works compensatory and defensive towards the assimilative and repressive policies of the Stalinist regime. That is, on the one hand, it seeks to provide protection and warmth to members of Greek Communities and preserve their cohesion, and on the other, copes with the oppressive politics of the ruling power, which remind anyone ethnically different, that they are strangers and unwanted. This exclusion of ethnically different populations strengthens the notion of diversity and turns it to a defense mechanism.[14]

After 1990 there has been a change in the management of ethnic and cultural identity but with a strong influence of past experiences (see Papalexopoulou, 2013).

Instrumental/utilitarian function

To the above two functions of ethnicity (enriching and compensatory), a third one is added, namely that of instrumental/utilitarian, which is linked more to the

promotion of collective and/or individual interests. A classic case of a utilitarian identity or diversity (depending on the perspective) is the 'Parents' Associations' of a population of Greek people in Germany. The Boards of Directors of these Associations citing '*national identity*' in their talks with the Greek government and educational services, and their '*cultural diversity*,' in their talks with the German authorities, promoted, and imposed the idea of establishing purely Greek schools in Germany. The real, utilitarian motivation behind this policy of the parents was, and still is, the easy access of their children to Greek universities.

The above examples clearly illustrate the way recognition and management of identity/diversity process are evolving and the way their functions are developing. And it could not be otherwise, because the concepts of identity and diversity are not static but dynamic.

Relationship between functions of ethnicity and politics for diversity

Although the relationship between the 'functions of ethnicity' and the 'politics of diversity' (on the part of the dominant group) is not linear, it seems that in conditions where the individual and the group enjoy recognition, acceptance, freedom, and equality, and therefore the social mobility is not affected by ethnicity, ethnicity functions additively and in an enriching manner.

On the contrary, in situations of oppression, persecution, discrimination, and social exclusion ethnicity seems to work compensatory and as a defense mechanism.

The dialogical subject and diversity in modern societies

In summarizing these thoughts, I will attempt to highlight some other aspects of diversity, this time in relation to people and their importance for pedagogical theory.

Identity and diversity, sameness and difference, go together, because, as mentioned above, the very individual identity is determined and emerges through the invocation of differences.

On the other hand, diversity can exist beyond and independently from identity, but emerges through the comparison and confrontation with identity.

Each term stands for an approach. Identity stands for 'we': something which is the same and ours. In contrast, diversity signals this which is not ours, which is different and foreign. And, as Julia Kristeva points out, (although she says the foreign element lies within our very selves), "*for a stranger we can only supply a negative definition*." A stranger is "*he who is not part of the team, he who 'is not an insider,' the other*" (Kristeva, 2004:123). In this sense the term diversity can be accompanied from the outset by negative characteristics.

As shown previously, social identity and otherness, self, and other don't seem to be treated equally. And if we, as educators, come up with a pedagogic rhetoric on the acknowledgement and acceptance or just tolerance of diversity, it does not mean that educational practice works along the lines of such rhetoric.

Instead, there seems to be a contradiction between theoretical imperatives and social and educational practice which, to a large extent, depends on the wording of imperatives and methods for their implementation.

There is a significant difference between (a) proclaiming, at a social level, the 'right to difference' as an axiom and then using it to as the aim of educating the individual, so that it adopts and internalizes this axiom and (b) accepting differences as social data and on this basis aim to make the person able to critically analyze and understand these differences. Through processes of critical analysis, reflection, and synthesis to decide each time voluntarily and consciously, which differences will be recognized, and probably accepted (recognition does not mean acceptance), and which discarded. Obviously, we are dealing with two different sets of aims.

The first is socio-political and seeks a minimum common ground and consensus in a society of multiple diversities. This minimum consensus may be just tolerance of differences.

In the second case, the aims are essentially pedagogical and regard the person, who through dialogical relationship with similar and different others, develops the ability to analyze, understand, and reject or accept differences.

The above two sets of aims seem contradictory at first. But in fact, they act complementary and, in this sense, there is no question of rejecting one or the other, but putting forward one over the other. They function in a complementary way, because the subject as a dialogical being has no meaning outside society with other (similar or different) subjects. The dialogical subject is nourished and evolves especially through dialogue with the other, the different.

In each community, or society, the *other* functions for the subject as a dialogical partner, but does not mean that he or she is a priori acceptable. As subject, I have no benefit in rejecting a dialogical partner, because if I totally reject my partner, at the same time, I reject any opportunity for dialogue and self-realization.

On the other hand, which of the aspects of the diversity of the other will be recognized and accepted and which rejected is based on my critical, reflective, and synthetic discourse and should not be externally imposed on me.

The dialogical subject is not so much characterized by the properties of identity or diversity, given by collective entities and institutions in his/her environment, but from his or her own subjectivity.

Identity and diversity are at large socially determined. In pre-modern societies identity is directly connected with the social position of people in the family, the class in which they are born. A person comprises of the collective entities in which he or she was born and socialized.

Individuality (as a component of identity) is a creation of modernity and is accompanied, except from individual freedoms, by important rights for one's survival, such as: the right to education, health, work, and home.

In late modern societies access to these social goods is not taken for granted, but it is individually claimed. In modern societies, social goods are privatized and the private individual sphere shrinks and becomes public – the social media play a significant role in this.

Access to previously social, yet now privatized, goods is only guaranteed through a continuous and uninterrupted race (of every individual), core elements of which are: personal worthiness, efficiency, competitiveness, flexibility, and generally the efforts of the person to distinguish from others. According to Tsoukalas (2010:131), "*Whoever does succeed in distinguishing from others should have to pay the expected price*."

As it is manifested in the texts of many contemporary social scientists,[15] especially those of Ulrich Beck, the main characteristics of modern societies are: risk (Risikogesellschaft, Beck, 1986) and individualization (not atomization) (Beck & Beck-Gernsheim, 1993, 1994).

Individualization foremost means dissolution, (Auflösung) of life forms of the industrial society and secondly reintegration (replacement) (Ablösung) with others, in which the same individuals must construct, direct, and assemble their personal biography. The term '*normal biography*' (Normabiographie) is changed into '*chosen biography*' (Wahlbiographie), '*reflective biography*' (reflexive Biographie), '*assembled biography*' (Bastelbiographie) (Beck & Beck-Gernsheim, 1993:179, 1994:13).

Individualization is not based on the free will of the individual but takes place within government requirements and regulations and is a 'paradoxical compulsion' (paradoxer Zwang). However, the individual bears the sole responsibility for what happens (Beck & Beck-Gernsheim, 1993:179 ff).

In case of failure people seek responsibility in themselves thus they accuse, mutilate, and deny themselves and become a kind of negative copy of themselves. In the words of Zima, the person is not an active self-determined subject (hypokeimenon), but a passive subject determined by others (subjectus).

The "*invention of diversity*," speaking in the language of K. Tsoukalas (2010), should be treated critically. This is because the requests made in the discourse on otherness are disconnected from the modernist values of social solidarity and justice and "*are aligned with the effects of globalization, the collapse of closed political entities, the weakening of stable national identities and the disintegration of the Welfare State. The fact that the 'right to diversity' seems disconnected from social justice and the right to survival is not a coincidence*" (Tsoukalas, 2010, back cover).

The connection of *'the right to difference'* and *'self-differentiation'* with '*personal risk'* is another aspect of discourse on diversity in modern societies. The *right to difference* and *self-differentiation* are disconnected from collective entities and social solidarity and tend to become a threat to the subject. The discourse of otherness, in this specific version, is disruptive and may become destructive for the subjects if they are not able to constantly and continually prove their worthiness, competitiveness, productivity, and adaptability.

This situation of risk should be conscious in the evolving subject and be part of his/her analytical, reflective, and synthetic discourse (thinking).

In modern societies, comprising of various diversities, and a multitude of choices, it is not enough for a subject to be open, flexible, and cosmopolitan, but it must be primarily critical, reflective, and synthetic, to be able to analyze, assess, and understand many choices, to select those he/she feels are good and

synthesize them so that they operate based on the dialogical relationship with the sociocultural environment and self-realization through this relationship.

In other words, if in modern societies, the right to difference is linked to individual risk taking and exclusive individual responsibility for any risks and dangers, then the subject should be at least able to understand[16] and analyze these risks, but also make them the subject of discussion with other subjects and possibly develop joint strategies against an 'invented otherness' which leads to the degradation and alienation of the subject.

In this sense, then, the educational challenge in modern societies of multiplicity, personalization, and risks is the emergence of a critical, reflective, and synthesizing subject; in short the dialogical subject and the dialogical subjectivity.

Dialogical subjectivity means that the subject has the ability to define herself/himself, find its own place in the world, be a member or keep a distance from a reference group, accept or reject rules and demands, consent or disagree and live in harmony or in tension with the sociocultural environment.

Notes

1 Regarding the theory of the interactive subject, see Peter V. Zima (2000, especially chapter V) and understanding and application by M. Damanakis (2007, chapter 7).

2 About this problematic implementation See Auernheimer's criticism, magazine: Erwägen, Wissen, Ethik, Jg. 21/2010, Heft 2. In this issue, a variety of European scientists discusses the pedagogical views of Georg Auerheimer, one of the pioneers of Intercultural Education in Germany but also in Europe. In this sense, the issue is a kind of intermediate review of the discussion in Germany about diversity, recognition, equality, multiculturalism, interculturalism, Intercultural Education.

3 The literature on managing diversity is infinite; this is why we indicatively limit ourselves to the website of European Diversity Research & Consulting, www.european-divesrsity.com, which provides some initial information and a general picture to the reader and we also refer to a relevant European-Commission website, www.ec.europa.eu/justice/discrimination/diversity/index_en.htm.

4 Regarding language diversity in the two countries and ways to deal with it (relevant language politicies) we refer to the following indicative literature: for Canada: Cummins and Danesi (1990); Cummins (1999, 2014); and Trifonas and Aravossitas (2014) and for Australia: Lo Bianco (1987); Clyne (1991); and Arvanitis et al. (2014). Regarding the language diversity in Greece, see for example KEMO (2001).

5 To distinguish between different modes of linguistic diversity management in education during this period in Europe, we can see four emerging models: the 'community model,' under which the language of immigrants is a matter for themselves, their community, and therefore the host country is not directly involved (applies mainly to England, France, and Belgium); the 'national model' under which the official (national) language of the country of origin is recognized and supported by the host country (applied to several states of Germany); the model of 'family language' (Hemsprak) which supports the teaching of the language spoken in the family, in case there is a relevant request (applied in Sweden). There is also an intermediate model (e.g. in Denmark) in which languages officially taught in the State of origin are supported by the host country (see Boos-Nünning et al., 1983).

6 Debate around the face and its illustration, and even more its concealment, always remains a current and interesting issue. According to the Western way of thinking, what is the meaning of concealing one's face? And if the right to concealing one's face is recognized, what are the limits of its application to the public sphere?
7 S. Tillich, Prime Minister of Saxony, must surely be having this movement in mind when he made this statement.
8 The 'Expatriate Education' program was funded by the Ministry of Education and the European Union and was implemented by partners of the 'Laboratory of Intercultural and Migration Studies' (EDIAMME) of the University of Crete in the period 1997–2008. Its chief goal was the development of training materials for teaching abroad the subjects of 'Greek Language' and 'Elements of History and Culture' and the training of teachers.
9 Individual differences in environments of diaspora relate to the sociocultural meeting procedures and interaction in every host country and their outcomes, which in fact differ spatially and temporally.
10 At the latest at this point the reader/listener could criticize us, that we methodologically analyze social processes in a multicultural environment, with terms which are tautological and that only according to the point of view we call them 'identity management' or 'diversity management.' There is actually an issue that has to do with an approach to diversity in terms of identity, i.e. as another type of identity; a possible way to resolve this, according to S. Mesure and A. Renaut (2005), through the "modern mechanism of differentiated identity." That is, through the effort, "to let the difference reemerge." This was destroyed by modernity for the sake of similarity and equality MD "a component of identity, but without cultivating inequalities all over again" (Mesure & Renaut, 2005:92). About understanding diversity in terms of identity see also Papataxiarchis (2006:29 ff).
11 The name of the current operator of the same school is: "Hellenic-American Academy of Chicagoland" (see. Seloúntou, 2009).
12 Let us emphasize that in situations of identity conflicts, a way to get over a conflict is to create a higher-level of identity, e.g. creating a European identity to overcome the conflict between national identities.
13 About the optional character of ethnic identity in the US see. M.G. Waters (1990). And on the evolution of Greek ethnic identity in the US see Kourvetaris (1997), especially chapters 3 and 9.
14 About Greeks in the former Soviet Union we indicatively cite studies of: M. Karpozilou (1991); K. Fotiadis (1990, 1999); and I. Chassiótis (1997).
15 See, for example, Beck (1986); Beck and Beck-Gernsheim (1993, 1994, 2002); Giddens (1991); Tsoukalás (2010) (and cited literature), Mouzelis (2014).
16 At this point it should be emphasized that Beck himself and Beck-Gernsheim (1994:35) see two possibilities in terms of social cohesion in highly 'personalized' communities: on the one hand realization (Einsicht) of this situation and, on the other, the ability to mobilize people and create incentives to deal with the challenges that were at the center of their lives.

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12 Evolution in terms of theoretical conceptualization of translanguaging in Applied Linguistics

The example of Greek and French language classrooms

Hélène Vasilopoulou

Introduction

The main target of the present chapter is to look at the theoretical conceptualization of translanguaging. This concept has been widely used during the last couple of years; however, it seems there is some confusion with its meaning and use.

The term translanguaging can be found in a context of Linguistics, Applied Linguistics, and, more recently, also Neurolinguistics and Intercultural Teaching Studies.

In the present chapter, translanguaging will be defined with regard to Second Language Teaching within the European frame of interculturality at school, an outcome of immigration and globalization. Our aim is to highlight the most important features of the notion as far as Applied Linguistics (Didactics) is concerned and try to replace its meaning within the context of superdiversity. Language teaching in Greek and French schools shall provide the ground for us to examine the ways translanguaging can be associated to language learning.

Definitions

The term translanguaging was conceptualized in Wales, by Cen Williams in 1980 as '*trawsieithu*.' Translated first by "*translinguifying*," it eventually became "*translanguaging*" in the nineties.

> 'Translanguaging' was invented by Cen Williams, but is linked to Jacobson's (1990) concept of purposeful concurrent uses of two languages in a bilingual classroom and Faltis' (1990) discussion of 16 cues for switching the language medium of teaching. However, Williams (1996) emphasized that translanguaging refers to a different use of the two languages from that outlined by Jacobson and Faltis, a skill that is natural for any bilingual individual: "translanguaging entails using one language to reinforce the other in

> order to increase understanding and in order to augment the pupil's ability in both languages."
>
> (Williams, 1996:40 in Lewis et al., 2012:4)

Etymologically speaking, translanguaging is composed by the prefix trans-that indicates 'a progress through,' followed by the word 'language' and the 'ing' ending which indicates a process in progress. Translanguaging was first used so as to encourage local bilingualism (in Wales) and to throw light on the bilingual approach to communication developed among the participants. Several other terms have been connected with translanguaging within the frame of bilingual educational contexts. García and Leiva (2013) have listed some of them and connected them with translanguaging, a comprehensive term which has become accepted by most: *flexible bilingualism* (Blackledge & Creese, 2010), *heteroglossia* (Bailey, 2007), *polylingualism* (Jørgensen, 2008), *metrolingualism* (Otsuji & Pennycook, 2010), and *code meshing* (Canagarajah, 2011).

> A term that has become widely accepted is *translanguaging* (TL), which was initially posited by the Welsh educator, Colin Williams (1996) and developed by García (2009) and many others, including Blackedge and Creese (2010); Canagarajah (2011); Hornberger and Link (2012); and Lewis et al. (2012).
>
> (García and Levina, 2013)

It seems that several academics and linguists around the globe have been interested in translanguaging; however, each of them has recognized various characteristics associated with it and given different definitions to the concept. Nowadays, Professor Joëlle Aden, uses the term '*translangager*' in French so as to make it clear in French that the notion is not static – which is obvious in English thanks to the 'ing' ending. The infinitive used in French indicates the performance of an action, associated to the concept of '*énaction*' of Francisco Varela. Varela insists on the auto poetic and bodily dimension of the acquisition of all knowledge. Last December, during a conference in Paris, called "*Médiations et Performance: innover en Didactique des langues*" translanguaging was for the first time called 'Translagageance' or 'Transcodage' by Eschenauer (2014). The new French naming insists perhaps on the importance of the French '*langage*,' a decodable system of signs, rather than 'language' in the process of translanguaging. More recently, Blackledge and Creese refer to translanguaging as being a rather outdated term, just like Polylingualism and Metrolingualism, terms that might as well be discarded. In order to refer to the interaction between bilingual or multilingual individuals in a communication context, they prefer the term 'Heteroglossia,' a concept which, according to the authors, can be used to indicate "who is speaking which language to whom" taking in consideration our superdiverse society.

Most researchers mention translanguaging either as a pedagogy or a strategy. Sometimes it is also mentioned as a mechanism, process, or technique. According to Williams' (1996:64)

> translanguaging means that you receive information through the medium of one language (e.g., English) and use it yourself through the medium of the other language (e.g. Welsh). Before you can use that information successfully, you must have fully understood it.
>
> (Williams, 1996 in Lewis et al., 2012:33)

Williams describes a perusing and producing process which involves the use of two different languages; although the definition is clear, it of course, refers to a standard situation in language teaching and learning which is not new.

Moreover, Thomas (2004:35) defines translanguaging as "the skill of summarizing information from one language into another" while Blackledge and Creese (2010) consider translanguaging as an effective bilingual instructional technique emphasizing on language ecology perspective and superdiversity, a notion that we will get back to.

> For García (2013), translanguaging is not a mere strategy. It comprises a bilingual theory of learning, especially for language-minoritized populations. In fact, translanguaging becomes the framework for conceptualizing the education of bilinguals as a democratic endeavor for social justice (García, 2013). Teaching practices that jeopardize this reality essentially undermine the right to learn of language-minority children.
>
> (Velasco & García, 2014:7)

Eventually, Baker (2011:288) defines translanguaging as "the process of making meaning, shaping experiences, gaining understanding and knowledge through the use of two languages."

Main characteristics

One of the most important characteristics of translanguaging is its connection with bilingualism. According to Baker,

> The term 'trawsieithu' (translanguaging) was initially coined to name a pedagogical practice which deliberately switches the language mode of input and output in bilingual classrooms: "translanguaging means that you receive information through the medium of one language (e.g. English) and use it yourself through the medium of the other language (e.g. Welsh). Before you can use that information successfully, you must have fully understood it" (Williams, 1996:64). The term remains an important feature of Welsh bilingual education, having also been adopted in other parts of the world as a key modern concept in some bilingual classrooms and communities (García, 2009) "capturing the imagination of those who believe that teachers and particularly students naturally use both languages to maximize learning."
>
> (Baker, 2011:288)

Translanguaging is then a process that rejects monolingual practices. It is used as a communicative tool that permits the transfer of linguistic codes – carriers of cultural signs – from one language to another (two language interchange or code-switching) through translation. Therefore, we should insist on the fact that translanguaging isn't a simple cognitive process of translation. It is about moving through languages, shaping meanings between them. What is more, the linguistic and cultural distinctiveness of each student is in contact and reacts with those of all the others; as a result they create new networks of communication and sense based on the interlanguages of the students, and gives way to a new, flexible, and non-conformist 'langage' (rather than language). We should consequently focus on the pluringual and translingual use of translanguaging, which is essential taking into consideration the current contexts in which students and professors are called to respond. Bilingual contexts can't really be bilingual; on the contrary, they are superdiverse.

It is also a fact that translanguaging is considered to be similar to code-switching, which is a bilingual activity to which speakers are engaged in passing from one language to another, more specifically from their native language to the target language. What should be clear is that although translanguaging and code-switching seem to have many similarities as part of multilingual practices, they also seem to be different as far as the creation of a space is concerned. Speakers who translanguage proceed in actions of language from one linguistic repertory to others. This space is the cognitive place which speakers construct by talking, writing, and consequently, communicating, through a process of crossing languages and in the same time, of associating this process to their personal linguistic and cultural history.

Intercomprehension is a multilingual practice used between speakers of related languages. Even if it is mainly considered as a method applied to adults' education so as to reinforce comprehension between the native language and the target language, it cannot be related to translanguaging as another multilingual practice. Intercomprehension refers to speakers of related languages. Translanguaging, on the other hand, concerns also languages of different linguistic families, which should be more thoroughly examined.

Superdiversity: the examples of French and Greek schools

Nowadays, schools all over the world are characterized as diverse because of different nationalities of students that attend classes. The mobility of populations across the years – mainly from the East to the West – has contributed to an ever-changing system. The school systems and curricula are being continuously reformed while the school context is being modified.

Has school really adapted to the changing conditions? School is a microcosm that echoes everything that happens in society. The concepts of mobility and immigration are associated to what we call translanguaging. Societies tend to be more and more heterogeneous; this is what exactly happens with school. A classroom consists of students with different linguistic and cultural

backgrounds who 'move' from their own language to another – or to several others – as well.

Consequently, we assume that, at school too, we face up to an era where superdiverse contexts are more and more obvious.

> This phenomenon has resulted in new demographic patterns of migration and post-migration, termed 'superdiversity', and characterized by a dynamic interplay of variables among an increased number of multiple origins, transnationally connected, socio-economically differentiated and legally stratified immigrants and their families.
>
> (Blackedge and Creese, 2015:1)

Vertovec (2007:1045) talks about "new experiences of space and 'contacts'" in superdiverse contexts explaining that regular contacts between different groups of people could increase mutual respect. A superdiverse context could refer to schools where students with various linguistic and cultural backgrounds come together either sharing their heritage or not, if the proper conditions are not developed. To clarify the concept of superdiversity at schools, we will focus on French and Greek schools in order to present their profiles concerning a) diverse contexts and b) difficulties that appear and which prevent multilingual practices or recognition of different linguistic and cultural backgrounds in classrooms despite the efforts of educators.

France is a country with more than 64 million people. Among them, five to six million are immigrants. What is interesting in the school context is that even if someone acquires the French nationality, he/she (or rather his or her children) remains an immigrant (Hélot, 2004, 2007). In reference to French school, Coste (2002) states:

> It is the school that has played and continues to play a significant role in national unification and the fact that linguistic unity is the lever for this unification marks "the divorce between school and pluringualism." And he adds: it is not surprising that the multilingual capital of the school population with various origins is often negligible or ignored by the educational institution.
>
> (Coste, 2002 in Hélot, 2008:95, author's translation)

The equality of opportunities or "*egalité des chances*" at French schools, for which a huge campaign has been declared from the French Ministry of Education, is not always what it seems.

> French people with immigrant origins have grown up in families where the French language was not spoken much. . . . These families, with very little resources, were obliged to stay at cities or regions where the access to school was difficult. French citizens with immigrant origins became part of what we call 'Zone prioritaire' or 'ZEP' (Priority Zone in English) contrary to the other French citizens. The gap, in terms of achievement, between

> the two groups is not a matter of origin but, rather an indicator of problematic conditions at school.
>
> (Cahiers Français, 2015:46–47, author's translation)

We should also refer to the fact that the French Ministry of Education has changed the names of the classes in which immigrant pupils can learn French, from "*classes d'accueil*" to "*Unités Pédagogiques.*" They are essentially attended by those students that have primarily arrived to France in order to foster assimilation. Therefore, there is no particular focus on the linguistic or cultural heritage of these populations within this frame, whatever its name.

The research program '*Praxiling*' (2015–20) taken by the University Paul Valéry at Montpellier (www.praxiling.fr/projet-praxiling-2015-2020.html?lang=fr) has already started research on the '*Travellers*' – who are differentiated from the '*Tziganes*' and the '*Roms*' – of Perpignan, a region of France with a huge diversity and bilingual context. Jeremy Professor Sauvage, who is currently working on "Language and langage appropriation in France," gave a conference in May in Angers, in which he presented the results of his work. According to Professor Sauvage, there is no difference in the production of written speech between Native French and Traveler students, although Travelers do not speak French at home. In some cases the latter's work was even better than the former's. The Travelers, Gypsies or Roma, are bilingual. They speak French as well as their own mother tongue which is only oral. The fact that Travelers use their native language has permitted them better expression in French language. This was an example of translanguaging in classroom. The experience was based on language switching as the students were required to transfer words and patterns from their language to French.

Greece, a European country affected by the economic crisis, still remains a country with superdiverse contexts and school populations with different origins. Even though significant efforts have been made so as to promote linguistic and cultural diversity at schools, the Greek school context remains monolingual. According to Markou,

> The school applies a monolingual system whose main goal is to 'delibiter' the particularities of immigrants since even in particular cases where their language and culture are used, this is done so as for the students to learn the official language and better integrate to the dominant culture.
>
> (Markou, 2010:32, author's translation)

Immigrant students or students who are born in Greece, might consider the language that they use at home as their native one. In that case, their mother tongue isn't Greek. The situation could become even more complex in the classroom of second language teaching where students with a different linguistic background have to move from one language to another and in most cases, from one language to more languages. Is this process, strategy, or pedagogical theory accepted and developed? There are many researchers in Greece that focus

on plurilingual language teacing contexts, whose efforts could be a step so as to change the existing programs or curricula that are being applied in Greek schools and which – in most cases – do not include translinguistic approaches in the classroom.

Conclusion

In summary, this chapter presented the term "translanguaging", by refering to its main definitions and characteristics. There was also an attempt to focus on the concept of "superdiverity" in schools in France and Greece. This topic is not merely superficial, but a reality; translanguaging should not be limited to bilingual contexts but should be used mainly in pluringual contexts in the classroom.

Taking into consideration all factors and circumstances that have been mentioned above, we can define translanguaging as the continuous action where we construct meaning using various written or oral 'langages'[1] so as to communicate in social contexts and provide mutual education and learning possibilities as well as inclusion in these contexts. This procedure could be more obvious in language teaching classrooms where students could develop different meanings by shaping the 'empty space' which exists between their own native languages (i.e. languages of students with different linguistic and cultural backgrounds, which are not promoted in the classroom), the language of education, as well as the foreign language which they are being taught. As a result, they participate in actions of 'translangager' or 'translangagismes' as we would call them that could be the product of the ability of students to complete the empty spaces between the various 'langages' and meanings in classroom environments. An empty space or '*vacuum*' is a cognitive place that needs to be filled. Referring to school classrooms, this '*vacuum*' could only be filled if certain measures could be taken in terms of a) education policy and b) development of certain translinguistic approaches. Further research should be provided concerning these two factors which could help innovative strategies and pedagogies, such as translanguaging approaches to emerge in language classrooms and be accepted as part of the learning procedure.

Note

1 Every language which possesses its own codes.

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13 Language diversity in three Italian communities in the UK

Heritage languages and code-switching

Margherita Di Salvo

Aims

This chapter aims to reflect on languaging ethnic diversity starting from the analysis of the cultural and symbolic role of the varieties of linguistic repertoires and of code-switching in three Italian communities in the UK, namely Bedford, Cambridge, and Peterborough. We question if and how the use of code-switching reflects the cultural and symbolic role of the varieties. In doing so, we focus on the role of individual variation and on the opportunity of considering the individual scale in the sociolinguistic study of migration.[1]

We focus on the analysis of:

a the sociolinguistic and cultural role of the three varieties in contact (Standard Italian, Italian dialect, and English) in the three communities;
b the different strategies speakers from Bedford, Cambridge, and Peterborough use to code-switch and express their own ethnic and social identities;
c the role of individual variation.

The comparison will be made on the following linguistic variables:

a CS between Standard Italian and Italian dialect;
b CS between a romance variety (Standard Italian/Italian dialect) and English.

All CS will be analyzed in the interactional perspective, introduced by Gumperz (1968, 1982; see also Blom and Gumperz, 1972) and recently applied to the study of some Italian communities abroad (Ciliberti, 2007; De Fina, 2007; Pasquandrea, 2008).

Methods

In order to explore the language use and maintenance in the three communities, an ethnographic approach as applied by sociolinguists in the study of language (Blom & Gumperz, 1972; Milroy, 1987) was adopted. This methodology is based on a combination of participant observation and ethnographic data collection by

means of a questionnaire and also on a set of sociolinguistic audio recordings of spontaneous conversations and qualitative interviews, gathered by the author in Italian. Interviews were informal conversations, and all were recorded after many previous meetings. Therefore, the author was very familiar to the migrants, and the recorded conversation was very informal and spontaneous. The corpus consists of three qualitative interviews gathered from three female speakers (one for each community), who emigrated from Southern Italy in the early 1950s, with a low level of education and married to Italian partners.

The Italian communities of Bedford, Cambridge, and Peterborough

The research was carried out in three Italian communities of South East of England, i.e. those of Bedford, Cambridge, and Peterborough. These communities share the same historical features: they were all established at the end of the Second World War, when the Italian and English governments entered into a contractual agreement to promote Italian migration to England (Colucci, 2009; Sponza, 2005; Guzzo, 2014).

In cities such as Bedford and Peterborough, Italians were recruited for the local brick industry. In the early 1950s hundreds of young males, with a low level of education, left the poor regions of Southern Italy and arrived in England. They were first forced to live in hostels and, only after some years, they were allowed to move into the city center, to buy a house and to be joined by their spouses or fiancés. At the end of the 1950s and in the early 1960s reunifications were numerous and a chain-mechanism started to operate, encouraging a stabilization of Italian presence in these cities. Today in Bedford and in Peterborough there are still thousands of Italians who live and work. Bedford, for example, is the second largest Italian community in England after the one in London.

On the other hand, in Cambridge, Italians were mainly recruited for working in farms in the countryside or as chefs, cleaners, and butlers for local upper-class families. In the first case, migrants were only male and were forced to live in the farms they worked in. In the second, many young women migrated alone and were then joined with their families. Also, in Cambridge, at the end of the 1950s and in the early 1960s, family reunification started, encouraging the presence of chain migrations. However, here the working conditions and the following different kinds of residence (in the countryside, in the house of upper-class families) had at least two important effects on the history of the community. Here, unlike in Bedford and Peterborough, there was no Italian ghetto, and the integration into the host society was faster (Di Salvo, 2012). Here Italians seem to be confused with the English people and with migrants of different origins; their sense of belonging to Italy seems to be disintegrating and their desire of complete integration is emerging.

However, in Bedford and in Peterborough, the feeling of belonging to Italy is also stable in the second and in the third generations (Guzzo, 2014), and it is a

source of pride for older people. So, although Bedford, Cambridge, and Peterborough share the same historical patterns of migration, dynamics of identity seem to diverge.

Status of the linguistic varieties in the three communities

The dynamics of integration in the three communities are reflected by the divergent symbolic and cultural roles that speakers assign to the varieties, whose diverse use and position is symptomatic of the various degree of perceived integration and of the stronger/weaker desire of showing off their Italian/English identity. Previous studies on the first generation, in fact, have shown that English has a secondary role in Bedford and in Peterborough and a more important role in Cambridge, where first generation speakers use this variety to identify themselves and to be identified by others as well integrated into English society. Here, moreover, the use of the Italian dialect is extremely rare because it is considered the symbol of those cultural and economic conditions migrants abandoned in Italy and want to forget. In this sense, Standard Italian is the only Romance variety they consider appropriate, and this is why it is seen as a symbol of the cultural development they had in Cambridge.

In Bedford and Peterborough, however, the Italian dialect, Standard Italian, and English play a different role. English is rare, and it is generally used to mark a quotation or a lexical borrowing, while the Italian dialect is frequently used because it is, mainly in Peterborough, a symbol of internal cohesion of the Italian community and acts as a 'we-code' able to reinforce the feeling of belonging. Its usage, therefore, is not stigmatized as in Cambridge.

So, while in Cambridge there is a sort of double diglossia with Standard Italian and English acting as higher varieties (respectively in opposition to the Italian dialect and Standard Italian), in Bedford and Peterborough there is no tidy separation between the high and low varieties because the Italian dialect, which is considered a 'we-code,' has a strong prestige, i.e. it is used by speakers to mark their internal cohesion and their Italian identity that still remains.

This different symbolic and cultural role has an impact on the different use of CS and on the strategies migrants adopt to express their identity in everyday life. In this chapter, we aim to start from these different cultural values in the three communities in order to verify if and how these values emerge in three interviews (one for each community). We also question which role both the history of the speaker and the cultural heritage of the community play in expressing the social and ethnic identity of the speakers.

Results

Filomena (Bedford)

Filomena arrived in England to join her husband Ciccio, who migrated a few years before as part of the official recruitment scheme to work in the London Brick Company of Bedford. Filomena worked as a cleaner at Bedford hospital.

She is considered a leader in the Italian community: she is well integrated, attends mass each Sunday and the courses provided by the Club of First Generation. Each Friday, she hosts a prayer meeting and many Italian women of the neighborhood attend the meetings at her house.

Filomena uses both Italian and the Italian dialect, while, as she told us, she is unable to speak English very well, even though she has spent more than 55 years in England. In her house, Filomena never uses English, and she refuses to use it even today, even, although she lives with her child and her grandchild, both born in England. Because she lives her life in the Italian ethnic network, she still considers English not necessary at all, with the consequence that she has few occasions to use this language. From an interactional perspective, the interview reflects the rare use of English, which is used only for a precise semantic topic, that is work. In fact, it is through the few CS to English that Filomena reports the point of view (and the voice) of the English bosses, and using English she seems to stress the cultural distance between them. In the following example, Filomena presents herself as an unpretentious woman, whose working destiny was in the hands of the sister (sista < sister) who decided on the organization of the working team:

F: *erë tuttë italianë / è vënuta na* **sista** ro: . . . *indë a maternità mië gerë / na* **sista** giovane / ca *së vënevënë a cagnà purë e camisë là /* ha detto / **Missis Bush /** la **manager/***na piezzë e femmënë/bella accussì era /* "**Missis Bush give me one of your girl / for my wood**" */pëcché/*perché la donna che # lavora là / c'ha quattro settimane *e . . . e* **off /** *ca nu stava bene /* a: / **Miss Bush** ha *fattë / chillë sorrisë ha fattë / a . . . chillu giornë ië nu stavë vicinë a mascinë /* ***stavë scutuliè e pannë accussì /*** *capo s'avevënë // ha dettë // ha dittë* "**sist*ë* Brooks**" / *na* **sist*ë*** *giovë /* "**I give you Filomina / I give you Filomina" /** ha puntato *vicinë a me /* "**Filomina / because Filomina talking too much**" / proprio così m'ha *dittë /* perché io veramente *parlavë . . .*

F: *we were all Italian at the hospital /* a **sista** *come in the maternity ward / a young* **sista /** *who came there to change her smock / she said /* **Missis Bush /** the **manager /** *a very tall woman/so beautiful/*"**Missis Bush give me one of your girl / for my wood" /** because / because women who used to stay there / they must remain there for four weeks*/of . . . of* **off /** *because she is sick /* and / *Miss bush said / smiling/that day I was not working with the washing machine / I was wringing out something / because then . . ./and she said /* **"Sister Brooks" /** *a young sister /* "**I give you Filomina / I give you Filomina**" / she pointed *at me /* "**Filomina / because Filomina talking too much**" / she *said /* because it was true I used to speak at lot!

Filomena seems to be subjected to the decisions of the others without being able to understand or to reply: CS to English not only marks the insertion of a quotation, but also the distance from the point of view expressed in this quotation, usually in range of the opposition between affiliation/disaffiliation as it has been described by Antonia Rubino (2014). In this example, Filomena uses CS to

express her disaffiliation with English society, her bosses, and the hard working conditions she found in England.

In the example, moreover, she reports the voices of English women who did not want to rent a room or a house to Italian mothers with young children:

F: che i bambini ni i vulevano / se tu bussi una porta / dici / a # "c'è una camera?" / ti dici/c'hai bambini? / sì/no / sorry / chiudono la porta

F: because they *did not want children* / if you knock the door and say / do you have a room (for rent) / the person (at the door) says / "do you have any children? / **sorry**!"/ they close their door

In this case, through the CS to English, Filomena highlights the cultural distance between English and Italian women, which crosses the working sphere and enters into the private one: here the parameter is motherhood and the role of children in everyday life. She uses CS to mark her disaffiliation with English mothers who don't take care of their children, and do not appreciate the care Italian ones provide. So, CS to English is here used to mark her refusal of English culture: she is still Italian and she refused to 'become' English.

As far as the use of romance varieties in the interview is concerned, Standard Italian and the Italian dialect are very interfered: in particular, wide portions of speech in Standard Italian follow wide portions in Italian dialect, according to a frequent communicative strategy in the Bedford Italian community (Di Salvo, 2012). This behavior does not respond to a communicative and interactional function but to the status of the romance varieties in the community.

Ida (Cambridge)

Ida arrived in Cambridge to join her husband and worked as a cleaner in some local schools and colleges. So, her migration is similar to that of Filomena, but the dynamics of integration of the two women deeply diverge. Ida worked with many English and other foreign colleagues, without having the support of translators nor the Italian network. So Ida doesn't live in an Italian environment but feels well integrated into the English one.

There is evidence of this attitude in the linguistic behavior of Ida who, unlike Filomena, uses English more often. In the next example, she demonstrates a sort of parallelism between English and the dialect to underline the cultural differences between English and Italian culture, highlighting also both her affiliation to the first one and her disaffiliation to the second one:

I: se . . . sei disciplinata / hai questo lavoro da fare / e ti comporti come tutti gli altri / perciò le cose filano bene / *nisciunə sə mettə a fa o maronnə iə so stancə tantə chella nu capiscə* / ma non fare quello / hai capito / comportati bene! / quando vai a casa / t'hanno pagato / dici / ho fatto il mio dovere / hai capì / però ti davano il lavoro / ma no / ma dai! / no // no / no / io . . . io non ho **regrets / I . . . I don't feel sorry / I left Italy / I don't . . .**

I: if you are disciplined / you have this work to be done / and you do as the others / so everything goes on / *nobody says/"I'm tired and that man [the boss] does not understand"* / do not do that / you know / be good! /when you go home / they gave you money for the work you've done / you can say / 'I did my job' / you know / because they gave to you a job / but / but /no no . . . **I do not have regrets // I . . . I don't feel sorry / I left Italy / I don't . . .**

With the first CS to Italian dialect, Ida refers the point of view of a prototypical Italian worker, who usually spends all day complaining and not working at all. From this attitude she wants to mark a distance, a different perspective and way of behaving. Italians who migrated to Cambridge, in fact worked hard. Here the Italian dialect becomes an identity marker of Italians living in Italy, who, in Ida's opinion, are not civic-minded. Ida feels that she differs from these Italians; she belongs to the ones who migrated to Cambridge, who, instead, have the opposite attitude.

Ida's affiliation to English culture emerges in the following example, in which the use of English is symptomatic of her strategies of self-identification with the English community and distancing from the Italian one:

I: **Can you have an idea how do we feel about**? / è questa la mia patria / l'Inghilterra
I: **Can you have an idea how do we feel about**? / this is my country / England

In the alternation between English and dialect, the position of Ida emerges: she seems to associate to the English variety some positive values and to the dialect, some negative ones. The latter, in particular, can be seen as a symbol of that cultural and economic underdevelopment she abandoned in Italy and would like to forget.

Also the choice of Standard Italian can be seen in this perspective because it seems to be used as a high variety in opposition to local dialect and as a prestigious one. By her use of standard Italian, Ida underlines the distance she perceives with the Italians who remained in Italy whose voice is always in the dialect. In this perspective, while in Bedford the use of the dialect is not only allowed but also encouraged because it acts as a 'we-code,' reinforcing the internal cohesion of Italian community, in Cambridge it is not. Here the use of the dialect is subject to precise communicative functions, as the one emerged in the previous example, that are expressing the speaker's affiliation/disaffiliation to the country of origin.

While English became a symbol of a cultural development (i.e. the speaker acquired the language and wanted to show off), dialect has the opposite value, and it is used for identifying the Italian underdevelopment.

With migration to England and to Cambridge, she abandoned the Italian dialect for Standard Italian, which became an ethnic marker also in opposition to those Italians who migrated to Bedford and Peterborough who, as Ida said, "remain as they arrived in England," without having learned English and without any cultural or linguistic growth. While in fact, Italians in Bedford

and in Peterborough are not able to speak in Italian and English, those in Cambridge are.

So, the perceived usage of standard Italian and the Italian dialect in the three communities is here used to affirm their own identity, not only in relation to the Italians who are in Italy, but also in respect to those who live in Bedford and Peterborough.

Maria (Peterborough)

Maria arrived in Peterborough after a previous migratory experience in Switzerland. She returned to her village of origin, Montefalcione, from Geneva because of her mother-in-law was sick. After her mother-in-law's death, she migrated to Peterborough. At that time, she was pregnant. When they arrived in England, Maria started to work and did so until she retired. Today she does not want to retire to Italy, due to the memories linked to her previous experience; even though her mother-in-law is not alive, she still feels she belongs to Italy and to Montefalcione (AV).

As for the linguistic feature of the interview, the role of English is paltry. This data is not surprising because it is coherent with the already noted tendency of limiting the use of this variety in PET Italian Community. In this interview, the use of English is limited to the insertion of subject + verb whose communicative values is emblematic of the speaker's perception of her position, not only in relation to the semantic content of the discourse but also in relation to her identity and to the mechanism she activates in identifying herself with Italy and/or with England:

M: mio marito è andato a lavorà là / po' m'ha chiamato pure a me / po' mia suocera . . . quanno scrivià ca sta malata / *ca steva sula* / po *dicë* "si io moro / po më trovate morta *quane*" / comunque mio marito "mia madre / mia madre / mia madre" / e mi ha portato *all'Italia nata vota* / ma io all'Italia non ci volevo stare / non volevo zappare/non mi piaceva a *zappà* a terra / **you know** zappare?

M: my husband went to work there [in Switzerland] / he called me too / then my mother-in-law . . . when she wrote to us that she was sick / *that she was alone / then she said / "if I die /* you'll find me *here* when I'll be already dead" / however my husband [used to say] "my mother / my mother / my mother" / and he took me back to Italy again / but I did not want to stay *in Italy anymore /* I did not want *to hoe /* **you know /** to hoe?

With this CS, in fact, the speaker underlines her distance from Italy and from the world in which she was forced to go to and live. The return to Italy, for her, meant going back to the rural world from which she dreamed of escaping when she migrated to Switzerland. Here, the choice of English, instead of German (the variety spoken in the context of immigration she refers to here) is emblematic. The implicit strategy of CS doesn't seem due to the desire of the speaker

to identify herself with England but more due to her desire to distance herself from that rural and poor Italy she left. So, it does not seem relevant which variety the CS is directed to. What is important is not the form of alternation, but the alternation itself.

The other CS in this interview deals with the migration to England experience. Maria talks about when she found out she was pregnant and the haste her husband and she used to arrange her migration to England to join her husband. The haste was due to the immigration policy of the UK because in the 1950s pregnant women were not allowed to immigrate to the UK:

M: *chella* che m'era presa a o primo bambino / mi fece na visita / *diciettë* "perchè mio marito sai . . ." / le raccontai tuttë lë lo fatto com'era . . . mio marito se n'è andato all'Inghilterra/all'otto di novembre / il vintisei m'erano venì non m'è venu: / "io glielo devo far sapere?" / "sì sì poi faccelo sapere che sei nel terzo mese // sì / sei incinta e sei nel terzo mese" / allora ce l'ho fatto presente a mio marito / per lettera/" e ma come mai? Io . . ." / e disse mia suocera "o . . . in Inghilterra è da poco" disse "co chi l'hai fatto" *dicë* / "e intanto ce lo vuoi fa sape" disse la l'ostetrica "Sei incinta dal se # nel terzo mese" / e allora mio marito ha *sentuto* che ero incinta / **straight away** m'ha fatto *o* . . . l'atto di richiamo / perché se poi a panza së vërìa tannë nun të facevënë passà

M: *that* lady who took my first child/she saw me / and *I said* "because my husband / you know . . ." / I told her *everything* happened . . . "my husband went to England / on the 8th of November / on the 26th flow should arrive / but he did not: / did I let him know?" / "yes/yes/let him know by letter that you are in the 3rd month / yes / you're pregnant/and you're in the 3rd month" / then I let him know to my husband / by letter / "and but how it can be? I . . ." / and my mother-in-law [said] "or . . . in England it is from a short time" she said "whom did you do this child with?" / *she said* / "and in the meantime you want to make him know" / the midwife said "you're pregnant in the 3rd month" / and then my husband *heard* I was pregnant / straight away he did . . . *the* official petition for familial reunion / because if then my belly was visible / *then they (English people) would not let me enter in the UK*

Here it is difficult to see the value of CS in terms of identity, but its interest deals with the contact between Italian and dialect: the dialect in fact emerges both in the form of phonetic interference (the central vowel ë, the vowel -u-instead of -o- in tonic position in *sentuto*, the consonant assimilation in *faccelo*, in which -cc- is the result of an assimilation process of -rc-, are all due to the interference with the dialect), and in the form of CS. The alternation between Italian and dialect can be related to the insertion of a quotation (*dicë* 'she says' is in dialect and it is followed by a quotation in Italian) and is used here to mark the polyphony of voices in the same discourse. It also can be used to mark the most dramatic point of the story: in the last CS to dialect (*perché se poi a panza së vërìa tannë nun të facevënë passà* "then they would not let me enter in the UK") the dialect is used

to express her own intimacy and own interior upset, as it has been shown in previous studies on the contact between Italian and dialect both in Italy and abroad (Schmidt, 2005).

Conclusion

This chapter aimed to analyze CS in an interactional perspective in order to verify the cultural and social values the linguistic varieties of the repertoire (Italian dialect, Standard Italian, English) have in three different Italian communities of England and the impact on the linguistic behavior of three female speakers with particular attention to the strategies they adopt to express their own ethnic identity. The present case study, in our opinion, shows the importance of the history of the speaker because the behavior of each woman seems to reflect the symbolic and cultural value of the varieties, which is variable in the three communities investigated. This point seems to be central in three similar communities from a historical perspective. The social and cultural values speakers attribute to the linguistic varieties are deeply diverse, and this variation has an impact on the linguistic behavior of single speakers.

This result, in our opinion, confirms the necessity of a methodology similar to those applied by Rubino (2014), who interprets the individual variation in strict relation to the wider cultural dynamics of the context under investigation.

Finally, CS seems to be a communicative strategy used by speakers to mark their position and their point of view. Therefore, our main results seem to be:

1 The co-existence of different functions in terms of affiliation/disaffiliation (and, so, in terms of identity) CS has in three communities which share the same main sociolinguistic features;
2 The presence of an inter-individual variation which reflects the variation at level of community;
3 The need of linking the study of CS to a deep analysis of the cultural value the both at the scale of community and at the scale of single speaker.

Note

1 The role of individual variation is controversial (see Jonstone, 2000). As concern the sociolinguistic study of Italian diaspora, some interesting consideration can be found in Moreno (2014).

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14 Acquisition of grammatical phenomena in French as a foreign language

Catherine Kiyitsioglou-Vlachou and Zoi Badraka

Introduction

Within the framework of the communicative competence achievement in the foreign language and based on the performance of linguistic communicative activities, the development of the grammatical competence constitutes a fundamental and significant part of the didactic act (Cuq & Gruca, 2003).

By focusing on the morphological structure of 'past participle agreement,' this chapter aims at providing a presentation of two didactic interventions of the grammatical properties appropriation: (a) *Focus on Form* (Long, 1991), which aims at dealing with systematic difficulties during the L2 acquisition and (b) *Processing Instruction* (VanPatten, 1996, 2004), with basic purpose the alteration of input processing in the case of Greek-speaking students.

The field research was carried out with students of the second semester in the School of French Language and Literature of the Aristotle University of Thessaloniki. The methodology adopted was the following: first, the students were separated in two groups and they were given a pretest mostly with exercises based on the traditional grammar instruction, to assess the knowledge of the phenomenon. Afterwards, the two didactic interventions took place in the two teams, the one with focus on form activities and the other with processing instruction. The experiment was completed with a posttest and a delayed test, one month later, which led to the extraction of conclusions regarding the efficiency of these linguistics-didactic interventions.

The results of the research will be discussed in the context of focus on form and processing instruction interventions, and the development of the grammatical competence aiming at the acquisition of morphological phenomena in French as a foreign language.

Theoretical framework

Background

According to Ellis (1991), the main processes identified in the model of language acquisition are three: the intake, the acquisition, and the language production.

Normally, language instruction aims at the third process, the language production, as teachers combine some kind of explicit grammar instruction with activities that focus on offering learners the opportunities to produce the target structure (Erlam, 2003).

Nonetheless, VanPatten and Cadierno (1993) claim that instruction should concentrate on changing the way students process the input and not on trying to change the way they produce language output. They argue that instruction aiming to change the way input is apprehended and processed by the student is more possible to become intake and hence have a considerable impact on the learner's developing language system.

The new linguistics-didactic models as Focus on Form (FoF) and Processing Instruction (PI) were developed within the context of the communicative approach of L1 teaching and they were considered a proposition for the satisfactory development of grammatical competence in L1. The reason for that was when the teaching of an L2/foreign language shifted from the grammar-centered approach and the explicit instruction of grammar to the communicative, they observed satisfactory development of communicative but not grammatical competence (Agathopoulou et al., 2008).

Processing Instruction (PI)

VanPatten (1996, 2004) presents the most complete model of input processing in second language acquisition. Based on the fact that a human's ability to process the input is limited, this teaching method concerns the mechanisms and the strategies used to transform the input to intake (Agathopoulou et al., 2008).

PI attempts to influence the strategies used by the learners during the input processing in order to connect successfully form and meaning. According to VanPatten (1996:25), PI is believed to contribute to the reconstruction of explicit knowledge of L2 while it intervenes in the L2 acquisition and not the learning procedure. It has been proven more effective than explicit grammar instruction (VanPatten & Cadierno, 1993). The main purpose of PI is "to change the way learners attend and process input, considering that acquisition is an output-dependent process and takes place when learners are exposed to meaning-bearing input" (VanPatten, 1996:25).

According to VanPatten's principles, learners first process the input for meaning and then for form; therefore, according to the Primacy of Meaning Principle, L2 students focus on the process of content words or lexical meaningful items, they disregard grammatical forms of low communicative value, and they tend to process the items found in an initial position in a sentence, instead of those in a final or medial one. Furthermore, based on the First Noun Principle, learners tend to process the first noun or pronoun they meet in a sentence as the subject or the agent. In certain cases, students might rely on lexical semantics or probabilities, where possible, rather than the word order, to interpret phrases and, when the preceding context inhibits the interpretation, they tend to pay less attention to the First Noun Principle.

A basic characteristic of this particular teaching method is that it does not include a production of written discourse activities. That is to say, it is not interested in the output because it is believed that it does not help students develop their grammar in L2 but only a fluency in the use of language (Benati & Lee, 2008, 2009). Therefore, processing focalizes on the connection between form and meaning that the learners extract from the input.

Focus on Form (FoF)

The second didactic method found in this research is Focus on Form (FoF). This communicative didactic approach focuses on the linguistic forms as they occur during teaching (Doughty & Williams, 1998 in Khatib & Darakhasan, 2011).

Long (1991) was the first to talk about FoF as he believed that in recent years, language instruction did not serve only communicative purposes but was also characterized by a shift in the linguistic part of the language. Focus on Form was the name he proposed for this didactic intervention which aimed at the processing of communicative activities focusing at the same time on the linguistic forms met during teaching; it is the attention brought to grammar as part of communicative language practice (Long, 1991:46).

It should also be noted that there is a distinct difference between Focus on Form and Focus on Forms (FoFs). Focus on Forms is another type of grammar instruction proposed by Long which refers to the traditional teaching of grammar, and it is based on the presumption that L2 learning derives from general cognitive processes.

The importance and the use of language play a vital role in this particular approach. From the moment the learner has clarified the meaning and the use, he also concentrates on the form (Doughty & Williams, 1998 in Khatib & Darakhasan, 2011; Ellis et al., 2002).

What the learner is supposed to do during the observation of the linguistic phenomenon is to transform the input into intake. In this way, the teachers try to motivate the learners to observe the form of linguistic types but without distracting their attention from the meaning and having as an ulterior aim the use of the current phenomenon. It is based on the theory of the Noticing Hypothesis (Schmidt, 1990), according to which for the acquisition of forms and elements in a L2, the student should focus on these particular forms and elements. The teacher will choose the way, the linguistic elements, and the time in which the student should focus on them by judging accordingly the learning difficulty level and trying not to distract the student's attention from the meaning.

Researches and psycholinguistic studies in particular showed a distinctive improvement in learners to whom this particular didactic intervention has been applied as it enhances their linguistic accuracy by providing the appropriate conditions for the interlanguage reconstruction (Doughty, 2001 in Khatib & Darakhasan, 2011). Furthermore, FoF was proved to assist in a quicker learning of the linguistic phenomenon, to influence the procedures of acquisition and to

enhance the learners' degrees of success (Long, 1991). Schmidt (2001 in Khatib & Darakhasan, 2011) argues that FoF helps learners to observe the linguistic forms more easily but also the differences between L1 and L2.

Another advantage of this didactic intervention is that it urges students to use new forms and elements for communicative reasons but also to overpass possible grammatical problems that insist (Long, 1991; Doughty, 2001).

Methodology research

Prior research and studies in the French language in Greek bibliography regarding these two didactic approaches is limited. Experiments of this kind have not been carried out with Greek-speaking learners and studies mostly in foreign bibliography that have already been conducted referred to either different grammatical phenomena or different participants' L1 or even different levels of language competence: the *Gender agreement in L2 French: pre-advanced vs advanced learners* (Bartning, 2002), which refers to the gender agreement in the French language and was conducted with learners of a pre-advanced and advanced level of competence; and the *Exploring Input Processing in the classroom: an experimented comparison of Processing Instruction and Enriched Input* (Marsden, 2006), which focuses on the comparative study of L2 approaches, one of which is PI and was carried out with learners having English as L1.

This is what intrigued us to proceed to this particular research so as to investigate the case of Greek students and the effectiveness of these linguistics-didactic methods in French.

Participants

The field research was carried out with students of the second semester of the School of French Language and Literature of the Aristotle University of Thessaloniki. The participants were 28 in total (six male and twenty-two female). Twenty-two of them aged between 19–22 and six aged over 40. Regarding the language repertoire of the participants, they were all native speakers of Greek except for a student from Turkey with Turkish as an L1; the results of this participant are not taken into consideration in the final results to avoid inconsistency. The participants also knew French, English, German, Italian, Russian, Spanish, Dutch, Albanian, and Armenian.

Procedure

The intervention was organized in three stages with a total duration of three weeks. The teaching sessions lasted an hour and a half each. The students were divided in two groups (group A and group B). Every group consisted of fourteen students, three of them over forty. In the first stage, they were given a pretest which had a double objective: on the one hand, to investigate the knowledge of the phenomenon, that is to say the past participle agreement and the application of

grammatical rules and on the other, to detect and point out students' most frequent mistakes. The pretest of both groups consisted of 35 items, different for each group.

Examples of the traditional activities used in the pretest are the following (Figure 4.1):

1) Dans les phrases suivantes, accordez les participes passés soulignés, s'il y a lieu.

1. La petite maison en pierres que nous avons aperçu_____ tout à l'heure, en haut de la colline, a longtemps appartenu_____ à ma grand-mère.

4) Mettez les verbes entre parenthèses à l'infinitif passé. Attention à l'accord du participe passé !

1. Elle ne veut pas reconnaître (se disputer) _____ avec son mari.

8) Mettez les phrases à la forme passive. Attention, il n'y a pas toujours de complément d'agent !

1. France 5 consacrera une émission spéciale aux relations parents-enfants.
→ _____

Figure 14.1 Traditional activities

The two didactic interventions took place during the second stage a week later. Group A received a focus on form instruction and Group B a Processing Instruction. Examples of the two linguistics-didactic methods are the following (Figures 14.2 and 14.3):

Processing Instruction

Cochez la bonne réponse :

1. Ils se sont écrit plusieurs lettres.
2. Elles se sont vues la semaine dernière.
3. Les enfants se sont dit qu'ils ont réussi.
4. Elles se sont parlé depuis une heure.
5. La maison s'est facilement vendue.
6. Les maisons se sont construites vite.

	Verbe Transitif Direct	Verbe Transitif Indirect
1		
2		
3		
4		
5		
6		

Figure 14.2 Linguistic-didactic methods

Ecoutez bien les phrases lues et cochez la bonne réponse :

	Masculin	Féminin
1		
2		
3		
4		
5		
6		
7		
8		
9		
10		
11		
12		

Après avoir lu les phrases suivantes, choisissez la réponse qui convient:

1. Nous les avons lus.
   a. ces livres b. ces revues

Figure 14.2 (Continued)

Focus on Form

HEUREUX, LES ENFANTS FRANÇAIS ?

Une étude sur le bien-être des enfants dans 29 pays parmi les plus riches du monde a été **publiée** par l'UNICEF. Pour être **arrivée** à ses fins, l'UNICEF s'était **basée** sur cinq critères : la santé et la sécurité, l'éducation, le logement et l'environnement, le bien-être matériel (les livres et les vêtements) et les comportements à risques. De nombreux pays se sont **parlé** lors de cette enquête.

1. L'étude compare le bien-être des enfants
A. des pays les plus développés.
B. des pays européens les plus développés.
C. de France.

2. Les enfants français sont
A. plus heureux que les enfants allemands.
B. moins heureux que les enfants anglais.
C. plus heureux que les enfants canadiens.

Figure 14.3 Focus on Form

During the third stage, a week later, a posttest was given to the students, one for each group, consisting once more of the same amount of items. The posttest consisted of similar exercises to the pretest but with different items for both groups. One month after the completion of the three-week experiment, a delayed posttest was carried out in order to investigate the appropriation of the participle

agreement phenomenon. The delayed posttest also consisted of activities based on the traditional grammar instruction and the results will also be presented in this paper. During these three consecutive weeks, this particular grammatical phenomenon was neither taught nor mentioned to the students in any of their classes.

What is different about this particular research is that this linguistics-didactic intervention did not have as a fundamental aim the teaching of the phenomenon. The participants already knew it to a certain extent as well as its application rules as a level of proficiency B1/B2 in the French language is required for the entrance examinations in the School of French Language and Literature. The objective of this research was the application of grammatical rules but also the frequency of errors.

Past Participle Agreement in French

It is known that the *Past Participle Agreement in French* is a difficult phenomenon even for native speakers. It is a grammatical phenomenon met in various occasions in the French language. In the present experiment, we proceeded in grouping the cases of the past participle agreement as follows:

- Gender, number, auxiliary verb, which is the case of Simple Past (passé composé), when the auxiliary verb is *être*, and the participle agreement follows the gender and the number of the subject.
- Personal pronouns (pronoms personnels – substitution), in Simple Past (passé composé) when the auxiliary verb is *avoir*, and the direct object of the verb precedes the verb, then the participle agreement follows the object in gender and number.
- Relative pronouns (pronoms relatives – substitution), in Simple Past (passé composé) when the auxiliary verb is *avoir*, and the direct object of the verb precedes the verb, then the participle agreement follows the object in gender and number.
- Pronominal verbs (verbs pronominaux), which, in case of a direct object, are conjugated in simple past with the verb *être* and there is an agreement with the subject whereas in case of an indirect one, there is no agreement with the past participle.
- Passive voice (voix passive) where the verb transformation is with the auxiliary verb *être* and there is once again agreement with the subject.
- Present or past infinitive (infinitif présent ou passé), where there is also an agreement when the auxiliary verb is *être*.

Research hypotheses

In the present study, after the research is carried out, we will seek to find answers to the following questions:

1 Will the students' overall performance in the posttest be improved?

The participants are expected to show an improvement in the scores of the posttest and the delayed test that follow the didactic interventions. The

effectiveness of these interventions should be concluded with the comparison of the participants' results in the pretest, the posttest, and the delayed test where the statistically important differences between them will be detected.

2 Will all the cases in the past participle agreement cause the same problems in the appropriation of the phenomenon?

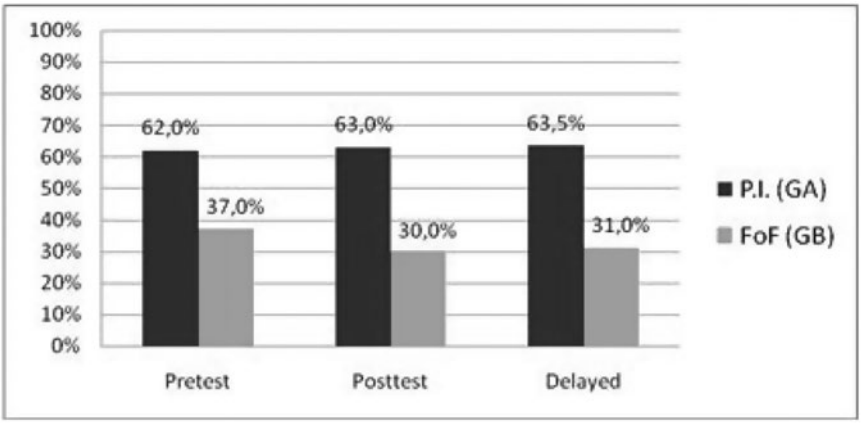
The results of the participants' performance in certain cases of the past participle agreement are expected to be better than others, as the agreement in several occasions is a phenomenon less usual in the use of the French language. Our aim is to detect those cases that cause a major problem and try to explain the reasons.

Statistical results

Scores for all three tests (pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest) were calculated in order to present an overall assessment of the students' performance. The total number of items in each test was 35, and students were given a score of one point for every correct answer; their total score in every test was compared to the final scores of all tests.

The total scores of the two groups in the pretest and the posttest are displayed in Table 14.1:

Table 14.1 Improvement of students' overall competence



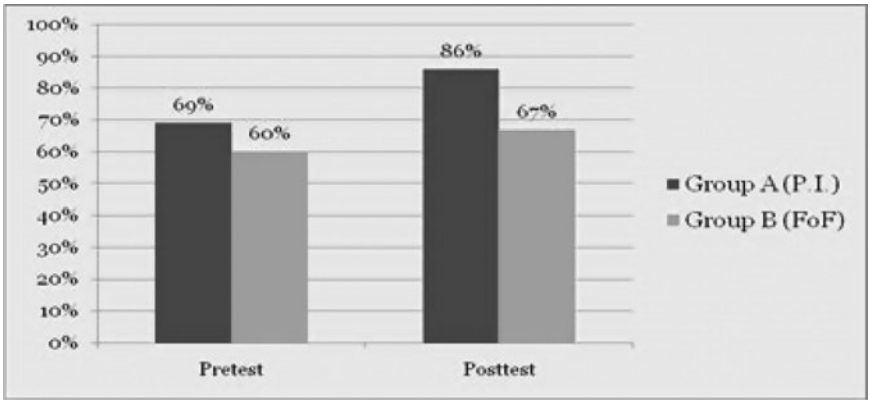
Total scores were submitted to an SPSS analysis which showed that the PI group was significantly better that the FoF group. The analysis showed that there was no statistical significance among the Pretest ($F(1,26) = 10.256$, $p = .004$), the Posttest ($F(1,26) = 19.678$, $p < .001$) and the Delayed test ($F(1,26) = 18.660$, $p < .001$). The PI group showed no significant improvement from the pretest to the posttest or from the posttest to the delayed test or from the pretest to the delayed test (all comparisons: $p > .1$). In the FoF group, a significant decline was

detected from the pretest to the posttest ($t(13) = 2.368$, $p = .034$). All other comparisons (posttest vs. delayed test, pretest vs. delayed test) were not significant ($p > .1$).

Our first research question regarding the learners' overall performance in the posttest and the delayed test that followed was partially confirmed. For the PI group, a certain improvement was detected but not a significant one as the students showed very little progress. For the FoF group, the research question was disproved as the statistical results showed deterioration in the students' performance.

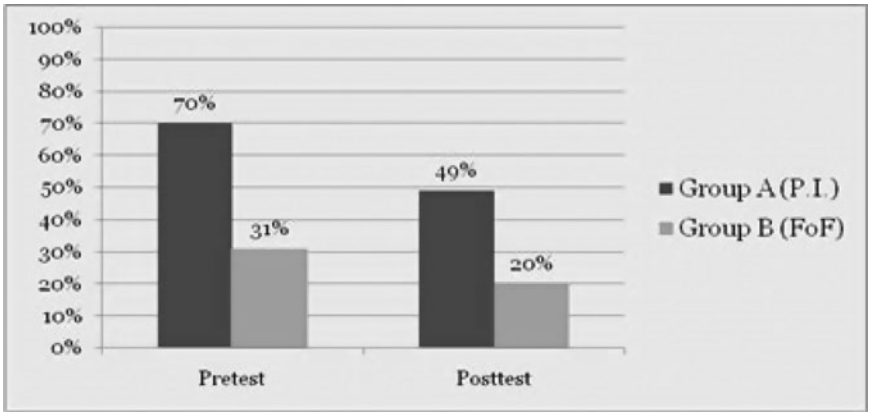
The following figures display the performance of every group in the activities as they have been grouped (see Tables 14.2, 14.3, 14.4, 14.5, 14.6, 14.7 and 14.8).

Table 14.2 Agreement – gender, number, auxiliary verb



An improvement has been observed in the performance of the PI group regarding the agreement on gender and number in the pretest and the posttest whereas the FoF group showed very little progress (see Table 14.3):

Table 14.3 Agreement – personal pronoun (substitution)



Apart from the fact that the participants' scores in both groups deteriorated in the posttest, the PI group seemed to encounter more difficulties that the FoF group in this particular case.

The scores in the agreement on relative pronouns substitution were similar to the previous case as they demonstrate deterioration in the posttest (see Table 14.4):

Table 14.4 Agreement – relative pronouns

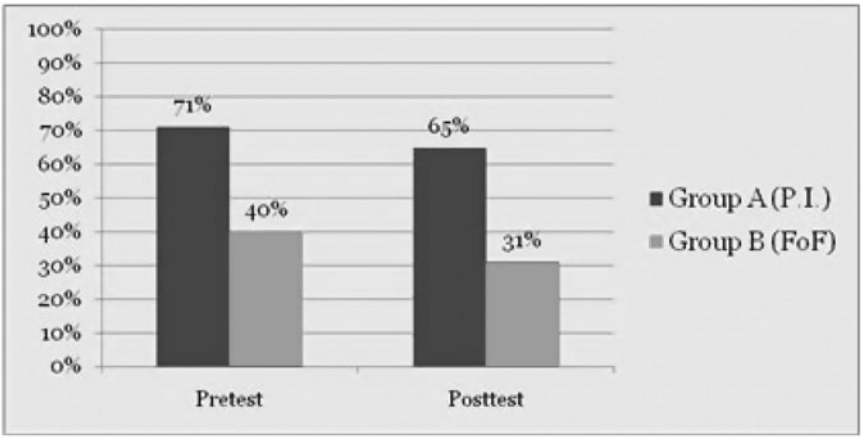
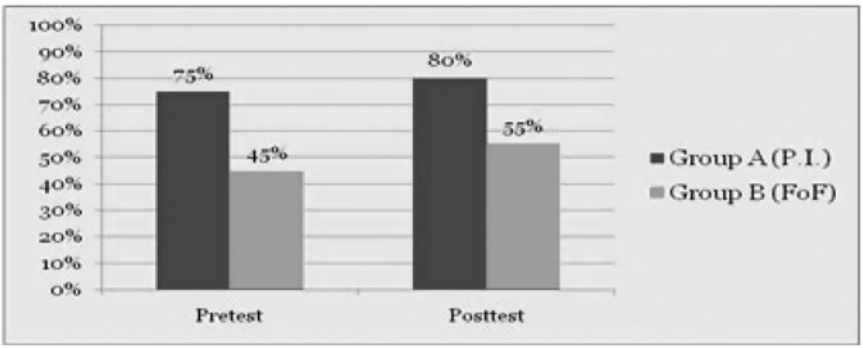


Table 14.5 Agreement – pronominal verbs (direct object)



The case of the pronominal verbs agreement shows better results in the posttest for both groups (see Table 14.5). The participants seem to have understood the grammatical phenomenon and their scores are significantly improved.

Table 14.6 Agreement – pronominal verbs (indirect object)

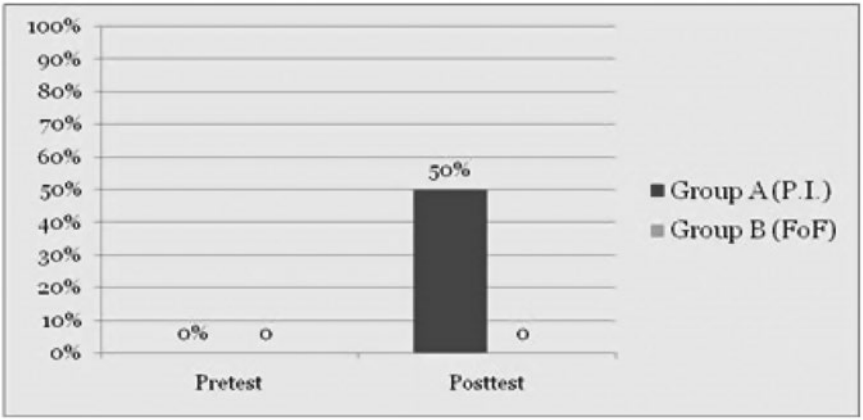
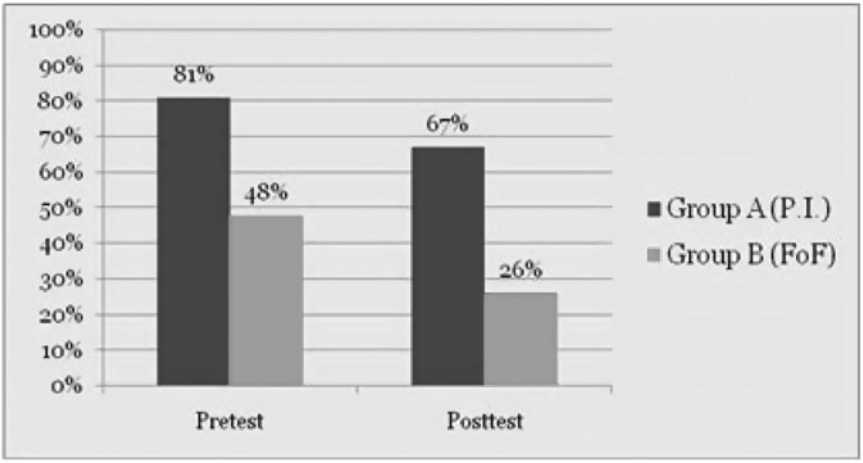


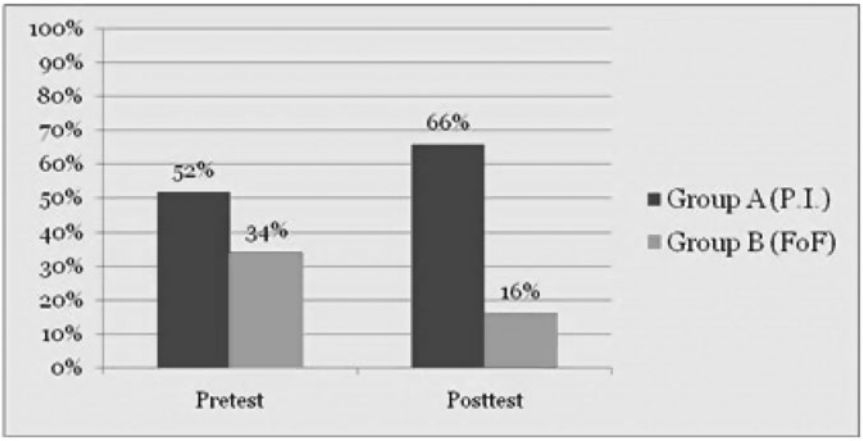
Table 14.7 Agreement – passive voice



The pronominal verbs with an indirect object (see Table 14.6 above) is thought to be a difficult case of past participle agreement and that was clearly showen by the results; the PI group had no improvement in posttest whereas the FoF group showed great deterioration from the pretest to the posttest.

The scores in the passive voice agreement were also surprising (see Table 14.7 above). The grammatical phenomenon of passive voice is considered to be an easy one, as agreement is done in every passive sentence because of the auxiliary *être*. However, the participants' performance presents decline for both groups as their final scores are poorer than the ones in the pretest.

Table 14.8 Agreement – infinitive



The infinitive agreement (Table 14.8 above) presented different results for the two groups; the PI group showed a small improvement in the posttest whereas the scores for the FoF group were significantly lower in the posttest.

The second research question was confirmed but the results were unexpected as the students encountered difficulties in the least expected past participle agreement cases.

Discussion

Our first research question was confirmed only regarding the PI group which showed a slight improvement in the post- and delayed test, even if it was not a significant one. As for the FoF group, the question was disproved based on the final results of the participants which displayed deterioration.

As for the second research question which was confirmed, the results were unexpected. The past participle agreement cases in which the participants encountered great difficulty varied and differentiated from our initial hypothesis. The cases which caused problems in the appropriation of the phenomenon were: the relative pronouns (Table 14.4), the personal pronouns (Table 14.3), the passive voice (Table 14.7), and the pronominal verbs (indirect object) (Table 14.6).

The participants were expected to have better results in the first three mentioned categories as the participle agreement in these particular occasions is usually taught during the first years of teaching. The pronominal verbs (indirect object) (Table 14.6) constitute a difficult grammatical phenomenon that is usually regarded as an exception to the grammatical rule and is taught in a higher-level of language competence.

There are possible explanations for the participants' specific performance in the tests. First, the students are not accustomed to these didactic methods. They are familiar with different kinds and approaches regarding language

instruction, and their response to both the new didactic models was not particularly constructive.

Another possible explanation would be the interlanguage problems. The students did not appear to be ready for the acquisition of certain structures in both groups. Even the percentages of the PI group, which were indeed higher in some cases, did not succeed in reaching 90% which would confirm the appropriation of the phenomenon.

The level of language competence could also explain the final results. The students are supposed to have obtained B1/B2 level of competence in the French language; if that was the case, they would better understand the grammatical structures that would lead them to the acquisition. As proven, their level of competence was insufficient and could not contribute to the better understanding in neither the Processing Instruction nor the Focus on Form Instruction.

What could be further investigated are the individual cases of past participle agreement which also produced the unexpected statistical results. The explanations vary, and it would be interesting to compare the level of language competence with the number of mistakes made.

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15 Is translanguaging a possibility in a language class?

Theoretical issues and applications in an EFL class

Anastasia Gkaintartzi and Roula Tsokalidou

Translanguaging – definition and related terms

As Baker explains, the term 'translanguaging' was created by a well-known Welsh educationalist, Cen Williams, in the 1980s, describing the planned and systematic use of two languages for teaching and learning inside the same lesson (Baker, 2003, 2011). It was "coined as a Welsh word 'trawsieithu' by Cen Williams and a colleague of his (Dafydd Whittall) during an in-service course for deputy headteachers in Llandudno (North Wales) and it was later translated into English as 'translinguifying' but then changed to 'translanguaging' following a conversation between Cen Williams and Colin Baker." 'Translanguaging' came to mean the process whereby one language is used in order to reinforce the other with the aim to increase understanding and in order to augment the pupil's ability in both languages (Williams, 2002:40). In other words, through translanguaging, pupils internalize new ideas they hear, assign their own understanding to the message/concept, and, simultaneously, utilize the message/concept in their other language(s). In doing so, they augment and supplement the message/concept through dual language processing.

Williams (2003) suggests that translanguaging focuses more on the pupils' use of two languages (and what they are able to achieve by using both languages) rather than on the teachers' role within the classroom, although it may be engineered by the teacher. Again, with an emphasis on a child's development, Williams (2003) suggested that translanguaging often uses the stronger language to develop the weaker language thereby contributing towards a potentially relatively balanced development of a child's two languages. This approach was important in the Welsh context as the aim was for the child to build both languages at school and translanguaging was seen as a strategy for retaining and developing bilingualism rather than for the initial teaching of the second language. The four potential educational advantages of translanguaging put forward by Williams, as documented by Baker (2001, 2006, 2011) are:

- the promotion of a deeper and fuller understanding of the subject matter;
- the development of the weaker language;
- the facilitation of home-school links and co-operation;
- the integration of fluent speakers with early learners.

Ofelia García (2009a, 2009b) extended the term 'translanguaging' to mean more than the pedagogic variation of linguistic input and output. Garcia treats 'translanguaging' as a strategy that bilinguals use to make meaning, shape their experiences, gain understanding and knowledge, and make sense of their bilingual worlds through the everyday use of two (or more) languages. Garcia proposed the definition of 'translanguaging' as a powerful mechanism to construct understandings, to include others, and to mediate understandings across language groups (García, 2009a:307–308). Garcia argues that it is impossible to live in communities such as New York and communicate among multilinguals without translanguaging (García, 2009b:151). Based on observation of translanguaging practices in bilingual communities, García's approach towards translanguaging helped extend the use of this process to include the complex everyday realities of home and street (García, 2009a).

García (2009a, 2011) views translanguaging – "or engaging in bilingual or multilingual discourse practices" (2009a:44) – as an approach centered not on languages, but on the communicative practices of bilinguals. Within the notion and process of translanguaging, other linguistic contact phenomena are included, such as code-switching and translation, but the emphasis is given on the process whereby bilingual students perform in their classrooms.

Since we propose that the concept of 'translanguaging' may be connected to that of 'synaesthesia' as proposed by Skourtou (2002), let us attempt to define it and look into its relation to translanguaging. 'Synaesthesia' has been defined as a blend of senses, "which could be displayed in a variety of cross-sensory combinations: depending on the specific senses involved, synesthetes 'taste' shapes, or 'see' music, or attribute color to personalities, to name just a few examples" (Lvovich, 2012:216). It has been connected with language learning by Pat Duffy (2005) who reports several accounts of language learners who use synesthetic images for learning or translating. An interesting account is one by Laurent Schlemmer, a journalist and a translator who characteristically writes "Whenever I translate a sentence from French into German . . . I inwardly see the sentence and also fly above it with the verb that has to move to accomplish the translation" (Duffy, 2005:17, cited in Lvovich, 2012).

The idea of a synaesthetic approach to language and bilingualism was also noted by Beaujour (1989) who proposed the term 'polyglot synthesis' and Paradis (1981, cited in Grosjean, 1984) who proposed a three-store bilingual version: one store for conceptual representations and knowledge of the world, the 'image system' and a 'verbal system' for each language. Beaujour (1989) suggests that for bilinguals, what is blended or synthesized is not only linguistic systems but cultural, social, historical, interactional, and personal scripts which forge networks and new realities that can be expressed through translingual texts.

Another interesting perspective is offered by Brigitta Busch (2011) who researched a complex multilingual situation in South Africa and played a key role to the redefinition of teacher training and school language policies (in Lvovich, 2012). Busch used a multimodal approach called 'language portraits' which consists of a questionnaire, a personal narrative, and of coloring in a body silhouette,

where different colors would represent 'linguistic dispositions' defined as "knowledge of language varieties, registers, and pragmatics . . . emotions linked to linguistic practices" (Busch, 2011). This 'personal language profile' activity was used with teachers, to elicit the awareness of their multilingualism and of their complex language identities, and then with children, who thoroughly enjoyed the coloring activity and were able to represent symbolically the literal embodiment of their languages/codes in the silhouette. Color and its location in the body, representing languages, attitudes, and often hard to express emotions, become bearers of meaning, creating an additional semiotic dyad.

Translanguaging: educational practices

Study background

This section presents educational practices and activities, developed in the context of translanguaging as a pedagogical strategy. It refers to pedagogical practices which build on students' languages and use their entire linguistic repertoire in creative and multimodal ways. They are practices, which are based on translanguaging and syneasthetic approaches and involve as Garcia and Li Wei (2014:67) put it "creativity, criticality, and transformations in education." They were developed in a foreign language classroom of a mainstream (i.e. not Intercultural) Greek primary state school, which is located very close to the city of Volos, in Central Greece. This school had a small number of students and the researcher worked there as an English language teacher, which facilitated access to the study site as well as the collection and analysis of data (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Relating to the students' profile, the majority was of Greek origin and a rather small number of children were of Albanian immigrant background. The educational practices, presented in this chapter, were developed in Grade 6th, which consisted of 10 students, four of whom were of Albanian immigrant background. These children were either born in Greece or immigrated at a very small age and concerning their linguistic repertoire, they had oral skills in Albanian while their language competence in Greek was highly developed. They had also been learning English as a foreign language for four years.

Relating to the EFL approach followed in this school's classes, in the framework of which the present practices were developed, it was based on and informed by theoretical concepts and principles of Intercultural Language Teaching/Learning (Liddicoat & Scarino, 2013; Lo Bianco et al., 1999), Multilitaracies (Cope & Kalantzis, 2000) and Critical Pedagogy (Freire, 2000; Giroux, 2000), which were tailored by the teacher/researcher to foreign language teaching/learning and her students' needs. In such an EFL approach, the foreign language is perceived and used as a bridge among languages, creating a place where students' home languages (cultures and identities) are included in the classroom next to Greek and English, are validated and thus empowered. Thus, a learning environment of languages in contact is created, in which children explore languages and negotiate meanings, interact, build on connections, and operate

at the borders among different languages (Gkaintartzi, 2016). In this learning framework, a 'third place' among languages is constructed, the hegemony of the 'powerful' languages, such as English and Greek in the Greek school, is challenged and multilingualism is empowered. All students develop an understanding of linguistic and cultural diversity and multilingual and intercultural awareness concerning languages and language learning. In such a learning environment, fostered by this overall EFL approach, translanguaging, and syneasthetic practices are facilitated, reinforced, and enhanced.

Language profiles and portraits

The strategy of developing children's profiles or portraits has been inspired by 'The Bilingual Portrait' which was proposed and carried out in a project on raising bilingual awareness in primary schools in Volos, Greece (Tsokalidou, 2005) and by the 'multimodal language profiles' implemented by a research group in a Vienna school (Busch, 2011). In the present study children were requested to visualize their language repertoires by coloring the languages which they speak or are important to them and present their language portraits in class. Through their drawings and colors attitudes and emotions towards languages are revealed and aspects of their identities are negotiated by sharing experiences with languages. Such language profiles are shown in pictures 15.1 and 15.2 below.

The bilingual portraits of Albanian background students

In their portraits, as seen in Picture 15.3, children present their linguistic and cultural realities by drawing, selecting photos, writing their own views about their countries, languages, school context drawing from all their linguistic resources.

Text of portrait

"Οι γλώσσες – Gjuat e imet"

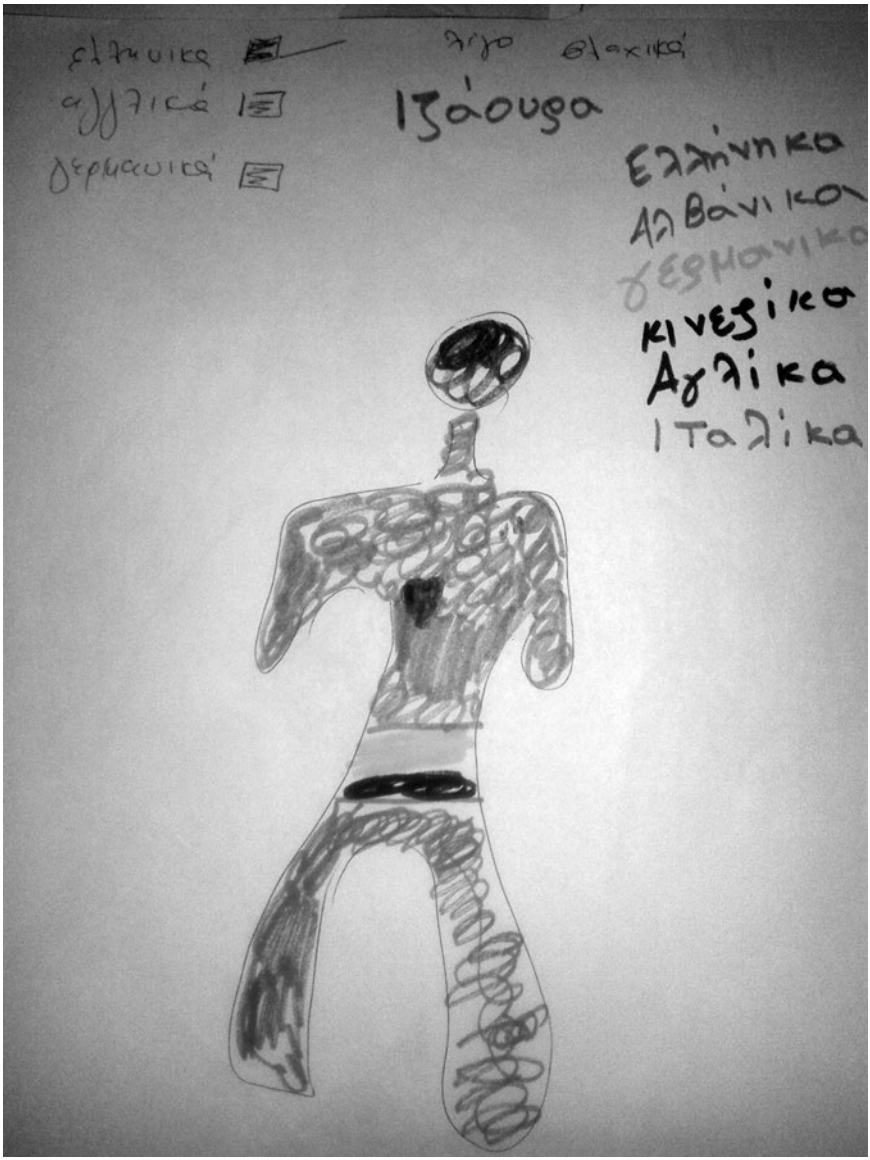
Εγώ μιλάω και τις δύο γλώσσες και την Ελληνική αλλά και την Αλβανική επίσης τώρα μαθαίνω και μια άλλα γλώσσα την Αγγλική. Μου αρέσει που ξέρω τόσες γλώσσες. Το να ξέρεις τρεις γλώσσες δεν είναι τόσο δύσκολο όσο νόμιζα.

My languages

Translation: "*I speak both languages Greek and Albanian and I am also learning now another language English. I like to know so many languages. Knowing three languages is not as difficult as I thought.*"

"Οι Πατρίδες μου – Shteti I ime"

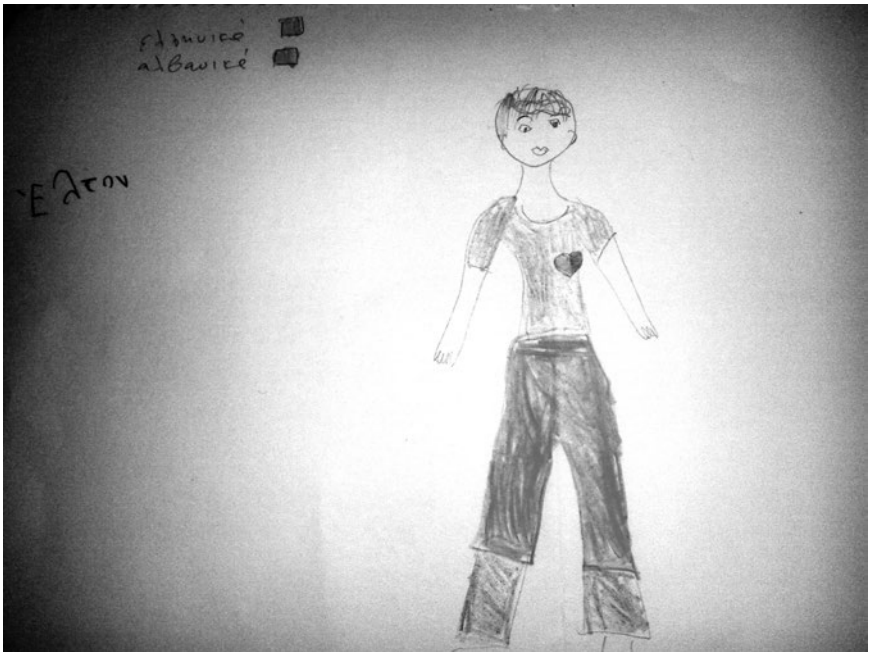
Είμαι η Άντζελα και γεννήθηκα στη Αλβανία. Τώρα όμως μένω στην Ελλάδα. Και οι δύο μου χώρες είναι όμορφες και μου αρέσουν πολύ.



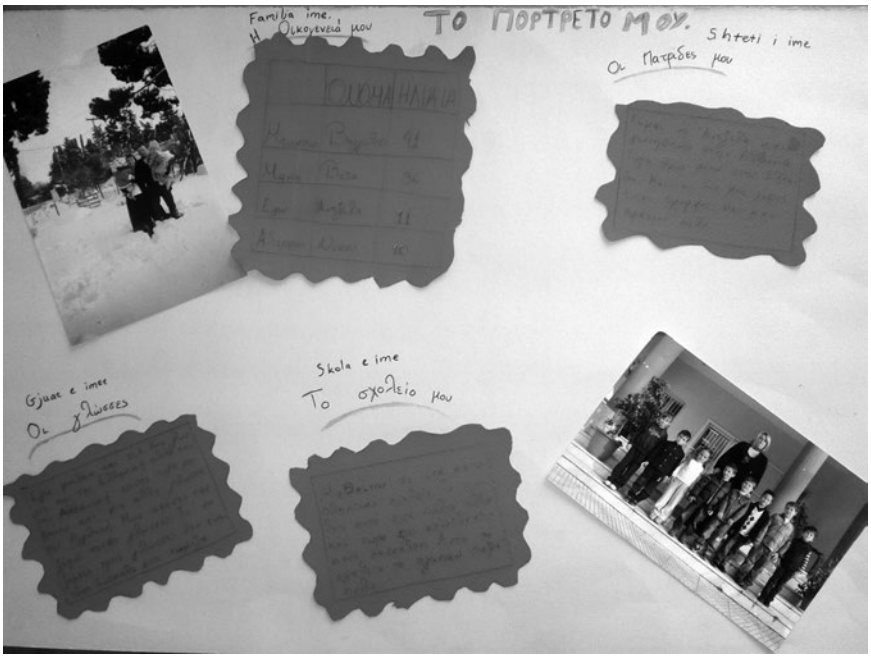
Picture 15.1

My countries

Translation: "*I am Angela and I was born in Albania. But now I live in Greece. Both my countries are beautiful and I like them a lot.*"



Picture 15.2



Picture 15.3

In her portrait (Picture 15.4) this student expresses her thoughts about her countries, languages, and school. Her drawing reveals how she perceives her parents' immigration story, as she draws the sun and the sunrise to mirror rise of a new life in the new country. In her picture on the top right she says:

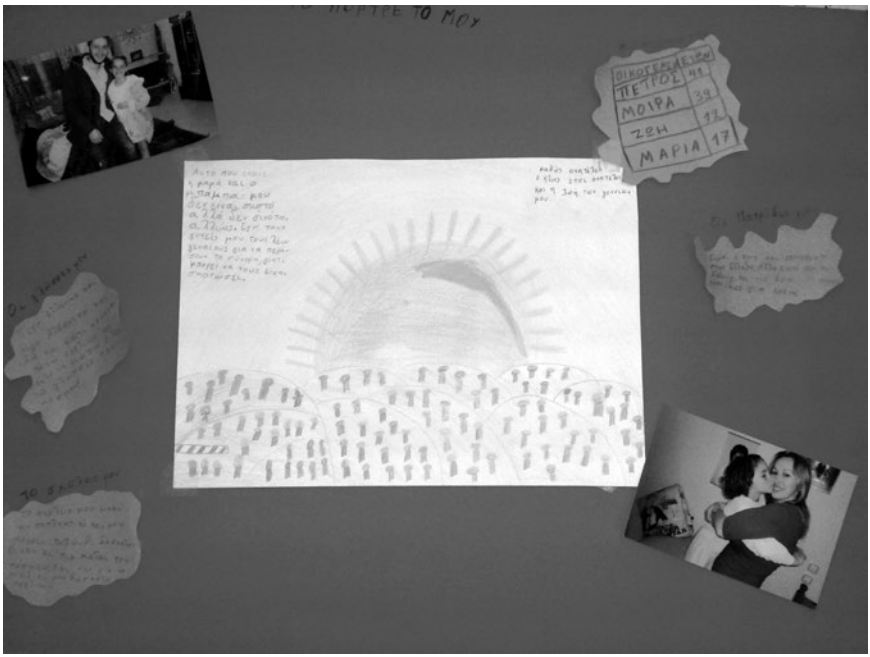
> Text: "*καθώς ανατέλει ο ήλιος έτσι ανατέλει και η ζωή των γονιών μου.*"
> *just as the sun rises, rises the life of my parents.*

On the top left of her drawing she writes:

> *Αυτό που μου έκανε η μαμά και ο μπαμπάς μου* [να περάσουν παράνομα] *δεν είναι σωστό αλλά δεν γινόταν αλλιώς. Εγώ τους γονείς μου τους λέω γενναίους για να περάσουν τα σύνορα γιατί μπορεί να τους είχαν σκοτώσει.*
>
> Translation: "*What my mother and father did* [to enter the country illegally] *is not right but they couldn't do anything else. I think my parents are brave to have passed the borders because they could have been killed.*"

About her languages she writes:

> *Ξέρω ελληνικά και λίγο Αλβανικά και εδώ και κάτι χρόνια κάνω αγγλικά και θέλω να μάθω όλες τις γλώσσες του κόσμου!*
>
> Translation: "*I know Greek and a little Albanian and for some years I have been learning English and I want to learn all the languages of the world.*"



Picture 15.4

About her countries she writes:

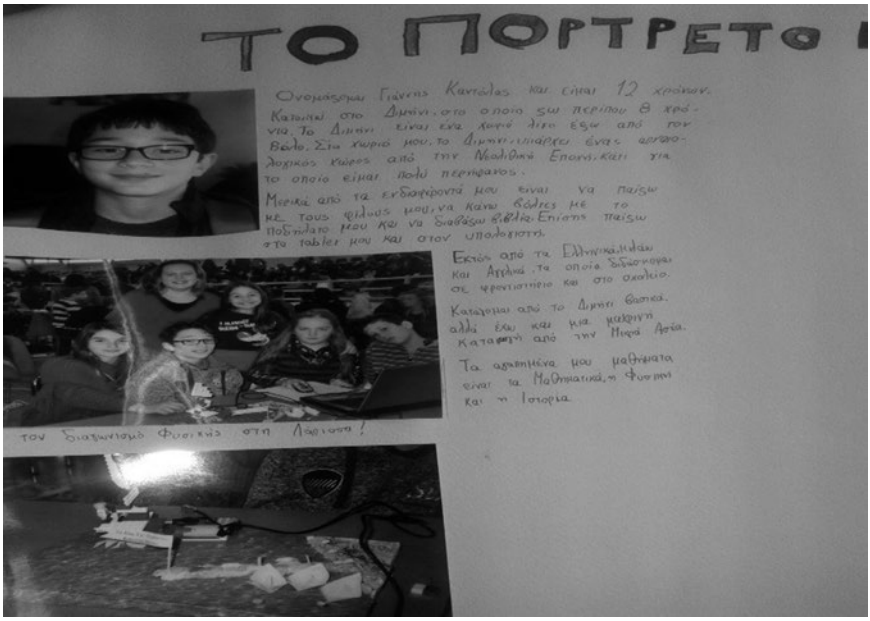
> *Είμαι η Ζωή και γεννήθηκα στην Ελλάδα. Αλλά είμαι και από Αλβανία. Και οι δύο χώρες είναι ίδιες για μένα.*
>
> *I am Zoe and I was born in Greece. But I am from Albania too. Both countries are the same to me.*

The portraits of Greek origin students

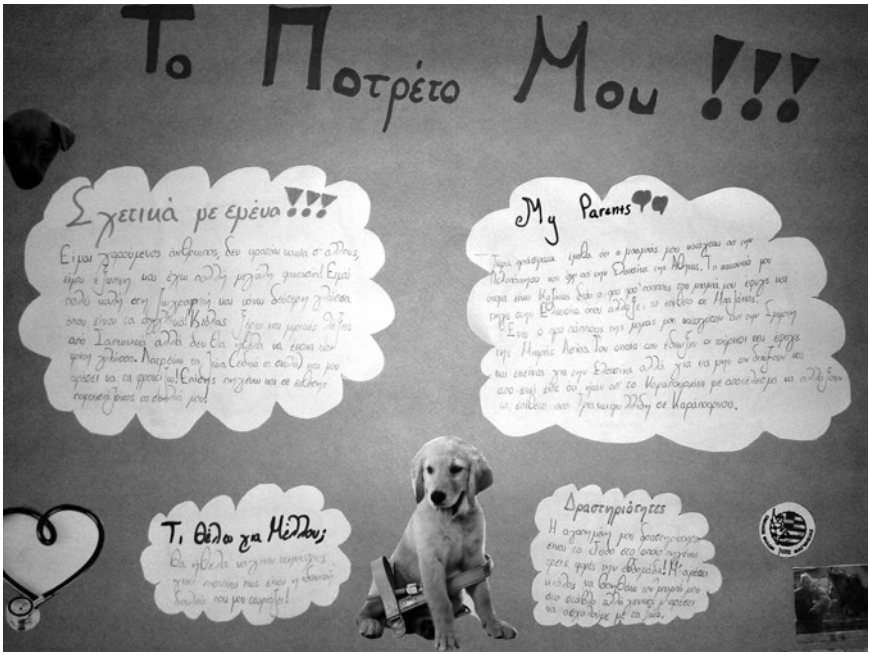
In the case of Greek origin students, the portraits can contain personal narratives about their family history and origin, which depict the diversity of the Greek society (Pictures 15.5 and 15.6).

The portraits of all students bring forward the linguistic and cultural variety, mirrored by their identities, in order to be recognized and appreciated. The portrait below, Picture 15.7, presents a student's narration and drawing about her ancestors who were refugees that reached Greece by boat.

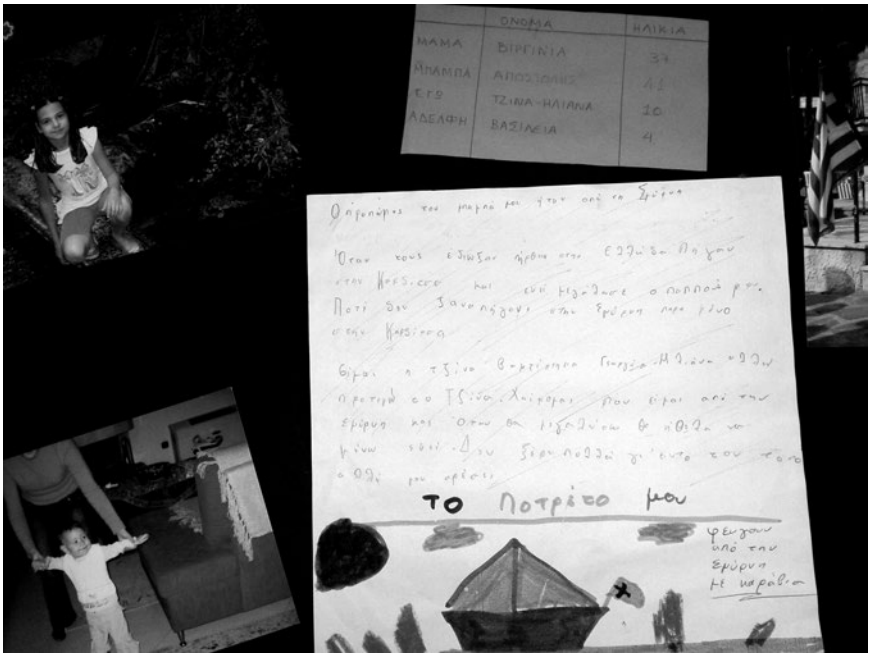
> **Text of portrait**
>
> *Ο προπάππους του μπαμπά μου ήταν από τη Σμύρνη. Όταν τους έδιωξαν ήρθαν στην Ελλάδα. Πήγαν στην Καρδίτσα και εκεί μεγάλωσε ο παππούς μου. Ποτέ δεν ξαναπήγαμε στην Σμύρνη παρά μόνο στην Καρδίτσα.*
>
> *Είμαι η Τζίνα βαφτίστηκα Γεωργία-Ηλιάνα αλλά προτιμώ το Τζίνα. Χαίρομαι που είμαι από την Σμύρνη και όταν θα μεγαλώσω θα ήθελα να μένω εκεί. Δεν ξέρω πολλά γι'αυτό τον τόπο αλλά μου αρέσει.*



Picture 15.5



Picture 15.6



Picture 15.7

Translation: *My father's grandfather was from Smyrna. When they were sent away they came to Greece. They went to Karditsa and my grandfather grew up there. We never went to Smyrna again but only in Karditsa.*

I am Gina I was baptized as Georgia-Iliana but I prefer Gina. I am happy to come from Smyrna and when I grow up I would like to stay there. I don't know much about this place but I like it.

In her portrait, in Picture 15.8, this student, who is of Greek origin, writes her name in Chinese, apart from Greek and English. She also reflects on her classmates' family immigration stories presented in class through interviews brought to classroom. She shares her feelings and views and reveals awareness of cultural and linguistic variety.

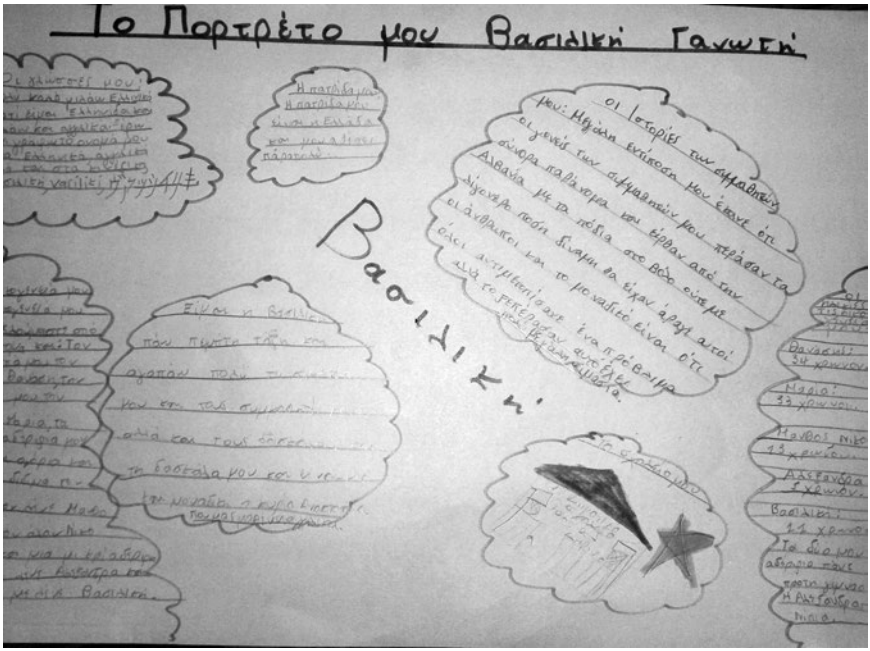
Text of portrait

Οι γλώσσες μου

Μιλώ πολύ καλά ελληνικά γιατί είμαι Ελληνικά και κάνω και αγγλικά. Ξέρω να γράφω το όνομά μου στα ελληνικά, αγγλικά και στα κινέζικα.

My languages

I speak Greek very well because I am Greek and I also learn English. I can write my name in Greek, English and Chinese too.



Picture 15.8

Οι ιστορίες των συμμαθητών μου

Μεγάλη εντύποση μου έκανε ότι οι γονείς των συμμαθητών μου πέρασαν τα σύνορα παράνομα και ήρθαν από την Αλβανία με τα πόδια στο Βόλο ούτε με λίγο νερό πόση δύναμη θα είχαν άραγε αυτοί οι άνθρωποι κα το μοναδικό είναι ότι όλοι αντιμετωπίσανε ένα πρόβλημα αλλά το ξεπέρασαν αυτό έχει μεγάλη σημασία.

My classmates' stories

Translation: "*What made a great impression to me was that my classmates' parents passed the borders illegally and came from Albania to Volos without even a little water how much strength would these people have and what is unique is that they all faced a problem but got over it that matters a lot.*"

Students' interviews about immigration

Students interview their parents about their stories of immigration. The children formulate their questions, interview their parents about their immigration stories, write the texts, and present them in class. They can write their texts in more than one languages, as presented in the example below, in which the student writes it in Albanian, her home language, with the help of her mother (Picture 15.9a), in Greek (Picture 15.9b), and in English, the foreign language she is learning at school (Picture 15.9c). She presents them in class in the three languages. The interview texts reveal their parents' narratives about their immigration and their life in Greece and mirror aspects of the children's capitals. The children can be asked to reflect on these texts and present these family stories from their perspectives through, their own voices. Below, in Picture 15.10, a student's interview and drawing are shown about her father's immigration story.
In the text of his drawing, he writes:

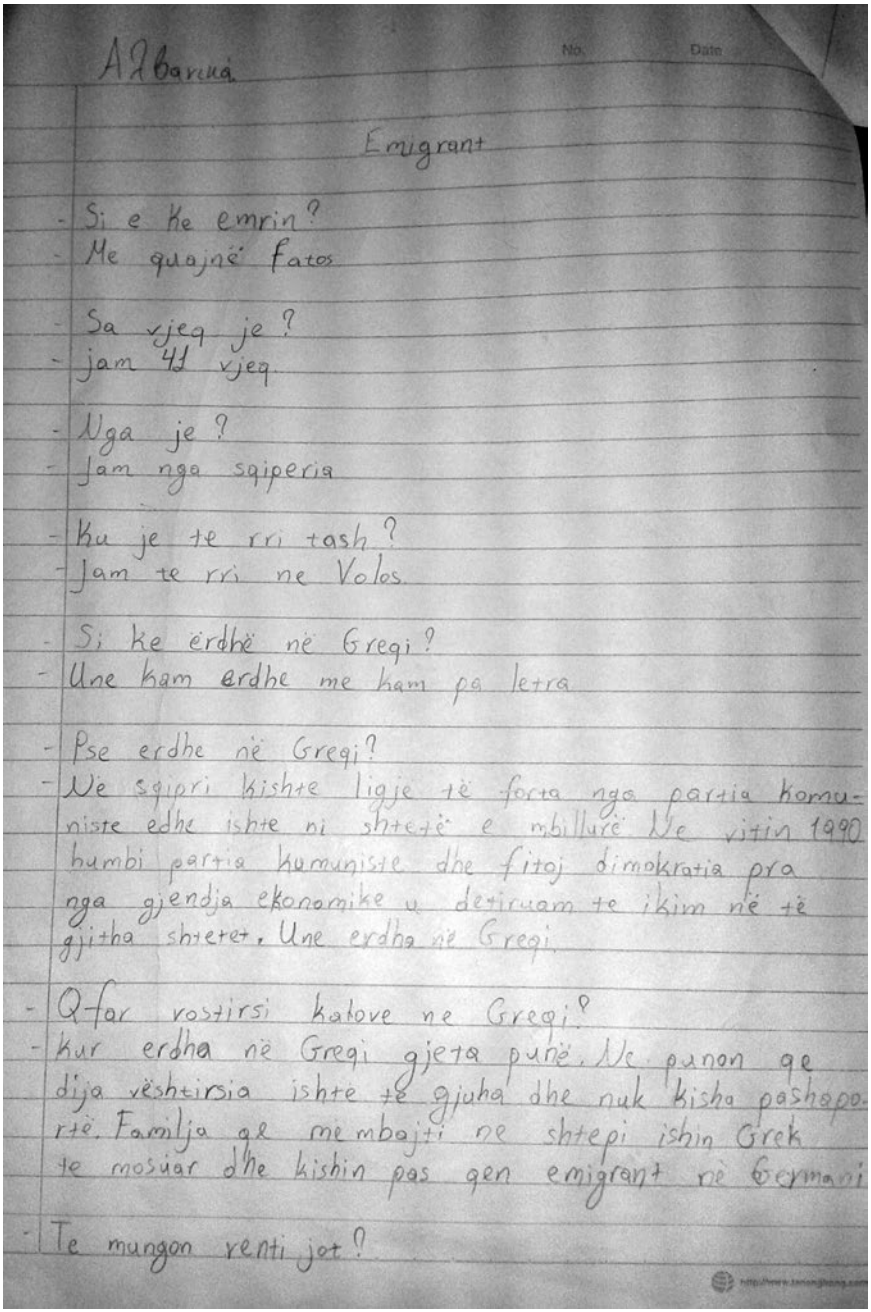
Είναι μια σεκολα (σακούλα) μεγαλι για μιβαφο από τιν βροχη. Τα Ξι λα (ξύλα) είναι για προστασία. Ο πατέρας μου κιμόταν γιατι δεν ηχε ένα Σπιτι.

Translation: *"It is a big bag so as not to get wet from the rain. The wood is for protection. My father slept because he did not have a House."*

This project below, in Picture 15.11, shows a student's reflection on his interview with his father about his story of immigration. He writes about his countries and languages, draws his father's course crossing the borders, and expresses his feelings in his multimodal text.
Text in picture:

Οι πατρίδες μου

Οι πατρίδες μου είναι η Ελλάδα και η Αλβανία. Μπορεί στην Αλβανία να γεννήθηκα αλλά στην Ελλάδα έχω περάσει τα περισσότερα χρόνια της ζωής μου. Οι περισσότεροι συγγενείς μου μένουν στην Αλβανία. Για τον μπαμπά μου σκέφτηκα πόσο έχει ταλεπωρηθεί για να έρθει από την Αλβανία στην Ελλάδα. Φαντάζομαι ότι με το αμάξι ταλεπορούμε να περπατίσω 500 χιλιόμετρα.



Albaria

No. Date

Emigrant

- Si e ke emrin?
- Me quajnë Fatos

- Sa vjeq je?
- jam 41 vjeq

- Nga je?
- Jam nga sqiperia

- Ku je te rri tash?
- Jam te rri ne Volos.

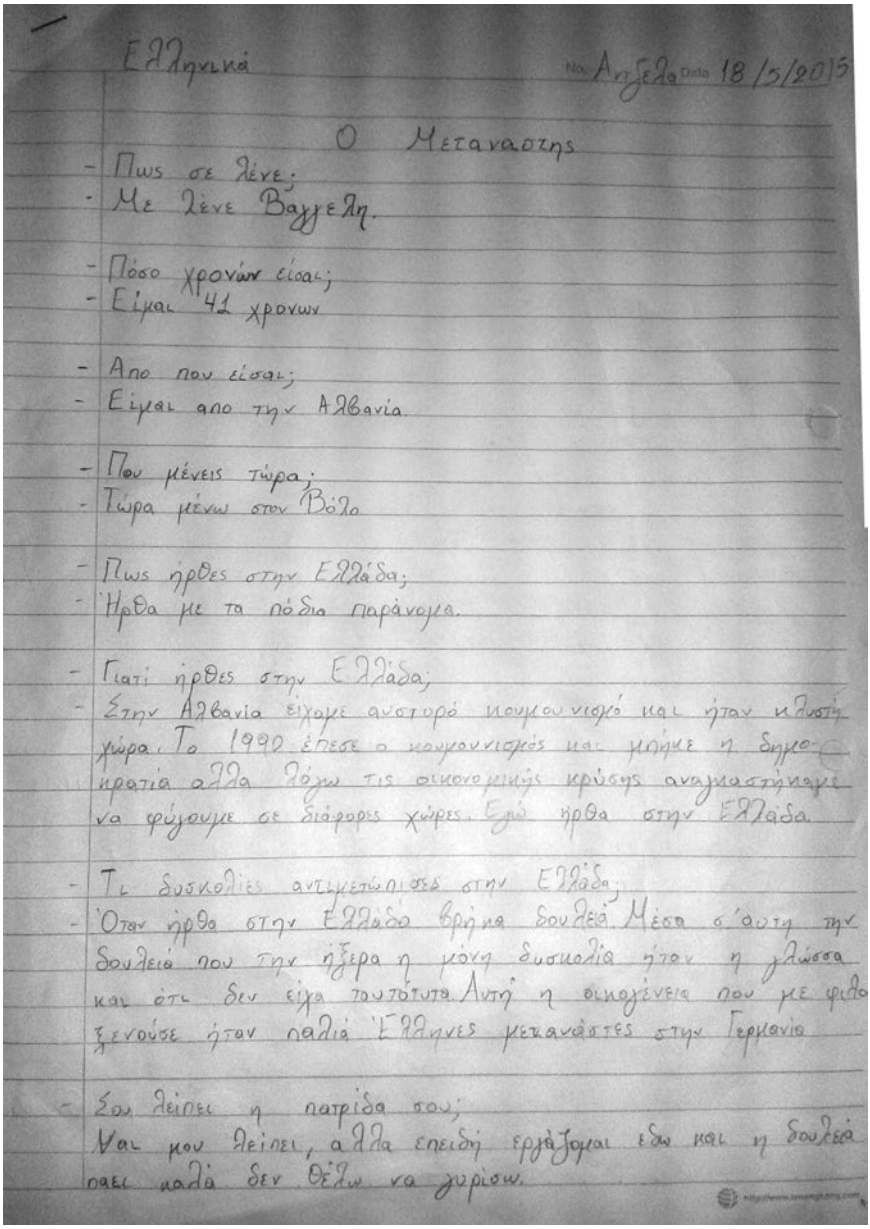
- Si ke erdhë në Greqi?
- Une kam erdhe me kam pa letra

- Pse erdhe në Greqi?
- Ne sqipri kishte ligje të forta nga partia komuniste edhe ishte ni shtetë e mbilluré Ne vitin 1990 humbi partia komuniste dhe fitoj dimokratia pra nga gjendja ekonomike u detiruam te ikim në të gjitha shtetet. Une erdha ne Greqi.

- Q-far rostirsi kalove ne Greqi?
- kur erdha në Greqi gjeta punë. Ne punon qe dija vështirsia ishte te gjuha dhe nuk kisha pashaporte. Familja qe membajti ne shtepi ishin Grek te mosuar dhe kishin pas gen emigrant në Germani

- Te mungon renti jot?

Picture 15.9a



Ελληνικά

No. Ανζελα Date 18/5/2015

Ο Μεταναστης

- Πως σε λενε;
- Με λενε Βαγγελη.

- Πόσο χρονών είσαι;
- Είμαι 41 χρονων

- Απο που είσαι;
- Είμαι απο την Αλβανία

- Που μένεις τώρα;
- Τώρα μένω στον Βόλο

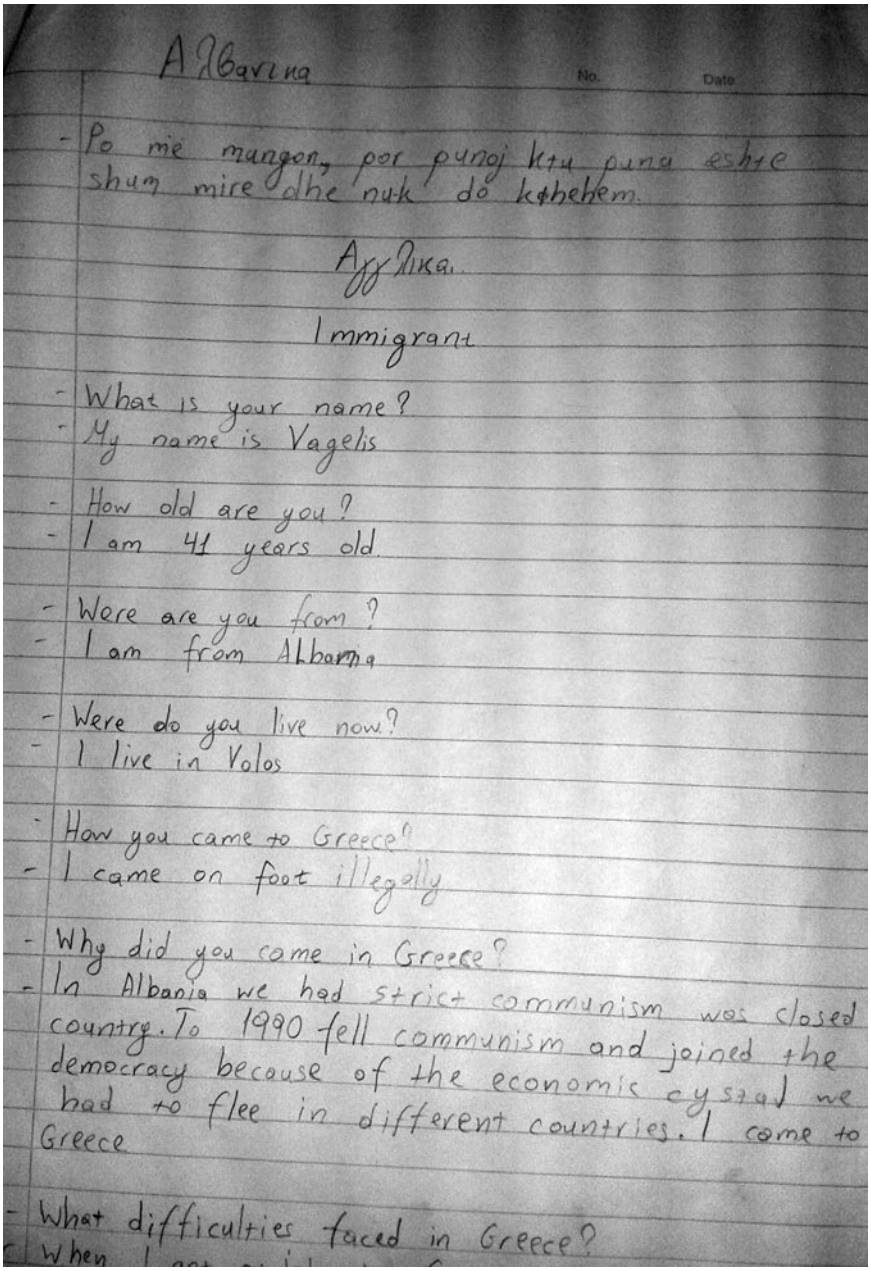
- Πως ήρθες στην Ελλάδα;
- Ήρθα με τα πόδια παράνομα.

- Γιατί ήρθες στην Ελλάδα;
- Στην Αλβανία είχαμε ανατορό κομμουνισμό και ήταν κλωστή χώρα. Το 1990 έπεσε ο κομμουνισμός και μπήκε η δημοκρατία αλλα λόγω τις οικονομικής κρύσης αναγκαστήκαμε να φύγουμε σε διάφορες χώρες. Εγώ ήρθα στην Ελλάδα.

- Τι δυσκολίες αντιμετώπισες στην Ελλάδα;
- Όταν ήρθα στην Ελλάδα βρήκα δουλειά. Μέσα σ' αυτη την δουλειά που την ήξερα η μόνη δυσκολία ήταν η γλώσσα και ότι δεν είχα ταυτότητα. Αυτή η οικογένεια που με φιλοξενούσε ήταν παλιά Έλληνες μετανάστες στην Γερμανία

- Σου λείπει η πατρίδα σου;
Ναι μου λείπει, αλλα επειδή εργάζομαι εδω και η δουλειά πάει καλά δεν θέλω να γυρίσω.

Picture 15.9b



Albania

No. Date

- Po me mungon, por punoj ktu puna eshte shum mire dhe nuk do kthehem.

Ayzika

Immigrant

- What is your name?
- My name is Vagelis

- How old are you?
- I am 41 years old.

- Were are you from?
- I am from Albania

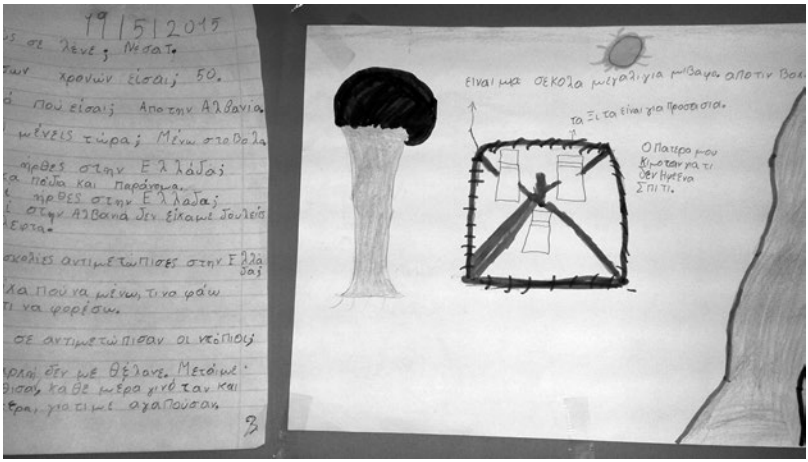
- Were do you live now?
- I live in Volos

- How you came to Greece?
- I came on foot illegally

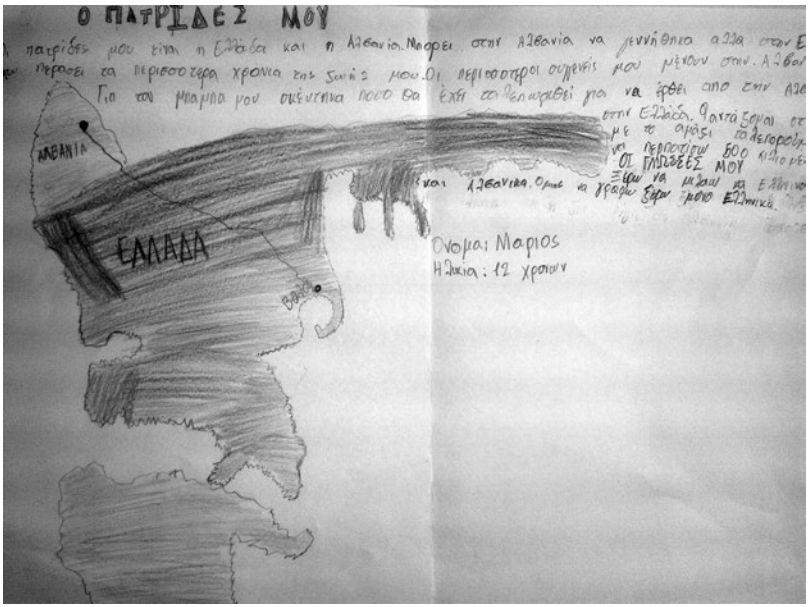
- Why did you come in Greece?
- In Albania we had strict communism was closed country. To 1990 fell communism and joined the democracy because of the economic cystal we had to flee in different countries. I come to Greece

- What difficulties faced in Greece?
When

Picture 15.9c



Picture 15.10



Picture 15.11

Translation:

My countries

My countries are Greece and Albania. I may have been born in Albania but in Greece I have spent most years of my life. Most relatives of mine stay in Albania. About my father, I thought how much he has suffered to come from Albania to Greece. I imagine that it is hard by car to walk 500 kilometers.

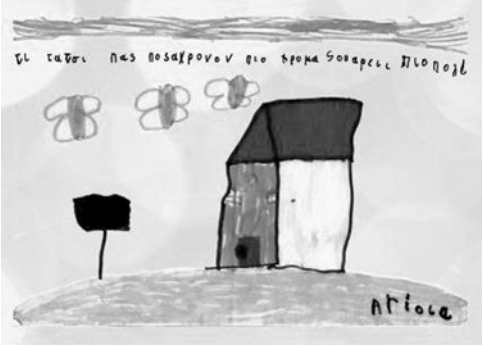
Οι γλώσσες μου

Ξέρω να μιλάω ελληνικά και Αλβανικά. Όμως να γράφω ξέρω μόνο ελληνικά.

My languages

I can speak Greek and Albanian. But I can write only in Greek.

In the following pictures shown below (Pictures 15.12 and 15.13), children communicate in multimodal ways about their countries of origin, their homes, and languages.



Picture 15.12

Picture 15.13

Conclusion

An analysis of the multimodality of the texts could not be attempted in this chapter due to length limitations but it can be suggested that tranlanguaging and syneasthesia, as pedagogical approaches, can lead to the creation of a rich learning environment in class, where all students engage in a meaning making process across languages. The activities presented aimed at utilizing children's first languages in foreign (English) language teaching in order to create opportunities for students to translanguage and develop multilingual awareness. Apart from activating and building on students' entire linguistic repertoires, through such translingual pedagogical practices, their home languages and identities are recognized, appreciated, and validated, next to Greek, the school language, and English, the foreign. Foreign language teaching can thus become more inclusive and give students the opportunity to experience languages in more complex and multimodal ways.

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Part D

ICT and language learning

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16 Virtual museums of music and ballet in foreign language education

Sladana Maric

Introduction

In framing the concept of learning innovation we should take into account both the inputs (i.e. new elements and tools or new educational approaches that trigger the learning process) and outputs or observable outcomes in learning more, more easily, or more in depth. Thus, the concept of learning innovation is strongly linked to the adoption of new educational tools, especially those based on new information and communication technology (ICT).

In exploring the concept of learning innovation, we can define it as a positive change of something that is different from what has been done before and provides the educational process with significant added value or a desire and an intention to introduce new to existing and obtain an original, better, and of higher quality education.

Students achieve success in different teaching materials for individual subjects depending on their interests in the content being learned. The era of digital technology offers a variety of concepts for solving the problems of the best possible teaching method of organizing information and its effective presentation in class. One of them is the idea of a virtual museum (VM), which, as we think, has extensive potential, and, yet, is not used much.

Always open to new trends, museums and institutions of cultural heritage all around the world are constantly producing innovative educational tools that might be of use in schools. Among these, we note in particular different types of museums such as the classical or 'real' museums with digital installation systems inside them, museum websites, online museums, and virtual museums. Virtual museums, including all the different types later defined, besides addressing cultural heritage education, can often contribute to enhancing some of the 21st-century skills – social and cultural skills, citizenship, communication, collaboration, digital literacy, and creativity.

Recently in Serbia, ICT has made way into the fields of museology and education, as it has in other fields. Nowadays, the educational potential of museums and VMs is widely acknowledged, although their actual use for educational purposes is still very minimal or non-existant in context of Serbian formal education.

This chapter deals with the role that virtual museums (museums with digital equipment, museum websites, online museums, virtual museums) can play in education, with a specific attention to formal education. The aim is to research the

opportunity of using virtual museums in the learning process, specifically in learning English as a foreign language in Serbian secondary music and ballet schools.

Foreign language learning in secondary music and ballet schools

Artists, regardless of the fact that they use special symbolic and linguistic systems of signs (music notation, expressions, scores, movements, gestures, etc.), need to develop as fully professional and fulfilled individuals who can communicate and use a certain foreign language successfully. Foreign language education in Serbia starts very early as an elective course in primary school, from the third grade to the eighth grade (ages 9–14), and later as an obligatory subject in primary school from the fifth to the eighth grade (ages 11–14). In Vojvodina, young children start learning foreign languages very early from the age of 3–4 years in kindergarten, later obligatory pre-primary school, and in most cases they are already bilingual (e.g. Hungarian-Serbian, Slovak-Serbian, Romanian-Serbian, Roma-Serbian), because of the fact that Vojvodina is a multicultural, multiethnic, and multilingual region. The first formal learning stage takes six years of continuous learning of the chosen language, while the other subject takes four years of continuous learning.

In the secondary music schools (Instrument players or Theoreticians) and ballet schools (Classical Ballet, Contemporary dance, and Traditional dance) students learn two foreign languages for four years (four years of two classes of 45 minutes per week, which is 274 lessons/205 hours, or three classes per week/423 lesson/317 hours), where the 'obligatory' foreign language for music schools is Italian, and for ballet schools is French. The other foreign language is also obligatory, but students choose the one they were learning for four or six years in primary school education, which means that they continue their language education in either English, German, French, Italian, or Russian. Thus, the classes of Italian and French as obligatory first foreign languages start from the beginner level, while the subject of second foreign language is mostly at the level of lower-intermediate or intermediate, in reality, depending on the group of students in that particular school year.

The special focus in these language subjects is given to the so called *language for the specific* purposes (in case of English language – ESP) or language used in context of profession of students, in this case, music and dance education. Focus is on specific vocabulary and content of the particular social and artistic field. Teachers mostly use the classical teaching materials and technology: *low-technology* (blackboard/classical whiteboards, books, workbooks, dictionaries, notebooks, photo-copied materials, pictures, etc.) and *high-technology*, such as CDs, DVDs, and if provided mobile devices and the Internet (e-books, videos, podcasts, mobile applications, online dictionaries, online games, social-networks, etc.).

The Serbian National Programme and Curriculum recognizes the importance of introducing language for specific purposes, providing space in the annual curriculum of 10–25% or 15–40% depending on the number of classes per week (two or three classes). In the first case, that is 47 lessons, but in the second case, it is 108 lessons for all four years of study. Teachers are often not trained to

teach a foreign language of a particular profession; therefore, they have to further familiarize themselves with the characteristics of the profession and in particular examine the students' interest in this field. It is necessary that the teacher understands how language is used in a particular scientific discipline or profession, which indicates that the function of teachers of foreign languages is to provide professional interdisciplinary features. Therefore, teachers are advised to use modern technologies in the classroom and further develop the possible activities for using virtual museums in the language learning classroom, in order to meet the student's needs and interests.

Museums and virtual museums: towards a definition

A museum is an institution that preserves: (a) a collection of artifacts and other objects of scientific, artistic, cultural, or historical importance, preserves the information or knowledge that objects embody; and (b) makes the collections available for public viewing through exhibits that may be permanent or temporary. A specific learning opportunity offered by the 'real' museum is the experiential nature of learning based on the encounter with real objects. In addition, museums today provide modern ways of learning, while increasing the satisfaction of museum's visitors by incorporating digital technology systems and installations, thus offering visitors and users a *virtual experience* inside the museum. The term virtual can be defined as something that is created, simulated, and realized by using a computer or computer network.

Traditionally, museums were using only real objects as exhibits to convey information to their visitors. Museums today are much more than "a house full of specimens in glass cases." During the last two decades a new trend exists which is based on the involvement of the visitor and thus museums exploit technologically advanced systems first to attract more visitors to the museums and second to build the knowledge to their visitors in a more effective way or use online technologies in order to disseminate knowledge to remote areas as well (Zaharias et al., 2013:375).

In comparing the definition and consideration of etymology, terminology, and typology of museums on the Internet, Sviličić (2010), concluded that users (and the creators of such content on the Web) do not use the terms 'cyber,' 'virtual,' 'e-,' 'internet,' 'online,' and 'digital' in different ways when describing the museum online content. They are most often used as synonyms. The results suggest a distinct domination of the term 'online museum,' as opposed to all other definitions of terminology for such museums. This is to some extent understandable, given that the word 'online' has become all-encompassing term for almost any online phenomenon, even for a museum on the Internet.

Virtual museums do not possess the material artifacts that are typical for the classical museum; they mostly present an image of them. One of the first recorded definitions of 'virtual museum' is dated January 1997, written by Jamie McKenzie and published by the *Technology & Learning Magazine* (Negri, 2012:12):

> A virtual museum is a collection of electronic artifacts and information resources – virtually anything which can be digitalized. The collection may

> include paintings, drawings, photographs, diagrams, recordings, video segments, newspaper articles, transcripts of interviews, numerical databases and a host of other items which may be saved on the virtual museum's file server. It may also offer pointers to great resources around the world relevant to the museum's main focus.

The museum Internet site becomes a museum in itself, with most of the social functions of the 'real' museum available through the web. According to Weiden (2012:21), *museum websites* can be divided into four categories: brochure, content, learning, and a virtual museum. A virtual museum is born when two or more museum websites are integrated – when similar collections from different museums are brought together as one on a website, for example, The Musical Instrument Museum Online – MIMO, www.mimo-international.com/MIMO/. In the sense that one digital collection is created and as such has become a 'museum without walls.' As examples of VMs he presents the following: Virtual Museum of Canada, European Virtual Museum, Google Art, Girl Museum, Europeana, and 3D Ancient Wonders.

According to Antonaci and Ott (2014) the concept of VMs is not new, but only recently the term has become popular and widespread, referring to a still 'in progress' definition:

> A Virtual Museum is a digital creation organized on a permanent or temporal basis in the service of society and its development, open to the public, which acquires, conserves, researches, communicates and exhibits, in a digital way, the tangible and intangible heritage of humanity and its environment. It uses various forms of interactivity and immersion, for the purpose of education, research, enjoyment and enhancement of visitor experience.

In addition, Antonaci et al. (2013) propose that a wide variety of virtual museums (VMs) exist, which are different not only as to the contents, but also as to structure, objectives, implementation techniques, presentation methods, as well as interaction approaches. From a technical perspective, the VMs may cover various types of digital creations, ranging from repositories of multimedia contents, to virtual reality and 3D reconstructions, etc. They need a dedicated space to be accessed: either a dedicated physical space inside a traditional museum or visitor center, or a cyberspace (visual presentations accessible via Internet, content distributed on DVDs, etc.). Independently of the technical implementation, VMs are applications oriented to knowledge raising and learning. Similarly, Negri (2012:16) acknowledges that a virtual museum "is a complex independent museum dimension which lives its life in a variety of media. The virtual dimension offers spaces and experiences that go beyond architectural spaces and beyond collections' limits."

The group of authors Panina et al. (2013:502) acknowledge that a virtual museum reproduces some aspects of a real museum, including the catalogs of the collections, exhibit display, etc. As a rule, a virtual museum is distinguished by the

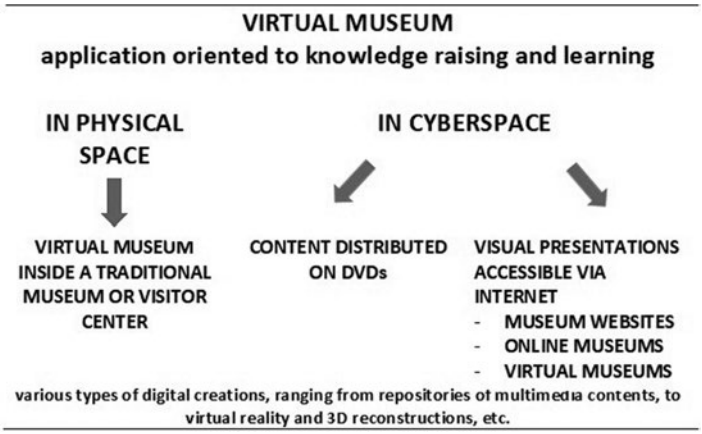


Figure 16.1 Virtual museum (VM)

possibility of feedback by the visitors of the website, extensive reproductions of museum objects, the presence of three-dimensional virtual exhibitions, enabling a visitor to make a virtual trip around the exhibition and to customize it to one's personal needs (Figure 16.1).

The use of new types of interactive systems can contribute to the experience of visitors in museums. By providing authentic learning and entertainment at the same time, these systems can enhance students', users', or visitors'[1] levels of active participation and engagement and their intention to repeat the visits.

The role of museums and virtual museums in contemporary education

Web 2.0, social media, and mobile technologies are some of the defining issues for museums in the 21st century. Traditional approaches to education and learning in museums are based on a constructivist model or theory of learning that focuses on the learner and the meanings they make based on their prior experience, knowledge, and interests. Applying this model, museums can create a pleasant, friendly, and stimulating learning environment that meets individual needs for concrete experience, individual contemplation, communication, and social interaction (Gajić & Milutinović, 2011:290). Constructivism had a major influence on the ways that museums thought about learning during the 1990s. The learning principles that emerged from constructivist thought were the following:

- learning is an active process of constructing meaning from sensory input;
- people learn about the process of learning, as well as the content, as they learn;
- learning happens in the mind;

- language and learning are inextricably linked;
- learning is a social activity in conjunction with others;
- learning is contextual, in that we learn in relation to what we already know, to our beliefs, and our prejudices;
- previous knowledge is a pre-requisite to learning;
- learning occurs over long periods of time, through repeated exposure and thought;
- motivation is essential for learning.

In order to facilitate meaningful learning, museums need to create environments that encourage exploration and enable meaning to be constructed through choice, challenge, control, and collaboration, leading to self-discovery, pride in achievements, learning, and change. There are many reasons for adopting a constructivist model or orientation to learning as a theoretical basis for educational work in museums. Applying this model, museums can create a pleasant, friendly, and stimulating learning environment that meets individual needs for concrete experience, individual contemplation, communication, and social interaction (Gaijić & Milutinović, 2010:154). Intellectual acts of teaching aim to produce awareness rather than specific products of learning, and do not seek agreement but rather convincing reasons, evidence, justification, and conclusion for the learner's responses. The learner is thus afforded greater autonomy than is possible in learning as an enterprise.

By accepting the fact that learning is a core concern of the museum, it is necessary that in the theoretical framework of this study we briefly consider the theories of learning and development. In our opinion, the cognitive theoretical important concepts are Dewey's *theory of experience, thinking, and learning*, Piaget's *developmental theory of learning*, Sociocultural theory of Vygotsky, *Conceptions of learning, categorization, and search for meaning* by Bruner, and Gardner's *theory of multiple intelligence*.

According to Antonaci, Otto, and Pozzi, the idea that when using VMs in classrooms, coherently with the overall mission of 21st-century education, a wider spectrum of learning objectives can be addressed. In the classroom context, only when teachers design the learning activities properly and adopt suitable educational methods, VMs can represent an important asset to the development of some of the 21st-century skills and transform the learner's 'virtual visit' into an effective 'learning experience.'

Museum websites and VMs are mostly felt as tools oriented to enhance learning in the field of cultural heritage, knowledge, and competences related to the specific domain (i.e. arts and cultural heritage), but they can also to enhance the development of all 21st-century skills:

- Personal skills (initiative, resilience, responsibility, risk taking, creativity, critical thinking),
- Social skills (learning to work as a team, networking, empathy, collaboration),
- Learning skills (managing, organizing, problem solving, metacognitive skills),

- Cultural and language skills (intercultural understanding and cultural participation; intercultural communication, dialogue), and
- ICT or Digital and/or Media literacy skills.

Different taxonomies of learning experiences in a museum have been proposed and most of them take into account new learning developments and theories and approach learning in the digital age not as a passive transmission of information to the learners/users of interactive technologies but as an active process through which people construct new understandings of the world around them (Zaharias et al., 2013).

Virtual museums in secondary music and ballet classroom of English language learning

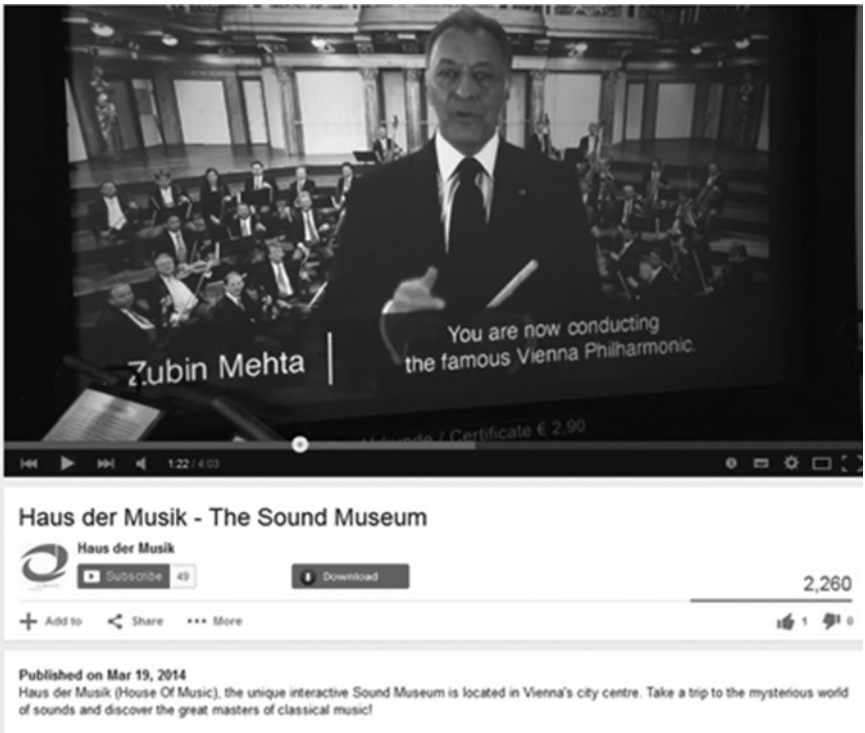
Museums as well as VMs are open and dynamic environments where individuals of all ages can learn at their own pace, satisfy curiosity, research, and test their own ideas, socialize, and enjoy themselves. Exploring the cultural artifacts in the museums is definitely beneficial for providing authentic experiences with the works of art.

Museum websites are the most common type of virtual museum existing on the Internet today. These sites are all very different in style and features: with or without an online collection and a YouTube channel or videos on pages, with general information, descriptions, texts about objects and images, and mostly with the 360° virtual tours of museum rooms or galleries (silent or with music in the background).

Museums and schools have a long history of working together to facilitate students' learning in and through the arts. The practice of using museum collections in the learning process in the disciplines related to the field of music and dance (ballet) can be developed in at least three forms:

1. *Course support for lecturing* as illustrating materials (a series of illustrations); virtual field trips with students.
2. *Course support for independent work with study materials.*
3. *Course support for knowledge testing* as materials for an independent students' (final) project.

A museum with digital technology, interactive installations or equipment in exhibitions can be defined as an interactive discovery museum with the latest mixed media and multimedia installations, special exhibition items and computer simulations within the physical museum walls offering visitors and users a 'virtual experience.' The purpose of these technologies is to attract more visitors to the physical space of the museum. By allowing the virtual interactivity of the user with a 3D representation of objects or the tour within virtual worlds these systems provide modern ways of learning while increasing the satisfaction of the museum's visitors. This category includes applications that run on various systems, for

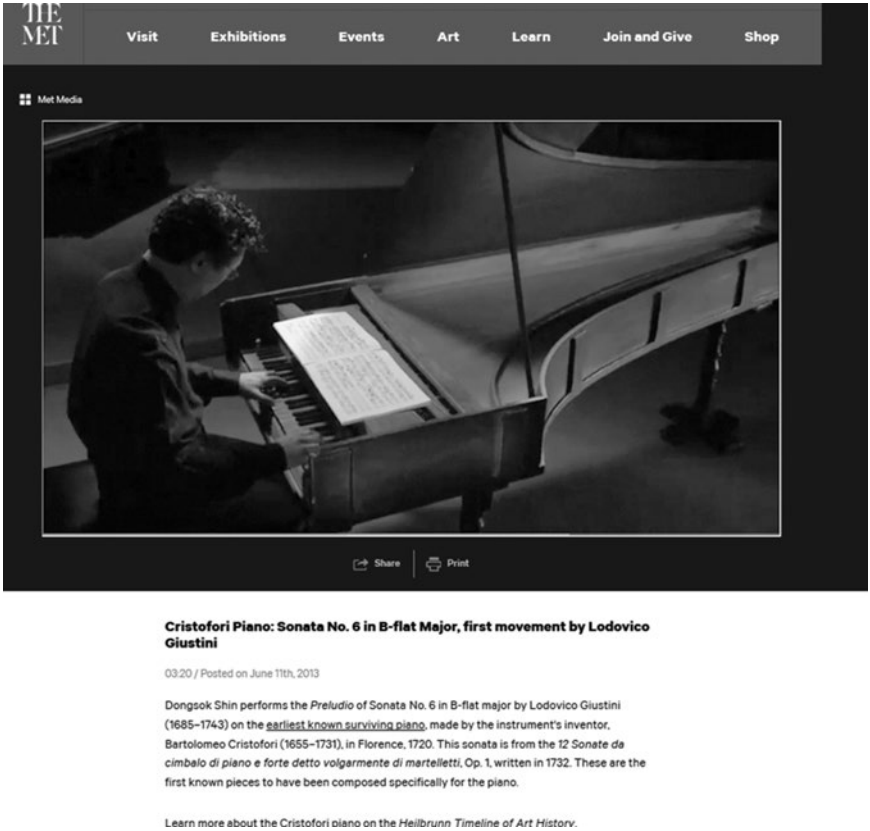


Picture 16.1 Haus der Musik – Virtual conductor

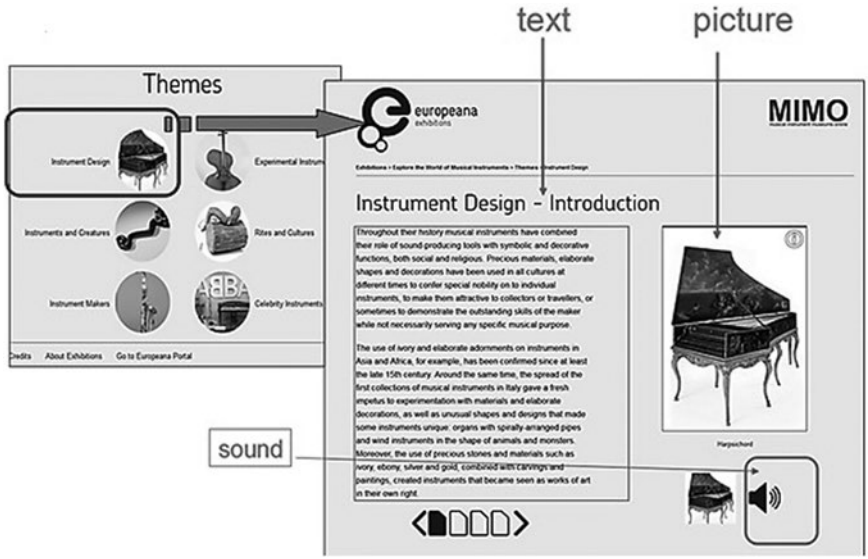
example, multi-touch tables and augmented reality systems. An example of such installation – Conducting the Philharmonic Orchestra – can be found in many museums today, e.g. in Europe *Haus der Musik (Sound Museum)* in Vienna, Austria (Picture 16.1). In the context of language learning, this type of museum can be incorporated as an online activity of listening and watching a video about these museums. Thus, students are exposed to authentic language or different varieties of the English language and are also exposed to new content and vocabulary. Depending on the content presented in the video, many teaching methods may be applied and many activities can be designed.

As already mentioned, the use of new types of interactive systems can contribute to the experience of visitors in museums. By providing authentic learning and entertainment at the same time, these systems can enhance students', users', or visitors' level of active participation and engagement and their intention to repeat the visits.

The possible benefits of using virtual museums as the vehicle for engaging English language learners (ELLs) can be to familiarize students with museums and works of art (Pictures 16.2 and 16.3). In the meantime, it can also provide the opportunity for students to approach language learning in a playful manner by creating an environment for self-motivation, exploration and sharing.



Picture 16.2 The Metropolitan Museum of Art (text and video)



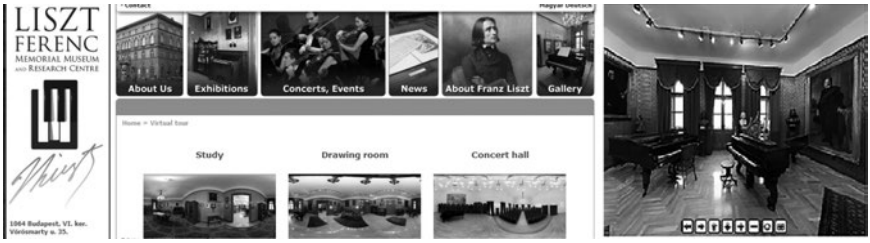
Picture 16.3 Exhibition Europeana

Picture 16.4 The National Ballet of Canada – Virtual Museum

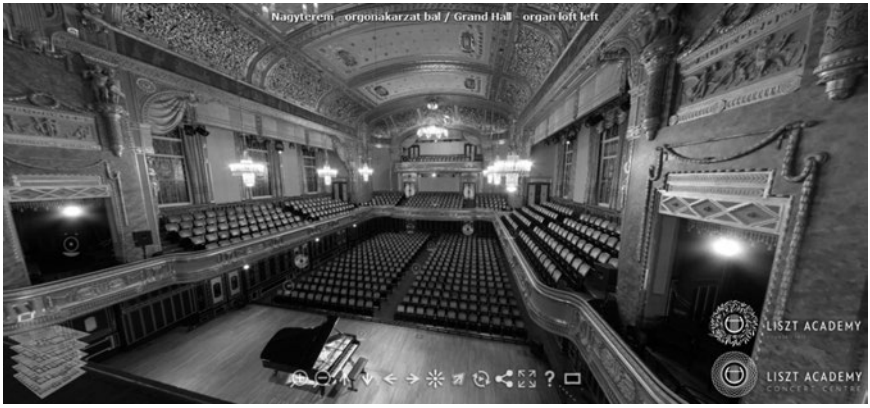
Many art museums allow people to explore more than a thousand artworks online in astonishing detail. Some utilize 3D Panorama Technology, also known as 3D Street View Technology, to reconstruct the actual museum galleries. Visitors can virtually explore the museums with Street View technology by easily navigating though an interactive floor plan, virtually moving around the galleries, selecting works of art that catch their eye, finding more works by the same artist, and later watching related videos and similar artworks in museums (Pictures 16.4, 16.5 and 16.6). Such tours make museum art more accessible, not only to regular museum-goers or those fortunate to have great art exhibitions or galleries on their doorsteps, but also to a completely new set of people who might otherwise never get to see such art or cultural heritage up close.

By taking part in a virtual museum tour students can:

- view a great amount of masterpieces of art or objects of cultural heritage,
- develop descriptive writing skills by using adjectives and descriptive phrases,
- identify and describe the artistic elements (i.e. lines, colors, shapes, mood) that are present in a piece of art (music piece, ballet) or in the object presented,
- observe a set of artworks and record the information on the thematic focus of their group,



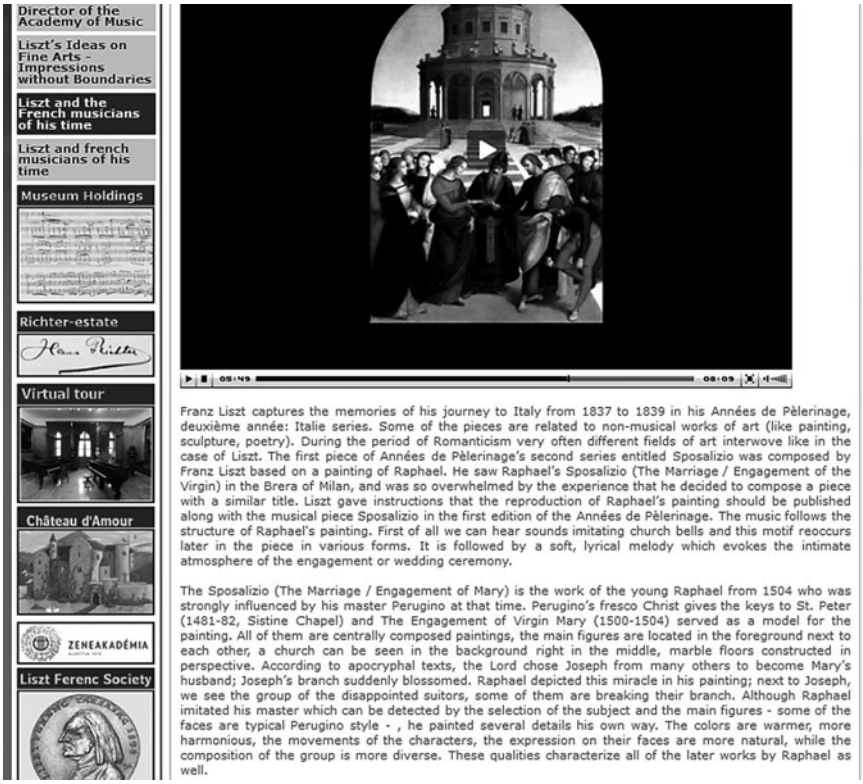
Picture 16.5 Virtual tour (360°) at: Ferenc Liszt Memorial Museum and Research Centre



Picture 16.6 Virtual tour (360°) at Liszt Academy of Music

- explain to peers what they think about the artworks,
- give a mini tour of one of the museums – it engages a class of students in conversation so that the students can listen to the observations of others and add that information to their own to construct deeper meanings collaboratively.

In reference to giving a mini tour, students as groups can prepare the tour in many ways. The first way is to explore the existing exhibitions on the museum website. For example, *Liszt Ferenc Memorial Museum and Research Centre* (Picture 16.7) has a long and detailed text about the objects that can be viewed live or by a virtual tour. Students could prepare by reading the text, e.g. a single room, then by note-taking about specific objects they find important, and later presenting their research by speaking on the topic and guiding other students through the rooms viewed on the screen or projected on the board. Groups do the following activities and can exchange their work later on. Students can also listen to an *audio guide*[2] in English (or in 11 other languages). On the same museum website there is a great guide to the music of Franc (Ferenc) Liszt that consists of a video – the audio of the music



Picture 16.7 Video as a tool for additional explanation of a music piece (intangible heritage)

piece with a slide-show of images relevant to the content of the piece, composer's life, or events that triggered Liszt to compose that particular piece of music.

In addition, students in groups or individually can conceptualize, design, and construct their own museum galleries according to their individual and group interests, values, and beliefs. By testing their ideas through negotiation, adaptation, and transformation, they can build up skills in researching, responding to, manipulating, connecting, and re-contextualizing information in the multimodal environment. As seen in this section, there are many types, features and examples of virtual museums (see Table 16.1 below).

Final remarks

Museum learning, Web 2.0, art of music, and language learning appear to be separate fields that do not usually come together. Regardless of their distinct focus areas and ways of conceptualizing knowledge, beliefs, and experiences, we can maximize the learning potential of students from diverse cultural backgrounds

Table 16.1 Summary of reviewed *MUSEUMS of BALLET and MUSIC: Ballet, Musical Instruments, Classical Music, Composers (in English Language)*

MUSEUMS of BALLET and MUSIC		
Types	*Features*	*Example*
Museums with digital technology interactive installations or equipment in exhibitions	an interactive discovery museum with the latest mixed media and multimedia installations, special exhibition items, and computer simulations (e.g. conducting the philharmonic orchestra)	• MIM – Musical Instrument Museum • 'Haus der Musik' (an interactive sound museum)
Museum websites	• with or without an online collection • with or without a YouTube channel or videos on pages • general information • descriptions/texts • images • 360° virtual tours of museum rooms/ galleries (silent or with music in the background)	• MIM – Musical Instrument Museum • Metropolitan Museum of Art/Thematic Essay (New York, USA) e.g. Ballet, Musical Terms for the Seventeenth and Eighteenth Centuries, Musical Instruments, Grand piano, The Guitar, etc. • Liszt Ferenc Memorial Museum and Research Centre • NMM – The National Music Museum • Aram Khachaturian Museum • Museum of Making Music • The National Museum of American History/Music and Musical Instruments • The University of Edinburgh – The Musical Instrument Museum Edinburgh
Museums named as 'online museums'	museums with collections online • general information • descriptions/texts • images • audio/video	• Musical Instrument • Museum Online – MIMO Exhibitions Europeana.
Museums named as 'virtual museums'	specially created online sites as museums • general information • descriptions/texts • texts (biography, letters, list of works, etc.) • image galleries • links • flash time lines	• Aram Khachaturian Virtual Museum • The National Ballet Canada – Virtual Museum
3D virtual museums	specially created content existing only in form of virtual; replicating museum physical image, walking through galleries, looking at objects, reading description cards, listening to some audio/music, etc.	• New York Philharmonic for Children 'Kidzone'/Composers' Gallery

by integrating them together where language learning can support and reinforce the understanding in different cultural contexts. While the art museum collection reveals the culture value that is also the essence of language, language serves as a tool to communicate and to reinforce those culture values. In addition, languages as the asset of human society become abstract when they are detached from solid experience, and art museum collections become meaningless without a story attached to them. The benefits of using virtual museums as a vehicle for engaging English language learners (ELLs) can be to familiarize students with the museums and the vocabulary in appreciating the work of art. In the meantime, it will also provide the opportunity to approach the language in a playful manner by self-motivating in exploring and sharing. In conclusion, virtual museums can provide supplemental learning resources for achieving the learning outcomes set out in the lessons of English as a foreign language. Thus, teachers can enrich the English language curriculum through infusion of authentic texts, images, video, audio, and much more from virtual museums (VMs – museums with digital equipment/museum websites/online museums/virtual museums).

Notes

1 According to Negrini et al. (2012:78), demographically, visitors and Internet users (of cultural heritage websites) are becoming the same group of people. Technology will not bring new audiences, but the traditional audience will adopt the Internet for culture (as for any other matter).
2 Orpheo Global Visitor Solutions, www.lisztmuseum.hu/en/aboutus/audioguide/

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17 Exploring computer-mediated second language oral proficiency testing

Carla Schnitzer-Hall

Introduction

Many second language (L2) speakers of English use computer technologies such as video-conferencing platforms and voice recording to achieve their work, social, and education-related goals. As access to affordable computer technologies continues to increase, the use of these tools may address cost and convenience issues in the administration of L2 spoken proficiency tests. Computer technology is already used extensively in semi-direct, monologic tests of speaking, which involve recording test takers' responses to written, visual, audio, or video prompts on a computer (e.g., *TOEFL iBT*, *CELPIP*, *TOEIC*). Speaking tests conducted with the use of video-conferencing may also be a viable option in some contexts as they may address not only the concerns of expense and logistics, but also the validity issues over potential construct underrepresentation in semi-direct testing. This study examined the use of video-conferencing for the delivery of two widely used, in-person test formats: the one-to-one, examiner/test taker interview, and the paired test taker format, and compared test takers' performance results and attitudes towards these formats with the monologic format.

The introduction of any new dimension into the testing experience, including a new test delivery format or mode, requires the gathering of evidence to understand how it affects test takers' performances and the assessment of those performances. Through validation studies that gather such evidence, we hope to amass support for the interpretations and inferences made about test takers' abilities to perform outside the testing context (Bachman & Palmer, 1996). There has been extensive test validation work comparing the ratings of test taker performances on direct and semi-direct testing (Kenyon & Tschirner, 2000; Shohamy et al., 1989; Stanfield & Kenyon, 1992; Wigglesworth & O'Loughlin, 1993); performance features on the two different test formats (Shohamy, 1994); and test takers' attitudes towards the different modes of delivery (Kenyon & Malabonga, 2001; Kiddle & Kormos, 2011; Qian, 2009). Similar research has been conducted comparing traditional examiner/test taker format oral proficiency interviews with paired-candidate format spoken proficiency tests (Brooks, 2009; ffrench, 2003; Saville & Hargreaves, 1999). Little research, however, has analyzed the ratings of test taker performances on these formats when examiners and

test takers interact via video-conferencing. This study compared the ratings of test taker performances across three different computer-mediated test formats. It also examined test takers' test format preferences.

The study sought to answer the following research questions:

1 Do test takers receive the same overall mean scores across three different formats?
2 Which method of test delivery format is most acceptable to test takers?

The results from this study will be used to guide further analyses of linguistic and structural differences characteristic of the test performances in each format. The results may also contribute to our understanding of the mediating effects of computer and online technologies on the assessment of speaking, and how these affect the conceptualization of the test construct.

Literature review

Direct and semi-direct testing

In semi-direct testing of speaking, the examiner-interlocutor is removed from the testing context and test takers record their oral responses to a written or recorded prompt. Much of the research on semi-direct speaking tests has involved establishing concurrent validity between semi-direct and direct formats, specifically comparing performances on the Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI) and the Simulated Oral Proficiency Interview (SOPI), a tape-recorded version of the OPI. This research has examined correlations between mean test scores on the two formats and the features of language that they elicit. Studies comparing the in-person OPI and the semi-direct, tape-mediated, SOPI show that there are high correlations between performance scores for the same test taker on the two formats (Kenyon & Tschirner, 2000; Shohamy et al., 1989; Stanfield & Kenyon, 1992; Wigglesworth & O'Loughlin, 1993). Similarly, research conducted on Versant tests, another group of tests that captures test takers' responses to recorded prompts, found a high correlation between performances on these tests and live oral proficiency interviews (Bernstein et al., 2010). Kiddle and Kormos' (2011) study comparing scores on an online, semi-direct speaking test with those using a face-to-face format also found no significant differences.

The OPI, SOPI, and the Computer Oral Proficiency Interview (COPI) have also been examined from the perspective of test takers' perceptions and preferences. Kenyon and Malabonga (2001) found that test takers who participated in all three tests formats did not in general have a strong preference for one format over another. However, test takers did state that the test formats differed in their ability to capture specific aspects of language performance. Findings from similar research suggest that, of the test takers who do have a preference, most favor the direct mode (Qian, 2009; Kiddle & Kormos, 2011).

Paired and one-to-one formats

Paired-format speaking tests involve two candidates conversing for all or part of the exam. The rationale behind including this format in a speaking test is that it may represent a more authentic and broadened view of the construct being tested than a one-on-one exchange with an examiner (Brooks, 2009; ffrench, 2003; Saville & Hargreaves, 1999). Indeed, analyses of the structural and linguistic features of interview format tests have challenged test developers' claims that these tests elicit conversational language (Johnson, 2001; Lazaraton, 1992). Much of the research on paired-format speaking tests has focused on the interactional and linguistic features that peer interaction tends to produce, and there is evidence to suggest that this test delivery format provides more opportunities to elicit different types of language than does the interview format (Galaczi, 2003, 2014; ffrench, 2003; Brooks, 2009).

In addition to providing opportunities to elicit a wider range of discourse and interactional features than interview format tests, the paired-candidate format appeals to many test takers (Egyud & Glover, 2001; May, 2000; Taylor, 2001). Another possible advantage is that it reduces the examiner's role in eliciting the speech sample, allowing them to focus more closely on rating performances (Taylor, 2001), and reducing the power asymmetry that occurs in any testing situation between the examiner and the candidate (Egyud & Glover, 2001; Johnson, 2001). Finally, this format may contribute to positive washback in the classroom by encouraging more interaction among peers (Saville & Hargreaves, 1999; Taylor, 2001; Norton, 2005).

Testing speaking using video-conferencing technology

The little research that has been conducted on L2 oral proficiency testing using video-conferencing platforms has focused on the comparability of scores between tests administered through video-conferencing and in-person interviews. Research conducted by both Clark and Hooshmand (1992) and Kim and Craig (2012) has suggested that VC-mediated interview tests are comparable in scoring reliability to in-person formats. Test takers' attitudes towards testing with video-conferencing technology have also been studied. An early study by Clark and Hooshmand's (1992) indicated that the majority of test takers preferred to be tested in person. However, Kim and Craig's (2012) more recent study found that test takers generally felt that video-conferenced tests were less anxiety producing than in-person ones. There is little research, however, comparing test takers' attitudes towards examiner-only and paired-candidate test formats mediated by video-conferencing and computer-administered monologic tests.

Method

Forty-four English L2 students from a Canadian university volunteered to participate in the study. All test takers participated in three formats of the test.

In two formats, test takers and examiners communicated through the video-conferencing platform Adobe Connect. For one of the video-conferenced tests, examiners and test takers engaged in a one-to-one interaction where test takers responded to semi-scripted examiner questions. In the other video-conferenced test, a three-way video-conference call was set up between an examiner and two test takers. In this format the examiner guided the two test takers to interact with each other. The third format involved test takers responding monologically to written prompts on a computer. Examiners scored all performances by giving an overall rating derived from the completion of an analytic grid.

Participants

Thirteen males and 31 females, ranging in age from 19 to 47, took part in the study. All participants were L2 speakers of English studying at the undergraduate or graduate level. Twelve of the 44 participants had previously taken a standardized speaking test, seven had taken a standardized monologic computerized test, and one had taken a speaking test via Skype.

Four female examiner-raters were recruited to administer the tests and score the test takers' performances. The examiner-raters had between four and eight years of experience delivering and scoring in-person, one-to-one format speaking tests, and each examiner-rater completed a standardization task before participating in the study.

Instruments

Test taker and examiner-rater background questionnaires

Before participating in the speaking tests, test takers and examiner-raters completed separate online questionnaires that gathered demographic information as well as information on the test takers' previous experience with speaking tests. Examiner-raters provided information on their experience administering and scoring speaking tests.

General proficiency test

Test takers completed a reading and cloze proficiency test to determine their general proficiency level.

The speaking tests

The three different test delivery formats were adapted from an in-person test designed to measure test takers' ability to use academic English. In the original, in-person test, test takers are given one of six parallel topics as the speaking stimulus. In this study three different topics were used. Measures were taken to ensure that each of the test stimuli were of equivalent difficulty level. These

measures included specifying the number of propositions per text, maintaining a word count range, and conducting a *CoMetrix* readability and coherence analysis. All tests were audio-visually recorded. *Adobe Connect* was used for the two test formats delivered via video-conferencing. For the monologic test, a PowerPoint with test instructions and task stimuli was uploaded to individual computers. *Screencast-o-matic* was used to capture the audio-visual recording of the test takers' oral responses.

Attitude questionnaire

After participating in each test delivery format, test takers completed a brief questionnaire that asked how easy the topic was to speak about, how well they felt they performed on the test format, and how much they liked or disliked the test.

Scoring rubric

The same scoring rubric, which includes descriptors for the five analytic categories of listening comprehension, accuracy and range of grammar, accuracy and range of vocabulary, fluency and interaction, and pronunciation, was used to judge all performances. When scoring the performances on the monologic tasks, the raters were instructed to disregard the descriptors for listening comprehension and interaction because test takers received no audio input and did not interact with another person in this test format.

Test taker posttest questionnaire and interviews

After completing all tests, the test takers completed an online questionnaire and participated in an interview with the investigator, both of which gathered information on their test delivery preferences and reasons for these preferences.

Procedures

The data collection procedures were as follows:

- Study participants were sent the online pretest questionnaire to complete before the data collection session.
- In each data collection session, test takers first completed the reading and cloze proficiency test to establish their general proficiency level.
- Test takers then participated in the three formats of the test in a random order.

The order of the formats, as well as the order of the three topics, was also randomized for both the examiners and the test takers. Each test taker received a different topic to speak on in each of the formats. Within each test session, the topics were rotated among the test formats so that each test taker spoke on a different topic for each test format. In addition, the order in which the test takers completed each format was varied. After each test administration, test takers

completed Likert-scale questions about their familiarity and comfort with the topic they talked about, their assessment of their performance on that particular format, and how much they liked or disliked the test delivery format.

- The examiner-raters scored the test takers' performances immediately following the administration of the two video-conferenced formats of the test. Raters scored audio-visual recordings of the monologic performances at a later date.
- When all three tests were completed, test takers and examiners participated in separate interviews with the investigator. Test takers were first asked to identify which format they preferred and to explain why. They were also asked specific questions about participating in the tests using the video-conferencing platform.
- Test takers then completed a posttest online questionnaire that gathered more specific information about their attitudes towards the three formats.

Results

Reliability

The reliability of the overall scores for the three test formats were: Cronbach's α = .83 for the monologic test format, α = .81 for the paired-candidate format, and = .76 for the examiner-only format. There was high reliability among the raters (α = .96). An ordinal weighted Brenann-Pediger was calculated to determine rater agreement. The Brenann-Pediger statistic = .87 ($p < 0.001$), 95% CI (0.85, 0.89) indicates a high level of agreement among raters (Landis & Koch, 1977). All the raters in this study had completed ongoing training in administering and scoring the in-person test and had been regularly monitored overtime for a high level of internal consistency.

Test taker performance scores

To determine if test taker scores differed significantly across the three formats, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was computed for the overall scores and for the individual scores on the analytic grid. Means scores for the three Likert-type questions on the attitude questionnaire were calculated and compared.

Table 17.1 shows that means and standard deviations for the three test formats were 3.9 (58), 4.1 (48), and 4.0 (.56) respectively. There was no substantive difference in scores and SD across tasks.

Table 17.1 Test takers' overall mean scores on the three different delivery formats

Test format	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*Minimum*	*Maximum*
Monologic test	44	3.90	5.83	3.00	5.00
Paired-candidate test	44	4.03	4.77	3.00	5.00
Examiner-candidate test	44	4.06	5.64	2.50	5.00

An analysis of variance was conducted and revealed no significant differences between groups in the overall mean scores, F (2,86) = 2.06, ns. Mean scores on the four categories of the analytic grid (accuracy in grammar, F (2,86) = 1.09, ns.; accuracy in vocabulary, F(2,86) = .460, ns.; pronunciation, F (2,86) = .708, ns.; and fluency, F(2,86) = 3.07, ns.) were also not statistically significantly different.

Test taker feedback

Test takers' feedback on the three formats was analyzed to gain greater insight into their perceptions of the testing experiences in general, and more specifically to determine their perceptions of their performance on the different formats. Two measures were used to gather how much test takers liked each format. First, immediately after each test administration, test takers completed a six-point Likert-scale question asking how much they liked the test format. In addition, after participating in all three different formats, they also completed an online questionnaire asking which they liked best, least, or if they had no preference. Test takers were also invited to write comments explaining their choices. As Table 17.2 indicates, test takers rated the monologic format least likable (M = 1.8). The paired-candidate (M = 3.6) and examiner-only formats (M = 4.0) were rated more favorably. Consistent with these results were the online responses of test takers' format preferences. Only two test takers preferred the monologic test over the other formats, while 16 preferred the paired-candidate format, and 24 liked the examiner-candidate format best. Two test takers had no preference.

Immediately after each test administration, test takers were also asked to complete a six-point Likert-scale question assessing their performance on the test. Table 17.3 shows that the mean scores for test takers' self-assessments were lowest for the monologic format (M = 1.77), whereas the mean scores for the paired-candidate (M = 2.90) and examiner-candidate (3.50) formats were higher.

Table 17.2 Mean score ratings of test takers' likeability and preference for test delivery formats

Format	*M Likeability*	*SD*	*Liked Best*	*Liked least*
Monologic	1.82	1.39	2	37
Paired-candidate	3.59	1.15	16	3
Examiner-candidate	3.95	1.05	24	2

Table 17.3 Mean scores of test takers' self-assessment on test format

Format	*Mean*	*SD*	*Minimum*	*Maximum*
Monologic	1.77	1.27	0.00	5.00
Paired-candidate	2.90	1.11	1.00	5.00
Examiner-candidate	3.50	1.05	1.00	5.00

Correlation analyses were used to examine the relationship between test takers' self-assessments and raters' assessments of performances. Results indicated positive medium correlations between self-assessment of performance and actual scores obtained on the monologic format ($r = .363$, n = 44, $p < .05$) and the examiner-only format ($r = .325$, n = 44, $p < .05$). This may indicate that some test takers are aware of how well they performed on these two formats.

There was a large correlation between self-assessment of performance and how much test takers liked the monologic format ($r = .516$, n = 44, $p < .01$), and a medium correlation between self-assessment and likeability in the paired-candidate formats ($r = .406$, n = 44, $p < .01$). This suggests that in these two formats, test takers' feelings towards the experience are related to how they perceive their performances.

Test takers also answered a six-point Likert-scale question that asked how easy the topic was to talk about. A one-way ANOVA was conducted to determine if test takers' mean scores were affected by the topic they spoke about. The analysis indicated no statistically significant differences in means scores and topic across the three test formats.

Analysis

Establishing concurrent validity (i.e., that there are no significant differences in test takers' overall and analytic mean scores across the three delivery formats) is an important source of evidence in the validation process when comparing different test formats. However, this information alone is inadequate to confirm that the three formats elicit the same test construct. Using only one source of data to establish equivalency may mask an underlying variability in test takers' performances. Therefore, other sources of evidence are required to determine if there are other effects that result from different test formats, modes of test delivery, and test taker production modes. One source of evidence is test taker feedback about the three different formats.

As the results indicate, most test takers preferred the examiner-only format. Preliminary analysis of the follow-up interviews with test takers and the post-test questionnaire data suggest that one of the main reasons for this preference was that test takers felt that it presented them with special advantages lacking in the other formats, particularly the monologic format. One such advantage cited was the feedback they received from the examiner. Test takers were cognizant of the unique nature of examiner input and how it could be beneficial for their performance. For example, they commented that the examiners' talk was very 'structured' and easy to understand. Some also commented that the examiner would help them with misunderstandings. In addition, test takers noted that it was easier to display their abilities in a one-to-one interaction rather than with another test taker or by speaking to a computer.

The test takers who preferred the paired-format test identified a number of reasons for their preference. First, many felt that being paired with another test taker created a more relaxing atmosphere, which in turn helped their performance.

Contributing to this sense of ease was the time afforded to them to formulate their thoughts while the other test taker was talking. Many test takers also commented that they were able to use the input of the other test taker in terms of both content and language, indicating that they were well aware of the co-constructed nature of the interaction.

The monologic format garnered the strongest reaction from test takers. Most test takers felt they were disadvantaged by the time restrictions the format imposed on them. Test taker responses were restricted to 90 seconds and many felt that this was either too short or, in some cases, too long. Most test takers found this aspect of the test stress-inducing, and indicated that it may have negatively affected their performance. Test takers' comments also identified talking to a machine as both inauthentic and stressful. Compared to the other test formats, the monologic format offers test takers few conventional conversational references to draw on. Other than leaving messages on answering machines, communicative opportunities to practice this kind of interaction are uncommon. The task itself, responding to questions regarding a text, is not unusual in an academic context; however, orally responding to a written text with only an imagined interlocutor is an act that only a small number of people have experience with. Allowing test takers more control over the timing and interaction with the technology may help to mitigate the atypical nature of this communicative event.

Although test takers expressed a strong dislike for the mediating effects of the computer in the monologic test, surprisingly few commented on the video-conferencing aspect of the two other tests. The majority of test takers felt that the use of a video-conferencing platform did not impede their observation and use of extra-linguistic resources such as gaze and gesture. When test takers were asked if they felt that the restricted visual frame of the screen affected the interaction, most said it did not. However, one theme that did emerge was that test takers experienced some confusion over whose turn it was to speak, especially in the paired-candidate format, and that they relied on the examiner to guide the interaction.

Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to explore and compare three computer-mediated test formats for second language oral proficiency testing. Although no statistical differences in test takers' mean scores were found across the three formats, the analysis of their attitudes towards the different formats revealed that they represent very different testing experiences, and may be tapping different underlying abilities. Test takers' strong reaction to the time restrictions imposed in the monologic test format may speak to the differences in the mental processing of written text and conversational dialogue. It would seem that the time allotted to read and respond to a written prompt was more than what would be allowed in a spoken conversation. However, the majority of test takers felt that the written input did not provide them with the same scaffolding as a live interlocutor. Related to this, test takers' observations about how they employed

the interlocutor as a resource in formulating their own responses reveal their perceptions of communication as a co-constructed phenomenon. This insight is confirmed by their strong reactions to the monologic format, where this resource is missing. Interestingly, it may be that the use of computer technology, while surely mediating the interaction, was less important to test takers than the inclusion or removal of the interlocutor.

Although further analyses are necessary to identify other possible areas of difference among the three tests, test takers' responses to their testing experiences can offer valuable insights into test characteristics that may be difficult to access in other ways. They may, too, provide starting points for these further analyses, such as identifying the linguistic and structural differences characteristic of the test performances on the different formats, and the raters' experiences assessing performances from the different formats, to shed more insight into how constructs are affected by test formats and delivery modes.

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18 Augmented reality-based creation of comics in primary education

George Koutromanos and Alivisos Sofos

Introduction

Several authors have pointed out the potential benefits of the use of mobile devices such as tablets and smartphones for educational purposes (e.g. Sung et al., 2016; Wu et al., 2012). There are plenty of advantages as far as these devices are concerned, like their small size, portability, wireless internet connection, GPS provider, camera/video camera, voice identification, and connection with other devices, resulting in these devices being more attractive compared to computers and laptops.

The characteristics of these devices caused the large-scale spread of Augumented Reality (AR) in education. According to Carmigniani and Furht (2011), AR is defined as a direct or indirect real-time view of the actual natural environment, which is enhanced by adding computer-created virtual information. A commonly accepted definition of AR renders it a system comprised of three main features: a) a combination of real and virtual objects, b) opportunities for real-time interaction, and c) accurate registration of three-dimensional virtual and real objects (Azuma, 1997). Klopfer and Squire (2008) define AR "broadly as a situation in which a real-world context is dynamically overlaid with coherent location or context sensitive virtual information" (p. 205). Wu et al. (2013) conclude that the notion of AR is not limited to some specific type of technology and could be reconsidered from a broad view nowadays. This chapter focuses on AR used on mobile devices technology and especially, on smartphones and tablets.

Empirical studies have examined the use AR-based technologies for teaching and learning purposes in various fields such as in natural sciences (e.g. Chang et al., 2013; Lin et al., 2013), engineering (e.g. Ibáñez et al., 2014; Jara et al., 2011), humanitarian sciences (e.g. Fallavollita et al., 2013; Ho et al., 2011), arts (e.g. Chang et al., 2014; Di Serio et al., 2013). The results of this research show that AR has an important effect on the increase of students' knowledge, the development of different skills, and it also contributes to the increase of motivation in learning. As far as the use of AR in teaching languages is concerned, research is limited, and it focuses on learning foreign languages (e.g. Liu & Chu, 2010; Liu & Tsai, 2013).

This chapter outlines a case study investigating the use of AR comics in teaching the Modern Greek language to primary school students (aged 10–11). The grammatical structure of the comic of the current study was exclamations (or interjections).

McCloud (1994) defines the term 'comics' as "juxtaposed pictorial and other images in deliberate sequence intended to convey information and/or to produce aesthetic response in the water" (p. 9). The comic has been chosen on the basis of students' interest as well as due to the fact that students are enthusiastic about reading comic stories. Although the idea of using digital comics in the classroom is quite old, the idea of designing activities in which students are asked to become authors of their own AR comics in the classroom is rather new. AR technology has promising potential that can be used in enhancing a comic by augmenting its pages with text, 3D characters, animations, audio, video, and interactive tasks.

The purpose of the present research is to study the creation procedure of an augmented reality comic by students. This had to do with exclamations. The objectives of this research are the following:

- to examine the effect that the creation of an augmented reality comic has on the students' knowledge regarding exclamations,
- to examine the interaction and cooperation developed among students through the creation of an augmented reality comic,
- to examine students' beliefs of using augmented reality in learning exclamations, as well as their preferences in relation to other grammatical phenomena,
- to examine the perceived ease of use of two different development tools for the creation of a comic by the students.

The rest of this chapter is structured as follows. In the next section, relevant papers that used AR books as well as AR in teaching languages are discussed. In the following sections, we present the methodology of the study, the results, and provide several recommendations for implementing AR in teaching modern languages with the use of comics.

Related work

Since the use of Augmented Reality (AR) in comics is a rather new concept, the number of studies conducted on the issue is rather limited. Additionally, there is a limited number of studies on the utilization of AR in the instruction of English or other languages. More specifically, several studies have developed AR books which involve overlaying virtual content onto the pages of a real book. For example, Grasset et al. (2008) developed mixed reality books placing multimedia such as images, 3D objects, audio files, and animations on top of the book being read. This book tells the story of European settlers arriving in New Zealand and the related cultural confrontations and struggles. Tomi and Rambli (2013) developed an interactive mobile AR magical playbook for preschool children learning numbers using folklore literature, 'The Thirsty Crow.' Singh et al. (2004) created two AR applications for children using mobile phones as the user interface. One of these AR applications is the AR Comic Book which allows children to view their favorite cartoon characters in full 3D in the books. The 3D virtual characters are rendered into the actual scene captured by the mobile phone's camera.

A variety of studies regarding the AR books have evaluated the usability of AR systems. For instance, Dünser and Hornecker (2007), in their observational study, investigated how young children interact with AR story books. Their sample was children of primary education (aged between six and seven) who read and interacted with AR story books aimed at early literacy education. They found that with some support provided for the first two sentences and after having understood how to use the AR book, most children were able to interact with the AR book without much assistance. In a more recent study, Chang et al. (2011) used AR technology to implement an AR-learning system for English vocabulary learning. They investigated learners' satisfaction and behavioral intention as well as the effectiveness of the AR-learning system. They found that learners' behavioral intention was affected by perceived satisfaction and perceived usefulness of the AR-learning system. In addition, system quality affected perceived satisfaction, perceived usefulness, and AR-learning effectiveness. Finally, perceived self-efficacy also affected perceived satisfaction and perceived usefulness.

Navarro et al. (2013), in their study, presented the methodology for the implementation of AR on a project with high school students, in order to display content related to the book 'La reina descalza' (Ildefonso Falcones). The project was developed by a group of Spanish students in secondary education. The main conclusion of their study was the high degree of involvement, motivation, and satisfaction of students in the use and development of content that could be viewed through the AR. Rambli et al. (2012) presented the development and evaluation of an AR book for learning the alphabet. The results of their observational study showed that the presence of elements such as animation, virtual objects, sound, and video do generate excitement, engagement, and enjoyment during the learning process.

On the other hand, studies that investigate the in-depth exploration of AR-related learning processes in language are limited (e.g. Chen et al., 2011; Lin et al., 2012; Liu, 2009). For example, Liu (2009) developed a sensor and handheld AR-supported ubiquitous learning environment, called the Handheld English Language Learning Organization, which provides learning resources and functions that assist in English listening and speaking learning. In order to evaluate the effects of the proposed learning environment on the learning performance of students, a case study on English learning was conducted with three high school teachers and sixty four high school juniors. The evaluation results of the study showed that the AR-supported ubiquitous learning environment and learning activities could improve students' English listening and speaking skills.

Method

Research design

This study employed a case study approach. Students were given the task to reconstruct a comic on Greek exclamations using two AR development platforms (The comic is described below). Before and after the completion of the tasks, students' knowledge regarding exclamations was measured. In addition, qualitative data were collected from observations and an open-ended questionnaire was

used to understand students' opinions and explain the experimental results. The study was conducted in May 2015.

The comic and the exclamations

A chapter on comics has been selected from the fourth-grade Greek language textbook. A sample of this comic is presented in Figure 18.1. It is a two-page comic and its grammatical structure was exclamations (or interjections). Oxford Advanced Learners' Dictionary defines an interjection as "a word or phrase used to express sudden surprise, pleasure, annoyance, etc, e.g. Oh! Hurry! Or Damn!" (Hornby & Ashby, 2006:811). In the Greek language, these exclamations show: 1) uncertainty, perplexity, 2) query, 3) refusal, 4) praise, 5) wish, 6) admiration, 7) invitation, 8) mockery, 9) urge, 10) pain, sadness, 11) unhappiness, despair, disgust.

The QR codes and Layar creator platforms

For the creation of the comic, two different AR design platforms were used. First, we used a QR codes platform (www.qrstuff.com/) to design augmentations for the chapter of the comic. The majority of QR codes were augmented with the text and few were augmented with websites and video. "A QR code is a specific two-dimensional bar code which consists of a matrix of black modules arranged in a

Figure 18.1 A sample page of the comic of the language textbook

square on a white background" (Chen et al., 2011:1708). It can encode a YouTube video URL, a website URL, text or any social media links, geo-coordinates, email addresses, email messages, and so on. A sample QR code is shown in Figure 18.2:

Figure 18.2 Example QR code

Second, we used the Layar Creator (www.layar.com/creator/). Being a self-service web application, Layar Creator can activate print pages of digital AR content. Moreover, it can improve flyers, postcards, packaging, or any interactive content item, including video, web links, images, and audio clips. Finally, students used the Layar mobile app to discover and unlock augmentations by pointing the tablet's camera at QR codes and Layar pages.

The above two platforms of AR were used since, compared to other AR platforms (e.g. Augmented, see www.augment.com/), they are easier to use, taking into consideration the students' age and ICT knowledge levels and skills.

Participants

The study took place in a primary school in Athens, Greece. A class of 18 fourth-grade (10-year-old) students took part, along with their teacher who was also a specialist ICT teacher. Nine students were boys (50%) and nine students were girls (50%). The students had basic computer skills (e.g. Web browsing skills, word processing), which form part of the Greek ICT curriculum in primary education. In addition, pupils had no knowledge of how to use AR applications, and they were not familiar with the creation process of QR codes prior to their participation.

Research instruments

Both qualitative and quantitative methods were used to collect data. Quantitative data included students' test scores. We created one test question/item for each of the 11 categories of exclamations. Therefore, the test consisted of 11 items. The goal of this test was to evaluate students' knowledge regarding the Greek exclamations (see the exclamations in Section 'The Comic' above). To establish content validity, all questions were reviewed by a professor who is an expert in the Greek

language. Students' responses to knowledge items were coded as either being incorrect (0) or correct (1). A total score was calculated for each student. Since there were 11 items, the highest possible score that students could receive was 11.

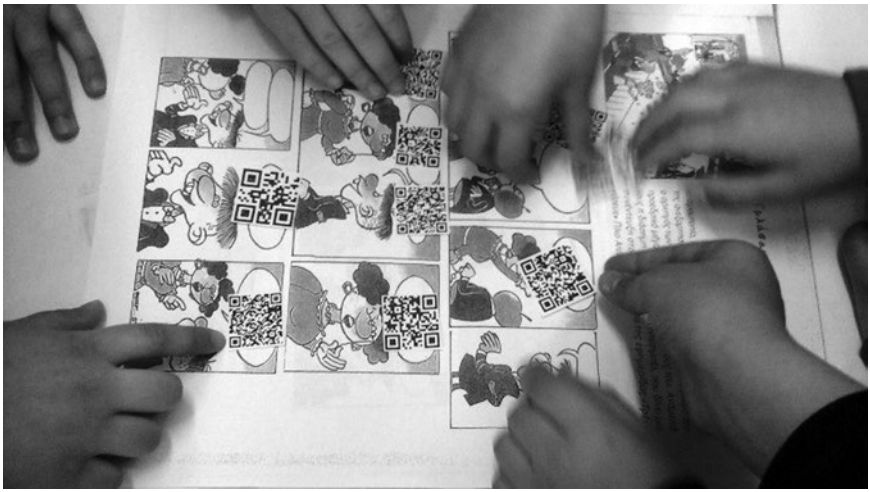
Moreover, in addition to the above test, an open-ended questionnaire was given to students. In the first question, students were asked to write the advantages and disadvantages of the comic creation procedure with AR. The aim of this question was to elicit the behavioral beliefs of students, and it was based on the Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 2006). In the second question, they were asked to describe the kind of cooperation they experienced in their group and what kind of problems were caused by this cooperation. In the third question, they were asked to write how easy it was to create the comic in the AR platforms. This question was based on the Technology Acceptance Model (Davis, 1993) and, in particular, on the perceived ease of use of technology. In the fourth question, students were given an open-ended question asking what they thought were the most positive and negative aspects of the use of AR in comic creation activity. In the fifth question, they were asked whether they would like to do similar activities, using AR, in the Greek Language lesson and, if their answer was positive, in which chapters among with the ones they had already been taught. In addition, field notes were collected by the teacher as students were creating the comics in terms of students' actions, reactions, and attitudes towards this creation.

Procedure

At the beginning of the study, the teacher of the classroom administered to all students a test to assess their knowledge of exclamations. At the end of the study, he administered the same test to them. All 18 students were divided into six groups of three persons. The procedure consisted of the following phases:

In Phase 1, students read the comic of their textbook and they studied the exclamations (one teaching hour). During Phase 2, they were given the same comic, but with no dialogues. The students were asked to create a different comic using their own words reclaiming every comic bubble using exclamations that they had studied (three teaching hours). More specifically, they were asked to create the comic dialogues using QR codes with the use of text. Therefore, in a computer room, a detailed presentation on how to operate the QR codes platform was made by their teacher in 45 minutes. The presentation showed how to create and print QR codes. All participants were required to interact with the QR codes platform for 45 minutes. Then every group created the texts of their own comic using QR codes (two teaching hours).

In Phase 3, students introduced QR codes to their comic in a random order (one teaching hour) (see Picture 18.1). During Phase 4, students of every group, having a tablet or a smartphone, tried to read the QR codes made by the other groups and then they tried to put them in the right order so that the texts with exclamations in the bubbles of every comic could be read (two teaching hours) (see Picture 18.2). In this phase, the teacher was checking whether every group had put the QR codes in the right order.



Picture 18.1 A team of students places QR codes in the comic

Picture 18.2 A student reads the QR codes of the comic with the use of a smartphone

Once the teams of students completed the above phases, they were asked to create the comic on the Layar Creator platform (Phase 5). In a computer room, instructions on how to operate the Layar platform were given by their teacher in 45 minutes. More specifically, students were asked to create the comic dialogues using text, images, and some related videos from YouTube (three teaching hours). The whole procedure comprised of the above five phases had a total duration of two weeks.

Data analysis

The SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Science, version 21) was used to score the data. Learning performance was concluded from students' test scores. More specifically, Wilcoxon signed-rank test on pretest scores and posttest scores was conducted. Finally, the answers to the open-ended questions as well as the field notes of the observations were grouped into categories according to their common themes.

Results

The following sections outline the learning outcomes of the tests and observations by the teacher in class. In addition, the results from the open-ended questionnaires are presented.

Learning outcomes

Table 18.1 shows pretest and posttest scores. The low mean score ($M = 5.17$) on the pretest suggest that participants had only relatively little prior knowledge of the exclamations.

The Wilcoxon signed-rank test showed that students' knowledge of exclamations increased significantly after the creation of the comic. More specifically, the results of the test show that posttest score is significantly higher than pretest score ($z = -3.631$, $p = 0.000$). From the 18 students participating in this study, 17 students had a higher exclamation score after the creation of the comic with the use of AR and one student showed no change in his/her score.

Observation of the students' interaction with the comic creation

All students showed high motivation and engagement in comics' creation at the beginning of the study. In addition, this motivation and engagement was becoming stronger throughout the study. Another notable observation was that through the AR platforms (i.e. QR codes platform, Layar Creator, Layar mobile app) students quickly began interacting with peers than what typically occurs during other lessons in their class.

Table 18.1 Descriptive statistics of test score

	M	*Median*	*SD*	*Min*	*Max*
Pretest scores	5.17	5.50	2.229	2	10
Posttest scores	9.67	10.00	1.283	7	11

Behavioral beliefs

As we have seen, students were asked to write their beliefs on the comic creation procedure with AR. A number of behavioral beliefs were identified from the open-ended questionnaire. Students' responses were used to create a list of the most commonly held beliefs. Considering these results, many of the beliefs for using comic in teaching listed by the students focused on making lessons fun and helping them learn more easily. In addition, students reported that the use of AR in their comic creation "helped them learn and better understand the exclamations," "increased their interest in learning," "helped them work with one another," made the lesson more interesting and more enjoyable.

Collaborative learning

Students considered the comic creation to have provided a stimulating and collaborative environment and provided opportunities for them to engage with their peers. Most of the students commented favorably on the practice of discussing their ideas regarding the comic with the rest of the group. As stated by a girl (Eleftheria) "*One student's ideas were complemented by another one's.*" In general, all students were engaged and enthused about the comic creation, including students who had not previously shown any cooperation willingness in their classroom's tasks. On the other hand, students noted that the use of AR allowed them to meet, interact, and share various experiences outside the classroom. As stated by a girl (Lydia): "*Augmented reality gave us all something in common to talk about and discuss.*" Another student (Yannis) stated: "*We spend a lot of our free time finding out more about QR codes designed at class.*"

Learner perceptions

As we have seen in the research instruments section, students were asked to write how easy it was to create the comic with AR platforms. According to their responses, students had favorable attitudes toward using AR in their comic creation and perceived high level of usefulness and ease of use of AR. Students were able to use the AR with minimal training. They felt that the QR codes platform and the Layar creator platform were very easy to use. However, based on students' observation, Layar creator platform seemed to be more interesting for them compared to QR codes platform. Moreover, all students found it easy and fun to learn exclamations with the AR.

Students were also asked what they thought were the most positive and negative aspects of the use of AR in comic creation activity. The most positive aspects of the use of AR in comic creation activity were: 'interactivity' and 'group interaction.' On the other hand, the most negative aspects were: "not many tablets and smartphones for all students" and "not enough time for practice." Finally, all

students would like to use AR again in their Greek language lessons and believed that the use of it with other grammatical phenomena such as verbs, nouns, and adjectives could increase their motivation in learning.

Discussion and conclusion

Many researchers have advocated the use of AR to enhance students' learning (e.g. Bower et al., 2014). Augmented reality comics are a promising technology to provide students with added value contents with respect to traditional comics, giving new life to traditional paper. The aim of this study was to study the creation procedure of an augmented reality comic by students, which had to do with learning Greek exclamations.

Overall, the evidence collected from this study appeared to indicate that the creation of comics with AR provided a potentially useful educational environment for motivating students to engage in activities related to the learning of exclamations in Greek. The students were motivated and enthusiastic. They also showed determination to achieve, and they were able to learn collaboratively. Previous studies have shown similar results (e.g. Dünser & Hornecker, 2007; Navarro et al., 2013).

The study's results showed that students' knowledge of exclamations, after the creation of the augmented reality comic, significantly increased, statistically. This shows that the use of AR and the collaborative environment that developed among students could have possibly contributed to the knowledge increase. Similar findings have also been reported in other AR studies (e.g. Chen et al., 2011; Liu, 2009).

Moreover, students reported very positive beliefs towards AR use in their comic creation. These findings suggest that students will not be motivated to use AR in their learning procedure unless they have very positive beliefs towards using AR in learning. Furthermore, students evaluated their experience with the AR as particularly easy, useful, pleasant, and creative. In addition, they expressed a strong intention to participate in such activities in language learning more often. The importance of these beliefs to use AR is in line with earlier studies (e.g. Chang et al., 2011).

The results shown in this study demonstrate that the creation of comics with AR constitutes an effective approach to assisting students in learning exclamations. However, the present study had certain limitations. First, this study was a case study and therefore further research is needed to better identify the best practices in using AR in comics creation by students in the classroom. Other studies may find it useful to apply this approach in learning other grammatical phenomena (e.g. verbs, nouns, adjectives). Second, this study focused on short-term knowledge acquisition and retention of Greek exclamations. It would be interesting to investigate whether AR also has a positive effect on long-term knowledge retention. Third, this study applied marker-based as AR type. It would be interesting to examine how the use of other types of AR (i.e. markerless), platforms (i.e. Aurasma Studio), and augmentation (i.e. 3D objects) in comic creation could influence the learning of the Greek language.

Finally, future research should examine the added value of the use of AR in exclamations knowledge increase. This could be achieved by using, in some future study, not only a group of students to create the comic with the traditional

paper-pencil way, but also a group to create the comic with the use of other Information Communication Technologies tools (e.g. PiXTON, www.pixton.com/).

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19 Developing pedagogically meaningful learning objects for foreign language education

Bessie Mitsikopoulou

Introduction

The use of technology has a long history in foreign language education and a number of different terms were used to introduce different types of materials that were associated with the technology that supported them. The notion of learning objects is a relatively new addition and it refers to short units of learning that are stored in online repositories known as Learning Object Repositories (LORs). The term learning object comes from computer science and has therefore been influenced by how knowledge is organized and distributed in this field. This is one of the reasons why it has become the subject of heated debate when its use extended to other educational contexts. Learning objects became popular with the advent of the digital repositories (online digital libraries with a mechanism for storing, maintaining, managing, and retrieving of digital content) whose development flourished in the first decade of the 21st century. Learning Object Repositories contain searchable learning objects that have been stored with metadata so that they can be used for educational purposes. In order to support their national curricula with digital materials, several European countries (such as Austria, Bulgaria, Croatia, Ireland, Switzerland, UK), especially those with centralized educational systems, developed national LORs which were supported by their Ministries of Education and were funded by national and EU funds.

This chapter is concerned with the learning objects that were developed for the teaching of the English language in the context of the Digital School project and were placed in Photodentro LOR, the Greek National Learning Object Repository for primary and secondary education. Digital School was a large-scale project of the Greek Ministry of Education which was included in the National Strategic Reference Framework (NSRF 2010–15), funded by national and EU funds and implemented by the Computer Technology Institute Diofantos. The two broad aims of the Digital School were the promotion of digital technologies in education and the creation of a digital culture in primary and secondary education in Greece. To achieve these two broad aims the project funded the development of an open digital educational platform (http://dschool.edu.gr/) as an entry point through which users may access digital content produced by various projects of the Greek Ministry of Education, digital enrichment for textbooks of all subjects

used in Greek state schools, a series of digital repositories, such as Photodentro LOR (http://photodentro.edu.gr/lor/), interactive textbooks (http://ebooks.edu.gr/new/), and the digital educational platform *e-me* which offers a safe electronic space for teachers and students to collaborate online.

Implementing the national policy for open educational resources, Photodendro LOR (http://photodentro.edu.gr/lor/) addresses all subjects covered in Greek schools and hosts reusable learning objects that are small, self-contained, reusable unis of learning that have a clear educational purpose, follow the aims of the Greek national curricula, and are available online and open to the public for educational use (Megalou & Kaklamanis, 2014). This chapter is based on the premise that similarly to other types of digital educational materials, learning objects are not neutral literacy practice artifacts but are always involved in a complex nexus of educational ideologies, power relations, and underlying pedagogies that signify particular ways of organizing knowledge and particular constructions of reality (Mitsikopoulou, 2015b). After a critical reading of various definitions of the learning objects in related literature, the chapter turns to present how the term was conceptualized by the English group of the Digital School project in an attempt to develop pedagogically informed learning objects and to overcome some of the problems traditionally associated with them.

A critical reading of the notion of learning objects

The initial idea behind learning objects was to break down curriculum content into small, instructional components (each with a learning objective) that would be tagged with metadata and placed in LORs so that they could later be reused to form larger units, such as lessons and courses, in order to serve other learning purposes. The Lego metaphor has often been employed in this rhetoric, according to which digital content, in the form of learning objects, is seen as building blocks which are combined and then re-combined to fit the purposes of different lessons or courses and to serve the requirements of individualized instruction. This, however, implies a rather simplistic view of the role of technology (Littlejohn, 2003) and a transmission model in which learning merely involves the acquisition of information (Wiley, 2000). In addition, Horsley (2001) argues, the re-purposing of learning objects to meet the needs of individualized instruction is a myth, because in most cases once web designers have decided on the topics, tasks, illustrations, demonstrations, and information, the content of a course becomes rather fixed.

Friesen (2004) identifies three further objections to this view of learning objects. The first relates to the name of the term itself that seems to bring together two incongruous and incommensurable notions: one the one hand, 'learning,' a rather vague, general, and non-technical term, and on the other hand, 'object,' a technical term deriving from the object-oriented approach in software engineering with specialized principles that cannot be understood by non-experts. It seems therefore that this inherent confusion of the term, which also stresses its technical nature, has impeded its potential for innovation and has generated resistance on the part of educators and teachers. Drawing on Rogers (1969), Friesen

argues that the innovation of the learning objects was not presented in simple and meaningful terms for teaching practice nor did it show compatibility with or any relative advantage over existing methods and techniques. He therefore suggests a reconsideration of the notion which takes into account issues of innovation adoption and the ambiguities involved in education including the deceptively simple term 'learning.'

A second point of critique refers to learning objects proponents' over-emphasis on standards and claims for pedagogical neutrality. Friesen (2004) argues that while standards aim at ensuring interoperability, portability, and reusability of content so that the expensive development of digital content becomes cost effective, at the same time they claim to promote a pedagogical neutral model. We know, however, that pedagogy cannot be understood as neutral in its relation to technology since approaches or contexts of pedagogy (such as critical pedagogy, special needs education, performance support, etc.) present various predispositions and factors that would inevitably shape its relationship to technology. For instance, the notions of neutrality, universalization, normalization, and re-organization of learning objects align, according to Horsley (2001), with competence and skills-based approaches, echoing Freire's (1986) banking concept of education, rather than with critical accounts of learning. Consequently, specifications and applications which claim to be pedagogically neutral have implicit in them particular ways of learning which are far from neutral. A related point of critique refers to decontextualized learning. Learning objects have been accused of promoting a fragmented approach (Parrish, 2004) which reduces learning to the exchange of learning objects and ignores the social aspect of learning, the collective organization of teaching, and the heterogeneity of educational contexts (Bruillard, 2007). The argument goes that the ideological underpinnings of decontextualized learning call for a specific type of educational pragmatism which aims to equip learners with technical skills, not with culturally rich knowledge. It seems therefore that in order to understand the potential of learning objects, design experts and all those involved in their development should pay attention to educational practices and to the complexity and heterogeneity of educational contexts and activities.

Friesen's (2004) third point of critique refers to learning objects and their standardization as "bearing the imprint of the ideology and culture of the American military" and as adopting a 'military worldview' which suggests systems thinking, uniformity, and technical standards and specifications as solutions to pedagogical problems. However, he argues that the goals of public education go beyond standardization processes and are radically different from those of the military. In similar lines, Jonassen and Churchill (2004), among others, argue that placing emphasis on technical standards show basic misunderstandings of contemporary conceptions of meaningful learning. The underlying implication here is that the learning objects may bring with them a culture and a set of connotations that may not be helpful in education.

On the other hand, we have seen that recently new types of learning objects have been developed which move away from the traditional approach to computer-based learning and which support different kinds of online activities and interaction

patterns used in constructivist environments (Churchill, 2006). These learning objects do not require learners to merely acquire information, but invite them to interact with a task where knowledge is created and applied. In this new perspective, the role of the learning objects is critical since they may act as triggers for initiating dialogue in the classroom. Churchill and Hedberg (2009:452) suggest that for learning objects to be effective, they must replace earlier forms of digital representation and contribute to a disruptive pedagogy in which they "utilize representation capabilities of contemporary technologies and merge these into a set of educationally useful displays of data, concepts, and ideas." It is in fact this recent conceptualization of learning objects which was embraced by the English group of the Digital School project and which will be analyzed below.

Methodology: developing learning objects for English language learning

The English group of the Digital School project was formed in February 2011 and worked systematically for four years creating more than 900 learning objects for primary and lower secondary students who are learning English as a foreign language in Greece. It consisted of 14 members, including teachers of English with extensive experience in materials design, e-learning experts, computer scientists, and myself, as the coordinator. In the early stages of the project the aim of the English group – as well as the aim of the groups of the other school subjects – was to develop digital enrichment resources that would enrich the curriculum and the textbooks used in Greek schools. Our group started by exploring the notion of 'enrichment' in educational contexts and in foreign language education in particular, defined the term taking into account the specific project aims and adopted a 'principled approach to enrichment.' According to this approach which is extensively described in Mitsikopoulou (2014a, 2015a), digital enrichment should be systematic, targeted, and running throughout a textbook (thus, it should not be incidental); it should be supportive not subversive of the textbook's teaching philosophy; and it should be based on applications developed by group members and not on external links that may be inactive in the future. We were also aware from the beginning that the way we define and proceed with enrichment constitutes an ideological positioning that will have significant implications concerning *what* kind of enrichment we will develop, for *whom*, *why*, *when*, and in *which* parts of the curriculum (Feng, 2005). Overall, our aim was to use digital enrichment materials as a means to offer language learners more opportunities for personal and social development, greater fulfillment, and intellectual satisfaction (e.g. through inquiry-based, problem-solving activities) than the basic curriculum. We also took into account that in the field of English Language Teaching (ELT), enrichment was often conceived in terms of materials adaptation (Richards, 1999, 2001) taking various forms such as *addition* of materials (addressing specific needs), *extension* of materials (providing additional practice for a specific aspect of a textbook or opportunities for more personalized practice), *modification* of materials (offering an alternative focus that would

address the needs of a particular group of students), or *localization* of materials (making them relevant to a specific target group).

The broader project, however, soon proceeded to the development of an open digital repository and, as a result, the enrichment approach to the development of digital materials was soon replaced by a learning object approach. The turn to Photodentro, the National Learning Object Repository for Greek primary and secondary education, created additional possibilities as well as constraints and gave our work a different direction. Learning objects should be characterized by clear pedagogical purposes and content integrity but at the same time they should stand alone so that they can be reused in other learning contexts as well (a condition not necessary to be fulfilled in the enrichment approach).

Overall, the learning objects should also make use of multimedia technologies offering students a range of learning modes and experiences, such as combination of audio, video, animation, graphics together with text; multiple starting points and pathways; provision of feedback (whenever possible); use of scaffolding techniques to enhance learning. Most importantly, we decided to design learning objects that offer rich and integrated learning experiences, are learner-focused addressing the needs of diverse student groups (e.g. in terms of their language proficiency level, their age, etc.) and enhancing their motivation to learn. Instead of transferring content through teachers' activities, we aimed at developing a range of digital materials that would stimulate thinking, discussing, and sharing of ideas and would be more appropriate in a more personalized approach to learning in collaborative environments. For instance, in designing assessment of competences and performance, we designed self-assessment tests and review edugames so that learners become more responsible of their own learning. Acknowledging that it would be impossible for all learning objects to address all diverse groups at the same time, particular attention was paid to have different versions of the same learning objects or alternative forms to account for different learning styles, as well. To this purpose, the English group developed a variety of learning objects that would serve different pedagogical purposes and would cover different aspects of the English curriculum for primary and lower secondary education and for the following language competence levels: A1, A2, B1, B2, according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (known as the CEFR).

In learning object literature, various taxonomies of learning objects have been proposed (see, for instance, Koper, 2003) some of them considering learning objects as parts of broader learning tasks (Churchill & Hedberg, 2009) and learning designs (Oliver et al., 2007). Our taxonomy draws on materials development theory and particularly on Tomlinson's (2003) categorization of language learning materials and classifies the 900 learning objects we developed for English language learning over a period of three years in four main categories: *informative* (whose aim is to inform learners), *instructional* (whose aim is to guide learners in practising the language), *experiential* (whose aim is to provide exposure to language use and to facilitate personal engagement), and *exploratory* (whose aim is to make discoveries about language) learning objects (Table 19.1). This was not an a priori classification but one that was formed as the project progressed.

Table 19.1 Taxonomy of the learning objects for English language learning

	Informative	*Instructional*	*Experiential*	*Exploratory*
AIMS	Inform learners about language	Guide learners in practising the language	Provide exposure to language use, facilitate personal engagement	Help learners make discoveries about language
LEARNING	Audio extracts Picture dictionaries Glossaries Grammar comics	Edugames Self-assessment tests Reading apps Listening apps	Digital stories Virtual tours Songs	Mystery and Lost series English quests Writing apps

While a detailed presentation of each one of the different types of learning objects is not the aim of this study (for this see Mitsikopoulou, 2014b), the next section presents a selective discussion of the design process that was followed in order to address the ways we handled the shortcomings of the traditional learning objects and opted for the preparation of pedagogically meaningful materials that are relevant to both English learners and teachers.

Learning objects for the English language

Informative learning objects

The first two types of learning objects, informative and instructional, are the ones mostly used in the English classroom, according to Richards (1999), and the ones which have been generally associated with more traditional approaches to language teaching. The added value of technology in this case could be, among other things, in their potential for individualized instruction through quality multimedia design. The informative learning objects we developed, for instance, aim to inform English learners about different aspects of the target language and they include glossaries (for lower secondary school) and picture dictionaries (for primary school) for vocabulary building, grammar comics for introducing specific lexicogrammatical features, reading comics for visualizing some texts, and audio extracts for listening comprehension activities. In the case of audio extracts we recorded the transcripts for the listening activities for lower secondary school textbooks and in this way we provided digital enrichment for specific textbooks. We placed each individual recording on the interactive textbook and we also packed all recordings of one textbook together for teachers to download. Although very useful to English language teachers, this type of digital content could have limited potential for re-use. To cater for this, we also used each one of these recordings separately together with their transcripts to prepare simple learning objects that were placed in Photodentro LOR with metadata that rendered them searchable. These audio extracts do not form on the own complete

language activities but offer teachers the raw material they could use in any way they would like in their classroom; for instance, a teacher may use a recording to prepare a listening activity or introductory input for her lesson. The re-purposing of the audio extracts in this case aimed to offer the same digital content in several different forms giving teachers the opportunity to use the same digital content in different ways and for different educational purposes.

The development of glossaries and picture dictionaries (see figures 19.1–19.3) was another interesting case of how we moved from enrichment to meaningful learning objects. The glossaries were prepared early in the project, during its enrichment phase, and included useful vocabulary for the five different textbooks used in the lower secondary school textbooks. They ranged from 600 to 2,000 terms each and their preparation took a lot of time and effort. Every term in the glossaries included a number of required fields (a code number for unit and lesson, the term, its definition, and an example) and some optional fields (synonyms, antonyms, and related words). Attention was paid to deliver the digital content in various forms: the glossary of each lesson can be accessed at the beginning of the lesson on the interactive textbook, while the glossary of the whole book is separately offered in the platform. In addition, a downloadable version was created together with

Figure 19.1 Screenshot from the school picture dictionary: outside the school

Figure 19.2 Screenshot from the school picture dictionary: inside the classroom

a useful index of units and lessons. Still however, this digital content would have limited value outside the context of the specific textbook. For this reason, when we later moved to prepare glossaries for the primary school we placed emphasis on the visual aspect and adopted a different strategy. Taking into account that the same topics appeared in different textbooks, we decided to organize thematic picture dictionaries that could be used in more than one books. At an initial stage we identified 30 topics (e.g. clothes, food, hobbies, jobs, school, etc.) and we selected the words to be visually represented by recording the vocabulary of three different textbooks used in fourth, fifth, and sixth grade. These words were then grouped into sub-themes so that they could be presented together in a contextual way. For instance, each one of the slides in the picture dictionary on household chores presents a different room of the house and the things that need to be done in each one of them. English learners have the opportunity to see a picture of a word included in the picture dictionary, check its spelling, and listen to its pronunciation. In addition, whenever possible picture dictionaries are also enriched with meaningful animations, graphical representations, music, and songs. Therefore, in contrast to glossaries, the design of picture dictionaries

Figure 19.3 Screenshot from the school picture dictionary: in the playground

enhances their potential for reusability since they constitute independent learning objects which however support contextual learning.

Instructional learning objects

The instructional learning objects we produced aim to guide the learner in practicing the English language and include edugames, self-assessment tests, reading apps, and listening apps. The added value of the designed edugames lies on the use of 10 flash-engines for well-known games and puzzles, such as crossword (see Figures 19.4–19.6), matching, anagram, hangman, etc., which allows the replay of the same game with different content. When a learner presses the 'try again' button, the flash-engine randomly selects a few words with their hints from the ones that were saved in the application, and a crossword with different words appears on the screen, allowing the learners to play the same game several times and to consolidate focused vocabulary found, for instance, in a lesson. Addressing learners of different ages, we paid particular attention to the graphics of these edugames: illustrative graphics with simple lines used for lower secondary school learners

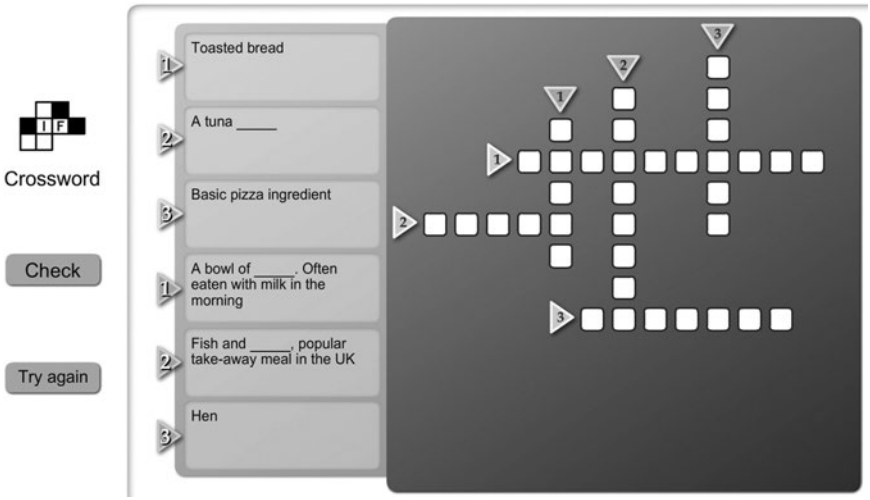


Figure 19.4 A crossword for teenagers

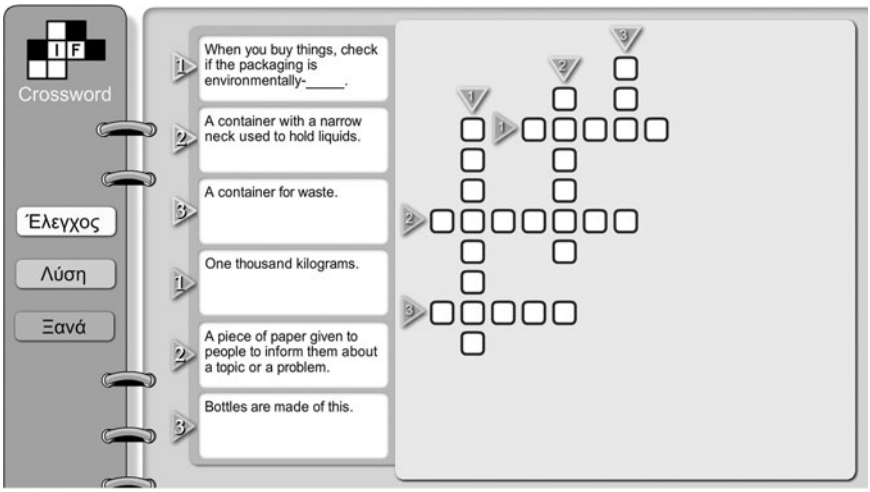


Figure 19.5 A crossword for sixth grade

were replaced by more colorful and appealing graphics for fifth and sixth graders, and by even more playful ones for third and fourth graders. To enhance their potential for re-use, an important criterion for digital materials to be considered as learning objects, we turned to thematic edugames (e.g. a crossword on colors) and edugames that focus on a grammatical element (e.g. use of a tense or a particular preposition).

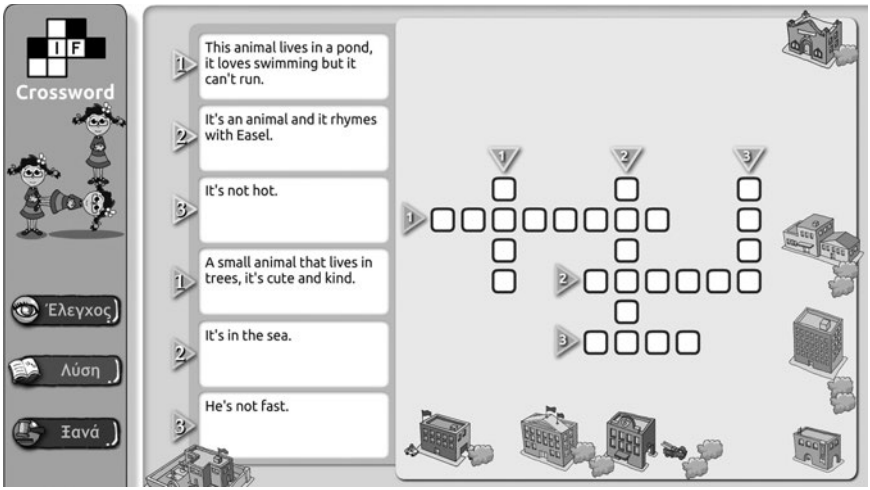


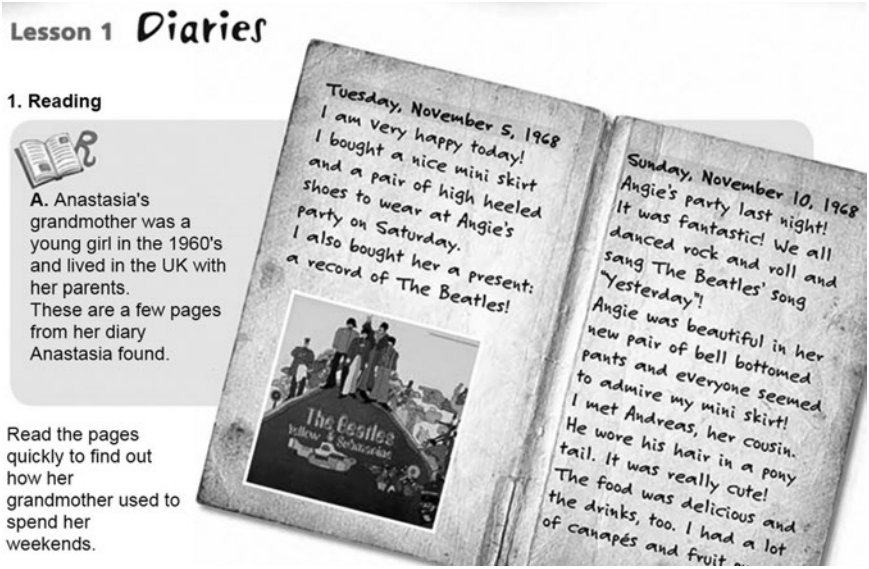
Figure 19.6 A crossword for third grade

While each one of the 10 edugames followed the same specific pattern, the interactive reading apps that were developed for fourth, fifth, and sixth grades were based on a reading text (see Figures 19.7–19.9) each time and they followed a story line with texts and activities. Their aim is to make accessible reading texts from textbooks supporting comprehension with graphics, visual materials, and sound. Each reading app has its own unique structure which is outlined by content developers in a storyboard before it is transferred into its digital form. This variety in structure is to be seen as a feature that will trigger learners' curiosity and motivation, since every time they encounter a different type of application.

Experiential learning objects

Experiential learning objects, as defined in the context of this project, aim at providing learners with experience of the target language and culture and at facilitating personal engagement, whenever possible. They include virtual tours, digital stories, and multimedia applications with seasonal songs for young learners and unlike instructional learning objects, they are meant to function as additional resources and are not accompanied by any language activities.

In order to make spatial relationships relevant to English learners, we prepared short videos of landmarks and locations mentioned in the texts of the English textbooks. Using Google Earth tools these short virtual tours of cultural sites enriched with enhanced navigation, street view imagery, and 360° panoramic views of selected landmarks (e.g. the Opera House in Sydney, Taj Mahal in India, the Colosseum in Italy) bring a glimpse of local cultures in the classroom (See Figures 19.10–19.11).



Figures 19.7–19.9 A reading text as it appears on the textbook and two screenshots from the reading app

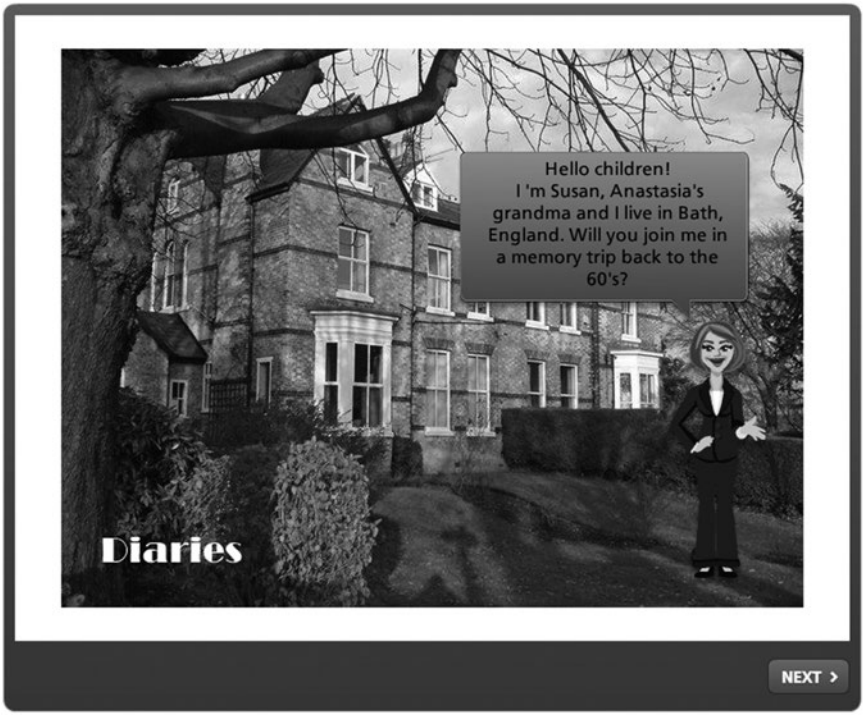
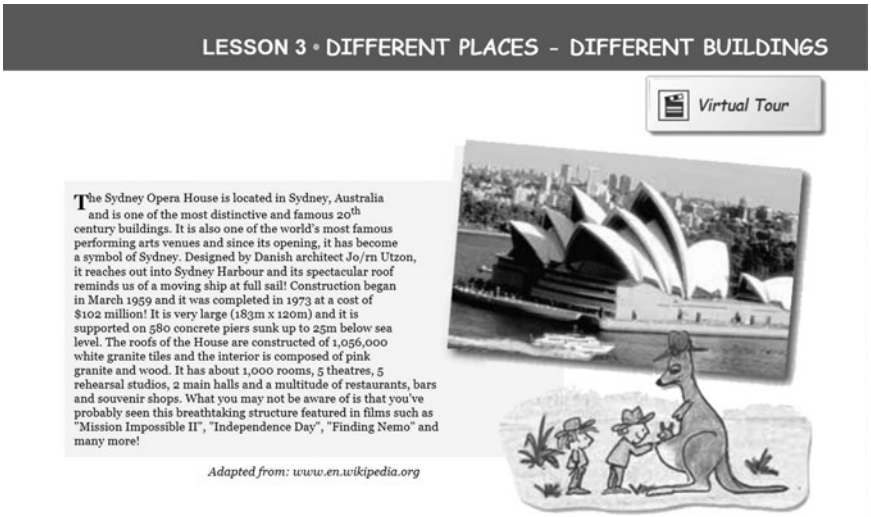


Figure 19.8 (Continued)

Figure 19.9 (Continued)

Similarly, our digital stories are visualizations in video form which aim to enhance learners' understanding of reading texts. By integrating several semiotic resources including audio recording, verbal cues, subtitles, sound effects, music, animation, still, and moving pictures, we attempted to familiarize English learners with demanding reading texts in their textbooks. Different digital stories were produced that focused on an important person (hero or character stories), specific events (accomplishment or adventure stories), personal stories (e.g. about family celebrations), narratives (short stories, myths, and folk tales), biographies, and documentaries (See Figures 19.12–19.13).

Finally, for our young learners we prepared multimedia applications for seasonal songs (Christmas, Easter, Mother's Day, and Halloween) in which pupils listen to the song, read the lyrics accompanied by video and animations while singing along. Overall, the aim of the different experiential learning objects was to expose learners to aspects of 'other' cultures. These 'other' cultures included both the target cultures where English is spoken as a mother tongue (e.g. the British, the American, or the Australian), as well as other cultures in which English may be used as a contact language among people of different nationalities. In fact, this approach towards the incorporation of various cultures in the teaching of



LESSON 3 • DIFFERENT PLACES - DIFFERENT BUILDINGS

Virtual Tour

The Sydney Opera House is located in Sydney, Australia and is one of the most distinctive and famous 20th century buildings. It is also one of the world's most famous performing arts venues and since its opening, it has become a symbol of Sydney. Designed by Danish architect Jo/rn Utzon, it reaches out into Sydney Harbour and its spectacular roof reminds us of a moving ship at full sail! Construction began in March 1959 and it was completed in 1973 at a cost of $102 million! It is very large (183m x 120m) and it is supported on 580 concrete piers sunk up to 25m below sea level. The roofs of the House are constructed of 1,056,000 white granite tiles and the interior is composed of pink granite and wood. It has about 1,000 rooms, 5 theatres, 5 rehearsal studios, 2 main halls and a multitude of restaurants, bars and souvenir shops. What you may not be aware of is that you've probably seen this breathtaking structure featured in films such as "Mission Impossible II", "Independence Day", "Finding Nemo" and many more!

Adapted from: www.en.wikipedia.org

Figures 19.10 –19.11 Learners read a text on Sydney Opera House from the interactive textbook and then watch the virtual tour video

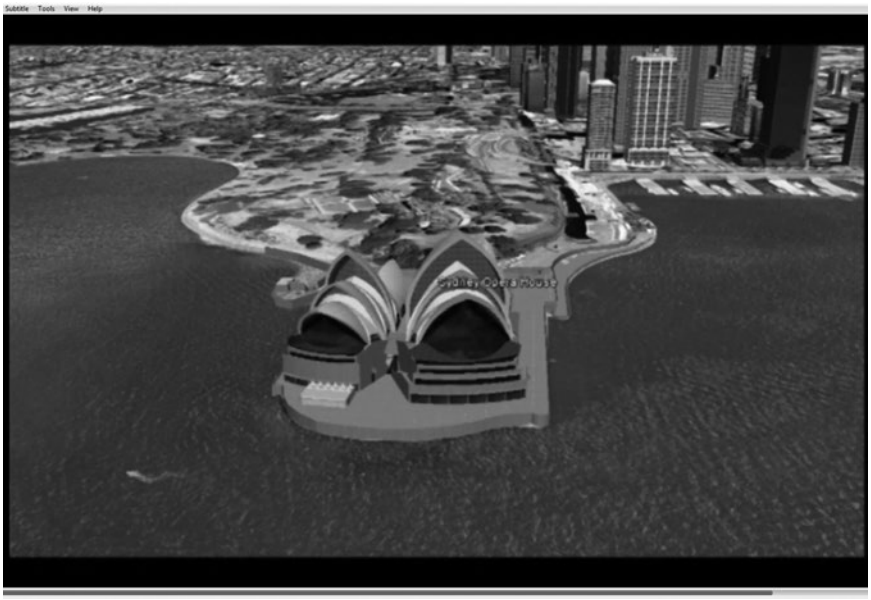


Figure 19.11 (Continued)

Here is the story of the Wright Brothers. Read the sentences on the right and put them in the right place in the text:

a. They made kites.
b. It was a toy helicopter.
c. They opened a bicycle shop.

The Wright Brothers

Wilbur and Orville Wright invented the first aeroplane in the United States of America in 1903. The Wright brothers thought of the flight when one day their father returned from a trip and surprised the boys with a small toy. ..... (1) The boys admired the toy very much and they said that they wanted to fly. While the boys were growing up, they were always repairing and fixing things. ..... (2) and sold them to classmates.
Later, ... (3) and repaired bicycles. They used the money from the bicycle shop for their first flight experiments. The historic flight lasted for just 12 seconds and covered about 120 feet. This changed the world forever.

Sources: http://www.nasm.si.edu/wrightbrothers/, www.wright-house.com/wright-brothers

Figures 19.12–19.13 A text on the Wright brothers and the digital story

Figure 19.13 (Continued)

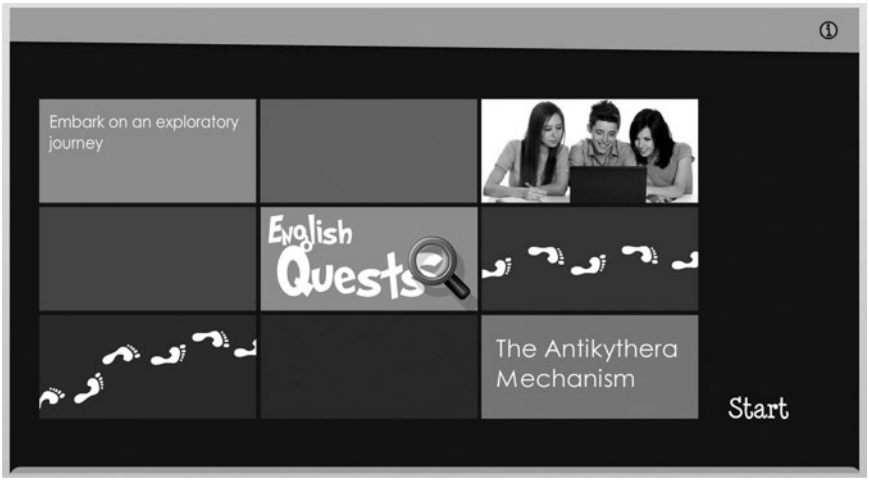
English, which was supported by our group and was adopted in the pedagogical design of our learning objects, was also the ideological stance adopted by the textbook designers as described in the textbooks' teacher books.

Exploratory learning objects

Exploratory learning objects, as conceptualized in this project, aim to help learners make discoveries about the language through problem-solving, scaffolding, and project-based applications, and they include the mystery and lost series applications, English quests, and genre-based writing apps. This category includes the most demanding to produce learning objects both in terms of content and multimedia design.

The 'Mystery' and 'Lost' series are scenario-based applications in which learners are called to follow Sherlock in order to solve a mystery or engage in an activity to retrieve a lost item. In order to sensitize students to Braille code as a distinct language, one mystery application invites learners to find the thief of a famous painting. To solve the mystery learners need to decode a hidden message by a blind witness who heard the thief, get some training in Braille, and follow the clues in order to get back the painting. Although these applications may relate to a text or an activity of the English textbooks, they fulfill all the criteria of independent learning objects and can be used independently.

In addition, following the structure of webquests, we turned the projects which appear in English textbooks into English Quests applications, inviting learners to search through web links, assess a given problem, collect, and analyze information about it from different soures and finally synthesize a response of some kind by creating a final on- or off-line project (See Figures 19.14–19.16). These learning objects draw insights from project-based learning by combining it with the



Figures 19.14–19.16 Screenshots from an English quest on the ancient Antikythera mechanism

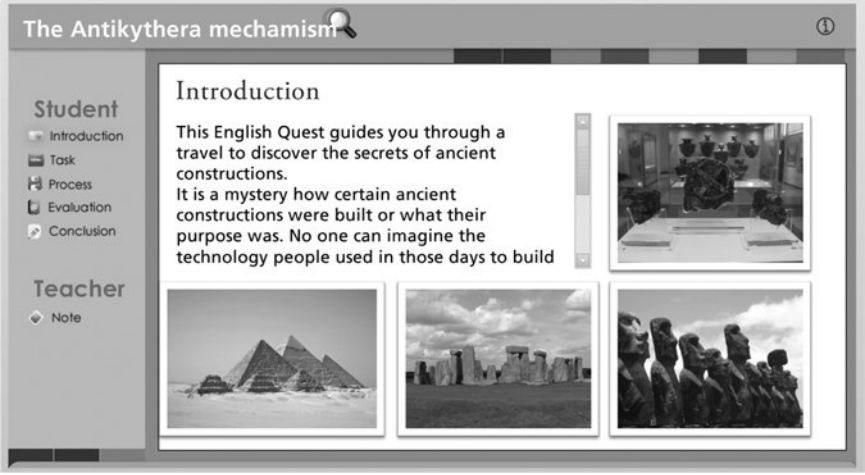


Figure 19.15 (Continued)

Figure 19.16 (Continued)

structure of webquests and they consist of introduction, task description, process, evaluation, conclusion, and teacher instructions. They also ensure that these suggestions for project work, which have been taken from the English textbooks, will be available for use even when the specific textbooks stop being used in the Greek schools. For the materialization of these learning objects we used materials from the textbooks themselves, the teachers' books, and we also added our own evaluation rubrics and content, whenever necessary.

Our last type of learning objects, writing apps, implements a genre-based pedagogy (Rothery, 1996) for writing instruction. Their aim is to familiarize learners with different writing genres (e.g. article, narrative, description, report, mediation, journal entry, poster, advice letter, etc.) and to guide them in the various stages of genre writing by analyzing the communicative context of the writing task, modeling the genre, illustrating appropriate organizational and language choices, and scaffolding the writing process. The applications consist of an introduction, writing task presentation and analysis of the communicative context, model text analysis, scaffolding of the writing process and language bank with useful lexicogrammatical features. Therefore, far from claiming neutrality, the designed learning objects of this type, as well as the other types presented above, have embedded in them specific pedagogical principles for language learning and teaching.

Toward a meaningful pedagogy for learning objects

The above eclectic account aimed to illustrate how in the course of the Digital School project, we have managed to overcome some of the problems associated with previous conceptions of the learning objects. For instance, in our attempt to develop contextualized and meaningful digital materials, we designed experiential and exploratory learning objects that could be used for collaborative and inquiry-based learning activating scaffolding, project-based and problem-solving activities while at the same time exposing learners to experiences with their culture and the culture of the 'other,' key features of foreign language education today. At the same time, we developed presentation and instructional learning objects in order to cover other aspects of the English curriculum and to account for opportunities for individualized and personalized instruction.

Adopting a principled approach to the development of learning objects, we projected pedagogical considerations, content integrity, and internal cohesion over technical matters in our attempt to make these learning objects meaningful to English teachers and learners. To this purpose, we prepared learning objects which varied in length (taking into account the requirements of specific applications), and we also accounted for different pacing (e.g. to be determined by the learner, as in the case of English quests and mystery series, or to be determined by the application, as in the case of digital stories and virtual tours). Concerning multimodality and multimedia, during the design phase we often faced challenges concerning how to choose the most appropriate modes (e.g. written text, subtitles, images, animation, moving picture, music, voice over, etc.) for each type of applications, how to combine different modes, what reading paths to design, and what kinds of interactivity patterns to select each time. Taking into account that learners learn in different ways, we catered for different learning styles by combining different modes and by developing different learning objects using the same resources. Most importantly, in an attempt to avoid decontextualized learning, we developed learning objects that could 'stand on their own' and could be used independently, but which at the same time have a rich context (e.g. scenario-based applications, genre-based writing tasks, and

picture dictionaries) that would facilitate language learning and provide rich language opportunities.

Overall, this chapter has suggested that learning objects can be useful in the English curriculum, offering learners representations of ideas and content in ways that it would be difficult if not impossible with previous non-digital forms (Churchill & Hedberg, 2009). The project presented in this chapter has hopefully contributed to the direction of showing that learning objects can "be conceptualized in a way that does not isolate or neutralized them in terms of their specific pedagogical contextualization and application" (Caws et al., 2006:113) and that they can be successfully embedded in contemporary pedagogical designs for language learning.

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20 Blogging to develop writing skills in a Greek secondary EFL classroom

Melissa Evangelidi

Introduction

All teenagers in European schools today were born after the widespread dissemination of digital technology. Childhood and youth today is saturated with modern media from the internet, to mobile phones, iPads, and so on. A number of terms have been used to refer to today's generation, including, digital natives (Prensky, 2001), millennials (Howe & Strauss, 2000), cyber kids (Holloway & Valentine, 2003), and the Google generation (Rowlands et al., 2008).

With respect to writing today, it differs considerably to writing in previous generations. In the past, regular, everyday writing concerned writing words and sentences on paper with a pen or pencil, whereas much of today's writing is composed using an electronic device. Much of today's writing is digital and can be seen as an extension of traditional writing. Digital writing encompasses the different types of writing at play in today's world such as text messaging, emailing, and blogging and also the new layers of complexities which exist nowadays in the writing process.

This digitalization of writing also has implications for FL writing. Learning to write in a foreign language is said to be one of the most difficult aspects of the foreign language to master (Hyland, 2003; Widdowson, 1983). Fotos and Browne (2004) note that using a blog in FL writing can create a more engaging and learner-centered environment. From this perspective, the students come to play a more active role in the writing procedure than they would in more traditional classroom instruction with the teacher adopting a less dominant and more facilitating role.

Blogs, also called weblogs, are one of the best-received features of the web 2.0 which are easily created and allow individuals with limited technical computer knowledge to instantly publish content on the internet. A blog can serve as a real communicative setting which is considered an essential condition for language learning (Lightbrown & Spada, 1998; Nunan, 2004; Willis & Willis, 2007). The worldwide blog audience enables students to interact with and have their work viewed by others outside the classroom (Martindale & Wiley, 2005; Richardson, 2006; Warlick, 2005). This has been said to encourage students to notice and modify their output more than they would within a traditional classroom setting, leading to increased accuracy (Pinkman, 2005; Nadzrah & Kemboja, 2007).

Although a number of studies have been conducted examining the use of blogs in EFL writing development with tertiary students, very few have focused on school-aged students. Furthermore, the examination of the relevant literature revealed that no studies, to my knowledge, have been carried out on blogging in the Greek EFL context so this research aims to offer some insight into this area of EFL teaching and learning. The research methodology is Action Research (AR) which was selected due to its usefulness for studies in which the researcher examines an aspect of his or her own environment (McKernan, 1991; Cohen et al., 2007; Burns, 2010). For the present study, I intend to investigate blogging as a tool to develop EFL writing skills with a class of first year secondary students in a Greek secondary school.

Within the context of using blogs as a tool for developing skills with Greek EFL learners in a secondary school setting, the objectives of the present study are to answer the following research questions:

- Is implementing a class writing blog effective for developing foreign language writing skills in a secondary EFL classroom?
- Is implementing a class writing blog effective for fostering motivation in foreign language writing engagement?

Literature review

Studies on blogs and L2 writing skills

In a small scale AR study with university students in Japan, Pinkman (2005) found that using blogs as a space to work on projects out-of-class helped to improve not only the participants' EFL writing skills but also reading skills. In addition, an examination into the learners' perceptions of using a blog revealed increased interest and motivation to learn English due to the interaction with and feedback from classmates and teachers on the blog.

Nadzrah and Kemboja (2007) conducted their research in an Asian context with 41 first–and second-year university students taking a course in English for Social Science. Nadzrah and Kambodia reported that a significant number of students said they were able to write better on the blog than on paper. The participants felt that using a blog for foreign language writing allowed them to be creative despite having limited proficiency in the language.

In a more recent study which took place with young adult Iranian EFL learners with an intermediate level of English, Saeed and Fardarshari (2012) also found positive results for using a blog to develop writing skills. Said et al. (2013) found that the blogging integrated writing instruction was more effective than in-class language learning instruction and concluded that a blog provides a platform for active language use, increased motivation, and more autonomous language learning.

In a similar study examining, however, the use of a blog in an intermediate Spanish as a foreign language class in a USA college setting, the researchers Armstrong

and Retterer (2008) also found that the learners felt more comfortable writing in Spanish on the blog rather than on paper. Armstrong and Retterer made reference to the relevance of the blog in today's world saying that in their study this "new generation of computer literate students found blogging an appealing way to communicate" in a foreign language (ibid.:247). In terms of foreign language performance, the Armstrong and Retterer study found a significant improvement over the mastery of the learners' verb forms through using a blog.

The blog: background and general characteristics

The blog, in essence, is a regularly updated website with entries appearing in reverse-chronological order. No specialized knowledge of web authoring and design is required to design and author a blog making it a relatively simple to use tool. Godwin-Jones points out that most blogs are personal or journalistic, with the blog attracting increasing interest in education (2003).

One of the key features of the blog as a classroom tool is the way in which the worldwide blog audience enables students to upload their work and have it viewed by others outside the classroom (Campbell, 2004; Godwin-Jones, 2003; McDowell, 2004; Martindale & Wiley, 2005; Richardson, 2006; Warlick, 2005). As pointed out by McDowell (2004), implementing a blog in a classroom setting does not mean abandoning proven methods but can be employed to supplement and enhance traditional teaching methods.

L2 writing: the main principles

Writing is often considered the most difficult to develop of the four macro skills (speaking, listening, reading, and writing) in foreign language learning (Hyland, 2003; Widdowson, 1983). On L2 writing, Widdowson (1983:34) describes the whole process as "an irksome activity and an ordeal to be avoided wherever possible." Writing not only involves L2 linguistic knowledge and skills related to the L2 grammar, vocabulary, spelling etc., but also cognitive knowledge related to text organization and metacognitive skills, such as the ability to judge the appropriateness of one's writing and to revise it accordingly. In view of this complexity, it becomes clear that English language teachers face a considerable challenge where the teaching of the FL writing skills is concerned.

Foreign language writing instruction is typically based upon either genre- or process-oriented principles or a combination of the two. In genre pedagogy, learners are encouraged to analyze and mimic model texts which offer "explicit and systematic explanations of the ways language functions in social contexts" (Hyland, 2003:18). Genre-oriented teaching materials typically realize a three-staged sequence of activities: introduction and analysis of model genre; exercises to manipulate relevant language forms; production of text by the learner (Cope & Kalantzis, 1993:11). The approach, however, has been criticized for "undervalue[ing] the skills needed to produce a text and see[ing] learners as largely passive" (Badger & White, 2000:157).

Process writing, on the other hand, focuses on the development of both the cognitive and linguistic skills needed for developing competent writers (White & Arndt, 1991). Process-oriented syllabuses generally employ the original planning → writing → reviewing model as established by Flower and Hayes (1981).

A combination of genre and process pedagogy is often considered the most effective approach to writing in L2 writing instruction. Badger and White (2000:158) propose a 'process genre' approach and Hyland (2003:23) argues that "we should not gloss over the protracted . . . debate on these two positions," and that used in conjunction, "one might complement the other."

Blogging and language learning

Blogging and communicative language teaching

In terms of wider foreign language learning methodology, blogging could be placed within the domain of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) since a blog facilitates meaningful and authentic communication. Brown (2007) describes the main characteristics of the approach as follows:

1 Focus on communicative competence.
2 Authentic language engagement for meaningful purposes.
3 Focus on fluency as well as accuracy.
4 Use of language in unrehearsed situations.

Blogging and social constructivism

As noted by Schwandt (1994, as cited in Au, 1998) the fundamental principle of social constructivism is the focus on lived experience as perceived by social actors. In using a blog to develop EFL writing skills, the blog serves as an authentic real-life situation with the learners posting authentic pieces of writing rather than responses to teachers or course book writing tasks.

Engaging with writing on a blog can be considered holistic and meaningful (rather than working with discrete components of writing which are not linked to meaningful communication) which is a central idea in Vygotsky's approach to learning (Vygotsky, 1978 as cited in Williams and Burden, 2010). Vygotsky also emphasizes the importance of group dynamics and interpersonal relationships for learning. For Vygotsky, "the secret of effective learning lies in the nature of the social interaction between two or more people with different levels of skill and knowledge" (ibid.: p. 40).

Research methodology

Action research

The research methodology which was used for the present study was AR. A number of often-quoted definitions of AR can be found in the literature, for example

Hopkins (1985) suggests that it concerns the combination of action and research to form a process of disciplined inquiry in which a personal attempt is made to understand, improve, and reform practice. Since this study was carried out in a classroom setting by the teacher, AR was considered the most suitable research method.

The intervention

The theoretical framework which underpinned the intervention carried out (the creation of a class writing blog) drew from a number of the features from both FL writing methodology and acquisition and also general pedagogy that were discussed above in the literature review. This can be described as an eclectic teaching approach which involves the use of a variety of language learning activities and approaches (Larson-Freeman, 2000).

The class writing ran over a four-month period; from January to May 2014. The blog was created using 'Google Blogger' which is a free blogging service and can be found URL address: http://agymclassblog.blogspot.gr/. First, a prototype of the blog was created and presented to the students. The students were asked for their opinions and further suggestions with respect to the graphic appearance such as layout, design, and any other aspects of the blog.

The participants were then introduced to a section within the blog about internet safety. The internet safety focus was on concealing identity, protecting personal information, and being mindful of their comments on the internet considering the fact that the internet is considered a public space.

The learners were made aware of a 'Blogging Guide' section within the blog which provided specific guidance on the generic conventions of writing a blog post, the guidance was drawn from Knobel and Lankshear's suggestions for blog posts (2006) which include:

- Clear purpose.
- Quality presentation.
- Strong point-of-view.

The guidance also contained suggestions for the layout of the blog posts and also for making use of multimedia which is considered a key 21st-century literacy skill (Cummins et al., 2007; Coiro et al., 2008; Walsh, 2009).

The blog was then used with writing tasks uploaded and responses published by students on the blog. The tasks which were created were as follows:

Task 1: A blog article on 'Being Grateful.'
Task 2: Exam writing: Writing an email to a friend about a festival in Greece.
Task 3: A blog article on fashion and the environment.
Task 4: A blog article on the Darfur genocide.

The specific procedures for each task typically had the following structure:

1 Input to the topic posted on the blog along with the task instructions (created by me).
2 Presentation of the input and the task. Discussion of task.
3 Students working on task and students posting task responses on the blog.

Data analysis

Data were collected throughout and after the blog implementation period from the following sources:

1 The participants' EFL writing on the blog in both blog posts and comments.
2 A questionnaire given to the students after the four-month engagement period with the blog in order to gain an insight into their perceptions of the blog.

Participants' writing

The writing of the participants who posted on the blog was first examined (per student individually) using the same Cambridge ESOL PET examination mark scheme and looked at the following aspects: *Content, Communicative Achievement, Organisation,* and *Language*. The same was then done for the writing responses of the same student taken from traditional course book writing responses and compared.

The writing was also examined for improvements in verb accuracy as done in the Armstrong and Retterer (2008) study on blogging and L2 writing. Verb accuracy was defined as forms that were correctly conjugated as to number, for example, *Maria goes* (third-person singular) and form, for example, *Maria is going* rather than *Maria going* (present continuous form requiring auxiliary verb + main verb). In order for a verb to be identified as accurate, it also had to be correct in terms of usage. For example, *Last week Maria went* rather than *Last week Maria goes* (realizing an action in the past, therefore, requiring a verb in the past simple tense). The numbers of accurate/inaccurate verbs were then calculated as percentages.

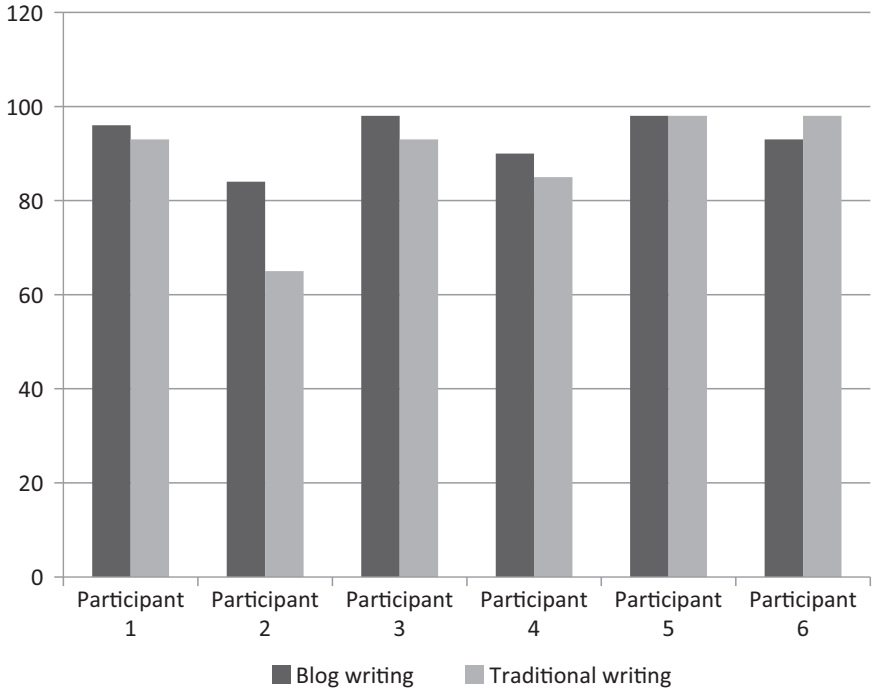
Participant questionnaires

The questions were presented as a series of statements for which the participant had to either: *completely agree*, *agree*, *disagree,* or *completely disagree* using Likert scales. Questions were related to the blogs effectiveness for developing EFL writing skills such as *I believe my writing skills have improved from writing on the blog* and motivation such as *I liked writing on the blog*. The questionnaires were examined manually without the need to use statistic analysis software due to the small sample size.

Results

The results from the Cambridge ESOL assessment are presented in the following table 20.1:

Table 20.1 Cambridge ESOL assessment of blog and traditional writing



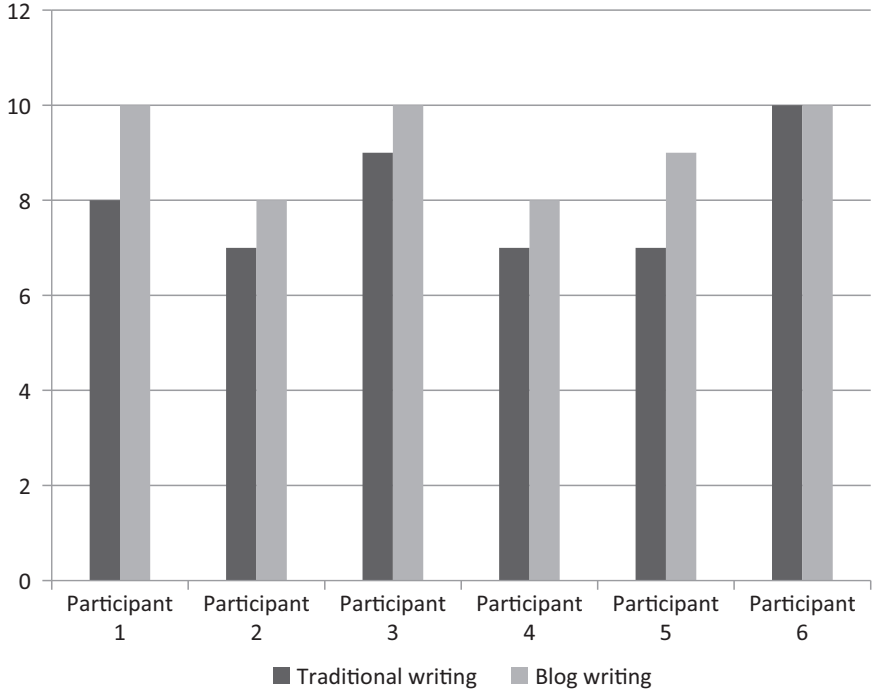
As can be observed, slight improvements in the quality of the writing were found in the writing examined from participants 1, 3, and 4; a bigger improvement was found in the writing of participant 2; the writing from participant 5 was of the same quality in both modes whereas the writing of participant 6 received a higher score on paper. Closer examination of the writing examined revealed that the main differences in quality of the samples which were better on the blog were in terms of grammar and vocabulary accuracy.

The following graph contains the results from the verb analysis (Table 20.2). As evident, verb accuracy was higher overall in the blog writing. Improvements were generally related to number and tense. For example, in the 10 verbs examined for participant 1, the following inaccuracies were found: . . . *she play in my favourite TV series* . . . instead of *she play**s** in my favourite TV series* (the verb is in the third-person singular so requiring + -s), and . . . *she start her career when she was six years old*. Instead of . . . *she start**ed** her career when she was six years old* . . . (the verb is realizing a past action therefore requires the past form *started*).

Questionnaire findings

The questionnaire analysis revealed that 65% of the participants believed that their EFL writing skills had improved through using the blog, whereas 35% felt that that the blog had not had an impact on their EFL writing skills. Most students,

Table 20.2 Verb analysis results



however, felt that blogging was a useful tool for developing EFL writing skills. Moreover, significant number of students (88%) said that that they liked the blog but some students said they preferred writing on paper as they found writing with technology more difficult.

Conclusion

The findings presented above suggest that a class blog is indeed an effective tool for developing EFL skills in a secondary classroom. This finds the study in agreement with other studies on blogging and FL writing skills (Pinkman, 2005; Armstrong & Retterer, 2008; Blackmore-Squires, 2010; Saeed & Fardarshari, 2012; Said et al., 2013). The improvements were evident in the Cambridge ESOL assessment of the participants' blog writing and also in the improved accuracy found in the use of verbs in the blog writing. This ties in with the students' comments about being more mindful of grammar, text structure, and spelling on the blog.

Furthermore, it was observed that many of the learners made use of the digital tools available on the internet to enhance their accuracy. This is significant as it was highlighted in the literature how important revising text is for the final writing result (Manchón & Roca de Larios, 2007; Manchón et al., 2007). In

addition, in traditional writing, the learners normally simply write without really paying attention to and revising the quality of their texts. Therefore, the blog can be seen as a valuable tool for revising and editing writing.

With respect to motivation, the results of the data analyzed demonstrated that most participants liked the blog. However, some participants said they did not like writing on the blog and that they preferred writing on paper. This sense of dissatisfaction was related to the additional level of complexity that came into play due to the digital/technological nature of blog writing. As mentioned earlier, learners can only experience the benefits of computer-based writing if they have acquired the necessary technological skills (Hyland, 2003). Furthermore, it has already been stressed that writing, as a skill, is considered one of the most difficult areas of EFL learning (Widdowson, 1983; Hyland, 2003). Therefore, it seems that difficulties caused by the technology added to an already difficult aspect of the participants' English language learning.

In sum, the findings that emerged from this suggest that implementing a class writing blog is an effective method for developing EFL writing skills in a secondary school setting. With respect to blogging being effective for fostering second language writing motivation, the findings of the present study imply that blogging can facilitate motivation but this motivation might need time to develop as using technology comes with mastering new skills. As noted by Warschauer and Meskell, "computer technology is not a panacea for language teaching" (2000:317). As teachers of the 21st-century Google generation, however, it is our duty to provide a learning environment which is in step with today's world. By doing so, we are not only teaching in a way appropriate to today but in ways that ensure effective preparation for what lies ahead tomorrow.

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21 Computer-based educational program

Developing e-learning skills within German language training for specific purposes

Dusan Fedic

Introduction

The University of Ss. Cyril and Methodius in Trnava innovated the syllabus for students of German language in business communication at the university in Trnava, Slovakia. The graduates of the mentioned subject of study are supposed to be able to deal with various sorts of professional and expert situations in German language. The staff of the Department of German studies was looking simultaneously for the means of providing the students with expertly erudite knowledge of Linguistics, language for specific purposes, and erudite knowledge of other necessary scientific fields for future practice. Within the context of potential professional classification, scientific discipline of corporate economics plays a fundamental role. This is due to the fact that graduates should potentially work in German speaking companies or companies that cooperate with such companies. International cooperation of the two universities began to obtain tangible content (Fedič & Krpalkova Krelova, 2015).

New methods

The method should not only teach and enhance the level of acquired knowledge but it should also educate students on a personal level. The Didactics yet does not contain unified, generally accepted classification of teaching methods. E-learning is one of the contemporary teaching methods that are also employed at universities. E-learning may be defined as a combination of educational and training activities with utilization of modern information and communication technologies. Computer devices deepen motivation and allow simulation of difficult phenomena (Krpalkova et al., 2010).

Original LMS systems were criticized for high administrative skills demands and thus LCMS began to be implemented. These are more focused on education and less on administrative support. E-learning continues permeating various fields of education and many untraditional projects are being created. Contemporary trends in economic education include:

- Blended-learning: This type of e-learning signifies combined teaching, ergo combination of standard schooling (attendance, presentation, face-to-face) and e-learning.
- Learning Content Management Systems (LCMSs): This term is often linked to LMS. It emphasizes training and simplifies administration part.
- Web collaboration & Live eLearning – It deals with transferring of actual classes on-line. Significantly supported by communication elements, virtual classes, on line lectures and workshops are created.
- Simulations, learning games, videos and storytelling: Development of games and simulations deepens motivation, intention to win and to learn something. Educational programs and video samples. It focuses on interpersonal relations and social education via story creation, presenting positive and negative examples, in a form of play.

(Daniš, 1991)

Use of information technology in class is not only an attractive change and a possibility to attract students´ attention but also a tool for an effective work of a tutor in a class. Syllabus – a well-equipped computer classroom is an imperative condition. A great advantage is the possibility to process any topic in the most favorable way. Presentation technologies – in this case, computer fashions various phenomena which are visually projected and accompanied by explanation of a tutor. E-learning technologies are greatly employed during training and examination by means of electronic tests, group practicing throughout projected assignments. For home assignments there are various e-courses, educational texts, multimedia encyclopedias, electronic games (Foltynek, 2006).

Skype is very popular software application that allows users to make voice calls and chats over the Internet free of charges. It´s very easy to download and install this application and we can use it in few minutes. We can find this application in computers all over the world.

Today there are more than 630 million users of Skype. The number of users rises every day. There were only 405 million users of Skype two years ago.

It is possible to get group video calling with this application. This feature can help to work effectively with students or with people who need to do some Skype-based education program. It´s rather complicated for people to attend the education program. With group video calling they save time plus they can cut travel costs. With the Skype application we can also broadcast the online presentation worldwide.

Skype is not only video calling. We can share easy files with extra materials just with one click. The members of the group can download the files in minutes and you can discuss it. You can also chat and so you can help the members to understand the problem. The Skype application has a lot of possibilities for how to work everywhere. Please submit your manuscript electronically for review as email attachments. When you submit your initial full paper version, prepare it in two-column format, including figures and tables.

Innovations

Within a context of the syllabus of a subject of study, innovation took place in the contents of subjects: Technical language – Economy, Technical language – Business, Technical language – Business Negotiations. Contents of the subjects were enriched by substantial topics e.g. preparation of business plan, problems, and shortcomings at business negotiations, stages of commercial intercourse. These currently relevant topics had not been included in the syllabus. From the point of view of professional expertise, all topical units required progress. Questions related to the field of Linguistics and Technical language were not problematic. Many technical questions related to the field of economics were left without an answer. The solution was to supplement lectures with online entries via Skype application. Short pre-planned online entries took a few minutes and gave students a chance to discuss problematic issues related to economics with an expert. Entries were conceptually planned to fit into a lecture. In this manner, blended e-learning, Web collaboration, and live e-learning have been applied. Individual entries were recorded and uploaded to the Internet and thus another trend in electronic education (videos) was applied.

Computer-assisted translation (CAT) have a lot of benefits. The CAT tool can increase production of the translator. Some tools make it possible to translate high volumes of material. This is also the most effective way to review and to analyze work. CAT tools allow standardization of glossaries and individual translators to use terms consistently with less effort.

Google Translator is a CAT tool, which allows students to learn to work with CAT tools. The Department of German Studies uses this tool in the study program.

Needs analysis

The students completed a needs analysis questionnaire about education, focusing on the Skype application and CAT tools. More than 250 students received the questionnaire with the questions mentioned below. The aim of the questionnaire was to find out, if the Skype-based and CAT-based education program would be interesting and possible among the students in the future.

More than 70% of students use the software application Skype, but only 23.4% of students use the CAT tool for translation from Google (See Figure 21.1). We can recommend using the Skype application, but if we want to use the CAT tool from Google, it is necessary to teach the students to work with this tool (See Figures 21.2 and 21.3).

All of the participants were satisfied with the Skype-based program. The negative experiences were just because of the problems with the Internet connection. The participants with other connection like the broadband connection had problems with the participation at the test program. Also, all of the participants were satisfied with the CAT-based translation. The students can learn to translate more effectively.

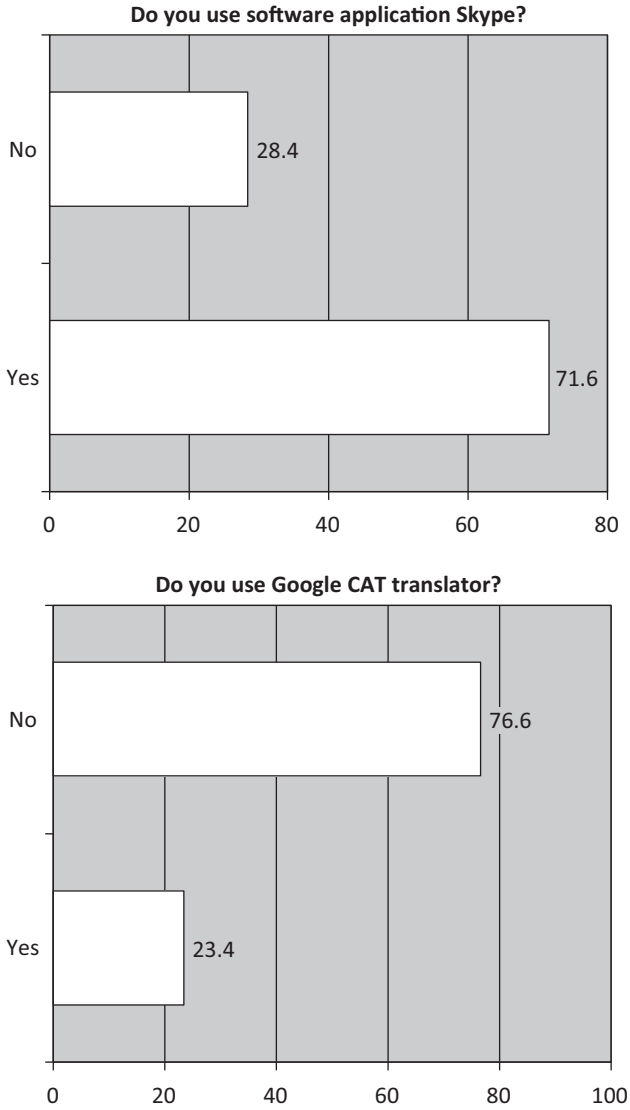

Figure 21.1 Results of the use of the applications

Conclusion

Student evaluation of a new content and methods took place in various stages after initial testing. The evaluation was concerned mainly with satisfaction with the contents of subjects and manner of implementation and the role of online

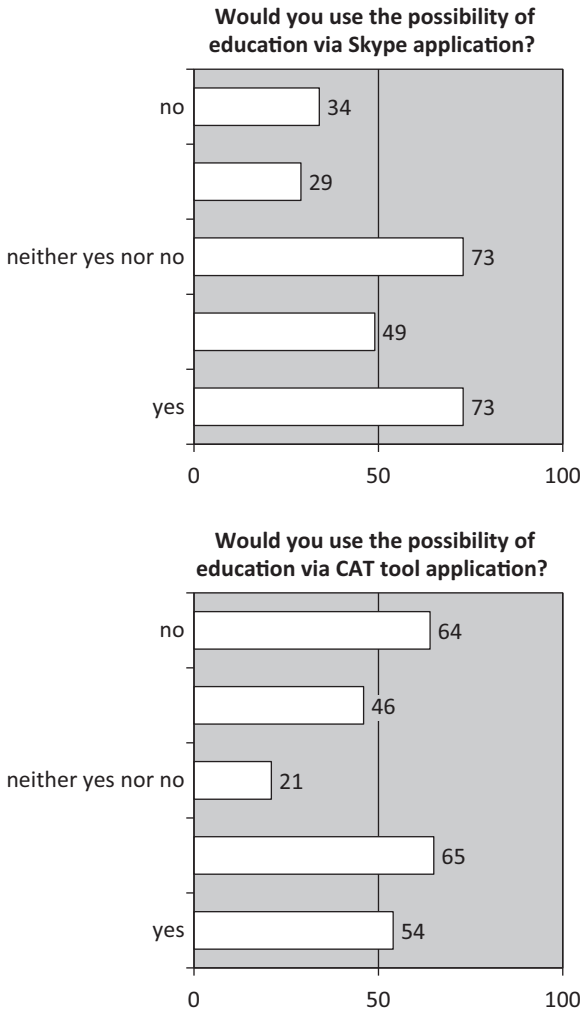

Figure 21.2 Results of the possibility of education via Skype or via CAT tool

entries. The results and commentaries were integrated into final version of the syllabus of given subjects. All students of the Department of German studies took part in evaluation. The most important results are:

- first/final evaluation of contents of subjects: 65%/85.4%,
- first/final evaluation of manner of implementation: 84.6%/96.8%,
- first/final evaluation of the role of on-line entries: 72.3%/92.5%.

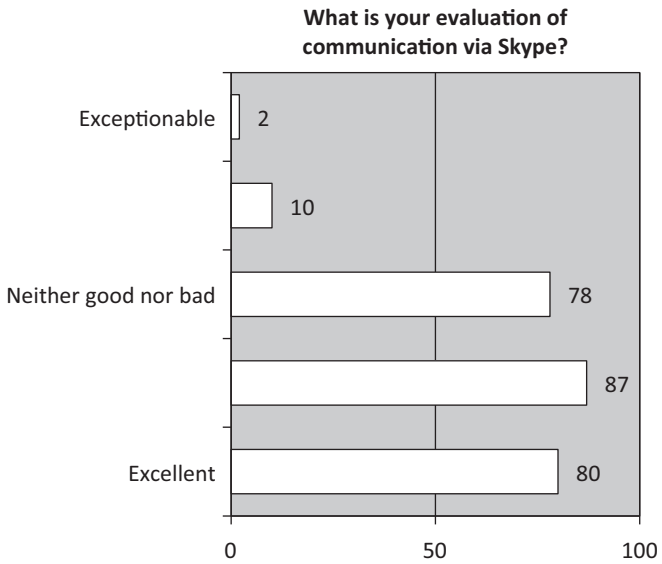

Figure 21.3 Results of the evaluation of communication via Skype and of translation via CAT tool

The results of the first and the final positive evaluation are different and they indicate their positive development after the integration of the commentaries. The results and commentaries were integrated into final version of the syllabus of given subjects. The students were satisfied with the subjects. Nowadays, there is a big interest in subjects.

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Conclusion

Vasilia Kourtis-Kazoullis, Themistoklis Aravossitas, Eleni Skourtou, and Peter Pericles Trifonas

Although multilingual education is not a new discipline, the recently intensified global mobility and the drastic expansion of information and communication technologies have reinforced the global interest for ethnolinguistic diversity and multilingualism in education and the society. Our volume was aimed at approaching some of the contemporary challenges of language policies and practices and providing examples, based on international empirical research. The book followed a multidisciplinary approach to multilingualism with chapters around educational policy, education, linguistics, and ICT. It brought together studies from different parts of the world such as Iceland, Spain, Greece, Canada, and the United Kingdom, as well as studies on various language communities such as learners of Chinese origin in Spain and Italian in the UK.

Our selected topics covered the fields of language education, bilingual education, and multicultural education and were geared to scholars interested in country/area–focused studies and in comparative research in the European and international milieu. Our goal was to provide a framework for educators involved in minority/bilingual education who need to have examples in applying new approaches and technologies to their practice. Furthermore, country-specific examples represented multiple dynamic contexts for language diversity in society and in education. The volume included 21 chapters that brought together current interdisciplinary perspectives in multilingual and second language education, centered around four main themes: (a) educational programs and policies; (b) teaching and learning; (c) linguistic diversity; and (d) ICT and language learning. Each part contains context-specific practical interventions and relevant theoretical approaches.

In Part A, European educational programs and policies were discussed with specific reference to Iceland, Spain, and Greece. In the first chapter, *Linguistic Rights and Educational Policies: Aspects of Minority Language Education in Europe*, Mavrommatis, Kapoutsi, and Karagianni presented a brief comparative study of eight officially recognized bilingual educational systems operating in regions of European States. The study focused on the position of minority languages in education and the issues of linguistic rights and language educational policies regarding historical minority and regional languages in Europe. The second chapter *Building a Multilingual Learning Community: Educational*

Partnerships with Parents in a Multilingual Preschool in Iceland (Ragnarsdóttir) explored the process of building a multilingual learning community by establishing educational partnerships with parents in a multilingual preschool setting in Iceland. The third chapter *Case Study Research on the Less Known Multilingual Educational Program of Val d'Aran in Catalonia, Spain: Students' Attitudes* (Stampolaki) explored whether bilingual/multilingual education can help reduce prejudice and increase cultural acceptance. She referred to the multilingual education of Val d'Aran (Catalonia, Spain) and examined how native and non-native students view their national/cultural identity-ies and local languages. She concluded that multilingual education could be the key to diminishing discrimination and prejudice early in life, in the classrooms, by helping students gain multicultural and linguistic awareness. In the last chapter of the section, Oikonomakou and Sofos referred to *Diversity in Language Teaching and Democratization of Education: A Critical Approach*, investigating the means through which the concept of diversity is implemented in education by focusing on the institutional framework of the curricula in Greek primary school and students' textbooks in the senior primary school classes.

In Part B, *Teaching and Learning*, the authors brought together specific examples of how multilingualism can be approached in an educational context. Examples came from Greece, Canada, the UK, and Spain. Specifically, the fifth chapter, *Nonverbal Communication in Wordless Comics* (Missiou) discussed how kinesics can serve as a form of nonverbal communication. The author focused on the interpretive nature of wordless books and invited readers across all age groups to forego their traditional manner of reading a book and approach the reading act from the perspective of visual signs. Likewise, in the sixth chapter, *Plurilingualism in Linguistically Diverse Language Classrooms: Respecting and Validating Student Identity*, Galante provided examples of tasks that can be used in language classrooms, i.e. particularly in adult EAL classrooms, based on theories in the fields of education and applied linguistics that support plurilingualism. In the seventh chapter of the section, *Factors Affecting, and Methods to Improve, the Language Development of EAL Learners,* Norley focused on common learning difficulties which EAL (English as an Additional Language) learners experience, e.g. the degree to which the phonological system and grammatical structure of their own language differs from the English language (mother tongue interference). These difficulties were then considered in the context of the learners' reasons and motivation for learning the English language. Furthermore, this chapter discussed the influence of social class and how this affected learning experiences of EAL learners. Following this, Zorbas' chapter *Conversations Within: Journal writing as an Alternative Form of Exploration in Foreign Language Pedagogy* provided examples of how *journal writing* can be conducive to the learning process within a foreign language context. Mancila's chapter, *Lived Experiences among Learners of Chinese Origin in Complimentary Schools in Spain*, focused on learners of Chinese origin in Spain and studied how their language and cultural experiences were related to identity processes and education. In the same section, Melissourgou and Frantzi's chapter (ten) *Stories, Second Language Writers, and*

Genre Awareness investigated story writing in educational material and international English language exams.

In Part C, the six chapters explored specific aspects of linguistic diversity, such as identity, translanguaging, and code-switching. Damanakis (chapter 11) analyzed the concepts of identity and diversity. His theoretical approach highlighted diversity both as an individual and collective experience, along with other parameters that include power structures, equality, self-differentiation, dialogical subjectivity, and pedagogic rhetoric in diverse societies. Based on his long professional and research involvement with the Greek Diaspora, Damanakis conceptualized diversity through the lens of minority groups. Vasilopoulou's chapter (12) *Evolution in Terms of Theoretical Conceptualization of Translanguaging in Applied Linguistics: The Example of Greek and French Language Classrooms* examined the concept of Translanguaging, by examining its characteristics and associating them with the current conditions that affect school populations, i.e. Greek and French language classrooms. Likewise, in chapter 13, Di Salvo (*Language Diversity in three Italian Communities in the UK: Heritage Languages and Code-Switching*) provided the results of a study dealing with code-switching in three Italian communities in the UK. The chapter discussed the use of three language varieties (e.g. Italian dialect, Standard Italian, and English) in the speech of first generation Italian migrants by focusing particularly on the functional aspects of code-switching. Kiyitsioglou-Vlacho and Baraka referred to the *Acquisition of Grammatical Phenomena in French as a Foreign Language* (chapter 14). Their study focused on the acquisition of the morphological structure of the participle in the French language, by presenting the main conclusions of the application of two teaching scenarios in Greek FSL university classes. Gkaintartzi and Tsokalidiou's chapter, *Is Translanguaging a Possibility in a Language Class? Theoretical Issues and Applications in an EFL Class* (chapter 15) looked at translanguaging in practice in EFL classes. They discussed ways in which children's first languages can be used in foreign (English) language teaching, in order to create opportunities for students to translanguage.

Likewise, in the final section of the book (Part D), Information and Communication Technologies were discussed in relation to second and/or foreign language learning. Maric's chapter (chapter 16) dealt with *Virtual Museums of Music and Ballet in Foreign Language Education*. Her study examined the possible ways of using virtual museums (i.e. museums with digital equipment/museum websites/online museums/virtual museums), to encourage student learning and to effectively support learning innovation. Her study was based on English language formal education in Secondary Music Schools and Secondary Ballet Schools in Serbia. Schnitzer-Hall's chapter (17) *Exploring Computer-Mediated Second Language Oral Proficiency Testing* compared test taker performances on three different computer-mediated formats of a second language oral proficiency test. Using interview and survey data, test takers' attitudes towards the different test formats were examined. Koutromanos and Sofos also referred to new and creative ways of using ICT in education. Their chapter (18) *Augmented Reality-Based Creation of Comics in Primary Education* showed how augmented reality comics can be

used, by providing an example involving fourth-grade students. In the following chapter, Mitsikopoulou (*Developing Pedagogically Meaningful Learning Objects for Foreign Language Education* – chapter 19) outlined a project on digital materials for the teaching of English as a foreign language and outlined their pedagogical value. Likewise, Evangelidi (*Blogging to Develop Writing Skills in a Greek Secondary EFL Classroom* – Chapter 20) examined the effectiveness of a class writing blog for developing English as a foreign language (EFL) writing skills. Finally, Fedic (*Computer-Based Educational Program: Developing e-learning Skills within German Language Training for Specific Purposes* – Chapter 21) provided an activity overview of computer-based education in a Department of German Studies in Slovakia and suggests innovative teaching methods, such as Skype-based teaching and CAT – computer-assisted translation.

The above chapters have brought together a variety of interdisciplinary research approaches to multilingual education. Intensified global mobility in the last few years has rekindled the interest of academics, researchers, educational administrators, and pre–and postgraduate students in multilingual education. This mobility has reinforced an interest in ethnolinguistic diversity and multilingualism in education and society. The book *Interdisciplinary Research Approaches to Multilingual Education* has brought together current interdisciplinary perspectives in multilingual and second language education and has examined research and language teaching in specific countries. It has looked at traditional aspects of multilingual education, but has also provided examples from new fields, such as ICT applications. Through context-specific practical interventions and relevant theoretical approaches, it has examined contemporary challenges of language policies and practices by looking at educational programs and policies and practices related to teaching/learning and linguistic diversity in a new way.

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