Research Papers In Language Teaching and Learning

PATRAS

Research Papers in *Language Teaching and Learning*

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Research Papers
in Language Teaching and Learning
Hellenic Open University
School of Humanities

EDITORIAL

The issue at hand boasts the inclusion of a variety of interesting topics that range from insights from language-based analyses for teaching (the role of phonological awareness in the teaching of reading and corpus analytic insights for a lexico-grammatical phenomenon), to reflective and reflexive practices in teacher training and professional development, to more practical teaching concerns, such as process writing, intercultural education, materials design, implementation and evaluation, the use of electronic storybooks, CLIL practices and the impact of a European programme. The primary level takes up the lion's share of interest and focus, with interesting papers on associations between primary and lower secondary EFL practices and a comparative study between two entirely different contexts. That said, we also have papers that focus on the secondary and tertiary levels as well.

More specifically, the issue begins with a look at the role phonological awareness in English can have as a predictor of reading comprehension in a Greek primary-level EFL context. Klio Ftika's survey shows age to play a rather significant part, with phonological awareness of the mother tongue (in this case, Greek) being less central in the younger than in the older primary school learners, a finding that confirms the Language Threshold Hypothesis.

Teacher development through self- and peer- observation is the subject of the paper by Ioanna Psalla. For a period of eight weeks, two teachers (of whom one being the author) were engaged in collecting information through diary writing, audio recordings of class sessions, and peer-to-peer observations followed by reflective dialogues between the two teachers. The paper reports on the valuable lessons learnt and discusses dimensions of teacher self-awareness, evaluation and, ultimately, professional self-development. Teacher training is also the topic of the next paper, by Sophia Dida. The paper focuses on the important problem of identifying the challenges that are incumbent upon intercultural education, and, in particular, appreciating and responding to the needs of immigrant learners. The author sheds light on facets of teachers' understanding of such challenges and remarks on the perceived intricacies of informing EFL teachers on issues relating to multicultural class management in a European context.

The paper by Dina Tsagari and Athena Pavlou makes a contribution to the evaluation of materials design and use. The authors attempt an appraisal of the vocabulary tests included in the EFL textbook used in the 5th grade of primary state schools in Greece, and find these tests wanting. Their study reports a mismatch between the actual tests, which prioritise lexical competence, and the expressed aims of the textbook, which targets overall vocabulary performance. The paper discusses further mismatches between textbook aims and teacher perceptions and practices and goes on to suggest ways of adapting teaching materials that are useful for learners.

The paper by Dimitris Rinis and Kosmas Vlachos looks at an innovative use of electronic storybooks in a primary school setting, with an aim to enhancing young learners' linguistic, cognitive, affective and social engagement with motivating, authentic and even challenging

activities. The researchers report that the learners enjoyed both the storybooks and the corresponding activities and discuss ways of integrating a blended-learning perspective into the primary context.

In their own paper, Thomaï Alexiou and Marina Mattheoudakis make a useful overview of the historical context of EFL tuition in the Greek state primary sector. Their research focuses on the perceived discontinuity between primary and lower secondary EFL practice and draws from a survey of EFL teachers' perceptions of different aspects of it. The authors go on to suggest strategies for bridging the gap that are sensitive to the Greek broader educational context. Areti-Maria Sougari and Iren Hovhanisyan conduct a comparative survey of sixth grade primary school learners in Greece and Armenia, with an aim to establishing these learners' motivation for learning English and their perceptions of the role of English as an international language. They come up with interesting observations that are grounded in an understanding of the broader socio-educational context of the two countries.

The paper by Renata Agolli discusses the possibility of integrating a Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) orientation in a senior secondary context in Rome. Agolli presents a comprehensive overview of CLIL theory and practices and describes a research paradigm that characterises learners as being more open to innovative experimentation with CLIL than their teachers. Vassiliki Rizomilioti's article takes up a fascinating phenomenon of lexico-grammar, that of the resultative pattern V (n) Adj. Her extensive research of this pattern in the Corpus of Contemporary American English sheds light on the invaluable potential of corpus analysis for areas such as translation and teaching/learning, or understanding and explaining semantic patterns in a foreign language.

In a paper that focuses on alternative assessment, Alexandra Anastasiadou discusses the challenges and the opportunities that practices such as portfolios, self-assessment and peer-assessment can present for foreign language teachers and learners alike. She presents the implementation of reflective reports in the teaching of process writing to 12-year-old primary school learners and concludes that alternative assessment practices can involve learners in ways that can help them come to terms with the demanding processes of language learning and use. Process writing is the focus of the paper by Handoyo Puji Widodo, who puts forward a proposal for using collaborative practices in an EFL college writing setting in Indonesia. He discusses the importance of collaboration in processes such brainstorming, feedback and draft revision.

Last but not least, the paper by Angeliki Anagnostopoulou and Alexandra Athanasiou reviews the Learning Partnerships division of the Grundtvig action of the broader European Lifelong Learning Programme and discusses the prospects for employment and economic growth. In this light, the authors present a programme called 'Green Terraces across Europe' that aims at engaging learners in the creation of a vegetable and flower garden on top of their school building and discuss the challenges and opportunities it offers.

The issue is rounded up with the reviews of two books.

<div align="right">
Nicos C. Sifakis
Editor-in-Chief
</div>

Phonological awareness as a possible predictor for reading comprehension in English among year 3 and 6 Greek students

Η φωνολογική επίγνωση ως πιθανός παράγοντας ανάπτυξης της κατανόησης των αγγλικών γραπτών κειμένων για Έλληνες μαθητές της τρίτης και της έκτης δημοτικού

Klio FTIKA

The present study investigates English phonological awareness as a predictor of reading comprehension among Greek students learning English as a foreign language. 75 students from Years 3 (41 students) and 6 (34 students) participated in the study with a mean age of 8.46 and 11.47, respectively. The students were administered two phonological tests, one in English (CTOPP) and in Greek (Athena test) and age appropriate reading comprehension tests (Starters and Flyers for Year 3 and Year 6 respectively). According to the results, English phonological awareness proved to be a significant predictor of reading comprehension for both year 3 (p<1%/0.01) and year 6 (p<5%/0.05) students along with the years of study. Gender, by contrast, does not seem to play a significant role in the acquisition of literacy skills. On the other hand, Greek phonological awareness does not seem to contribute directly to students' reading comprehension skills in English. It seems to be associated with English phonological awareness in year 6 but there is no association in year 3, a result in line with the Language Threshold Hypothesis. Finally, structural equation modeling is used to demonstrate the different possible interrelations of Greek phonological awareness, English phonological awareness, age, years of study and other latent variables. The findings of this research could be used by teachers to design phonological awareness activities to help struggling Greek students cope with the irregularities of the English language and succeed in overcoming their difficulties in reading comprehension

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Η παρούσα ερευνητική εργασία ερευνά τον ρόλο της φωνολογικής επίγνωσης στα Αγγλικά στην ανάπτυξη της κατανόησης των αγγλικών γραπτών κειμένων για τους Έλληνες μαθητές που μαθαίνουν Αγγλικά ως ξένη γλώσσα. Σε αυτή την έρευνα συμμετείχαν 75 μαθητές, 41 της Τρίτης δημοτικού και 34 της Έκτης, με μέσο όρο ηλικίας 8,46 και 11,47 αντίστοιχα. Για την έρευνα χρησιμοποιήθηκαν δυο φωνολογικά τεστ, το Αθηνά τεστ για την φωνολογική επιγνωση στα ελληνικά και το CTOPP για την φωνολογική επιγνωση στα αγγλικά. Επιπλέον, έγινε χρήση δύο τεστ αξιολόγησης της ικανότητας κατανόησης γραπτών κειμένων, του

Starters για τους μαθητές της τρίτης δημοτικού και του Flyers για τους μαθητές της έκτης Σύμφωνα με τα αποτελέσματα, η φωνολογική επίγνωση στα Αγγλικά καθώς και τα χρόνια εκμάθησης παίζουν πολύ σημαντικό ρόλο στην ανάπτυξη της ικανότητας κατανόησης γραπτών κειμένων και για τους μαθητές της τρίτης δημοτικού και για τους μαθητές της έκτης. Το φύλο δε μοιάζει να παίζει ουσιαστικό ρόλο. Επίσης, η φωνολογική επίγνωση στα Ελληνικά δε φαίνεται να επηρεάζει ευθέως την κατανόηση των αγγλικών γραπτών κειμένων. Φαίνεται όμως ότι επηρεάζει την φωνολογική επίγνωση στα Αγγλικά των μαθητών της έκτης δημοτικού αλλά όχι της τρίτης, γεγονός που συνάδει με τις παραμέτρους της υπόθεσης της Γλωσσικής Αφετηρίας (Language Threshold Hypothesis). Τέλος, ένα μοντέλο δομικών εξισώσεων (structural equation modeling) χρησιμοποιήθηκε για να αναδείξει τους πιθανούς συσχετισμούς ανάμεσα στη φωνολογική επίγνωση στα Αγγλικά, τη φωνολογική επίγνωση στα Ελληνικά, την ηλικία των συμμετεχόντων, το φύλο τους και τα χρόνια εκμάθησης των Αγγλικών ως ξένης γλώσσας.Τα ευρήματα αυτής της έρευνας θα μπορούσαν να αποτελέσουν βάση για τον σχεδιασμό δραστηριοτήτων φωνολογικής επίγνωσης για έλληνες μαθητές που παρουσιάζουν αδυναμία στην κατανόηση γραπτών κειμένων στα αγγλικά.

Key words: English phonological awareness, Greek phonological awareness, reading comprehension, Language Threshold Hypothesis, Structural Equation Modeling

1. Introduction

English orthography is claimed to be highly inconsistent and irregular compared to other European languages, thus affecting the development of English students' literacy skills. According to Seymour, Aro and Erskine (2003), children from most European countries become fluent and accurate readers by the end of the first school year with the exception of English, Danish, French and Portuguese students. The abovementioned inconsistency and irregularity are also expected to affect the literacy attainment of students learning English as a Foreign Language (L2). Greek students, for example, start learning English as L2 by the age of 6, in year 1, according to the new government policy.

According to the literature, phonological awareness seems to be a significant variable in the acquisition of mother tongue (L1) literacy skills (Hulme et al, 2002; Aidinis et al, 2001; Høien et al, 1995; In fact, phonological awareness has been the basic component in many intervention programs designed to help British students overcome difficulties in reading and spelling acquisition. Judging by their results, these intervention programs seem to be working effectively (Bus and van IJzendoorn, 1999; Blachman, Tangel, Ball, Black and McGraw, 1999; Stuart, 1999). What begs the question is whether phonological awareness - based programs could also be beneficial for students learning English as a foreign language.

This research study aims to examine: a) whether English phonological awareness is a strong predictor for reading comprehension among Greek students (mean age 8.46 and 11.47) learning English as a foreign language; b) the differences in the reading performance and phonological abilities of the two year groups and potential gender effects; c) the contribution of Greek phonological awareness to the development of reading skills as well as of English phonological awareness which is in accordance with the language threshold

hypothesis; d) the directionality of the effect of the interdependent variables mentioned above (English phonological awareness, Greek phonological awareness, years of study, gender).

2. The Role of Phonological Awareness

Phonological awareness refers to the learner's ability to break down words into smaller units and it is a multilevel skill, subsuming three different levels: syllable awareness, onset-rime awareness and phoneme awareness (Gillon, 2004). According to Gillon, children are generally expected to be able to deal first with larger phonological units, which are the syllables and rhymes, and second with the smallest units, which are the phonemes. Thus, in developmental sequence, syllabic awareness is acquired and, shortly afterwards, onset-rime awareness follows. It is only at the last stage that children acquire phonemic awareness. Several researchers have investigated the role of phonological awareness as a predictor of reading and spelling acquisition in both the mother tongue and the foreign language.

2.1. The role of phonological awareness in English and in Greek as a mother tongue

Cormier and Dea (1997) assessed the contribution of phonological awareness and working memory to reading acquisition in their mother tongue (English). 103 Canadian students from Grades 1 (36 children), 2 (32 children) and 3 (35 children) participated in their study, and, according to the results, both phonological awareness and working memory appeared to constitute two separate possible predictors of reading and spelling attainment.

In a recent study by Ftika (2008), the results of the above research were partly reconfirmed., 18 year 2 and 19 year 3 English-speaking students (mean age 7.06 and 8.23, respectively) participated in this study with. According to the results, phonological awareness was a strong predictor for reading and spelling. Visual memory was a significant predictor for reading but lost its predictive power as far as spelling is concerned. Word frequency and letter length proved to be the influential contributors for spelling.

Finally, Sunseth and Bowers (2002) also proved in their research study, conducted with students facing difficulties in phonological awareness and rapid naming, that deficits in phonological awareness affect reading and spelling performance negatively.

All three studies indicated that literacy acquisition relies on a number of predictors; however, phonological awareness seems to be the most significant one in the acquisition of literacy skills in English. However, is the contribution of phonological awareness as significant in Greek?

In 1989, Porpodas sought to investigate the importance of sound, shape and orthographic cues in early reading in Greece. The participants of the research were sixty-four year 1 primary school students equally divided into two groups, one group of good and one group of poor readers. According to the results, beginner readers do not rely only on one cue in the reading process. However, the sound cue had the greatest impact in both groups. Porpodas also sought to examine the parameters that influence reading and spelling, namely spelling-sound information and visual information. For this purpose, he conducted a research project using regular words, exception words and non-words. The participants were in year 4 and in year 1, separated in groups of good and poor readers and spellers. The regular and the

exception words used for the research were taken from students' age textbooks. The non-words were formed by changing the initial letters of the existing words mentioned earlier. According to the results, good readers in year 4 seem to make use of both phonological and visual information, as opposed to poor readers, who rely mostly on phonological information. On the other hand, both good and poor readers in year 1 rely mostly on phonological information. Therefore, phonological information plays an important role in early stages and, more selectively, also in later stages of literacy development.

The abovementioned findings were also supported by Nikolopoulos, Goulandris, Hulme and Snowling (2006), who conducted a longitudinal study to examine the role of phoneme awareness, speech rate and rapid automatized naming as predictors in reading and spelling. All three proved to be robust predictors.

So far, all the studies in English and in Greek referred to confirm the significance of phonological awareness in acquiring literacy skills in both languages separately. But what happens when students are learning languages other than their mother tongue? Do they rely on the newly acquired sound cues and to what extent is there transfer between the two language systems, if any? 2.2 *The role of phonological awareness in foreign language acquisition*

Durgunoğlu, Nagy & Hancin-Bhatt (1993) examined the significance of phonological awareness of year 1 Spanish students in recognizing English words. 27 students participated in the research study and had a number of tests administered to them in two weeks. According to the results, phonological awareness in students' mother tongue was a significant predictor in word recognition in English and the researchers suggested that improving phonological awareness in Spanish will affect reading performance in English positively. Phonological awareness is, therefore, viewed as a type of metalinguistic awareness that need not to be language specific.

In 1999, Comeau, Cormieur, Grandmaison and Lacroix conducted a one-year longitudinal study to provide evidence supporting the significance of phonological awareness in reading achievement. This research took place in four schools in Mocton, Canada. The participants (n=122) were English-speaking students attending year 1, 3 and 5 in a French immersion school. According to the results, phonological awareness both in English (mother tongue) and in French proved to be significant. However, the significance of phonological awareness in the mother tongue dropped after year 3 while the significance of second language phonological awareness did not.

2.2. The Importance of Phonological Awareness

Based on all the above, phonological awareness seems to be a significant factor, contributing to learners' literacy in their mother tongue and second language and there is evidence of transfer of phonological cues between the language systems. Therefore, phonological awareness-based intervention programs, which are already used in the UK to help students with learning difficulties, enhance their literacy skills from year 1 to year 6 of primary school, could help struggling Greek students cope with the irregularities of the English language and succeed in learning how to read and write. There are a number of research studies which support the effectiveness of phonologically-based intervention programs in the development of literacy skills in both shallow and deep orthographies.

In 1999, Bus and van IJzendoorn conducted a quantitative meta-analysis on 36 studies testing the effects of phonological awareness programs and 34 studies testing the effects on reading. According to their findings, phonological training appeared to be more effective among preschool children and not so among older children. Moreover, phonological training appeared to be more helpful for 'normal' than special children, whose performance was not as conspicuous and rapid as in the case of children without learning difficulties. Yet, the researchers suggested that phonological training may be needed more by children with learning difficulties. Moreover, phonological awareness alone did not prove to be the strongest predictor for reading. The data suggested that letter-sound correspondence training is also needed to enhance predictability levels.

In 1999, Blachman, Tangel, Ball, Black and McGraw conducted a longitudinal study to determine the effects of phonological awareness and word recognition skill development. 66 low income, inner city learners received treatment while 62 formed the control group. The treatment group outperformed the control group in the spelling and reading measures by the end of both Years 1 and 2, which is indicative of the effectiveness of the phonological awareness intervention combined with a reading program, in accord with the Bus et al (1999) findings.

The contribution of phonological awareness intervention programmes has been proved valuable in enhancing struggling students' reading and spelling performance, and therefore such programmes are often included in school syllabuses. In Greece, for example, there is some phonological awareness teaching, but the Greek curriculum promotes a holistic approach[1] to literacy development as opposed to letter-sound teaching, an approach also adopted by some English coursebook designers. But which of the two methods is more effective?

In 1999, Stuart investigated the longitudinal effects of phoneme awareness training combined with letter- sound teaching and compared her results to a traditional holistic approach, called 'Big Book' (BB). The holistic approach teaches children how to read by drawing attention to the printed words and the letters. The phoneme and letter-sound knowledge intervention were delivered by the 'Jolly Phonics' (JP) program. 112 inner-city, five year old children who were divided into two groups, the BB and the JP group, participated in the research. The vast majority of the participants were not native English speakers. The intervention sessions were conducted one hour per day and lasted for 12 weeks. By the end of the intervention, both groups had made considerable progress but the JP group were more advanced and the students were ready to apply the knowledge gained in both reading and writing. The year following the intervention, again the JP group was significantly ahead of the BB group. Therefore, phoneme awareness and letter-sound training proved to be a more effective intervention for the inner-city second language learners, with long-lasting effects.

Phonological awareness is a strong literacy predictor not only in English but in more transparent language systems, such as Turkish, as well. In 2002, Durgunoğlu and Öney implemented an intervention literacy program which was based on letter-sound and syllabification training. The target group of the program was adult women. 59 women participated in a 90-hour intervention. According to the researchers, the adult participants made remarkable progress in their literacy skills. Thus, they concluded that phonological

awareness is a strong predictor of literacy acquisition not only in children but in adults, too, in a transparent language, such as Turkish.

Overall, then phonological awareness intervention programmes seem to contribute significantly in the progress of reading and spelling acquisition in both transparent and opaque languages.

3. Foreign language acquisition: The *Language Threshold Hypothesis*

According to the *Language Threshold Hypothesis*, a term coined by Cummings (1979), L2 readers must know enough L2 vocabulary and structures if L1 reading strategies and skills are to be used efficiently to help comprehend L2 texts.

In 1997, Lee and Lemonnier tested the Threshold Level Hypothesis with Korean students learning English as a foreign language. 809 students in the 3rd Year of middle school and the 1st year of high school (equivalent to grades 9 and 10 in the US) participated in their study. According to the results, L2 proficiency is a stronger predictor of L2 reading ability than L1 reading ability. Moreover, the threshold level hypothesis is confirmed, since the relationship of L1 and L2 reading is weak when proficiency in L2 is low but the relationship gets stronger when proficiency in L2 improves. Therefore, if learners attempting to learn a new foreign language have already mastered reading in L1, these skills may transfer to L2 or even interfere. However, according to the Threshold hypothesis, L2 readers need to have some L2 knowledge before they can start transferring strategies and useful L1 elements and structures.

4. The current study

To sustain objectivity, the research tools used for this research study were the Athena and Comprehensive Test of Phonological Processing (CTOPP), blending word subtests, which are standardized, with high reliability rates. Moreover, the reading comprehension tests administered were the Starters and Flyers (2008), which are designed to test the skills of reading and writing, listening and speaking of young learners of English as a foreign language They are part of the YLE Tests designed by Cambridge University and they are aligned to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (Council of Europe, 2001). The tasks included can be easily and objectively scored. The procedure followed sought to comfort the participants, helping them reach the best of their potential.

4.1. Participants

Overall, 75 students from year 3 (41 students) and 6 (34 students) of two suburban primary public schools in Pallini, Athens, Greece, participated in the present study. The schools accommodate students of middle class socioeconomic status. There were no specifications concerning the participants of this study other than the school year. However, two students' results were not included in this study or in the statistical analysis. One of them was a year 6 male student with severe dyslexia and the other was a year 3 male student who had joined the Greek school a few months earlier, transferred from an Albanian one and whose knowledge was sufficient neither in Greek nor in English. At the time of the research project,

in year 3, the students' age ranged from 8.08 to 9.66 (mean= 8.46) and, in year 6, from 11.08 to 13 (mean=11.47).

Two students in year 3 and five students in year 6 were bilingual, all speaking Albanian as their mother tongue. Nevertheless, all these bilingual children spoke Greek in a native-like fashion, as they had attended an all-day Greek school and received uninterrupted formal instruction in literacy and numeracy from year 1. This information was ascertained both via school records and information received from the students themselves.

4.2. Procedure

The assessments were administered in 2010, within three weeks, from the fourth week of January to the second week of February. The Athena test, blending words in Greek, and the CTOPP blending words in English subtest were administered on a one-to-one basis. The participants took both the aforementioned tests in one session of 10' to 15' minutes. This practice, though effective as far as data collection is concerned, could be stressful for students, who are asked to perform a task out of the ordinary with an unfamiliar supervising person. For this reason, the researcher was allowed into the classroom prior to the testing and was introduced to the students by the classroom teachers. The researcher also explained in detail what was to follow and also reassured students that they could stop the activities if they felt uncomfortable in any way, hoping to reduce the anxieties deriving from the contact with an unfamiliar person.

The administration of both Athena and CTOPP tests was conducted out of the classroom, in a separate quiet room. Both tests were received with enthusiasm and were regarded as games by the participants. The Starters and Flyers Reading tests (2008) were administered in the classroom, on a group basis.

For the administration of the Athena test, the researcher explained the procedure and presented the example sound sequence that the participants had to put together to form meaningful Greek words. If the participant could not reproduce a meaningful word for the example sequence, the researcher presented it for a second time. Only in one instance did the examiner have to present the example sequence more than once and to repeat the instructions. During the test, feedback was provided on the first three word productions and then the examiner stopped. At the end, though, the examiner praised the effort of the participants, not the outcome.

For the CTOPP test, participants were instructed to listen carefully and try to put together the sounds heard to produce meaningful words in English this time. Six practice items were provided. The examiner provided feedback on the six practice items and on the first three test items. Once again, the examiner praised the students' efforts when the test was completed.

Next, the researcher asked the English teachers to incorporate the Reading Starters and Flyers test in their lesson plans. The time given for the completion of the two tests was 20 minutes for the Starters and 40 minutes for the Flyers which involved reading comprehension exercises in English. Though both the researcher and the teacher were in the class supervising and giving instructions, it was made clear that neither of them were allowed to provide the definition of any unknown words. In fact, the students were

instructed in their mother tongue to try and sort out the meaning of the words from the context and the pictures, when these were available in the tests. The tests were marked by the researcher on the basis of the key provided by the test designers, but the researcher ignored any spelling mistakes that did not inhibit the meaning of the answers and considered these answers correct.

5. Results: Quantitative subject analysis

5.1. Comparison of Year 3 and Year 6 Participants' Characteristics

The mean of reading comprehension, phonological awareness in English, phonological awareness in Greek and years of study scores for years 3 and 6 are given in Table 1. T-tests were conducted to assess the statistical significance of phonological awareness differences both in English and in Greek. The grouping variable in this case was the year group.

	Reading	*Phonological Awareness in English*	*Phonological Awareness in Greek*	*Years of study*
Year 6	66.20 (23.69)	16.02 (3.51)	17.41 (3.31)	4.20 (.76)
Year 3	56.58 (23.30)	13.90 (3.04)	17.07 (3.07)	1.24 (1.20)

Note: *Reading* received one point for each correct answer. The scores were modified on the percentage scale. *Phonological awareness in English*: CTOPP test, with scores coded 1-20. *Phonological Awareness in Greek*: Athena Test, with scores coded 1-20. *Years of study*: Scores were coded as 1-6.

Table 1. Mean Scores for Characteristics for Children in Years 6 and 3 (Standard Deviations are in parentheses).

As we can see in Table 1, the mean score of phonological awareness in English for year six was higher than that for year 3 students. According to the t-test, this difference is statistically significant, t (df = 73) = 2.808, p= .006. In other words, year 6 students had a better knowledge of the English letters and the corresponding sounds rather than year 3 students. By contrast, the difference of mean phonological awareness in the Greek scores was not significant for the two year groups: t (df = 73) = .458, p = .648, that is, the knowledge of the Greek letters and sounds did not differ in the two year groups. As for the mean reading scores, the testing materials differ for each year group and therefore the t-test is not applicable.

5.2. Comparison of Year 3 Boys' versus Girls' Characteristics

T-tests were conducted to assess the statistical significance of differences between the boys and girls of Year 3. The mean scores of the subject characteristics of the two groups are given in Table 2.

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The boys in year 3 performed slightly better in the reading comprehension tests than the girls, a result that could be due to the slightly longer period of studying English, but the t-test indicated that this difference was not significant: t(df = 39) = .221, p=.826. Comparing the phonological awareness in English level of the two groups shows that, even though the girls scored a little higher than the boys, this difference is not significant either: t(df = 39) = -0.401, p = .691. By contrast, the mean score of boys' phonological awareness in Greek is significantly higher than that of girls: t(df = 39) = 2.931, p = .006. In other words, in this sample, the boys' and girls' scores were similar and their knowledge of the English letters and sounds did not differ. However, the boys of this sample seemed more competent in recognizing Greek letter-sound relations.

Year 3	Reading	Phonological Awareness in English	Phonological Awareness in Greek	Years of study
Boys	57.38 (25.76)	13.71 (3.39)	18.33 (1.87)	1.42 (1.58)
Girls	55.75 (21.04)	14.10 (2.71)	15.75 (3.55)	1.05 (.60)

Note: Definition of variables. *Reading* each correct answer received one point. Scores modified in percentage scale. *Phonological awareness in English*: CTOPP test with scores coded 1-20. *Phonological Awareness in Greek*: Athena Test with scores coded 1-20. *Years of study*: Scores coded 1-6.

Table 2. Mean Scores for Characteristics of Boys and Girls in Year 3 (Standard Deviations are in parentheses).

5.3. Comparison of year 6 boys' versus girls' characteristics

T-tests were also conducted to assess the statistical significance of differences between the boys and girls of year 6. The mean scores of the subject characteristics of the two groups are given in Table 3:

Year 6	Reading	Phonological Awareness in English	Phonological Awareness in Greek	Years of study
Boys	64.04 (25.81)	16.00 (3.91)	17.42 (3.81)	4.14 (.18)
Girls	70.92 (20.81)	16.07 (2.90)	17.38 (2.43)	4.30 (.57)

Note: Definition of variables. *Reading* each correct answer received one point. Scores modified in percentage scale. *Phonological awareness in English*: CTOPP test with scores coded 1-20. *Phonological Awareness in Greek*: Athena Test with scores coded 1-20. *Years of study*: Scores coded 1-6.

Table 3. Mean Scores for Characteristics of Boys and Girls in Year 6 (Standard Deviations are in parentheses).

The girls in year 6 performed slightly better in the reading comprehension tests than the boys , a result that could be due to the slightly longer period of studying English. However, the t-test indicated that this difference was not significant: t(df = 32) = -.810, p = .424. The phonological awareness in English differences of the two groups is not significant: t(df = 32) = - .061, p = .952. Finally, the mean scores of boys' and girls' phonological awareness in Greek are not significantly different, either (t(df = 32) = .037, p = .971). Therefore, the boys and the girls of this sample performed similarly in the reading comprehension test and their knowledge of the English and the Greek letter-sound relations did not differ.

5.4. Correlation and Regression analyses

The analysis of the subject data was done utilizing the correlation and the linear regression modules in the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). The correlation analysis sought to examine the relationship of reading comprehension for each year group separately as well as in a merged fashion with the independent variables of phonological awareness in English, phonological awareness in Greek, age and years of study.

In year 3, reading comprehension strongly correlated with phonological awareness in English and years of study, that is, the latter two variables affected the development of the students' reading comprehension skill. The association with both of these variables is positive; in other words, reading comprehension ability increases as phonological awareness in English and study years increase (see Table 4). The better, therefore, learners become in recognizing the letter-sound associations and the more the years they spend studying English the better they perform in reading comprehension tests. The significance of both these positive correlations is at the 1% level. Finally, neither phonological awareness in Greek nor age variables seem to be associated with reading comprehension in English.

	READING	PHONENG	PHONGREEK	AGE
PHONENG	.486[**]	1		
PHONGREEK	.289	.222	1	
AGE	-.270	-.147	-.080	1
STUDYEAR	.487[**]	.295	.143	-.215

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 4: Correlation analysis with Year 3 scores

In year 6, once again reading comprehension correlates highly with both phonological awareness in English and years of study but the significance level is 5% and 1% respectively. In any case, the relation is, as in year 3, positive (see Table 5). Therefore, the better students become in recognizing English letter-sound associations and the more they study English as a foreign language the better they perform in reading comprehension. Moreover, phonological awareness in Greek seems to correlate highly (at the 1% level) with phonological awareness in English, which means that Greek phonological awareness affects the development of English phonological awareness. The association is positive, that is, as phonological awareness in Greek increases, phonological awareness in English also increases. However, once again, Greek phonological awareness is not associated with reading comprehension in English.

	READING	PHONENG	PHONGREEK	AGE
PHONENG	.359*	1		
PHONGREEK	.293	.783**	1	
AGE	.124	.032	-.093	1
STUDYEAR	.526**	.040	.188	-.123

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 5: Correlation analysis with year 6 scores

The unified data set confirms again that phonological awareness in English and study years are both positively and significantly associated with the students' reading scores (at the 1% level). Interestingly, phonological awareness in Greek also seems to correlate positively at a 5% level significance with reading comprehension (See Table 6). Moreover, phonological awareness in Greek correlates highly (p<1%) with phonological awareness in English in a positive manner. Finally, age is closely and positively associated (p<5%) with phonological awareness in English; that is, the older the students, the higher their phonological awareness in English. Therefore, reading comprehension seems to be affected by English phonological awareness and years of study. Finally, the age variable and Greek phonological awareness seem to affect phonological awareness in English.

	reading	phoneng	study years	phongreek
phoneng	.457**	1		
studyears	.438**	.360**	1	
phongreek	.296*	.496**	.131	1
age	.177	.290*	.775**	.031

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 6: Correlation analysis with the unified year 3 and year 6 scores

According to Freedman et al., "Correlation measures association. But association in not the same as causation" (1978:137). Therefore a linear regression analysis was performed on the subject data for each class separately and unified to examine which variables best account for the reading comprehension scores obtained.

The predictor variables for year 3 are the measures of phonological awareness in English and years of study, as the correlation analysis revealed a significant association with reading scores and no other variables associated with reading in this year group analysis. The results are given in Table 7:

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	7.680	14.086		.545	.589
	PHONENG	2.869	1.034	.375	2.776	.008
	STUDYEAR	7.247	2.604	.376	2.783	.008

a. Dependent Variable: READING

Table 7: Results of multiple regression analysis with reading comprehension scores of year 3

The regression analysis confirms the indications from the correlation tables. Both phonological awareness in English and years of study contribute highly in explaining performance in reading comprehension. Finally, it is worth noting that not only does the students' reading comprehension increase as phonological awareness in English and years of study increase, but also the effects of these two variables seem to be independent of each other.

The predictor variables for year 6 are again the measures of phonological awareness in English and years of study, as the correlation analysis revealed a significant association with year 6 reading comprehension scores. The results are given in Table 8:

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	-37.434	23.525		-1.591	.122
	PHONENG	2.288	.946	.339	2.419	.022
	STUDYEAR	15.934	4.354	.513	3.660	.001

a. Dependent Variable: READING

Table 8: Results of multiple regression analysis with reading comprehension scores of year 6

The regression analysis confirms the indications from the correlation tables once again. Both phonological awareness in English and years of study contribute highly in explaining the performance of Greek students in reading comprehension in year 6.

Finally, the predictor variables for the regression analysis of the unified data are phonological awareness in English and years of study. However, in this analysis phonological awareness in Greek is also added because, in the table of the correlation analysis of the unified data (Table 6), a significant association with reading comprehension was noted. The results are given in Table 9:

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			
		B	Std. Error	Beta		t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	5.895	13.786			.428	.670
	phoneng	1.995	.847	.286		2.356	.021
	phongreek	.838	.858	.112		.977	.332
	studyears	4.235	1.404	.321		3.016	.004

a. Dependent Variable: reading

Table 9: Results of multiple regression analysis with unified reading comprehension scores

The results of the regression analysis of the unified data are consistent as far as the significant role of both phonological awareness and years of study also previously seen is concerned. The contribution of phonological awareness in Greek, however, despite the abovementioned association, does not turn out to be significant for EFL students' reading comprehension performance.

To sum up, the results deriving from the regression analysis in year 3, year 6 and in the unified data suggest that helping Greek students to become competent in recognizing the English letter and sound association along with attending English lessons can result in improving students' reading comprehension performance. Greek phonological awareness does not seem to contribute to this respect. Its role is examined in more detail further on.

5.5. Phonological awareness in Greek

As noted earlier, the correlation analysis of the unified and year 6 scores revealed a strong association of Greek phonological awareness with English phonological awareness (p<1%). However, no such correlation was found in year 3. Regression analysis was conducted to determine whether the association of English and Greek phonological awareness is also causal. The variables included in the analysis were age and years of study.

The regression analysis in the unified data confirms that phonological awareness in English is positively associated with Greek phonological awareness (t=4.745). In year 6, there is also a strong association between English and Greek phonological awareness (t=7.189) but, surprisingly, there is no association in year 3 alone (t=1.156). Moreover, there is no causal relationship between age and years of study and either English or Greek phonological awareness. In other words, Greek phonological awareness does not help students' performance in reading comprehension in English since only English phonological awareness seems to positively affect reading comprehension in English at this stage of learning. However, in year 6, students' Greek phonological awareness seems to be connected to English phonological awareness in a way that actually affects students' acquisition rate of the letter-sound relations. Therefore, a student that has a good understanding of the Greek phoneme-grapheme relations can be expected to develop a good understanding between the English phoneme and grapheme associations. In Year 3, by contrast, the acquisition of Greek phonological awareness does not seem to affect students' acquisition rate of English phonological awareness. A possible explanation for the observed difference of the effect of

Greek phonological awareness on English phonological awareness is provided in the discussion section that follows.

5.6. The Directionality of the Interdependent Variables

Finally, one of the questions seeking an answer in this research study was the relation between English phonological awareness and the rest of the observed variables, Greek phonological awareness, age and years of study. According to correlation and regression analysis, Greek phonological awareness, age and years of study seem to relate to English phonological awareness, but there is no specification deriving from the statistics as to the directionality of the aforementioned interdependent variables; for example, does Greek phonological awareness affect English phonological awareness or vice versa? And what is the role of the age and years of study variables in this respect? Moreover, this research study does not include variables potentially important for the development of the phonological awareness skill, such as working memory, for example, or other innate skills. It would be utterly impossible to include such variables due to the high dimensionality of this issue. However, the effect of variables unaccounted for should not be ignored. For this reason, the Structural Equation Modeling was used to determine the directionality of the observed variables and also include the latent ones.

Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) is a statistical approach that can be used to test causal relationships of variables by looking at their interdependence structure. One of the advantages of this method is that it allows the use of latent variables. According to Raykov and Marcoulides, latent variables are "such variables for which there are no available observations in a given study" (p.1, 2006). The latent variable for this research study could represent innate abilities such as working memory and intelligence, for example, constructs that are neither directly measurable nor included in this study. A *path diagram* was used to communicate the Structural Equation Modeling pictorially, yielding a statistically valid and interpretable model (ibid, p.9, 2006):
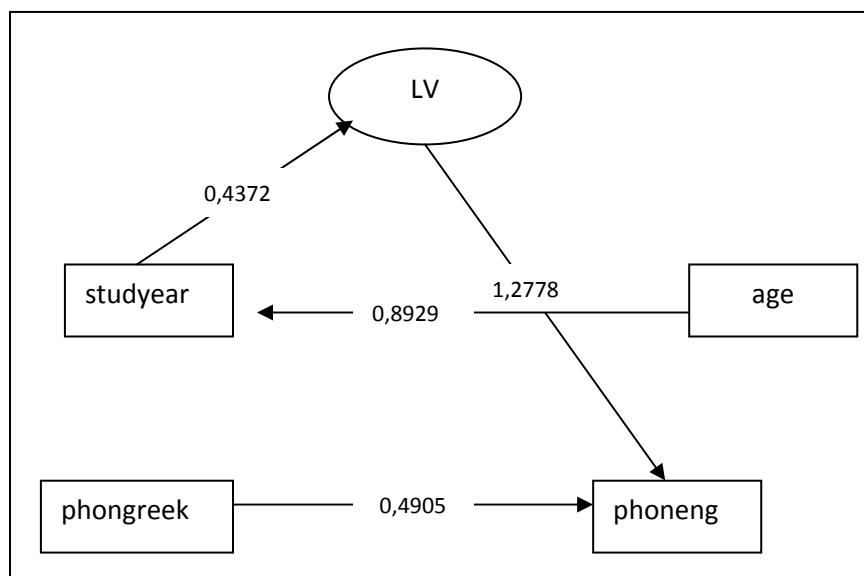
Diagram 1: Path Diagram Communicating the Structural Equation Modeling of the Latent Variable (LV) and Observed Variables

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The results of the structural equation modeling that was based on the unified data confirm the relation of Greek phonological awareness and English phonological awareness found in this research study. As far as directionality in concerned, Greek phonological awareness seems to have some effect over English phonological awareness. English phonological awareness also seems to be affected by the latent variable, which is quite strong. The latent variable is directly affected by the years of study. The contribution of the structural equation modeling in this research study is that the years of study variable does not directly influence phonological awareness development but its effect comes via its influence on the latent variable.

6. Discussion of results

6.1. What are the Differences of Year 3 and Year 6 Students' Characteristics?

As we saw in section 5.1 above, the t-tests conducted to determine whether there are differences between the two year groups, year 3 and year 6 showed that English phonological awareness differs significantly between the two year groups, being much stronger in year 6 than in year 3. Greek phonological awareness does not differ significantly between the two year groups, proving that Greek students have almost complete knowledge of their mother tongue phonology. Therefore, English phonological awareness and Greek phonological awareness are viewed as two different variables that develop separately. The development of mother tongue and second language phonological awareness as two separate skills is also supported by the study conducted by Comeau et al in 1999 in a French immersion school. As already seen, both phonological awareness skills were found to be important factors in the development of the reading skills, but phonological awareness in the mother tongue (English) proved to be important until year 3 and after that it dropped while the phonological awareness of the second language continued to play a crucial role later on as well.

Years of study is the next parameter that is significantly different for the two year groups (4.20 years of study for year 6 as opposed to 1.24 years of study for year 3) and also proved to be the variable that affects directly the development of reading comprehension for students learning English as a foreign language.

Finally, the performance in reading comprehension of the two year groups was not subjected to direct comparison as the testing materials were different and it would be impossible to conduct any comparative observations. One viable comment, though, could be that both year groups managed to score above the passing baseline, which was 50% for the Starters and Flyers YLE test, proving that the Greek learners participating in this research study possess some ability in reading comprehension along the lines, a little above the baseline (56% mean average) for year 3 students and a lot more (66% mean average) for year 6 students.

6.2. Are There any Differences between Boys' and Girls' Subject Characteristics in Years 3 and 6?

As far as gender related differences id concerned the answer is 'no'. Some slight differences in boys' and girls' performance on the reading comprehension test were observed, with the

boys performing slightly better than girls in Year 3 (57.38 vs 55.75, respectively) and girls performing slightly better than boys in Year 6 (70.92 vs 64.04, respectively). However, none of these differences proved to be significant so as to support gender as a variable that could affect literacy performance.

6.3. What are the Variables Affecting Reading Comprehension Performance of EFL Year 3 and Year 6 Students? Isn't this your primary research question?

The importance of English phonological awareness proved to be strong for both year groups, being 1% significantly strong and 5% strong for year 3 and year 6 respectively. Surprisingly, mother tongue phonological awareness (Greek) does not correlate with reading comprehension performance in either year group, as was initially expected on the basis of the literature review. Some relationship was found when the data of the two year groups were unified and analyzed as a total; however, the regression analysis did not confirm a causal relationship between reading comprehension in English and Greek phonological awareness.

One more variable that correlates strongly with reading comprehension, apart from phonological awareness in English, is years of study. The years of study variable is strongly associated (1%) with reading comprehension in both the year 3 and the year 6 group. The years of study variable represents a variety of acquired knowledge, such as vocabulary, grammar, sentence structure and metalinguistic strategies which are usually taught inductively in an EFL classroom. The relationship between reading comprehension and years of study appears to be positive in this study; that is reading comprehension is expected to improve as the years of study increase.

6.4. What is the role of Greek phonological awareness?

Greek phonological awareness, as seen above, was not associated with reading comprehension skills either in year 3 or in year 6 statistical analysis data. In the correlation analysis of the unified data, however, a significant association with reading comprehension, which was not confirmed in the regression analysis, was revealed. That association is probably an indirect one due to the strong association of phonological awareness in Greek with phonological awareness in English.

Phonological awareness in Greek was associated significantly and positively with English phonological awareness in year 6 but there was no association whatsoever in year 3. The regression results also demonstrated the causal relationship of the aforementioned variables in year 6. The threshold language hypothesis could provide a viable explanation for the lack of the so much expected contribution of Greek phonology to English phonological awareness development. According to the findings of the research project of Lee and Schallet Lemonnier with Korean EFL beginners in 1997, learners attempting to learn a new foreign language already have mastered reading in L1 and these skills may transfer to L2 or even interfere. However, as we saw earlier, according to the Threshold language hypothesis, L2 readers need to have some L2 knowledge before they can start transferring strategies and useful L1 elements and structures. Thus, the fact that phonological awareness in Greek does not intervene in the development of phonological awareness in English in year 3 may be due

to the fact that most students had only had just a few months of attendance in English classes and did not have enough L2 knowledge.

6.5. *Implications and recommendations*

In the light of the present results, tasks that enhance students' phonological awareness skills in English as a foreign language, especially in the early stages of learning, are recommended. This could also be beneficial for struggling students. Therefore, Greek students that face difficulties in acquiring literacy skills could be helped by phonologically-based intervention programs already used in the UK for struggling students starting from year 1 to year 6 on a one-to-one basis.

Two such intervention programs are the 'Jolly Phonics' and the 'Five Minutes Box'. The 'single Jolly phonics' basically helps students practice five basic skills of reading and writing, which are learning the letter sounds and letter formation, blending, identifying sounds in words and spelling tricky words. Each session lasts approximately 20 to 30 minutes and is administered twice a week. The 'Five Minutes Box' basically covers the same areas as 'Jolly Phonics' but each session is designed to last for 5 minutes per day. These programs are applied to immigrant students as well. The beneficial outcomes of such intervention have been recorded by several research studies introduced in detail in the literature review (Bus et al, 1999; Blachman et al, 1999; Stuart, 1999).

7. Conclusion

The present study confirmed the significance of English phonological awareness in the development of reading comprehension, but no significant relations were found between EFL reading comprehension and phonological awareness in Greek. Mother tongue phonological awareness seems to affect English phonological awareness and, therefore, reading comprehension but only after learners have mastered some knowledge of the L2, a finding that supports the Threshold Language Hypothesis. Moreover, the variable also important to the learning of a foreign language is the years of study, which stands for the explicit teaching of the foreign language structure. Neither age nor gender proved to play a significant role.

Based on the above, phonological awareness in English needs to be given a more central role especially in the initial stages of EFL language learning. Furthermore, phonological awareness based intervention programs could help struggling students improve their foreign language literacy skills. However, further research in a heterogeneous sample, especially conducted longitudinally, would help produce safer results and provide valuable support for the abovementioned suggestions.

Note

1. According to the holistic approach, language is taught as a whole – not broken down into bits – and involves children in using it functionally and for specific purposes (Goodman, 1986).

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Research Papers
in Language Teaching and Learning
Hellenic Open University
School of Humanities

Towards English teachers' professional development: Can self- and peer- observation help improve the quality of our teaching?

Στοχεύοντας στην επαγγελματική ανάπτυξη των καθηγητών της αγγλικής: μπορούν η αυτο-παρατήρηση και η έτερο-παρατήρηση να βοηθήσουν στη βελτίωση της ποιότητας της διδασκαλίας μας;

Ioanna PSALLA

This study was based on the hypothesis that observing classroom practices could bring forth insights into improving a language teacher's quality of instruction. The present paper describes part of a research conducted to explore two English language teachers' development while being engaged in self- and peer- observation practices for a short period of time. A brief reference will be made to the research design (methodology, context, participants) as well as to the results of the study and the pedagogical implications arising from them. The findings seem to indicate evidence of professional development for both teachers arguing, therefore, for the implementation of such practices within the Greek state school context.

☙

Η παρούσα μελέτη βασίστηκε στην υπόθεση ότι η παρατήρηση της διδακτικής πράξης (observation) μπορεί να μας προσφέρει βαθύτερες γνώσεις όσον αφορά στη βελτίωση της διδασκαλίας. Η παρούσα εργασία περιγράφει μέρος μιας έρευνας που διεξήχθη με σκοπό να ερευνήσει την ανάπτυξη δύο καθηγητών Αγγλικής γλώσσας μέσα από τη συμμετοχή τους σε διαδικασίες αυτό-παρατήρησης (self observation) και έτερο-παρατήρησης (peer observation) για ένα σύντομο χρονικό διάστημα. Θα γίνει μια σύντομη αναφορά στο σχεδιασμό της έρευνας (μεθοδολογία, περιεχόμενο, συμμετέχοντες) καθώς επίσης και στα αποτελέσματα της μελέτης και στα παιδαγωγικά ευρήματα που προκύπτουν από αυτά. Τα ευρήματα φαίνεται να καταδεικνύουν την επαγγελματική ανάπτυξη και των δύο συμμετεχόντων επιχειρηματολογώντας μ' αυτόν τον τρόπο υπέρ της εφαρμογής παρόμοιων πρακτικών στο Ελληνικό δημόσιο σχολείο.

Key words: teacher development, observation, self-observation, peer observation

Introduction

Attention is now increasingly being focused on the quality of teaching in Greek state schools and on the issue of the evaluation of teachers. The poor standards in the Greek educational system have led the present government to re-examine the quality of the country's educational system and formulate a new policy to bring about necessary changes. Education reform will, thus, require teachers to rethink classroom practice and collaborate in ways they may have never before. In addition, there is a growing consensus that traditional forms of teacher development are inadequate for addressing teachers' issues and for confronting the challenges teachers face in their everyday practice (Lignos, 2006; Papastamatis et al., 2009).

Within this context, the present study aims to explore the effectiveness of self- and peer-observation as tools for teacher development which will most likely lead to improvement of teacher quality. A literature review reveals that, despite its many benefits, observation carries negative connotations for most teachers who see it as a frightening, stressful and even threatening experience. Traditionally, observations have been conducted by administrators for the purpose of evaluation and that is why they cause considerable stress on teachers (Day, 2005; Richards & Lockhart, 1992; Tsai, 2008). They have often been used for staff appraisal and in pre-service situations, as part of the teaching practicum. This traditional model of observation typically involves a person in a managerial position who assumes the role of the expert, examines teaching based on a prescribed list and provides the teacher with evaluative, judgmental feedback telling him/her what they are doing right or wrong. Instead of a meaningful interaction, observation results in a critique of the teacher's behaviour in class. The power relationships are evident, as Philips (1994:268) observes, with the observer being the expert and enjoying higher status and the observee in a less powerful position.

However, most scholars tend to agree on how important classroom observations are for continuing professional development (Crandall, 2000; Kurtoglu-Eken, 2001; McMahon, Barrett & O'Neil, 2007). Adopting, therefore, a more developmental view in classroom observations, as the present study sets to investigate, will possibly help minimize teachers' anxiety and prove beneficial for both observer and observee. This study is based on the hypothesis that being observed and reflecting on feedback help teachers increase their awareness of their teaching practices, promote their critical thinking and professional growth. It is hoped, therefore, that by adopting a developmental view of classroom observations, within a non-judgmental framework, will prove to be an invaluable tool for teachers and an excellent stimulus for professional development.

The current study explores the professional development of two teachers of English working at a Greek secondary state school while being engaged in self- and peer-observation practices. Combining primarily qualitative as well as quantitative methodology, data will be gained from the analysis of the teaching diary, the feedback sessions, pre- and post- observation interviews with the participating teacher and classroom observations.

Research design

Methodology

The present work can be described as a case study. Data analysis in this paper was primarily qualitative as this was a small-scale study in a particular setting and among a particular group of participants but quantitative data were employed as well in the form of the observation tools that were used for conducting the observations.

Participants and Context

The study involved two teachers of English (a colleague and myself) teaching at Hydra's secondary school[1]. The profile of the two teachers reads as follows: I have been teaching in the state school sector for eight years. I have been a teacher in this school for six years now and I am quite familiar with the classes and the pupils. My colleague, Nicole, has been a state school teacher for six years and this is her first year on the island. Nicole holds a BA in English Language and Literature from the Aristotle University of Thessaloniki and an MA in Translation Studies from the University of Warwick.

The observations were conducted in the first year of senior and junior high school respectively. The first class (Nicole's class) consists of ten pupils who are all at a high level, highly motivated and willing to participate in the lesson. The second class (my class) consists of 26 pupils, all at the age of 16 and permanent residents of the island. They are a mixed ability class and their level ranges from very low to quite advanced.

Procedure

Self-observation

For a period of 8 weeks, starting Monday September 29th and ending Monday December 20th, 2010, I set aside ten to fifteen minutes on each day I had taught the class to write in my diary thus producing 25 entries in total. The diary entries were written on a notebook at home later on the same day for two reasons: first, I needed an environment free of interruptions and noise and secondly, my teaching obligations with other classes did not allow me much time to record my thoughts immediately after the lesson.

Following Bailey' advice, in recording my entries, I did not worry about style, grammar or organization so as to read like ''stream of consciousness'' writing (1990: 220). My goal was to get complete and accurate data while the recollections of the lesson were still fresh in my mind. For the purposes of the present paper, some of the entries were slightly edited so as to be publicly presented in the following sections.

To gain an alternative perspective on situations, in addition to the journal keeping, I conducted audio recordings for the purpose of self-observation in an effort to seek solutions or explore further an issue of concern that arose out of the journal entries. A tape recorder was placed on the teacher's desk where it could capture the exchanges which took place during the lessons. Ten audio recordings took place on the following subjects: teacher's use of mother tongue in the classroom (what amount and for which

purpose), pupils' amount of participation, interaction patterns, focus on specific pupils' behaviour, lesson structure and timing and pace of the lesson. Some of the recordings were repeated with the same focus so as to verify the initial findings. The reports from all the recordings were written and analyzed in the diary.

Peer observation

A semi-structured interview was conducted before observations began to collect more information on the peer teacher's teaching profile and attitude to peer observation (see Appendix I). The interview then turned into a discussion on issues to consider before the observation scheme was implemented.

The participating teachers agreed to observe each other's classes 6 times and the observations spanned a period of one month, starting Monday November 29th and ending Monday December 20th, 2010. The number of the observations was limited to 6 for the purposes and needs of the present research. Because of overlapping time schedules, it was not possible to conduct a series of consecutive observations. The two teachers compared their schedules and agreed on the most convenient days that the scheme could be implemented. In addition, it was decided that the first observation would not have a particular focus but it would serve to familiarize themselves with the class to observe, the setting, and the pupils. Other practical considerations were addressed as well in this pilot phase of the observations such as the best place for the observer to sit to minimize disruption and the introduction to the pupils of the observer by the teacher. It was agreed that the teacher should introduce the observer to the class without, however, explaining in detail the reason for her presence but pointing out that she is there to watch the teacher, not them (Stillwell, 2009). The pre-observation meetings were arranged to take place one or two days before the actual observation. The venue was the school at times that both teachers did not have lessons. During these meetings that lasted from 15 to 20 minutes the teacher observed would brief her colleague on the specific nature of the teaching event that she would like feedback on. The learning intentions for that particular session and the teaching strategies to be adopted were also discussed. An important part of the preparation was also the setting up of the observation tools to be used[2]. At this point, since my colleague had no prior experience in designing observation schemes, she left the decision on me to design and suggest observation tools that she would find convenient and helpful. She explained what parts of the lesson she would like to be observed and receive feedback on and, therefore, observation tools were designed focusing on the following subjects: timing and pace of the lesson, use of video, interaction patterns, group work, discipline, use of praise and introduction of a new teaching strategy.

During the observation, we both agreed that the observer should not be involved in the experience in any other way than keeping notes on the themes that were discussed in advance (Master, 1983; Murphy, 1992). The only exception was the observation on group work where the observer was asked to circulate among the groups of pupils and silently and as discreetly as possible to take notes on the work being done. The observers sat at the back of the classroom so as to have a full picture of the class and make their presence as less invasive as possible (see chapter on peer observation in Bailey et al., 2001).

The post-observation meetings took place either later on the same day or the next day, at school or at a local café, depending on the busy schedule of the teachers. Their duration ranged from half to one hour. An effort was made for the feedback sessions to be conducted as soon as possible after the lessons. The sessions began with the observees' giving their general impression of the lessons, their evaluation of the things that went well or as planned and of the less successful features. Then, the observer presented the teacher with the results from the observation tool or any other additional notes she kept during the lesson. A discussion followed with the two teachers reflecting on classroom procedures and practices, exchanging ideas and suggesting alternative courses of action. In order to assist the dialogue between the two colleagues, a number of questions were prepared to be discussed after the lesson, based on an extensive review of the literature on each topic (see Appendix II).

After the observations were completed, a post interview followed with the aim of determining how the peer teacher perceived the observation scheme and how she conceived its contribution to her professional development (see Appendix III). The questions were based on Malamah-Thomas (1987), Richards & Lockhart (1992) and Weller (2009).

Data Sources

The main sources of *qualitative data* collection were the following:
- the pre and post study interviews
- journal notes
- field notes
- written ethnography
- audio-recordings.

The main sources of *quantitative* data collection were the observation tools; for the purposes of observation, the following instruments were employed:
- Seating Chart Observation Record (SCORE) by Acheson and Gall (in Day, 1990:49-50). (see Appendix V-i).
- Tally Sheet: (see Appendices V-ii).
- Grids: (see Appendices V-iii).
- Checklists: (see Appendix IV)

In some of the tasks, the observer was asked to keep further notes in an effort to collect more information and she was asked to collect instances of the observed behaviour as it was impossible for one person to record everything.

Data analysis

The data from the journal entries were reviewed extensively in order to become familiar with them and to obtain a holistic sense of what was happening. Then, I searched for key words, actions and behaviors and kept informal notes on these features. After reading and rereading the relevant entries and based on the literature of self-observation's contribution to teachers' professional development, five thematic categories emerged in

which the entries were placed. The categories, adapted from Ho & Richards (1993), are the following: *Reflection on teaching methods and approaches, Self-awareness, Evaluating teaching, Diagnosing problems and seeking solutions, Evidence of change*. Then quotes for each category were selected.

A similar procedure for data analysis was followed in analyzing the results from peer observation based on the notes kept during observations, during feedback meetings and on the two interviews conducted with the peer teacher. The emerging questions were:

1. *Did peer observation make teachers rethink any of their own teaching methods or styles?*
2. *Did peer observation foster the development of teaching skills?*
3. *Did peer observation facilitate the exchange of ideas, teaching methods and materials?*
4. *Did teachers' confidence grow as a result of peer observation?*

Having discussed the context and procedures of the research and the data analysis methods, we now turn to the presentation of the results.

Presentation and discussion of results

Self observation insights

There are entries in the diary in which the teacher's professional development is documented. For practical reasons, only a few excerpts from the diary will be presented according to the five thematic categories already discussed in the previous section.

Reflecting on teaching methods and approaches

Diary keeping prompted the teacher to reflect on issues and concerns that were previously unarticulated or have never been carefully considered. Instead of following my usual procedure of checking grammar exercises, I opted for asking students to come to the board and write the answers while their classmates were asked to look for any mistakes. This is what I wrote on the effectiveness of this procedure:

> ''I think it makes the checking of exercises more interesting because it involves the whole class. It is usually a boring procedure and most of them don't pay attention and mechanically copy down the correct answers. This way, it makes them think. My only doubt concerns the way Ss who come to the board may feel if they make mistakes and be ridiculed by their classmates. Another doubt is about time. It takes more time because we also discuss the answers-why they are right or wrong. But again I think it's more interesting and involving and allows for Ss to talk more instead of being me who monotonously gives the answer by saying yes or no''.

Self-awareness

Diary keeping also helped the teacher gain a number of insights about her teaching and contributed to awareness raising. After conducting an observation on the use of L1 and L2 in the classroom, I realized that I used mostly the mother tongue in the grammar section of the lesson and English in the speaking part. The checklist also revealed that

the mother tongue was used more often and for a wider variety of purposes than L2 (see Appendix IV). That made me reflect on why this is so:

> *''I always explain rules and translate sentences in L1 when I present grammar. I believe that showing the similarities that exist between the two languages helps Ss grasp better the grammatical rules. Maybe I'll try to use L2 in that part of the lesson and see how it goes''. ''I used mostly L2 in the speaking part where I think it's natural to try and have a conversation in L2''.*

Evaluating teaching

There were many instances in the diary where I positively evaluated aspects of my lesson and that gave me renewed strength and motive to go on teaching in that difficult class. The following entry was recorded for a listening activity I had produced on my own and which included authentic videos found on the Internet:

> *''I noticed that they (Ss) were paying attention to the clips-they caught their attention. I was happy to see that one student who is sometimes indifferent during class, raised his hand to answer to all the questions in the activity''.*

Diagnosing problems and seeking solutions

As a result of reflection, I was able to identify specific aspects of my teaching that I would like to change and that urged me to seek solutions or consider alternative plans of action. After conducting observation on pupils' participation in class, I realized that some of them had not participated at all (see Appendix V-i for what was recorded in the observation tools). I was always aware of this fact but it has never really concerned me in the past. This has prompted me to search the relevant literature and take action: *'What can I do for those low-level Ss in my class? I should try to use pair/group work more and check their contribution within the group''.*

Evidence of change

The short period of engaging in self reflective practices did not allow me to expect evidence of actual change or growth in my teaching. However, the following examples of this nature were recorded in my diary.

I was very concerned about the amount and the purposes for which I use the mother tongue in the classroom. I prepared a checklist and audio recorded a few lessons to provide evidence for the above. The results prompted me to try and use the L2 more often and for situations I had not thought of before. After a month of diary keeping, I noted:

> *''I used L2 for other purposes except in the speaking activities. For example: For instructions: ''Christina, come up to the board and write the answers''. For humour: When Ss were commenting on their classmate's writing on the board, they said that she looked like a teacher. The teacher added: ''She could be a teacher, couldn't she?''*

On comparing the two self reports on the use of L1 and L2 (see Appendix IV for the different results the checklist recorded the second time), I also noted: *"I see that I've used L2 much more and for a variety of purposes. I see that I have improved in this area"*.

Peer observation insights

The relevant notes from the debriefing sessions and the post-study interview as well as the findings from the observation tools will contribute to the analysis of data. Again, some of the findings will be presented in the current section as it is not possible to present them all because of word count limitation. The questions identified in the Data analysis section will be repeated below.

Did peer observation make teachers rethink any of their own teaching methods or styles?

As a result of the information their partner collected, both teachers identified specific aspects of their teaching that they would like to change. During an observation on the use of praise, Nicole made a note on some pupils' behaviour towards a classmate of theirs and she shared this finding in the feedback session: *Nicole revealed something I hadn't noticed: How some Ss made fun of another S. when I nominated him to answer. I wasn't aware how serious the situation was until Nicole pointed that out.*

Did peer observation foster the development of teaching skills?

Although the period of conducting the observations was short, instances of change in teachers' behaviour were documented. Nicole became aware of a problem relating to the participation of one pupil as a result of the initial observation. So, she asked me to pay attention to that pupil's behaviour and how often she nominates her in the next observation task: *This time, Nicole consciously applied nomination strategies to make that S participate more successfully. She was happy to see the change.*

She also pointed out in our post study discussion how useful peer observation has been in identifying that specific aspect of classroom interaction and how much it helped her in future lessons with that class[3].

Did peer observation facilitate the exchange of ideas, teaching methods and materials?

The observations gave teachers access to new strategies and material. After witnessing the successful use of specific strategies, both teachers expressed their desire to employ them in their classrooms as well. I particularly enjoyed Nicole's Christmas video and I noted:

> *Ss enjoyed it a lot. They laughed. I liked that and I'm thinking of using it in my lessons. What I really liked is that the parts of the video were followed by comprehension questions. So, Ss were watching for a purpose and had the chance to do some speaking as well.*

Did teachers' confidence grow as a result of peer observation?

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An important part of the post observation discussions was the focus on teachers' strengths. Both teachers found themselves being praised for elements of their teaching and that boosted their self esteem. Being very concerned with the issue of classroom discipline, a lot of our discussions centered around this theme. My colleague was able to empathize with me and gave me positive feedback on my handling of the situation. Reading from my notes:

> *Nicole remarked that this behaviour had a positive effect on some Ss who calmed down after they saw that they did not get my attention by behaving badly. She said it was the best thing to do in classes like that. She boosted my confidence by telling me that I did a very good job and it was not my fault that Ss were behaving this way.*

Having presented the results of the present research, let us now discuss whether any problems occurred during the implementation of the self- and peer- observation processes and if any, how they were dealt with.

Potential problems

During diary keeping, I did not seem to face any particular practical issues. The procedure I followed was quite simple in practice and the time devoted to writing did not keep me busy from my other obligations. As for the peer observation process, the most inhibiting factors in conducting peer observation are teachers' reluctance in taking part and their anxiety when being observed. Luckily, the colleague I worked with was particularly willing to participate and extremely welcoming as far as accepting visits from other teachers is concerned.

Anxiety did not turn out to be a hindering factor either. It is natural for teachers to feel uncomfortable when being observed, however, as both teachers noted, the class dynamics were not affected in a negative way by the presence of the observer. In the post study interview, Nicole noted *that she had witnessed a slight change in her pupils' behaviour in that they seemed to have put more effort during the lesson and were highly motivated to participate*. The repeated visits also helped teachers grow accustomed to the idea of being observed. Furthermore, the trusting relationship between the two colleagues and the positive and constructive nature of feedback both played a crucial role in minimizing stress. The observation tools were designed to yield objective data rather than pass judgment and the open, non-judgmental dialogue in which they engaged at the feedback meetings contributed to teachers' not feeling threatened or evaluated by the whole process.

As far as the issue of time is concerned, there appeared to be no difficulties related to overlapping schedules. The teachers organized to conduct the observations at times that suited them both and, therefore, did not resort to the school's administration's help in order to change the school's schedule. In addition, the length of the pre and post observation meetings was kept short so they were not viewed as an imposition to the teachers. They were scheduled to take place during teachers' free time and thus were not seen as a burden.

As to the use of the observation tools, none of the teachers faced difficulties in completing them. To this end, the initial informal visit to each other's class helped them

to familiarize with the class setting and the pupils. In addition, the tools were designed with the aim of keeping the procedures simple.

It seems, therefore, that the two processes undertaken by the teacher in an effort to promote her professional development appear quite feasible within the state school context and their pedagogical implications will be further discussed in the following section.

Are self- and peer- observation really worth it? Implications and discussion

The results of the present study seem to suggest that self- and peer- observation of teaching constitute both useful and feasible ways for teacher development. The pedagogical implications that arise for the usefulness and feasibility of the above practices within a state school context are the following:

(1) From the analysis of results, it can be said that *diary keeping* has illuminated the teacher's insights about her own teaching, fostered reflection on her own teaching practices and helped her uncover significant variables that would otherwise have gone unnoticed. The teacher diary documented her professional growth and her struggle to become a better educator.

(2) As far as *peer observations* are concerned, they have proved to be beneficial for the participating teachers. They have provided them with a richer understanding of teaching and enabled them to come up with more effective solutions to improve their classes. However, it must be noted that to make such practices effective, we need to follow certain guidelines:

- Though some studies have revealed teachers' dismay at participating in classroom observations (Richardson, 2000), this was not the case in this study. Neither of the two teachers was threatened by the presence of the colleague-observer because she was there to report on elements of teaching and help each other reflect rather than punish or criticize. The trusting, non judgmental relationship between the two colleagues arises as an important factor.
- The peer observations included a pre-observation and post-observation meeting, both crucial in conducting successful observation schemes.
- Giving proper feedback is a basic principle so as teachers to welcome collaboration as a non-evaluative, low-stress means through which to reflect upon and improve their teaching (Forbes, 2004).

(3) The procedures followed in this study as to the implementation of self- and peer-observations, are quite *feasible* to be conducted by teachers working in state schools. The model implemented for the purposes of the current research is relatively cost effective, requires little equipment and virtually no outside expertise. It does involve teachers being present in each other's classes. However, that fact did not prove to be a hindrance to the smooth flow of the school's timetable since both teachers chose to perform the peer observation tasks at times they were free from their teaching duties. The schools' administrators were both willing to make changes in the schedule if needed.

Therefore, a warm, supportive environment is favorable to teacher's growth of qualities and skills (Wyatt, 2010).

Finally, the limitations of the present study need to be acknowledged.

Limitations of the present study

The findings of this study apply to the number of teachers studied here and further research of this kind is needed to establish whether the issue raised in the current research applies elsewhere. The present case study is unique and its generalisability is thus limited. In addition, as this was a small-scale study conducted for a short period of time, further research is needed to explore the longer term benefits of peer- and self-observation practices. A longitudinal research could, thus, provide a greater opportunity for change in teachers' behaviour to become evident.

It is appreciated that the observation processes studied in the present research offered valuable insights related to teachers' professional development and the improvement of the quality of their teaching. However, the process could have been enriched by a slightly extended training phase for the observers. The absence of training for the peer teacher did not create any difficulties as to the completion of the observation project mainly due to the fact that the researcher was also a co-participant and was able to guide her colleague through the process. Future research could provide valuable insights as to whether and to what degree the trainability of observation skills contributes to the overall success of such professional development practices.

Conclusion

In conclusion, this study originated as an effort to approach a theme which has received little attention within the context of Greek state schools. It was carried out in order to investigate the effect professional development practices such as self- and peer-observation has on teachers' development and quality of teaching.

The present research was designed to focus on two specific ways of development: self-observation through the use of diary keeping and peer observation in the form of two teachers' observing each other's classes and discussing on feedback. Combining qualitative and quantitative data, this study employed a wide variety of data collection methodology. The findings indicate that the research conducted gave us valuable insights on the implementation and the benefits such professional practices can offer to teachers. On the basis of the findings, it would seem that self- and peer- observation contributed to teachers' professional growth in a number of ways. They helped teachers increase their awareness of their teaching practices, promote their critical thinking, exchange ideas and collaborate for the benefit of the students. The whole process proved to be beneficial for both participants.

While we do not wish to over-generalise findings on the basis of a single case and although such practices are quite alien to the Greek context, the success of this project could be seen as an indicator that teacher development processes such as the ones examined in the present paper, can actually take root in Greece.

Notes

1. Hydra is a small island in the Argo-Saronic Gulf with a population of fewer than 2000 people. There is one junior high school with 60 pupils and a senior high school with 58 pupils.
2. See Wajnryb (1992) for a variety of observation tasks teachers can use, modify and adapt depending on their research purpose and characteristics of their settings.
3. See Appendix V-iii for the change in the interaction patterns that was documented in the observation tool.

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Appendix I

Questions for pre-observation interview
- What's your educational background?
- How many years have you been teaching (private and public sector)?
- Have you ever been involved in peer observation? If yes, why and in what context?
- If no, why not?
- How do you view peer observation? Are you in favor or against it? Why?
- Why would you be willing to take part in a peer observation scheme?

Appendix II

(For reasons of convenience questions on only one topic are presented here)

USE OF PRAISE
To be discussed at the feedback session
- What types of praise does the teacher use? For what purpose:
  - to express her approval or delight ?
  - to support positive learning behaviour ?
  - to provide encouragement given the effort rather than accomplishment?
- Is the teacher having a strategy? Is this strategy conscious or subconscious?
- Is there a category of students that is praised more or less than others? What is the teacher's behaviour towards weaker or stronger students?
- Did the teacher overuse praise? Did the teacher use praise in limited amount? What are the results in each case?
- What makes teachers' praise effective?
- What are the effects of praise on students?

Appendix III

Questions for post-observation interview
- During the present peer observation programme, did you feel comfortable teaching the class while being observed?
- Do you think there were any changes in the dynamics of the class as a result of an observer present? If yes, what types of changes occurred?
- Did the observation instrument work? If not, why not? Could it be improved? If so, in what ways?
- Did you find the results of the observation useful? If so, in what ways were they useful? In what ways has your experience impacted on your practice?
- How useful do you think it would be to do these types of observations more regularly?

Appendix IV

i.   *6/10/2010 Observation tasks used in self-observation.*

Purpose	*L1*	*L2*
Give instructions	✓✓✓	✓✓
Explain meaning of words	✓✓✓	
Explain grammar rules	✓✓	
For classroom management	✓✓✓	✓
Praise students	✓✓✓✓	✓✓✓
Explain abstract or cultural aspects		
Tell jokes	✓✓	
Explain errors	✓✓	
Check comprehension	✓	✓
Other L1: to nominate Ss ✓✓✓✓ Comments: L2 was mainly used to conduct the speaking task of the unit where instructions and explanations were given in English.		

ii.   *17/12/2010*

Purpose	*L1*	*L2*
Give instructions	✓	✓✓✓
Explain meaning of words	✓✓	✓✓✓
Explain grammar rules	✓✓	✓✓✓
For classroom management	✓	✓✓

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Praise students		✓✓✓✓
Explain abstract or cultural aspects		
Tell jokes		✓
Explain errors	✓	✓✓
Check comprehension	✓	✓
Other L2: to nominate Ss ✓✓✓ Comments: This time, English was also used more in the grammar section of the lesson.		

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Appendix V—i Seating Chart

		Danny↑$_G$	(Fratzeskos)*	(Konstantinos)*	(Stefanos)*
		(Alexandros)*	Lucas ↑$_G$	Mania ↑$_G$	(Evi)*
		Christina ↑$_G$	(Katerina)*	Evaggelia ↑$_G$	(Manolis)*
Harry ↓^{1}		(Helen B.)*		John M. ↑$_G$	(Fanis)*	(Michael)*
Andreas ↓^{1}↑$_0$		Julio ↑$_G$		Nouri ↑$_G$	Vaggelis ↑$_G$
Carolina ↑$_G$		(Vassiliki)*	(Helen G.)*	George ↓^{1}	(John A.)*

Teacher

Pupils' participation (* Ss did not speak at all)
↓ = Teacher asks a question to the whole class
↓^{1} = Teacher asks a question to individual student
↑i = Student responds to individual question by the teacher
↑$_G$ = Student responds to a general question by the teacher
↑$_0$ = Student does not respond to the question

Appendix V—ii Tally Sheet

<u>TASK A</u>

Put a ✓ **every time** the student is **disruptive** and the teacher **addresses** the problem.

Put a **? every time** the student is **disruptive** but his / her behaviour goes **unnoticed** by the teacher.

		Danny	Fratzeskos	Konstantinos	Stefanos
		Alexandros	Lucas	Mania	Evi
		Christina	Katerina	Evaggelia	Manolis
Harry		Helen B.		John M. / Fanis	Michael
Andreas		Julio		Nouri	Vaggelis
Carolina		Vassiliki	Helen G.	George	John A.

Teacher

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Appendix V—iii Grid

Interaction patterns in Nicole's class/ focus on specific student -8/12/2010

Nomination Strategies	No of tallies	Questioning strategies	No of tallies	Student's reaction	No of tallies	Teacher's feedback	No of tallies	Student's behaviour
T. names or identifies S. and asks question	✓✓	Yes/no✓✓		S. answers correctly	✓✓✓✓	Explicit correction		
T. asks question and then nominates or identifies S.		Short answer✓✓✓✓		S. gives the wrong answer	✓	Recast		When S could not give the correct answer, T asked peers to help. This was done tactfully and after T has exhausted all other means. Also, it seems T's routine to do that, Ss are used to it and it doesn't seem awkward or insulting.
T. asks question, then selects one of the students who offers to Answer	✓✓✓✓	Open ended		S. does not give an answer		Clarification request		
S. shouts the answer before T. nominates Anybody		Display		S. does not give the complete answer	✓	Repetition of error	✓	
		Referential				Elicitation	✓	

EFL Teacher Training on Multicultural Classroom Management in Elementary and Junior High School

Επιμόρφωση Εκπαιδευτικών Αγγλικής Γλώσσας στη Διαχείριση Πολυπολιτισμικών Τάξεων σε Δημοτικό και Γυμνάσιο

Sophia DIDA

Migration waves caused by the geopolitical and economic changes in Europe and the Balkan region over the last couple of decades have altered the synthesis of several traditionally monolingual and monocultural European countries, including Greece. Education was inevitably affected, as children of different cultural backgrounds registered in Greek schools, transforming them into multicultural schools. The development of intercultural competence is thus deemed necessary for all teachers to respond effectively to both their native and their immigrant students' needs and offer education of equal opportunities. This article focuses on a survey on English Language Teachers of Greek elementary and junior high schools that aimed to identify immigrant students' difficulties and EFL teacher training needs in intercultural education. Teachers stated that their immigrant students exhibit both behavioural and learning difficulties, with emphasis on the learning ones, that render their work more demanding. However, teachers' knowledge of intercultural education and their related skills proved quite limited, their feelings and attitudes towards their immigrant students often contradicting, and their teaching tools in line with intercultural values but insufficiently utilized. Within this scope, the article sheds light on EFL multicultural class management and makes suggestions for related teacher training.

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Τα μεταναστευτικά κύματα που προκλήθηκαν από τις γεωπολιτικές και οικονομικές αλλαγές στην Ευρώπη και την περιοχή των Βαλκανίων κατά τις τελευταίες δεκαετίες έχουν αλλάξει τη σύνθεση αρκετών παραδοσιακά μονογλωσσικών και μονοπολιτισμικών Ευρωπαϊκών χωρών, συμπεριλαμβανομένης και της Ελλάδας. Η εκπαίδευση επηρεάστηκε αναπόφευκτα καθώς παιδιά διαφορετικών εθνικοτήτων εγγράφηκαν στα σχολεία της χώρας, μετατρέποντας τα σε πολυπολιτισμικά. Η ανάπτυξη της διαπολιτισμικής ικανότητας όλων των εκπαιδευτικών κρίνεται επομένως αναγκαία προκειμένου να μπορούν να ανταποκριθούν αποτελεσματικά στις ανάγκες τόσο των γηγενών όσο και των μεταναστών

μαθητών τους και να προσφέρουν εκπαίδευση ίσων ευκαιριών. Η έρευνα που παρουσιάζεται στο άρθρο εστιάζεται σε εκπαιδευτικούς Αγγλικής Γλώσσας Ελληνικών Δημοτικών Σχολείων και Γυμνασίων με στόχο να εντοπίσει τις δυσκολίες των μεταναστών μαθητών και να διαγνώσει τις επιμορφωτικές ανάγκες των εκπαιδευτικών στη διαπολιτισμική εκπαίδευση. Οι εκπαιδευτικοί δήλωσαν ότι οι μαθητές τους παρουσιάζουν προβλήματα συμπεριφοράς και μαθησιακές δυσκολίες, με έμφαση στις μαθησιακές, οι οποίες καθιστούν το έργο τους πιο απαιτητικό. Ωστόσο, οι γνώσεις των εκπαιδευτικών στη διαπολιτισμική εκπαίδευση και οι ικανότητές τους στο τομέα αυτό παρουσιάζονται ιδιαίτερα περιορισμένες, τα συναισθήματα και η στάση τους προς τους μετανάστες μαθητές συχνά αντιφατικά και τα εκπαιδευτικά εργαλεία διαποτισμένα με διαπολιτισμικές αξίες, ανεπαρκώς όμως αξιοποιημένα από τους ίδιους. Υπό το πρίσμα αυτό, το άρθρο αναδεικνύει διάφορες πτυχές διαχείρισης διαπολιτισμικών τάξεων Αγγλικής Γλώσσας και σχετικές προτάσεις επιμόρφωσης εκπαιδευτικών.

Key words: behavioural and learning difficulties, immigrant students, intercultural education, language-friendly school, linguistic and cultural diversity, multicultural classroom management, European and National education policies

Introduction

Language learning is vital for immigrant students' integration. However, host and foreign language learning can often be discouraging as immigrant students have to acquire several languages at the same time at school, the host language (Greek in our case) that is necessary for their survival and progress in Greece and the foreign languages (English & French/German) that would open-up their prospects in Europe, with the exclusion of their mother tongue. To facilitate this language learning, foreign language teachers could act as cultural mediators to interconnect diverse cultural and language elements and render their lessons relevant to all students.

In an effort to identify immigrant students' problems and teacher training needs in multicultural class management, a survey with elementary and junior high school EFL teachers was carried out. In particular, its objectives were a) to examine immigrant students' behavioural and/or learning difficulties in the EFL classes and their causes, b) to reveal EFL teachers' awareness of the European and National education policies on migration, linguistic & cultural diversity, c) to investigate their attitudes towards their immigrant students, d) to examine their skills in intercultural education and the adequacy of their teaching tools, and e) to detect their previous related training and training preferences. The results led to a training proposal for effective EFL multicultural classroom management.

To elaborate on the above issues, we will review literature on immigrant students' school integration difficulties, European and National education policies on migration as well as guidelines on multilingualism for the promotion of linguistic and cultural diversity, with emphasis on English Language Learning. Next, follows the research methodology and the teacher data analysis. The article ends with a brief reference to the training proposal and suggestions for further research.

Immigrant students' integration difficulties into the schools of their host country

Immigrant students face psychosocial and learning difficulties at their host schools that impede their academic progress and social integration, and pose multicultural class management problems to teachers of all subjects.

The psychosocial difficulties initially spring from immigrants' resettlement that results in a "culture shock" involving feelings of curiosity, adventure and optimism for a new start on the one hand, and feelings of sadness for the loss of culture, family and social ties, on the other (Coehlo, 1998). This traumatic conflict is more intense for immigrant children that have no option but to conform to their parents' decisions. They feel anxiety and stress when they realize that their native language and socio-cultural values that once made them acceptable in their country of origin, turn into inhibiting factors marginalizing them into "immigrant minorities" in the host country (Nikolaou, 2000). Furthermore, these cultural values are often in conflict with those of school and society and immigrant students remain confused in their attempt to reconcile both (Coehlo, 1998).

Immigrants' resettlement also results in the fragmentation of their children's education and their placement usually into lower than their age and level classes due to their poor knowledge of Greek. This partial recognition of their educational capital causes immigrant students to doubt their self-worth and abilities and the age differences hinder friendships (Skourtou et al, 2004). In this process, children adapt easier than adolescents as their cognitive and social skills are more salient than their personality traits, rendering them more flexible and open to new situations. On the contrary, adolescents exert more cognitive effort to perceive concepts in a foreign culture and language, and as they formulate their personal identities, they are more vulnerable to offensive behaviour against their background (Nikolaou, 2000). This emotional load is increased with insecurity about the uncertain economic and mobility prospects of their parents that immediately affect their stay in the host country.

Upon their adjustment, immigrant students and their families become recipients of covert and overt xenophobic and racist behaviour by Greek parents, students and even teachers themselves. This behaviour is generally fostered by criminality incidents and illegal activities initiated by groups of immigrants in Greek society. It could also be caused by an inherent fear of otherness people tend to have against any perceived threat to their cultural identity (Fennes & Hapgood, 1997). As a result, the school community fails to approach immigrant students who in turn become introvert or socialize only with peers of their own ethnic group (Nikolaou, 2000), while in class there could be classroom tension and aggression on both sides.

Turning to school performance, according to European surveys (Commission of the European Communities, 2008), immigrant students tend to have lower achievement levels than their native peers in basic skills (i.e. literacy and maths) that inevitably restrain the overall class progress rate and the educational potential of all students. The survey examines if this is also the case for English language learning.

The affective factors mentioned above influence the cognitive domain but they are not the only ones. At the heart of the problem lies the issue of language. Immigrant students exhibit different levels of proficiency in the language of instruction that fall far behind those of their

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native classmates and obstruct their understanding of the subject matter content. These students are loaded with the dual task of acquiring a second language while being taught through it, which becomes even more strenuous when the host language is not supported at home (Commission of the European Communities, 2008). Thus, there are often language shifts depending on the domain and the participants, with the first language being used at home and with members of the same ethnic group, and the second, at school and in the wider social environment with Greek natives (Georgogiannis, 1997).

The smooth development of this bilingualism relies on the interdependence of languages as the acquisition level in the first language determines the proficiency level in the second or foreign language (Cummins, 1984). In Greece, mother tongue tuition for immigrant students has barely been activated and the acquisition process of the first language is disrupted before being adequately developed. Bilinguals carry a metalinguistic awareness (Cummins, 1984) manifested in instances of interference, positive when there is contingency between the two languages and negative when there is transfer of structures from the native language in the second /foreign language. This mechanism however, is not apparent to the monolingual Greek teachers who misinterpret it as a source of errors (Georgogiannis, 1997).

Family also plays a decisive role. The poor socio-economic conditions force parents to work hard and do not allow them to afford for private tuition or frontistiria (Foreign language tuition centres) provided by Greek parents. They rather retain low expectations, as they are interested in engaging their offspring in the low skill sectors to soon lift part of the family's financial burdens (Nikolaou, 2000). Their linguistic and cultural differences also lead to their disconnection from school (Council of the European Union, 2009). Finally, parents' beliefs on the value of each language are passed on their children. Priority is usually given to the second language, as a means to establish their position in the host country and next to the first language as the family communication code and the carrier of cultural heritage. Last, come the foreign languages as obligatory school subjects, since parents view no vital domain of immediate use (Georgogiannis, 1997).

The educational system has not yet created the conditions to improve the situation despite the dramatic changes in the composition of Greek classroom in the last ten years. Though the principles of intercultural education have been diffused in the curricula, there is still lack of appropriate teaching materials and teacher training. Moreover, the competitive climate in the class renders students individualistic and intensifies the low and high achievers gap (Coehlo, 1994). Teachers' low expectations could also lead to low academic performance (Carrasquillo & Rodriguez, 1996), while their often more lenient attitude could cover immigrant students' true achievement levels. Lastly, immigrant students' concentration in schools of areas with high immigrant population turns natives away and could lead to segregation (Commission of European Communities, 2008).

European and National education policies on migration

Immigration is a stable structural feature, not only of Greece, but of most European countries and the successful integration of immigrant children becomes a pre-condition for the future "economic development, social cohesion and stabilization of democratic citizenship across Europe" (Heckmann, 2008). Within this framework, the European Union (E.U.) currently embraces the intercultural model of education that implies by its term a dialectic relation and a dynamic interaction amongst diverse cultures that could uplift them

to equal levels governed by the principles of *empathy*, *solidarity*, *respect* and *elimination of stereotypes and prejudice* (Essinger as cited in Georgogiannis, 1997).

Member States follow this model and integrate the intercultural component into their curricula, not as a separate subject, but either across the entire curriculum in the general aims, skills and values stated therein or in the content of specific school subjects that are liable to encompass intercultural values, such as history, geography and foreign languages, or combine both approaches (Eurydice, 2004). Each Member State, however, exhibits a different realization of the model while it often instils in it features from other previously applied ones, i.e. assimilation, integration, multicultural, antiracist models (Tzortzopoulou & Kotzamani, 2008).

In Greece, it was not until 2003 that the National educational policy linked the European policy with intercultural education in the New Cross-Thematic Curriculum (DP) that applies to all primary and secondary schools of the country. Some of its intercultural principles are "providing equal opportunities for learning for all pupils", "reinforcing the pupils' cultural and linguistic identity within the framework of a multicultural society" and "sensitising pupils to issues of human rights and world peace and preserving human dignity" (Pedagogical Institute, 2003). These principles penetrate the Individual Subject Curricula, as the DP is the basic frame of reference for their development.

The E.U., along with the intercultural model, has also devised a series of supporting guidelines. To start with, the acquisition of the host language is considered to be the key to immigrant students' educational success as it is the prime, if not the sole, medium of school instruction. Reception classes could thus be organised for the recently arrived students to overcome initial language problems as well as intensive instruction for immigrant students who may not be newcomers, but whose low performance in the host language seriously impedes their progress (Heckmann, 2008). Early assessment of host language proficiency is suggested for students' placement in the appropriate language levels and preschool language tuition for the prevention of language problems in compulsory education (Commission of the European Communities, 2008). The whole endeavour should ideally be supported by teacher training in the teaching of the host language as a second language (Heckmann, 2008).

Besides host language instruction, there are also provisions for heritage language tuition. Such a practice implies the recognition and acceptance of immigrants' culture and increases their self-esteem and confidence (Euridyce, 2009). It could also enhance immigrant students' progress, as second language acquisition is facilitated by and dependent on sufficient knowledge of the first language according to Cummins' hypothesis (1984) for the interdependence of languages. Additional educational support in school subjects other than languages could be provided, usually after the regular school hours, in the form of extra tutorial classes or mentoring to diminish the low and high achiever gap (Council of the European Union, 2009).

School and family communication is also a priority. Incentives to mobilize immigrant parents include the publication of information on the school system in the immigrants' native language, school activities for their active participation, interpreters and mediators to facilitate communication (Euridyce, 2009).

Education for teachers of all subjects that includes initial training, induction and continuing professional development is essential for the development of intercultural competence. Teacher education curricula should address cultural diversity, especially in its European dimension, and include activities that combine theory, practice and reflection based on interaction with students, colleagues, teacher trainers and education specialists.

Teachers should also be offered a teaching practicum abroad, especially foreign language teachers to refresh their language skills, as well as the access to web networks for the easy flow of practices and information (European Commission, 2007). The utilization of teachers from migrant backgrounds as classroom assistants is also encouraged, and could, to a limited extent, reflect the student population diversity (Heckmann, 2008).

Educational institutions specialized in intercultural education could offer useful guidance to all the parties interested. Additional financial support is also recommended for schools with high immigrant concentration. To avoid such high concentration, schools could be networked to achieve a balanced spread of native and immigrant students, while some countries have tried out the "magnet schools" that is, schools in areas with increased migrant population that have enriched their curricula to attract more native students (Commission of European Communities, 2008).

Greece has implemented some of the key European guidelines while it still falls behind others. The most widely applied ones, are the reception and support classes established in 1980's[1], systematically organised in 1990's[2] and revived nowadays[3] for both primary and secondary education. However, though there are also provisions for immigrants' heritage language tuition, these have not been actually activated.

Another important regulation is the establishment of Intercultural Schools in primary and secondary education[4]. In particular, there are twenty-six (26) Intercultural Schools that aim at the education of pupils with special educational, social and cultural particularities and, for this purpose, apply the curriculum of their counterpart state schools adapted to their students' specific needs. Intercultural schools focus on Greek language learning and integration activities, on heritage language and culture activities and parent involving school events. However, their small number cannot cater for the needs of all the immigrant students that are dispersed in the mainstream classes across Greece.

Related to the above is the Institute for the Education of Co-Ethnic Returnees and Intercultural Education (IPODE)[5]. Its main objective is to conduct research and studies for Greek education abroad, organise teacher training, development of educational materials for Intercultural Schools etc.

Lastly, nowadays, two also large scales programmes are implemented within the National Strategic Reference Framework, one by the Implementation Authority of Educational Acts (EYE) under the Ministry of Education & Lifelong Learning and the other by Aristotle University of Thessaloniki[6]. These programmes include interventions on reception & tutorial classes, intercultural projects amongst Greek schools and schools of the immigrant students' country of origin, family & school connection activities, school networking, psychological support, teacher training etc.

European & National education policies on linguistic and cultural diversity

The European guidelines on migration are embedded within the wider policy of promoting linguistic and cultural diversity in Europe as the Union itself "is built out of many diverse nations, communities, cultures and language groups … and founded upon the mutual acceptance of peoples with different histories but a common future" (European Commission, 2003, p.3). To safeguard this diversity but also promote cross-cultural understanding, the E.U. has established multingualism with the focus on language learning (European Commission, 2005).

Within this policy, it is a priority for the Member States that mother tongue plus two other languages are taught from an early age as it is "at the early age that key attitudes towards languages and cultures are formed and the foundations for later language learning are established" (European Commission, 2003, p.7). Language learning is also promoted through Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) that is the teaching of a school subject through the medium of a foreign language. Language skills are exercised in daily school life and students develop confidence both in the vehicular language and the subject being taught (European Commission, 2003).

The continuing enlargement of the European Union further dictates the teaching of the widest possible range of languages in all grades of education. Foreign language options should include both large and small European languages as well as regional, minority and migrant languages (European Commission, 2008). This broadening of the foreign language spectrum is related to the creation of a language friendly school in which language teaching is facilitated with the establishment of appropriate connections amongst the existing languages in a society. These languages are *the mother tongue, the foreign languages, the language of instruction and the languages of migrant communities* (European Commission, 2003). This teaching enables learners to identify language differences and similarities. Language teaching materials with intercultural values and diverse cultural elements could also motivate all students to relate and participate.

Lastly, the E.U. through its funding enables Member States to implement joint projects that promote mobility, dissemination of practice, e-twinning initiatives, networking, etc. and regularly organises awareness-raising events on multilingualism. Our National strategy has responded to the European policy on multilingualism. "Mother tongue plus two other languages from an early age" is realized in primary and secondary education. In 1993, the English language was introduced as an obligatory subject at a lower age, the third grade of elementary school instead of the fourth and, nowadays, it is further implemented in the first and second grades of elementary schools.

In addition to English, from the school year 2005-2006 onwards up to our days, a second foreign language (French or German) is taught in the 5th and 6th grades of elementary school. The same language range is provided in secondary education, where students continue their study for the mastery of two foreign languages, English as a first foreign language and French or German as a second, depending on the students' choice and previous attendance in primary school. Moreover, a few pilot programmes have been applied to a restricted number of high schools for the teaching of less widely spoken foreign languages such as Italian, Spanish, etc. (European Commission, 2006).

Foreign languages as school subjects are the most liable to intercultural values. Thus, the Cross-Thematic Curriculum for Modern Foreign Languages explicitly sets as the main aim of teaching "to facilitate the development of language skills that will enable pupils to communicate effectively in different linguistic and cultural contexts" (Pedagogical Institute, 2003). Accordingly, *foreign language literacy, multilingualism and multiculturalism* are its content guiding principles, each of which analyzed into general goals, in terms of skills, knowledge, attitudes and values, and run through cross-thematic concepts such as communication, culture, similarity-difference, equality, immigration and others. Cross-thematic projects could be viewed as a variation of CLIL since they engage students in language activities with content from separate school subjects. All these principles are further elaborated in the Programme of Study of each foreign language for primary and secondary education.

Foreign language classes are mixed-ability classes and their division into two levels, beginners and advanced, in English in junior high school, enables all students to follow. Currently, unified school textbooks are provided by the Ministry for the 4th, 5th and 6th grades of elementary school, and the 1st, 2nd and 3rd of junior high school, retaining the language level division. A review of the teacher guides[7] reveals that these textbooks are based on the Common European Framework of Reference and the Cross-Curricular Unified Framework, with a consideration of the students' needs, interests and abilities at different ages and grades. These books further incorporate cross-cultural and cross-curricular notions and projects for co-operative learning. However, the adequacy of these textbooks to promote intercultural dialogue remains to be decided by the English Language teachers in practice.

Research Methodology

The review of the above literature informed the content of the survey questionnaire which was designed to investigate immigrant students' difficulties in the EFL classes and EFL teacher training needs in intercultural education. The questionnaire had been selected as a convenient, inexpensive and timesaving survey tool to collect massive data more amenable to quantification than interviews, journals, etc. (Nunan, 1992) and anonymous as well, so that respondents felt secure to provide feedback on sensitive issues, such as that of "immigration – multicultural classrooms".

The questionnaire was common for EFL teachers of both elementary and junior high school. It was distributed hand in hand, by e-mail and fax, both to urban and regional areas to produce reliable and representative results, following the snowball sampling technique (Dörnyei, 2003) in which acquaintances who met the survey criteria recommended others who also fitted the study. The aim was to collect the same number of questionnaires from primary and secondary education to enable data comparison.

The questionnaire was mainly built on closed-ended questions of different types (list, category, table-like etc) occasionally including the option "Other" for the respondents to add their own points. This type of question is easier to standardize, analyze and interpret than open-ended ones that require more time to be recorded and clustered, while there is always the risk of misinterpretation. However, there were also a few open-ended ones for more individual points of view.

The questionnaire consisted of five (5) parts with forty-four (44) questions in total. In Part 1, there were nine (9) questions on teachers' general profile that concerned gender, age, nationality, studies, foreign languages, teaching experience and professional status, level of teaching and school region. The question on the educational level of teaching was the reference criterion for the grouping of teachers into primary or secondary education in the data analysis.

Part 2 included eleven (11) questions that examined immigrant students' difficulties in the EFL classes and their causes. In particular, there were questions on the presence and size of immigrant students in the respondents' classrooms, on the students' behavioral problems, their nature and causes, and questions on students' performance level compared to that of their Greek peers, their learning difficulties and their causes. There were also questions on the way immigrant students' problems affect teachers' work and which of the problems teachers identify as the most prominent. The causes of the problems listed in the options were by no means exhaustive and could be enriched by the participants' responses.

In Part 3, there were four (4) questions on EFL teachers' familiarity with the European and National education policies on migration, linguistic & cultural diversity. There was a list of the related European policies afore cited in a table for the respondents to indicate the ones they knew. This list indicatively included mother tongue tuition, reception & extra tutorial classes, CLIL programmes, appointment of classroom assistants and teachers from migrant backgrounds, use of interpreters, mediators, resource persons, foreign language teaching inclusive of migrant languages etc. Subsequently, the respondents were asked to indicate which of these policies were currently applied in Greece according to their experience. In this way, we examined teachers' awareness and experience of these measures both in their European and National context. The last two questions left space for extra guidelines and policies to be added by the respondents.

Part 4 consisted of twelve (12) questions that concerned teacher attitudes, materials and practices in multicultural classrooms. These questions investigated teacher feelings towards the presence of immigrant students in Greek schools, towards their teaching in highly multicultural contexts and on the positive aspects of multicultural classes. They also elicited teachers' expectations and tolerance towards their immigrant students. Questions on their skills examined teachers' utilization of the immigrant students' cultural elements in their lessons and their familiarity with their immigrant students' background. Lastly, there were questions on teachers' knowledge and application of the principles of Multilingualism and Multiculturalism and on their evaluation of the coursebooks in these aspects.

In Part 5, there were eight (8) questions that sought to determine teachers' previous training in multicultural issues and to collect information about the organization of a teacher-training proposal. In this respect, we asked teachers for previous attendance at multicultural class management courses, the effectiveness of these courses and teachers' participation in related European or National programmes. Next, four thematic units were proposed for the training, *Immigrant students psychosocial and learning difficulties, European Policies on Immigrant Student Integration, Linguistic and Cultural Diversity in Education, National Policies on Immigrant Student Integration, Linguistic and Cultural Diversity in Education and Subject-Specific Guidelines on Multilingualism & Multiculturalism (DEPPS and Coursebooks)*, for our participants to prioritize them accordingly and enrich them with their own suggestions. The last questions examined preferences on the content, process and delivery time of the course.

Research Results

The research data analysis showed that EFL teachers of elementary and junior high school yielded more or less the same results probably due to their similar training and work conditions in Greek education. Thus, a summary of the main findings for both groups of EFL teachers as a whole follows, in line with the five parts of our questionnaire, while the full set of results is provided in my dissertation.

a.   Teachers' educational and professional profile

In total, 54 EFL teachers participated with an equal number of respondents from primary and secondary education, being in their vast majority female indicating that EFL teaching in Greece is dominated by women. All of them were Greek in nationality, forming a monocultural teaching context as opposed to the multicultural classroom. The sample was drawn from most of the Greek prefectures, with the majority coming from Attica and Central Macedonia that exhibit the highest percentages of immigrant student population, and thus, enables us to generalize about EFL teacher training needs in intercultural issues. The respondents were mostly permanent teachers, bachelor holders, over thirty, with more than a decade of teaching experience, speaking more than one foreign language but none of the migrant ones.

b.   Immigrant students' difficulties in the EFL classes

All respondents had immigrant students typically amounting to about 1/5 of their classes that is probably the most common for a mainstream classroom, if one considers that immigrant student population amounts to about 11% of the overall student population in elementary education and to about 9.7% in junior high school according to data from the National Statistical Service of Greece[8]. Most of them (63%) stated that these students face behavioural problems with aggressiveness being first, followed by low self-esteem and insecurity. These problems were attributed to a series of factors whose degree of effect was determined by teachers' personal observations in their specific school contexts. The factors with the greatest effect on the students' psychology were a) students' adjustment to the foreign culture and language of the host country, b) their family's poor economic conditions, and c) their placement into lower than their age and level classes due their poor knowledge of Greek. The factors with a more limited effect in descending order were a) the conflict between the culture of the country of origin and that of the host country, b) the xenophobic/racist attitude by Greek students, c) the insecurity for a new future resettlement, d) the xenophobic/racist attitude by Greek parents, e) the loss of culture of origin and f) the separation from the family members and friends in the country of origin. Lastly, the factor with the minimum effect was the xenophobic attitude by school administration and teachers.

As to the immigrant students' performance, half of the teachers stated that they are more or less at the same level with their Greek peers, while the majority (69%) acknowledged that they face learning difficulties in the EFL lessons. Once again these difficulties were attributed to a series of factors prioritized in terms of effect by our respondents' feedback. The ones with the greatest effect were a) the load of languages to be learnt at the same time, b) the family disconnection from school, and c) the disruption of school instruction due to the immigrant students' resettlement to the host country. The factors with a more limited effect in descending percentages were a) the competitive school climate, b) the teachers' more

tolerant attitude towards their immigrant students' performance, c) the immigrant students' psychological difficulties, d) the teachers' ineffective teaching, due to their lack of training on multicultural class management issues, e) the insufficiency of current coursebooks to cater for the needs of multicultural classrooms – the inadequate development of immigrant students' mother tongue - the family low expectations of their children's progress, all at the same position, f) the immigrant students' indifference to the subject of English language and g) the family's low opinion of foreign language learning.

Half of the teachers (50%) answered that their immigrant students face both behavioural and learning difficulties, while most seemed more concerned with the learning ones, as 28% on top of the respondents stated that their students face only learning difficulties. The majority of teachers (85%) agreed that both behavioural and leaning problems complicate their work.

c. Teachers' knowledge of European & National guidelines

Only a limited number of EFL teachers displayed knowledge of the European guidelines on immigrant student integration, linguistic and cultural diversity. The most widely known guidelines to almost half the respondents were the reception classes (50%) and the extra tutorial classes (44%) that have operated in Greek schools, the coursebook adaptation/development (46%) which is quite recent with the distribution of the newly issued English coursebooks in primary and secondary Greek education, the European Programmes and Actions implemented from time to time (44%), and the resource persons in reception classes (33%). All the other guidelines were only known to a restricted number of teachers (below 33%).

As to their application in Greece, teachers answered positively for few of the aforementioned guidelines they were most familiar with (reception classes 51%, tutorial classes 50%, coursebook adaptation 51%, resource persons 51%), being uncertain for most of the others. That result was quite expected since if the respondents do not know the underlying philosophy and content of the European guidelines, they cannot always identify their application in the Greek context. Most teachers, agreed that the guidelines not applied in Greece are a) the use of interpreters or mediators (61%), b) the publication of written info on the school system in the native language of the immigrant families`(57%), c) the appointment of resource persons (51%), d) foreign language teaching inclusive of minority languages (51%), e) the appointment of classroom assistants (50%) and f) the temporary appointment of teachers from migrant backgrounds (48%), which is true for mainstream classrooms.

Teachers did not know whether the 9 in a total of 17 guidelines were applied or not, when some of these were directly connected with their teaching subject. For example, the tuition of the students' mother tongue plus two foreign languages is the basis for the teaching of English and French/German in Greek schools, and Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) is a widespread method for foreign language teaching. Teachers might have implemented some of these guidelines but not recognize them in the specific phraseology/terminology.

d. Teachers' intercultural skills, attitude & practice in multicultural classrooms

With respect to their attitude, teachers retain a neutral stance (62%) to the presence of immigrant students in Greek schools only at a superficial level since most of them (54%) would not teach in a multicultural school if they could, especially the junior high school EFL teachers, mainly deterred by the immigrant students' behavioural and learning problems. In theory, however, the vast majority (81%) acknowledges the advantages of multicultural classrooms (81%) – tolerance, respect, familiarity with other cultures -, yet only a few (13%) referred to its essence, that is intercultural interaction to negotiate meanings on equal terms and reach mutual understanding.

Teachers keep modest expectations (67%) as to their immigrant students' progress. However, teachers seem unaware of their attitudes' impact as in the question on the negative factors on students' performance; half of the teachers who answered stated that teachers' low expectations do not exert negative influence. Moreover, teachers admit being more tolerant with their immigrant students' performance (57%) which clouds the validity of the results that showed immigrant students' performance more or less at the same level with their Greek peers. Nonetheless, in this case, most teachers acknowledged that their tolerant attitude negatively affects to some extent their students' performance.

Though most teachers (70%) stated that they utilize their immigrant students' cultural and language elements in their lessons, they admitted that they knew little about their background (57%). Teachers also had limited knowledge of Multilingualism and Multiculturalism in the New Cross-Thematic Curriculum, and thus, declared limited extent of application. With respect to the teaching tools, coursebooks seem to sufficiently promote the principles of Multilingualism and Multiculturalism and include adequate information about different cultures and languages. Teachers, however, were divided between the ones who base their entire lessons on the textbooks and the other half who improvise.

e. Teachers' previous training & training preferences in intercultural education

On the whole, EFL teachers have undergone no training in intercultural issues and identify this as a cause of ineffective teaching and also a reason for avoiding multicultural classes. Moreover, they have neither participated in any related European or National Programmes. They show interest for all four proposed units of training and put more emphasis on the thematic units that refer to the immigrant students' difficulties (40%) and to subject-specific guidelines on Multilingualism and Multiculturalism (30%) that could ease their work, and less on the National policies (16%) and European guidelines (14%) that constitute the overall framework from which measures are derived.

More than half of them opt for balance of theory and practice while 43% of them were only interested in practice that reveals their need for immediate support rather than for theoretical lectures disconnected from the class. As to the modes of work, workshops were mostly preferred that contain the element of task-based work in which all members contribute something to its completion, and then group work that is more general and once again entails co-operation. They showed poor interest for computer technology and prefer training first within school hours. Teachers also prefer training within the school hours (44%), which is to be avoided since students miss classes and next after school-hours (26%).

Implementation – Conclusion

The survey findings revealed EFL teacher-training needs in intercultural education. EFL teachers, forming a mono-cultural group, with barely any related training often have difficulty in effectively dealing with mainstream multicultural classrooms. Their immigrant students exhibit behavioral and learning problems caused by several factors attributed to culture, family, education system, teachers etc that teachers need to understand and resolve to improve their lessons. To that purpose, they should become aware of the existing European and National framework that has developed to respond to the immigrant students' needs and employ its principles into their practice. In this perspective, the survey findings gave rise to an in-service training proposal to develop EFL teachers' intercultural competence in terms of knowledge, skills, attitude and awareness in all these respects.

The main points of the training proposal, which is described in detail in my dissertation, are the following:

- The proposal was unified for EFL teachers of both elementary and secondary education and diversified only in matters of their own education level.
- It included 20 training hours on the four thematic units, *Immigrant students psychosocial and learning difficulties, European Policies on Immigrant Student Integration, Linguistic and Cultural Diversity in Education, National Policies on Immigrant Student Integration, Linguistic and Cultural Diversity in Education and Subject-Specific Guidelines on Multilingualism & Multiculturalism (DEPPS and Coursebooks),* each taking up a number of hours proportionally determined by the degree of EFL teachers' interest.
- There was linkage and cross-referencing amongst the thematic units and often content overlapping as all of them approached immigrant students' problems from different perspectives.
- The proposal was based on the Reflective Model of Teacher Education (Wallace, 1991) in which teachers utilize both their own experience of *being taught, observing teaching and teaching* and the course input they receive from members of their profession.
- It followed the Art/Craft conception of teaching (Freeman & Richards, 1993) with the teachers being involved in observation, description, analysis and classification processes to develop the most suitable methods for their own teaching context.
- There was a balance of theory and practice with theory consisting of guidelines and suggestions for testing and modification to be accepted or rejected by the trainees and practice of experiential and awareness raising activities for trainees to construct their own theory.

The syllabus and the activities for each thematic unit can be traced in the dissertation and could be utilized by teacher training institutions and school advisors modified to fit their training contexts. The entire article could offer useful insights to EFL teachers about their work in multicultural classrooms and could also be used as reference for further investigation of the issue to other European countries or by teachers of other faculties for their teaching subjects. It could also generate teachers for inter-disciplinary co-operation for the implementation of multicultural projects within the school curriculum.

Notes

1. Law 1404/1983.
2. Law 1894/1990 & Ministerial Act Φ10/20/Γ1/708/07-09-1999. (Government Gazette Issue: 1789/Β/1999)
3. Ministerial Acts ΑΦ.821/3412P/157476/Z1/13-12-2010 (Government Gazette Issue: 2142/Β/2010) & A.Φ.1ΤΥ/809/101455/Γ1/07-09-2011 (Government Gazette Issue: 2197/Β/2011)..
4. Law 2413/1996.
5. Law 2413/1996.
6. Related info is found at http://www.edulll.gr/?page_id=11 along with other programmes on intercultural education.
7. The review concerns the teacher guides of the school textbooks of the newly-issued textbooks.
8. Related info was drawn from the site http://www.statistics.gr (data tables that concern native and immigrant school population for the school years 2007-2008).

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Research Papers
in Language Teaching and Learning
Hellenic Open University
School of Humanities

The Nature and Impact of Textbook-based EFL Vocabulary Tests on Teaching and Learning

Η Φύση και Επιρροή των Διαγωνισμάτων Λεξιλογίου των Διδακτικών Εγχειριδίων στη Διδασκαλία και Εκμάθηση της Αγγλικής ως Ξένης Γλώσσας

Dina TSAGARI & Athena PAVLOU

The current study examines the nature and impact of the vocabulary tests included in the EFL textbook used in the 5th grade of primary state schools in Greece. To achieve its aims, the study employed both qualitative and quantitative research methods. Analysis of the vocabulary tests showed that these place emphasis on students' lexical competence while vocabulary teaching encouraged in the textbook focuses mostly on overall vocabulary performance. Responses to questionnaires revealed that a significant number of teachers has a negative attitude towards the vocabulary tests under study due to their incompatibility with their students' language level. Consequently, teachers adapt these tests or design their own according to their teaching practices and students' linguistic level. However, they, too, seem to favour assessment of specific lexical elements in the tests they construct. This raises questions with regard to the effectiveness of teachers' instructional and assessment practices and the extent to which these are in line with the writers' intentions enacted in the textbook materials, a central issue in the field of materials design and use. The paper concludes with suggestions for teachers, trainers, materials designers and researchers.

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Η παρούσα μελέτη εξετάζει τη φύση και τις επιπτώσεις των δοκιμασιών (τεστ) λεξιλογίου που περιλαμβάνονται στο διδακτικό εγχειρίδιο της Αγγλικής ως ξένης γλώσσας το οποίο χρησιμοποιείται στην 5η τάξη δημοτικού σε δημόσια σχολεία στην Ελλάδα. Για την επίτευξη των στόχων της, η μελέτη χρησιμοποίησε τόσο ποιοτικές όσο και ποσοτικές μεθόδους έρευνας. Ανάλυση των τεστ λεξιλογίου κατέδειξε ότι αυτά δίνουν έμφαση στην αναγνώριση και παραγωγή λεξιλογίου των μαθητών, ενώ στην διδασκαλία λεξιλογίου του εγχειριδίου ενθαρρύνονται κυρίως οι συνολικές επιδόσεις του λεξιλογίου. Οι απαντήσεις σε ερωτηματολόγια κατέδειξαν ότι ένας σημαντικός αριθμός των εκπαιδευτικών έχει αρνητική στάση απέναντι στα τεστ λεξιλογίου λόγω ασυμβατότητάς τους με το επίπεδο των μαθητών τους. Ως εκ τούτου, οι εκπαιδευτικοί προσαρμόζουν τα εν λόγω τεστ ή σχεδιάζουν τα δικά τους σύμφωνα με τις πρακτικές διδασκαλίας τους και το γλωσσικό επίπεδο των μαθητών.

Οι εκπαιδευτικοί επίσης φαίνεται να ευνοούν την εξέταση μεμονωμένων λεξιλογικών στοιχείων στα τεστ που σχεδιάζουν. Αυτό εγείρει ερωτήματα σχετικά με την αποτελεσματικότητα των πρακτικών διδασκαλίας και αξιολόγησης των εκπαιδευτικών και με το βαθμό ως προς τον οποίο είναι σύμφωνες με τις προθέσεις των διδακτικών εγχειριδίων, ένα κεντρικό ζήτημα στον τομέα του σχεδιασμού και χρήσης διδακτικών υλικών. Η μελέτη καταλήγει με προτάσεις για τους εκπαιδευτικούς, επιμορφωτές, συγγραφείς διδακτικών υλικών και ερευνητές.

Key words: Textbook material evaluation, vocabulary assessment, test impact, teachers' beliefs and practices.

1. Introduction

Evaluation of textbook material has been in the forefront of research in language teaching and learning in recent years (Tomlinson, 2012) providing invaluable insights to foreign language pedagogy. Such evaluation is particularly important for teachers and materials designers as it provides them with constructive feedback with regard to the effectiveness of teaching materials (Dickins & Germaine, 1992). However, review of the literature in materials evaluation has shown that although extensive research has been conducted so far (Dickins & Germaine, 1992; Ellis, 1998; Harwood, 2010; Littlejohn, 1998; Mc Donough & Shaw, 1993; Mc Grath, 2002; Sheldon, 1987; Tomlinson, 2012), few researchers have dealt with the evaluation of vocabulary in coursebooks (Cunningsworth, 1984; 1995; Hedge, 2000). What is more, hardly any research has focused on the evaluation of vocabulary tests that constitute part of the 'coursebook package' or their effects on teachers and students (Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2010). It seems that the field of language teaching and testing has not yet recognized the salient place that textbook-based tests have recently gained especially with regard to their impact on classroom teaching and learning.

The present study aims to address this gap in the literature by investigating the nature and impact of vocabulary tests of the EFL textbook used in the 5th grade of primary state schools in Greece through multiple sources of empirical data. The paper presents the results of the study and discusses implications which offer useful insights to EFL teachers, teacher trainers and textbook designers.

2. Theoretical perspectives in vocabulary assessment

Researchers have shown a growing interest in the study of lexical knowledge in recent years. With the advent of the communicative approach, grammar lost its salient place while emphasis was placed on vocabulary learning and assessment (Alderson, 2000; Nation & Newton, 1997; Read & Chapelle, 2001; Read, 2000; 2004; Schoonen & Verhallen, 2008; Thrasher, 2000). Vocabulary assessment in particular witnessed several developments. Conventional vocabulary tests usually contained discrete-point items assessing students' knowledge of the meaning and usage of a set of words. Such tests focused on assessing vocabulary elements in isolation or at sentence level that required learners to recognize the meaning of a given word or recall it from memory (Read, 2000). More recently, however, comprehensive or embedded vocabulary tests were designed that involved vocabulary assessment through tasks which simulate real-life situations (referred to as 'meaningful tasks' in this study). These vocabulary tests assess whether students can recognize certain words when they encounter them in context, e.g. within a listening or a reading task, or

whether they can recall and use them either orally or in written form; as such, students' vocabulary knowledge and use are assessed receptively and productively within a larger construct (Read, 2000). In view of this, more precise knowledge of a given lexical item is required for language use (Nation, 2001) which makes meaning-focused tasks more demanding for students. Therefore, to achieve successful balance between vocabulary acquisition and use, vocabulary assessment needs to involve evaluation of both specific lexical items, namely, language-focused test tasks as well as students' overall language performance, that is, meaning-focused test tasks. The same balance is also encouraged in language learning programmes. For example, Nation (2001, p. 232) stresses that a well-designed language learning programme should balance opportunities to learn from message-focused activities as well as from the direct study of language items, with language-focused activities covering a smaller proportion of the total learning programme (also supported by Hulstijn, 2001). The aim of the present study is to explore the extent to which real-life and discrete-point test tasks are included in vocabulary tests produced as part of a textbook series, their relation with the corresponding textbook activities and impact on vocabulary learning.

The next section will focus on defining the qualities of vocabulary tests. This will be used as a point of reference in the presentation and discussion of the results at the end of this paper.

2.1. Qualities of good vocabulary tests

There are certain qualities which affect the degree of usefulness and fairness of language tests. Generally speaking, a test is considered useful and fair by the extent to which it possesses a balance of qualities such as reliability, validity, practicality, utility, authenticity and impact (Bachman & Palmer, 1996; Hughes, 1989; Mishan, 2010; Purpura, 2004). More specifically, a test is reliable when it yields consistent results (Harmer, 2001; Hughes, 1989). With regard to vocabulary tests, language-focused tests tasks, which assess individual lexical items, are considered to be objective and highly reliable. They are also practical to score and provide diagnostic information and other type of feedback to teachers and learners concerning students' vocabulary knowledge (Bachman & Palmer, 1996; Herman, Aschbacher & Winters, 1992; West, 2004). Meaning-focused test tasks are subjective as vocabulary is measured within a larger construct, and therefore, these tests are of high validity. Feedback collected sheds light on learners' future language performance beyond the test to language use in other meaningful contexts outside the classroom. These vocabulary tasks are authentic (Abdullah, 1998 & Tomlinson 1998b, cited in Mishan, 2010; Bachman & Palmer, 1996; West, 2004) as language is used for genuine purposes (Guariento & Morley, 2001). Hence, positive influence is exerted on students' learning (Peacock, 1997).

With regard to validity, Read (2000, p. 151) states that a test is valid when we are able to draw meaningful conclusions from its results. More specifically, a vocabulary test exhibits face validity when it measures the lexical items or skills it is supposed to measure. In addition, a vocabulary test has predictive validity when it assesses future language performance, namely when it predicts the degree of success of learners in using the language in the future through meaning-focused test tasks (Hughes, 1989; Underhill, 1987). What is more, a test is said to have content validity if its content reflects the language skills, the syllabus or the students' language needs. The greater the content validity of a test, the more likely it is to measure accurately the language abilities of students or the construct it is designed to measure and, hence, exhibits construct validity (Davies 1968, cited in Alderson & Hughes, 1979/1981; Hughes, 1989; West, 2004). The degree of fairness a vocabulary test

may exhibit depends on the extent to which the test is reliable and valid (Hamp-Lyons, 2000; Shohamy, 2000).

Another quality of a 'good' test is the impact it exerts on students, teachers and even society. The direct impact of testing on teaching and learning is referred to as 'washback' (Alderson & Wall, 1993). This can be either positive or negative. When a test is based on the learning objectives of the curriculum (Heaton, 1990) then it has a positive washback effect; otherwise negative washback is exerted on teaching and learning (Bachman & Palmer, 1996; Harmer, 2001; Harris & Mc Cann, 1994). Negative washback is also reflected in test scores, as they are influenced by the characteristics and contents of the test tasks (Griffin 1992, cited in Nation 2001; Cheng & Curtis, 2004). In addition, when teachers limit their teaching practices to test requirements, then negative influence is likely to be exerted on teaching as teachers run the risk of 'teaching to the test' and thus ignore other equally important learning aspects (Cheng & Curtis, 2004; Leung & Andrews, 2012; Tsagari, 2009, 2012).

A further notion of impact pertains to predictive validity. When students are assessed through real-world tasks that measure and predict their future language performance (Wesche, 1983) then they exert beneficial washforward effect on students (Peacock, 1997; West, 2004) which also needs to be emphasized in teachers' practices (Watanabe, 2004). It is crucial, therefore, that a vocabulary test exerts positive washback on teaching and learning and has beneficial washforward effect, as the influence of a test exercised on learning will feed back into students' overall language performance.

In the present study we explore and discuss the extent to which textbook vocabulary tests follow good practice in language testing. The next two sections provide a brief overview of the research context and describe the research design employed in the study undertaken.

2.2. The current teaching and assessment context

The language level of the 5th grade primary students attending EFL classes in the Greek state educational system, claimed to be Basic Users of the English language (Pedagogical Institute, 2011), actually ranges from learners who belong to the Breakthrough stage (A1) to those who can be traced at the weak end of the Waystage level (A2.1) (Council of Europe, 2001). With regard to their lexical competence at this level, students are expected to have sufficient vocabulary for the expression of basic communicative needs and control a narrow repertoire relevant to everyday needs (Council of Europe 2001, p. 112).

The English textbook series employed recently in the 5th grade of primary schools of the present context is a series called 'English 5th' (Κολοβού & Κρανιώτου, 2009), published by the Ministry of Education. It consists of a Pupil's book, a Workbook, a Teacher's book and audio CDs. The Pupil's book contains ten Self-assessment tests presented at the end of every chapter. There are also three Progress tests in the Teacher's book (at the end of every three chapters) and one final Progress test in the Pupil's book (upon completion of all ten chapters).

The Cross-Curricular Thematic Framework (Pedagogical Institute, 2003), used in the Greek primary state education, the Presidential Decree of 8/1995 and the CEFR (Council of Europe, 2001) formed the bases of the design of the present textbook. Vocabulary assessment is not explicitly mentioned within the Cross-Curricular Thematic Framework. However, vocabulary assessment within a larger construct is encouraged through the communicative skills of

speaking, listening, reading and writing. Recently, within the new Syllabus of Foreign Languages, namely the Common Curriculum of Foreign Languages (Pedagogical Institute, 2011), certain illustrative descriptors are employed which define what the learners can do (also in line with the CEFR). In the new syllabus, assessment of overall language performance is encouraged, too (Pedagogical Institute, 2011, pp. 28-31).

3. Research design

3.1. Rationale

When 'English 5th' was distributed in schools in 2009, teachers welcomed it as an aid towards accomplishing the objectives of their lessons (Mc Grath, 2002). However, teachers expressed doubt and skepticism towards the vocabulary materials included in the textbook complaining that the instructional materials and the accompanying vocabulary tests did not correspond to their students' level (see also Tsagari and Sifakis, 2012). Consequently, many teachers complained that they had to adapt the vocabulary test tasks of the textbook or design their own.

Given this state of affairs, the researchers decided to systematically analyse and evaluate the vocabulary tests included in the textbook. The study also aspired to elicit teachers' beliefs and instructional practices towards vocabulary learning and assessment as, other than initial teachers' complaints, there was scant empirical evidence about what teachers actually believe or do when they work on vocabulary in the classroom (also in Tomlinson, 2012). The identification of these areas led to the formulation of certain research questions that constitute the basis of the present study, e.g.:

1. What is the nature of the vocabulary tests included in the 5th grade EFL textbook used in the primary schools in Greece?
2. Are these vocabulary tests in accordance with vocabulary teaching advocated in the textbook?
3. What is the impact of these vocabulary tests on student achievement?
4. What are teachers' attitudes and practices towards vocabulary teaching?
5. What are teachers' attitudes and practices towards vocabulary test tasks included in the textbook?

It is necessary to highlight that the purpose of the study was not to highlight the negative aspects of the textbook material under examination but rather to explore the effectiveness of the vocabulary tests of the textbook under study and discuss implications for language teaching and assessment (Cunningsworth, 1979, cited in Mc Grath, 2002; Tsagari, 2009).

3.2. Research Methodology

The present study employed an in-depth analysis method for the collection and analysis of textbook and test data (Mc Grath, 2002). The in-depth method was used in three phases as these have been proposed by Breen (1989), illustrated below:
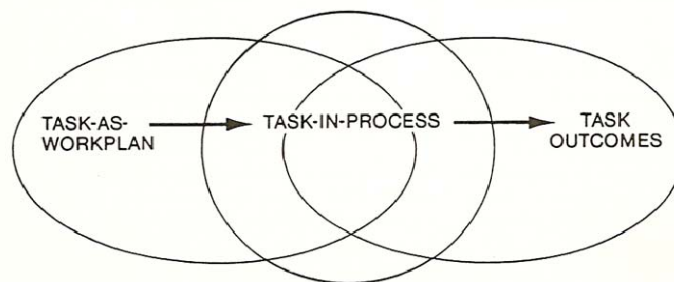
Figure 1. Three phases of a task

Task-as-workplan

At this phase, content analysis was conducted focusing on the nature of the vocabulary activities included in
   a.   all the Progress tests of the Teacher's book
   b.   all the Self-assessment tests of the Pupil's book and
   c.   the first three chapters of the Pupil's book

Owing to the length of the textbook material (10 chapters in total – 152 pages), it was impractical to analyse the entire content of the vocabulary activities of the Pupil's book (Cunningsworth, 1995; Ellis, 1998; Littlejohn, 1998). Therefore, for the purposes of the study, only the first three chapters were analysed.

The data collected from this analysis was expected to answer the first two research questions (Section 3.1). The analysis framework was informed by relevant bibliography (Bülent & Stoller, 2005; Byrd, 2001; Hill, 2004; Luoma, 2004; Purpura, 2004; Ur, 1996; West, 2004) that will be discussed in detail in Section 3.3.

Task-in-process

During the second phase, information was collected about the ways in which teachers respond to and use vocabulary tasks and tests so that conclusions could be drawn about their effectiveness (Dickins & Germaine, 1992). This data was collected through questionnaires administered to EFL primary state school teachers. This part of the research intended to answer the last two research questions (Section 3.1).

Task outcomes

Finally, the third phase of the evaluation cycle aimed to analyse what had been learned (Breen, 1989). Therefore, the researchers collected and analysed the results obtained from the textbook vocabulary tests administered to students and then compared these with previous test task analysis and teachers' responses. After all, test scores are influenced by the characteristics and contents of the test tasks (Cheng & Curtis, 2004; Griffin 1992, cited in Nation, 2001). For practicality reasons again, results were collected from the administration of the vocabulary tests included in:
   a.   the first three Self-assessment tests of the Pupil's book and
   b.   the first Progress test included in the Teacher's book

The results were analysed quantitatively (Burns, 1990; Dickins & Germaine, 1992). This last phase also aimed at answering the third research question (Section 3.1) with regard to the impact of the vocabulary tests on students' learning.

3.3. Research instruments

The evaluation checklist

The first step in textbook evaluation is to identify the general categories and/or criteria to be used in the analysis of any given EFL textbook (Tomlinson 2003b, cited in Tomlinson, 2012). In the present study, the generation of specific criteria was based on the study of the relevant literature on published checklists (Cunningsworth, 1984, 1995; Hedge, 2000; Mc Donough & Shaw, 1993; Miekley, 2005; Williams, 1983) and was informed by the literature on vocabulary assessment (Section 2.1.). Overall, the checklist designed was divided into two parts, each consisting of 11 questions (Appendix I). The first part focused on vocabulary teaching and learning, whereas the second one on vocabulary assessment. Both parts employed quantitative and qualitative systems of elicitation (Tsagari, 2009). These consisted of closed questions ('Yes' and 'No' questions) which also provided space for comments so that the checklist users (in this case the present researchers) could further expand on their responses (Mc Grath, 2002).

The teachers' questionnaire

The teachers' questionnaire (Appendix II) aimed at collecting teachers' beliefs and practices towards vocabulary teaching and assessment in general as well as those based on the textbook. Following good practice in research design, the questionnaire underwent piloting. A group of ten EFL teachers working in primary state education, as similar as possible to that in the main study (Burns, 1990), answered the questionnaire. The results of this pilot work led to a number of revisions such as the inclusion of scaled items as there were too many open-ended questions which were answered vaguely, therefore exhibiting poor reliability.

In its final version, the questionnaire contained two sections: the first one, divided in five parts, included questions based on a five-point Likert scale (e.g. 1: 'strongly agree', …. 5: 'strongly disagree') so as to achieve greater uniformity of measurement, and therefore, greater reliability (Bartels, 2005; Burns, 1990). The second section included only free-response questions to encourage the respondents to express their beliefs and attitudes concerning the topic under study (Oppenheim, 1992).

Sixty-seven teachers took the questionnaire. The majority of the respondents were female English language teachers working in primary state education. Overall, teachers had between 6 to 10 years teaching experience (1-5 years spent in primary schools). All respondents held a university degree, which is a prerequisite for the employment of teachers in the state school sector. A small number held a Master's and PhD degrees. Collection of data commenced on December 24, 2009 and ended on January 30, 2010. Teachers took about 15-20 minutes to complete the questionnaire.

Learners' outcomes

Finally, students' test scores were obtained. These scores were based on the administration of the first three Self-assessment tests and the first Progress test (based on Units 1-3). Test

administration commenced on 15th October, 2009 and ended on 18th January, 2010. The 34 students involved in this study were eleven-year-old 5th graders of mixed ability and learning styles, of Greek and Albanian origin residing on the east coast of South Greece.

4. Presentation of results

4.1. Textbook analysis

Given the space confines of the present paper, we will present findings with regard to the types of vocabulary tasks in textbook materials and tests analysed. The interested reader can consult Pavlou (2010) for the presentation of the full set of data.

Types of tasks	*Vocabulary activities*		
	Self-assessment tests - Pupils' book (Units 1-10)	*Progress tests - Teacher's book (Units 1-10)*	*Pupils' book (Units 1-3)*
Meaning-focused activities (overall language performance)	3 (21%)	3 (23%)	39 (81%)
Language-focused test tasks (specific vocabulary items)	11 (79%)	10 (77%)	9 (19%)
Total	14	13	48

Table 1. Frequency of vocabulary tasks in textbook materials and tests

Overall, the analysis showed that both meaning- and language-focused vocabulary activities are included in the textbook tests and the Pupil's book (Table 1). However, the vocabulary test tasks in both the Self-assessment and Progress tests place more emphasis on the assessment of individual lexical items (79% and 77% of tasks respectively) rather than on vocabulary assessment within a larger construct. By contrast, meaning-focused tasks (where emphasis is placed on communication and message transmission) cover a much larger proportion in the textbook (81% of the tasks included). This means that the textbook materials emphasize overall language use in the teaching of vocabulary.

4.2. Test score analysis

This part of the analysis addresses the second research question concerning the impact of the vocabulary tests on student learning/performance.

	Self-assessment Test 1	*Self-assessment Test 2*	*Self-assessment Test 3*	*Progress Test 1*
Mean score	75.09	90.36	88.10	75.44
Mode	100	100	100	89
Variance	470.75	184.96	317.02	385.54
Standard Deviation (SD)	21.70	13.60	17.81	19.64

Table 2. Distribution of test scores

Results from the analysis of test scores (Table 2) indicated that most students produced high scores in Self-assessment tests 2 and 3, where vocabulary was assessed in limited context through language-focused test tasks that required recall or recognition of word forms. Actually most of the students scored high in these test tasks. This is confirmed by the normal distribution of the data in Self-assessment tests 2 and 3 as the test scores are clustered around the mean scores (SD: 13.60 and 17.81 respectively) (Carr, 2008; Niles, n.d).

Contrary to the above, students were presented with two meaning-focused test tasks based on a reading text in Self-assessment test 1 and Progress test 1 (e.g. a dual choice and an information transfer task). As a result students exhibited slightly lower performance. The test scores are more spread apart (SD: 21.7 for Self-assessment 1 and SD: 19.64 for Progress test 1) exhibiting a relatively larger standard deviation (Table 2). What this means is that a significant number of students had difficulty and, therefore, received relatively lower marks (Carr, 2008).

The following section reports results from the Teachers' questionnaire which attempted to answer the fourth and fifth research question (Section 3.1)

4.3. Questionnaire results

The questionnaire results (Table 3) show that, in general, the majority of the teachers are in favour of meaning-focused vocabulary activities (96%) and tests tasks (90%) (Qu. 2 & 4.3). Teachers also prefer language-focused activities and test tasks at a slightly smaller extent (85% & 72%) (Qu. 3 & 4.2). However, teaching and assessment of isolated words (Qu. 1 & 4.1) is supported by a much smaller percentage of respondents (27% & 19% respectively).

Questions	Stongly Agree (1)	Agree (2)	Neutral (3)	Disagree (4)	Strongly disagree (5)
Part 2: Vocabulary Instruction and Acquisition					
Qu. 1: Vocabulary should be learned through systematic vocabulary teaching	6 (8,96%)	12 (17,91%)	19 (28,36%)	22 (32,84%)	8 (11,94%)
Qu. 2: Vocabulary should be learned in context focusing on the message to be transmitted	39 (58,21%)	25 (37,31%)	1 (1,49%)	2 (2,99%)	0
Qu. 3: Vocabulary should be practiced through vocabulary exercises such as matching words with definitions, etc.	24 (35,82%)	33 (49,25%)	8 (11,94%)	2 (2,99%)	0
Part 3: Vocabulary Assessment					
Qu. 4.1: Vocabulary should be assessed as isolated words	1 (1,49%)	12 (17,91%)	18 (26,87%)	21 (31,34%)	0
Qu. 4.2: Vocabulary should be assessed at sentence level.	8 (11.94%)	40 (59.70%)	16 (23.88%)	2 (2.99%)	1 (1.49%)
Qu. 4.3: Vocabulary should be assessed through meaningful tasks.	40 (59.70%)	20 (29.85%)	5 (7.46%)	1 (1.49%)	1 (1.49%)
Part 4: Textbook Material					
Qu. 5: Vocabulary covered in the	1	14	13	28	11

textbook is appropriate for my learners' current level.	(1,49%)	(20,90%	(19,40 %)	(41,79%)	(16,42%)
Qu. 6: The work done on vocabulary through reading, listening, speaking and writing is meaningful and engages learners in real-life communication.	3 (4,48%)	24 (35,82%)	22 (32,84 %)	15 (22,39%)	3 (4,48%)
Qu. 7: The vocabulary tests are relevant to my students' level.	2 (2,99%)	17 (25,37%)	18 (26,87 %)	25 (37,31%)	5 (7,46%)
Qu. 8: The vocabulary tests assess the words and/or phrases students have practised in class.	9 (13,43%)	37 (55,22%)	17 (25,37 %)	3 (4,48%)	1 (1,49%)
Qu. 9: The vocabulary test tasks are similar to the textbook activities.	3 (4,48%)	35 (52,24%)	15 (22,39 %)	13 (19,40%)	1 (1,49%)
Qu. 10: The vocabulary test tasks are meaningful engaging learners in real-world language use.	1 (1,49%)	10 (14,93%)	27 (40,30 %)	24 (35,82%)	5 (7,46%)
Part 5: Use of Textbook Tests					
Qu. 11a: I use the Self-assessment tests to assess my students' vocabulary knowledge and use.	16 (23,88%)	25 (37,31%)	12 (17,91 %)	8 (11,94%)	6 (8,96%)
Qu. 11b: I use the Progress tests to assess my students' vocabulary knowledge and use.	19 (28,36%)	34 (50,75%)	8 (11,94 %)	3 (4,48%)	3 (4,48%)
Qu. 11c: I use the Final Progress test to assess my students' vocabulary knowledge and use.	9 (13,43%)	23 (34,33%)	16 (23,88 %)	12 (17,91%)	7 (10,45%)
Qu. 12a: I employ these tests to collect feedback on my students' progress and organize remedial work.	28 (41,79%)	34 (50,75)	3 (4,48%)	2 (2,99%)	0
Qu. 12b: I employ these tests because they are quick and practical to score.	19 (28.36%)	27 (40.30%)	14 (20.90 %)	5 (7.46%)	2 (2.99%)
Qu. 12c: I employ these tests because they are consistent in their scoring.	11 (16,42%)	28 (41,79%)	20 (29,85 %)	7 (10,45%)	1 (1,49%)
Qu. 12d: I employ these tests because they measure my students' vocabulary knowledge.	9 (13,43%)	33 (49,25%)	21 (31,34 %)	4 (5,97)	0
Qu.12e: I employ these tests because they measure learners' future language performance.	2 (2,99%)	8 (11,94%)	30 (44,78 %)	20 (29,85%)	7 (10,45%)
Qu. 12f: I employ these tests to assess my students' vocabulary knowledge and use because they reflect the vocabulary learners have been taught in class.	8 (11,94%)	43 (64,18%)	11 (16,42 %)	5 (7,46%)	0

Table 3. Answers to scaled items of the teachers' questionnaire

Most teachers (69%) (Qu. 8) believe that the textbook tests assess vocabulary previously practised in class. Furthermore, the majority of teachers believe that the vocabulary test

tasks are similar to the textbook activities (57%) (Qu. 9). However, irrespective of teachers' positive attitudes towards the textbook-based tests, a significant percentage of teachers also believes that the textbook vocabulary activities and the test tasks do not correspond to their students' current language level (58% & 45%) (Qu. 5 & 7). This is also confirmed by Qu. 6, according to which only 40% of the respondents who believe that the textbook activities are meaningful, and by Qu. 10, where only 15% believe that the vocabulary test tasks meaningfully engage learners in real-world language use. Interestingly an equal percentage (40%) holds a neutral view on this. (This is also in line with analysis of test tasks that showed that these are far from meaningful, see Table 1). Interestingly, an equal percentage (40%) holds a neutral view on this.

Qu. 13	*I adapt the vocabulary tests because*	*Frequency*
a	They do not reflect my students' language level and needs.	31 (81,58%)
b	I want to measure specific aspects of vocabulary I have practiced in class.	3 (7,89%)
c	I want to give my students more real-life tasks.	4 (10,53%)
Qu. 14	*When I adapt the vocabulary test tasks because*	
a	I try to assess new vocabulary in meaningful contexts through reading, listening, speaking and writing tasks.	7 (35%)
b	I try to simplify the tasks to suit my students' level.	6 (30%)
c	I use tasks my students have practised in class and they are familiar with.	5 (25%)
d	I add both easy and difficult tasks to cover every language level of my students.	2 (10%)
Qu. 15	*I design my own vocabulary tests*	
a	According to my students' language level.	15 (60%)
b	Because I wish to measure specific aspects of vocabulary I have practiced in class.	10 (40%)
Qu. 16	*The vocabulary test tasks I prefer to design are*	
a	Language-focused test tasks	32 (78,05%)
b	Meaning-focused test tasks because students should have a realistic aim when they learn a foreign language and they should learn vocabulary in context.	7 (17,07%)
c	Both meaning- and language-focused test tasks because I want to assess my students' vocabulary knowledge and use.	2 (4,88%)
Qu. 16.1	*Reasons for employing language-focused test tasks*	
a	They are practical to score and I can identify which words my students have learned.	10 (31,25%)
b	Students are familiar with them through previous classroom practice.	4 (12,50%)
c	Students find them easier to deal with and thus more interesting.	18 (56,25%)

Table 4. Answers from free response items of the teachers' questionnaire

With regard to the ways teachers assess their students' vocabulary knowledge and use, the findings showed that most respondents do employ the tests offered in the textbook though at different frequency, e.g. 79% of the teachers uses the Progress tests (Qu. 11b), 61% uses the Self-assessment tests (Qu. 11a) while 48% makes use of the Final Progress test (Qu. 11c). Teachers said they use the tests because:

- they want to check their learners' progress and organize remedial work (93%) (Qu. 12a),
- the tests reflect vocabulary taught in class (76%) (Qu. 12f),
- for reasons of practicality (69%) (Qu. 12b),
- teachers want to measure learners' vocabulary knowledge (63%) (Qu. 12d) and
- the tests are highly reliable (58%) (Qu. 12c).

As to the tests' predictive validity (Qu. 12e), 40% supports that the tests fail to measure students' future language performance while a significant percentage (45%) holds a neutral stance.

Teachers further confirmed and explained the reasons for the perceptions they have towards vocabulary test tasks through the open-ended items included in the second part of the questionnaire (Table 4).

In line with the answers to the scaled questions presented in Table 3, a significant number of teachers further confirmed that the vocabulary tests do not correspond to students' linguistic level (Table 4, Qu. 13a) and, therefore, need to adapt test tasks or design their own according to their learners' level (Qu. 15a). However, as teachers explained, they prefer language-focused test tasks mostly (Qu. 16a & b; 16.1). This accords with their teaching practices in class (Qu. 15b). As a result, fewer teachers use a meaning-focused orientation when they adapt the vocabulary tests or design their own (Qu. 13c, 14a, 16b & c). However, this practice contradicts the results collected from the analysis of Part 2 and 3 of the questionnaire where teachers supported quite the opposite (Qu. 2 and 4.3).

The next section summarises of the main findings and elaborates on the implications of the present research study.

5. Summary and discussion of results

Motivated by the scant empirical research evidence in textbook-based vocabulary teaching and testing as well as the complaints about the effectiveness of the vocabulary tests of a specific EFL textbook expressed by teachers, a research programme was undertaken to investigate the nature and impact of such materials on teaching and learning.

Data collected from the analysis of the test tasks included in the vocabulary tests of the 5th grade EFL textbook used in primary schools Greece show that these mostly focus on students' lexical competence, rather than overall language performance typical of conventional vocabulary tests. On the contrary, most textbook activities place emphasis on meaning-focused activities (communication and message transmission). These findings can be interpreted in both a positive and negative light. For example, the tests can be said to be objective and, thus, reliable and practical to score. To this extent, they can be described as fair, too (Hamp-Lyons, 2000; Shohamy, 2000). However, due to their limited use of meaning-focused tasks, the tests fail to maintain the necessary balance of vocabulary task types that

can ensure appropriate assessment and teaching of vocabulary learning. As such, the tests exhibit low content and construct validity, e.g. the tests partially reflect teaching practices and fail to fully measure students' language performance as described in the textbook. In addition, the fact that the vocabulary test tasks do not simulate real-life situations renders them of poor predictive validity. In other words, since the tests partially cater for students' real language needs (Nation, 2001; West, 2004), they are likely to exert harmful washforward effect on students' future language performance (Hughes, 1989; West, 2004). Finally, given the test's under-representativeness of test tasks, negative washback effect is likely to be exerted on teaching too. In other words, it is quite likely that teachers might supplement the textbook activities with task types included in the tests, running the risk of teaching to the test; hence, teachers' instructional choices are likely to be affected negatively by the requirements of the tests (Cheng & Curtis, 2004; Leung & Andrews, 2012).

Analysis of the test results showed that students scored higher in the vocabulary tests which included only language-focused test tasks. The lower scores that students achieved in the meaning-focused tests tasks indicate that students faced difficulties when encountering such tasks in their tests. Several possible reasons can explain students' low performance. For example, it might be the case that meaning-focused language tasks are more demanding for students. This might be one reason vocabulary use is assessed less frequently than vocabulary knowledge in the vocabulary tests of the new 5th grade EFL textbooks. Lower test scores could also be attributed to the frequency of exposure to such tasks in their instructional programme. It is also likely that teachers might not practice meaning-focus vocabulary tasks given the requirements of the test tasks included in the vocabulary test tasks. As Griffin (1992, cited in Nation, 2001) clearly states, 'learners score higher when the testing format matches the learning format' (ibid: 33).

The results from the teachers' questionnaire yielded very interesting results with regard to teaching and assessment practices of vocabulary learning which confirmed initial teachers' reactions. For example, despite their generally positive views towards real-life authentic meaning in learning and assessing vocabulary, most teachers are either negative or neutral towards the vocabulary tests of the textbook. Teachers are not particularly satisfied with the extent to which the test and teaching tasks of the textbook engage students in real-world use of vocabulary. Teachers also stressed that the tests do not correspond to their learners' level. As a result, they need to adapt these tests or design their own to meet their students' needs.

However, the questionnaire yielded an amount of contradiction in teachers' responses. For example, even though teachers believe that vocabulary materials and tests are beyond their students' language level, most teachers believe that the tests assess vocabulary previously practised in class. Furthermore, even though previous task analysis revealed a weak relationship between vocabulary test tasks and textbook activity types, the majority of the teachers believe that the vocabulary test tasks are similar to the textbook activities. In the same vein, despite their preference towards balanced assessment practices between meaning- and language-focused activities, teachers tend to prefer to design test tasks which focus on the assessment of specific vocabulary items. To the teachers, language-oriented tasks are more practical to design and score and can offer useful feedback on students' vocabulary knowledge. Therefore, in theory teachers seem to encourage vocabulary assessment and teaching both at sentence level and in larger context. However, even if they hold these beliefs, when it comes to their actual assessment practices, they prefer language-focused test tasks. It is obvious that teachers' beliefs are opposed to their actual assessment procedures. Studies have shown that teachers' general beliefs on instruction as compared to

actual teaching are often incompatible (Foss & Kleinsasser, 2001; Kennedy, 1996; Zeichner & Tabachnick, 1981, cited in Bartels, 2005). This means that teachers tend to opt for the ideal in their beliefs, namely targeting towards overall language development through both real-life and language-focused tasks, whereas they seek more practical solutions in their assessment and instructional practices, in this case by designing discrete-point language tasks. This raises several questions with regard to the extent to which teachers have the skills or knowledge to evaluate textbook materials systematically or use them in the ways that are expected by textbook writers. This points to a lack of sufficient training in assessment and language pedagogy overall that could provide teachers with the necessary knowledge of crucial assessment concepts.

To conclude, given the evidence gathered in the present study, it is important to stress, first of all, that the present textbook-based vocabulary tests can be used to collect useful feedback about students' performance in specific areas of vocabulary learning. The degree of beneficial or harmful impact of these tests on teachers and students depends on teachers' instructional decisions and assessment practices. Therefore, teacher education in materials evaluation, design and use is essential. In the final section, recommendations are made to all stakeholders involved either directly or indirectly in the present study.

6. Limitations and Implications

This study investigated the nature and influence of textbook-based vocabulary tests on teaching and learning through a variety of methods. Even though the samples chosen are not extensive (mainly due to time limitations and other practical restrictions), nevertheless they were representative of the textbook material and teacher and student population. In addition, there was an effort to enhance research credibility by triangulating the sources of data that have led to interesting tendencies. For example, we feel that the detailed analysis of the materials yielded interesting results and can lead to several pedagogical and research implications. These will be discussed below in the form of several suggestions which are addressed to several key participants identified in the present study. However, they are not meant to be exhaustive or definitive. Also the practicality and effectiveness of each suggestion merits further exploration and research.

To begin with, suggestions can be made to those who produce textbook materials. Textbook writers/publishers need to follow a sound theoretical and practical framework in their approach to textbook material design (including textbook tests). For example, their textbook materials need to exhibit a comprehensive and accurate coverage and balance of language skills/areas and task/test types through appropriate teaching/learning techniques linked to the actual rather than perceived level of the students. This can be achieved through rigorous needs analysis which will also help record additional practicalities and constraints in the system. Also material writers need to sequence their materials in terms of difficulty. Given the importance of textbook use in language teaching and learning, textbook designers should also provide EFL teachers with supplementary guidelines concerning assessment procedures as well as with additional graded testing material that can meet the needs of students at different levels of ability.

Materials writers and publishers also need to pilot textbook materials (test tasks included) before introducing them to teachers and students to make sure that the materials are at the level of the students and can methodologically cater for the needs of teachers, too. In addition, publishing houses should also have mechanisms that monitor and support teachers

in the way they operationalise learning objectives through their textbook materials. Finally, even though there is no imperative for the textbook publishing industry to do so, we suggest that, in the broader discussion of ethics and 'good practice' in the field, writers/publishers should not only have a concern for the design of their textbook materials but also provide empirical evidence of the link between their textbooks and the CEFR levels.

Suggestions can also be made for teacher trainers (also addressed to curriculum planners/textbook designers). For example, there is a need for teacher educator programmes to include components that familiarise (pre- and in-service) EFL teachers with the rationale and principles behind various instructional and assessment techniques in textbook materials and train teachers in ways of using them effectively. Training teachers into the use of textbooks is a very important issue as the teacher variable plays an important role in the learning process (see also Tsagari, 2009). Also training programmes need to develop teachers' skills and strengthen their self-confidence in adapting the existing textbook materials or design their own to their students' advantage. Such training initiatives should also clarify misconceptions with regard to the intentions of material writers as these are reflected in the instructional and assessment materials of the textbook.

7. Recommendations for future research

Several practical recommendations could be made to future language testing and teaching researchers interested in conducting research in the field of materials design and evaluation as the influence of teaching materials in EFL courses merits further research. Research into the area could follow a number of directions.

For example, a first step towards understanding the nature and impact of teacher-made tests on teaching and learning and teacher effectiveness would be to collect teachers' vocabulary test samples and student scores based on such tests. In addition, further studies into materials design could look into the ways in which (experienced and non-experienced) teachers use textbook-based test tasks, e.g., the use or adaptation of such tests, their impact on student learning, the way results are reported, etc or the way they structure their lessons when using textbook materials, e.g. in terms of instructional time, parts of the materials they omit, etc. In learning more about the relationship between teacher implicit theories and practices as these are reflected in textbook use, feedback can be provided to teacher educators, materials writers, and most importantly, assistance to pre- and in-service teachers.

It would also be valuable to contact textbook writers and publishers (also discussed in Tsagari, 2009), after the analysis of textbook materials, to explore their rationale in designing textbook materials the way they do and the constraints they face. It may be valuable to look more closely at what exactly material writers think and do when they design instructional and test material using, for instance, through verbal protocols (see also Johnson, 2000; Johnson, 2003) or interviews (Tsagari and Sifakis, 2012). Given the increasing size of the textbook industry, it would also be important to determine whether textbooks with their accompanying materials, e.g. teachers' books, workbooks, test booklets, etc would have any real effect on improving learning and raising students' test scores in language tests (internal or external to the textbook).

To conclude, the views of publishers/textbook writers, those contributing to the professional literature, teacher educators and actual teachers' practice of teaching materials can be

synthesized to establish a 'theory' of how teachers can best fulfil their roles vis-a-vis materials and learners. However, it is important to take into consideration students' perspective, too. In-depth exploration of students' opinions and reactions towards their textbook materials would be a worthwhile venture as it can create mutual understanding between materials producers and users.

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APPENDIX I

Evaluation Checklist for the Analysis of Vocabulary

A. Vocabulary Teaching and Learning (Textbook tasks)	Yes	No	Comment
1. Is vocabulary taught explicitly through language-focused activities?			
2. Is vocabulary taught implicitly within the four skills?			
a. listening tasks?			
b. reading tasks?			
3. Is vocabulary practised through meaning-focused activities, namely:			
a. speaking tasks?			
b. writing tasks?			
4. Do these tasks meaningfully engage learners in real-life language use?			
B. Vocabulary Assessment (Textbook tests)			
5. Is vocabulary assessed in limited context through language-focused test tasks?			
6. Is vocabulary assessed within a larger construct through:			
a. listening tasks?			
b. reading tasks?			
c. speaking tasks?			
d. writing tasks?			
6. Are the vocabulary tests relevant to the students' level?			
7. Do the vocabulary test tasks meaningfully engage learners in real-life communication?			
8. Do the vocabulary test tasks reflect the teaching practices in class?			
9. Do the vocabulary tests shed light on students' future language performance?			

APPENDIX II

Teachers' Questionnaire

<u>**Section A**</u>
Part 1: Background Information

<u>Please tick (√) the appropriate option.</u>

Gender:

Male [ ]   Female [ ]

Teaching experience:

1-5 years [ ]   6-10 years [ ]   11-15 years [ ]   16-20 years [ ]   over 21 years [ ]

Teaching experience in State Primary Education:

1-5 years [ ]   6-10 years [ ]   11-15 years [ ]   16-20 years [ ]   over 21 years [ ]

Further studies other than your University degree

Master's in………………………….. PhD in……………………………

Other (please specify)……………………………………………………

Part 2: Vocabulary Instruction and Acquisition

<u>Please read the statements and choose a number from 1 to 5 as specified below.</u>

1. I strongly agree, 2. I agree, 3. neutral, 4. I disagree, 5. I strongly disagree

1. Vocabulary should be learned through systematic vocabulary teaching
    (e.g. memorization of wordlists with their L1 translation or definition).   [ ]

2. Vocabulary should be learned in context focusing on the message
    to be transmitted.   [ ]

3. Vocabulary should be practised through vocabulary exercises such as
    matching words with definitions, gap filling, categorizing etc.   [ ]

Part 3: Vocabulary Assessment

<u>Please read the statements and choose a number from 1 to 5 as specified below.</u>

1. I strongly agree, 2. I agree, 3. neutral, 4. I disagree, 5. I strongly disagree

4. Vocabulary should be assessed …

    4.1. as isolated words.   [ ]

    4.2. at sentence level.   [ ]

4.3   through meaningful tasks (e.g. information transfer, role playing,

letter writing etc.)   [   ]

4.4 If other, please specify…………………………………………………

Part 4: Textbook Material

Please read the statements and choose a number from 1 to 5 as specified below.

1. I strongly agree, 2. I agree, 3. neutral, 4. I disagree, 5. I strongly disagree

Pupil's book

5.   Vocabulary covered in the textbook is appropriate for my learners'

current level.   [   ]

6.   The work done on vocabulary through reading, listening, speaking and writing

is meaningful and engages learners in real-life communication.   [   ]

Vocabulary tests included in the Pupil's book and Teacher's book

7.   The vocabulary tests are relevant to my students' level.   [   ]

8.   The vocabulary tests assess the words and/or phrases students have

practised in class.   [   ]

9.   The vocabulary test tasks are similar to the textbook activities.   [   ]

10. The vocabulary test tasks are meaningful engaging learners in

real-world language use.   [   ]

Part 5: Use of Textbook Tests

Please read the statements and choose a number from 1 to 5 as specified below.

1. I strongly agree, 2. I agree, 3. neutral, 4. I disagree, 5. I strongly disagree

11. I use the following methods to assess my students' vocabulary knowledge

and use:

a.   the Self-assessment tests   [   ]

b.   the Progress tests   [   ]

c.   the Final Progress test   [   ]

d.   If other, please specify……………………………………………….

…...……………………………………………………………...

12. I employ these tests to assess my students' vocabulary knowledge and use

because…

a.   I can collect feedback concerning my students' progress and

organize remedial work (revision).   [   ]

   b. They are quick and practical to score.   [   ]

   c. They are consistent in their scoring (anyone can correct them

      at any time and produce the same results)   [   ]

   d. They measure what they are supposed to measure, namely

      my students' vocabulary knowledge (the words and/or phrases

      they know).   [   ]

   e. They measure learners' future language performance (real

      language use other than the classroom).   [   ]

   f. They reflect the vocabulary learners have been taught in class.   [   ]

   g. Other (please specify)…………………………………….......

Section B

Free Response Questions

<u>Please complete the statements</u>

13. I adapt the vocabulary tests because……………………………….....................

    ………………………………………………………………………………………

    ………………………………………………………………………………………

14. When I adapt the vocabulary test tasks (please specify how you adapt the

    tasks)…………………………………………………………………………...

    ………………………………………………………………………………………

    ………………………………………………………………………………………

15. I design my own vocabulary tests because……………………………..………

    ………………………………………………………………………………………

    ………………………………………………………………………………………

16. The vocabulary test tasks I prefer to design are……………………………..

    ………………………………………………………………………………………..

    because………………………………………………………………………………

    …………………………………………………………………………………………

17. Please feel free to express any other concerns about the vocabulary component

    of the textbook tests.

    …………………………………………………………………………………………

    Thank you for your co operation.

Exploring electronic storybooks to enhance multiple intelligences

Η καλλιέργεια των πολλαπλών νοημοσυνών μέσα από την εξερεύνηση των ηλεκτρονικών μυθιστορημάτων

Dimitris RINIS & Kosmas VLACHOS

This paper presents a research that was conducted in the Greek EFL primary school context and which studied the effective use of electronic storybooks. Emphasis was shifted from simply learning content to the interaction of the learner with an online content in a blended-learning environment. Self-exploration was the foundation stone of self-regulation, engaging the learners in independent learning activities. Children's learning was enriched, their autonomy was reinforced and multiple intelligences were developed. Collaborative learning definitely resolved the 'Gordian knot' of problem-solving situations through knowledge sharing and interaction and opened a window for the development of the cognitive mind. The social context brought into surface a wide range of children's resurgent artistic, visual or acting talents which mediated for the enhancement of interpersonal and intrapersonal skills. The knowledge gained from the above learning process and the way learners were involved had a positive impact on intrinsic motivation.

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Η εργασία αυτή παρουσιάζει μια έρευνα που έγινε σε ένα Ελληνικό δημοτικό σχολείο με αντικείμενο την αποτελεσματική χρήση των ηλεκτρονικών μυθιστορημάτων (e-books) στο μάθημα των Αγγλικών. Το κέντρο βάρους της έρευνας μετατοπίστηκε από την εκμάθηση της ύλης στην αλληλεπίδραση του μαθητή με ένα διαδικτυακό υλικό μέσα από ένα περιβάλλον συνδυασμένης μάθησης (blended- learning environment). Η αυτοεξερεύνηση των μαθητών ήταν ο ακρογωνιαίος λίθος της αυτοαξιολόγησης και του αυτοελέγχου τους (self-regulation) μέσα από μια αυτόνομη μαθησιακή διαδικασία. Οι γνώσεις των παιδιών εμπλουτίστηκαν, η αυτονομία τους ενισχύθηκε και οι πολλαπλές νοημοσύνες τους καλλιεργήθηκαν σε αρκετά μεγάλο βαθμό. Η συνεργατικότητα των μαθητών οδήγησε στην 'επίλυση των προβλημάτων' (problem-solving situation) μέσα από την ανταλλαγή απόψεων και την αλληλεπίδραση ανοίγοντας ένα παράθυρο στην καλλιέργεια της νοητικής διαδικασίας. Το ομαδικό περιβάλλον έφερε στην επιφάνεια μια ευρύ γκάμα αναδυόμενων ταλέντων που σχετίζονται με την καλλιτεχνία, την ηθοποιία και την οπτική νοημοσύνη των μαθητών. Οι δεξιότητες αυτές με τη σειρά τους μεσολάβησαν για την βελτίωση της διαπροσωπικής και

ενδοπροσωπικής νοημοσύνης. Ο εμπλουτισμός των γνώσεων από την παραπάνω μαθησιακή διαδικασία καθώς και η ενεργή συμμετοχή των μαθητών είχαν ένα πολύ θετικό αντίκτυπο στην εσωτερική τους παρώθηση.

Key words: blended-learning, multiple intelligences, media literacies, motivational attitudes

1. Introduction

Electronic storybooks (ES) are becoming prevalent in education as one way to teach students about content, literary features such as narrative structure, cohesive devices, coherence, well-edited paragraphs (app. IIa) and even technology itself (Downes & Fatouros, 1995; Eagleton & Hamilton, 2001; Lehrer, Erickson & Connel, 1994; Leu & Kinzer, 2000, Author, 2002). Relevant research has shown that they offer traditional literacy the possibility to be taught within a multimedia context (Chen, Ferdig & Wood 2003) while simultaneously they assist young readers in building more complete content schemata and therefore reach more complex levels of story understanding. Their interactive features support students in building electronic scaffolds which serve as the foundations on which they develop their digital literacies. Animated illustrations facilitate struggling readers' comprehension (Ertem 2010) and create settings that trigger children's' imagination (Lorien & Lorien, 2001). Glasgow (1997) found that cd-rom storybooks motivated students to read. Matthew (1996) found that comprehension was higher for pairs of third grade children who used ES than for those who used the traditional print versions of the same story.

The present research explored whether the use of ES contributes to young learners' linguistic, cognitive, affective and social development. Its basic aims were to explore the degree of intelligences' development within a blended learning (BL) environment. The term 'blended learning' describes a solution that combines different delivery methods, such as collaboration software and web-based interactions. It mixes various event-based activities, including face-to-face classrooms (FtF), live e-learning and self-paced instruction. BL views the Internet and the Web as integral components of any contemporary educational system (Author, 2009a).

Different forms of ES such as online and cd-rom electronic storybooks were taught to seventy four fourth and fifth graders. There was an initial challenge to engage learners in activities combining traditional and new forms of literacies. The technology-enhanced environment would help participants integrate their traditional writing and reading strategies into media literacies. By the same token, cd-learning would promote students' oracy skills and come up with new interactive patterns combining self-paced, team and computer-assisted learning. It was also expected that new motivational attitudes would emerge out of the problem-solving situations. The research project lasted six months, from November to April 2010 and was realized in a primary school situated in Igoumenitsa, Greece. The design of the research is described in detail in section 3 after the theoretical framework that follows in the next section of this paper. Having described the research, we present our findings and make recommendations for further research in sections 4 and 5 consecutively.

2. Theories of instruction and their use in the selection of ES

The use and design of educational software used in ES is definitely affected by a number of theories. Behaviourists' and especially Skinner's (1968) contribution is obvious as they tend to describe their models in terms of stimulus and response (S-R). Positive reinforcement (in the form of recycling rules and vocabulary items) helped a particular behaviour reoccur. Piaget (1967) claims that we not only learn through reinforcement but thanks to our constant struggle to 'construct meaning', through hands-on experience. His theory of assimilating new information by relating them to one's existing experiences applies to the present study as children were exposed to rich audiovisual stimuli emerging from media literacies.

Moving a step further, Vygotsky (1978) assumes that social interaction mediates for the cognitive development of the individual. In the present case, more mature learners and the teacher-researcher intervened during pair or group work activities. 'Scaffolding' was realized in the form of questions and answers, creative discussions and *problem-solving tasks*. Bruner (1983) sees language as a tool for cognitive growth. Children often receive 'finely-tuned' input or scaffolding to carry out an activity (Wood et al., 1976). Bruner's theory of 'formats and routines' allow 'scaffolding' to take place and combine the security of the familiar and the excitement of the new. This applies in the e-book format where learners listened to stories from different media forms and felt familiar.

Gardner (1993) emphasises the multiple intelligences (MIs) via which students can promote their learning. His theory categorizes their intelligences as such: linguistic, interpersonal, emotional, logical, intrapersonal, kinesthetic, visual and musical.

2.1. Linguistic intelligences

Multimedia and the net incorporate all the elements of skill work, including literacy skills. Computer mark-up languages offer sophisticated tools for marking up text, audio and video (Mills, 2000). Students can highlight, gloss, modify or elaborate a linguistic item if they request so. Education of the citizenship in the digital world as well as a new vision of society based on knowledge sharing are the keys for the transformation towards information societies (Pimienta, 2002). As they engage into online story sharing, the young learners do not just read the story dialogues but they read between the lines. They exchange ideas with their classmates and resort to online grammar checkers in order to clarify the story messages. Children feel like 'little researchers' as they get prepared for a short story writing. The ongoing negotiation of both form and meaning -during the actual writing procedure- makes children feel more like 'authors' than mere writers (Warschauer, 2000). It seems that they take responsibility of their own learning as they compose, share and finally display their short story versions on the net.

2.2. Interpersonal intelligences

Interactivity reinforces the understanding of meaning when it comes to learners' exposure to an online listening text or story dialogue. When the computer responds to the user's input "…learners have a higher probability of understanding what they hear" (Loschky, 1994, p.319). An interactional view sees language "as a vehicle for the realisation of interpersonal

interactions and for the performance of social transactions between individuals…" (Richards and Rodgers, 2001, p.21).

2.3. Emotional intelligences

Additional to socio-cultural context in supporting child's thinking, the emotional state reveals its own bonds with cognition. The two of them are 'dynamically linked and work together to process information and execute action' (Bell and Wolfe, 2004, p. 366). Children have to tolerate their feelings in the process of exploring e-books. Dweck (2000) describes children as having either a 'mastery-oriented' or 'helpless' reaction, particularly when they experience difficulty or failure. According to McNaughton (2003), 'pleasure, desire and emotions are powerful motivators of learning that drive our actions and interactions with others' (p.53).

2.4. Logical and intrapersonal intelligences: a cognitive challenge

Children get rich stimuli from e-story scenes and settings and infer personality traits from the e-characters as "the computer offers communication tasks with high cognitive demands and high contextual support" (Mohan, 1992, p.124). This is the case of 'problem-solving situations' where it is easier for learners to come down to any conclusions through reasoning and close observation as they organize their thinking around core concepts (Medina, 2009), such as location, time, characters' goals and roles. Through this struggle, learners achieve a 'sense of self-control, self-management, self-direction and independence' defined as 'self-regulation'[1] (Bronson, 2000, p.3). Children also tend to think their actions over and over again struggling for possible explanations enhancing metacognition, which according to Papaleontiou-Louca (2003) is 'cognition about cognition…thoughts about thoughts, knowledge about knowledge or reflections about actions' (p.10).

2.5. Visual, kinesthetic and musical intelligences

Media literacies, as we have seen, offer another medium that addresses Gardner's (1993) kinaesthetic intelligences. For example, the hands-on interactivity of navigating through software-based programs with a keyboard, mouse or touch window enhances the kinaesthetic intelligence. Page-turning, for example, requires different sets of motor abilities (hold-point-click) than in a real book (grasp-lift-place).

Visual imagery stimulates mental representations (Medina, 2009; Veenema, 2001) and boosts memory. On the other hand, engaging learners in multimedia activities that incorporate sound files (mp3, mp4, mpeg) increases the amount of information a student remembers and retains. According to Computer Technology Research (CTR) Corporation, people retain only 20% of what they see but they remember as much as 80% of what they see, hear, and do simultaneously (Hofstetter, 1997).

3. The research data and design

The research focused on pupils' multiple intelligences which, according to the authors of this paper, 'form a part of children's cognitive growth'. The seventy-four primary school learners

had not had any contact with school electronic material of any kind before. More analytically, the questions the research addressed can be summarized as follows:

- How can self-paced and collaborative learning challenge the cognitive state of mind in a young learner's context?
- How can the knowledge gained through *problem-solving situations* lead to different motivational attitudes?
- What is the degree of multiple intelligences' development within a blended-learning environment?

The research was based on two questionnaires, a needs analysis questionnaire and an evaluation questionnaire including six datasets of similar question forms. The first questions investigated the familiarisation of learners with ES and the reasons why learners would like to study ES. The proposed reasons were the boosting of self-confidence, the learning of a foreign language in a non-stressed environment, the implementation of new cooperation techniques and the acquisition of Information Technology (IT) skills. Learners had also to choose between traditional teacher instruction and student online self-exploration (or both) in terms of their preferred teaching mode. Furthermore, they had to evaluate various cooperation modes, including individual work, teacher's help, computer's help (video, sound, text) and group work. Coming to the dataset of multiple intelligences, the research focused on MI's growth by examining a number of variables, such as the degree to which students can handle word, word art or computer's audiovisual aids (app. I).

The aforementioned questionnaires included Likert-scale, alternative-answer, checklist and ranking questions and contributed to the quantitative analysis of the research. The SPSS programme[2] helped the researcher to present descriptive statistics in bars and charts. The tools that contributed to the qualitative results were parts of video-taped sessions, group interviews and an observational checklist. During the experiment, the researcher closely observed students' learning behaviour and interactive patterns, gathered data and checked whether students could fulfil certain activities at a satisfactory degree. The researcher, for example, could easily categorise a learner as 'visual' if he or she focused mainly on audiovisual help options. Howard Gardner and the Project Zero team (2001) at Harvard University clearly state that documentation in the form of written or audiovisual recorded observation made by adults makes children's thinking process visible. It forms the basis of the 'developing mind' as children reflect upon their ideas.

A number of tests measured the reliability and validity of variables. Chi-square tests[3] determined whether there was a significant difference between the expected and the observed frequencies in the datasets. Furthermore, a non-parametrical test, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov[4], tested the validity within the variables of MI's dataset (app. I) before and after the experiment. The Cronbach's alpha test[5] also measured the internal consistency, which is, how closely related the set of MI's items are as a group. A 'high' value of alpha is often used as evidence that the items measure an underlying construct, as shown in the table 1 below.

Case Processing Summary				Reliability statistics	
		N	%		
Cases	Valid	72	100,0		
	Excluded[a]	0	,0	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
	Total	72	100,0	,761	14

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Notes: The alpha coefficient for the fourteen items is .761, suggesting that the items have relatively high internal consistency. A reliability coefficient of .70 or higher is considered "acceptable" in most social science research situations.

Table 1: The Cronbach's Alpha reliability test of MI's datasets

A parallel syllabus consisting of four story-based units was taught to the participating students. Students could use CD-ROM material and online resources to work on different non-linguistic subjects without needing to resort exclusively to course books (Author, 2009 b). A number of strategic skills were proved to ease children's online exploration. The pupils attempted to carry out the online story activities within a time limit, setting their expectations high at the same time. This added a degree of anxiety on their performance scale but also motivated the participants to use the computers' help options. The students became even more friendly, open and willing to talk so as to prove to themselves that they could manage well without teacher's help. At times they were more persistent, paying attention to keywords or even combining any kind of information in order to catch 'the thief' or find 'the stolen statue'. All the above strategic skills (expectation of success, anxiety, intrinsic interest, time and self-management, persistency and help-seeking strategies, connecting newer to older knowledge, finding essential points) eased learners' exploration of e-books.

4. Findings and discussion

The presentation of the research findings collected from multiple sources has shed light on the parameters of the teaching and learning procedure. They showed the beneficial effects of self-exploratory study as well as peer collaboration during the study of electronic storybooks. New literacies were introduced into the web-based environment with the teacher's support. The combination of different learning modes played a significant role on the growth of learners' multiple intelligences. The evaluation of the findings is presented in sub-sections.

4.1. Self-paced and Collaborative Learning within a blended-learning environment

Children were observed to make use of self-exploratory techniques to cope with the challenging levels of the narration tasks. The heroes of the story (Digger and the gang) are encountered with unexpected and escalating problems –they are trapped, their lives are in danger, they reach a dead-end in their attempt to escape. The age of the learners enabled

them to incorporate new information into existing structures, according to the Piagetian theory. Each learner carries his own experiences of dangerous situations he has been exposed so far – being lost or trapped in a desert place. In a sense, it seems that the learners are both the 'protagonists' and the 'observers' of the story. They retrieve and 'activate' any 'back-up' memories or know-how of their own past in their attempt to exploit any 'story clue' that comes to their way.

The majority of the target learners involved was observed to be monitoring their thinking, controlling and directing their concentration (app. IIb). Judging from the learners' interviews conducted as soon as the experiment was over, we can conclude that the learners had the freedom to choose whether or not to engage in such self-regulating behaviour. When they chose a self-explanatory path, they controlled their attention and monitored their performance. Their impulse control encouraged them to make their own decisions while having the goals set in mind. Child self-initiated activities may often provide the best contexts for problem-solving and thinking extension (Lambert, 2000; Siraj-Blatchford et al, 2002).

In the case when a more knowledgeable and skilled student took the teacher's role as a facilitator, the struggling learners were more relaxed and more eager to search for a viable solution by watching their peers' movements. This implies that when working with other, more competent children, the struggling students may be less likely to question the experts' ability. They often gain confidence through mimicking the other child or even develop their metacognitive thought by just watching (Whitebread et al, 2005). The observation checklist also pointed that the team members exchanged verbal interactions for the transmission of ideas (app. IIb). Language mediated for peer cooperation and thought-provoking discussion. As a matter of fact, another implication is that *self-regulation* was also co-constructed by the child with the assistance of his peers.

The researchers emphasized ideas of thinking and reflection by asking learners metacognitive prompts during interview sessions. Questions such as 'what did you think might happen?' or 'how did you feel about that?' determined the value of adult use and modeling of metacognitive awareness, including identifying what the learners did not know, generating questions and thinking aloud (Papaleontiou-Louca, 2003). Self-regulated learning is in fact promoted if learners have choice and opportunities to control the level of challenge in tasks, either through self-exploration or cooperation techniques (Healey, 2007). Opportunities for them to evaluate both their work and that of others were always effective, as the learners received their classmates' feedback.

4.2. Motivational Attitudes through Problem-Solving Situations

The view that children are problem-solvers is a central tenet of a number of theorists (Bronson, 2000; Bruner, 1983; DeLoache & Brown, 1987; Piaget, 1967; Wood 1998). This view is closely related to self-regulation and logical intelligences. This was the point where critical thinking and creative thinking were applied in the process which culminated in a product (DeBoo, 1999; Fisher, 1990). Problem-solving is by and large a goal-oriented activity. The current research provided a powerful illustration that learners adopted a more positive attitude to learning thanks to their 'cheerful disposition' and their 'willingness' to act on their own. While listening to their interview sessions, one could easily notice learners' 'readiness' regarding the upcoming cognitive challenges they had to face (app.IIb). Learning

dispositions have been described as a combination of motivation and 'situated learning strategies' (Carr, 2001, p.9). In that respect, the online problem-solving context played a fundamental role for motivational growth, combining positive mood, personal interest and skills. What's more, we concluded that the learners' inner desire and psychological state in a given problem-solving context were determinant to the tasks' completion.

Bearing that in mind, the target learners displayed two different patterns of motivation that reflected their attitude to learning. On the one hand, there were the mastery-oriented students that tended to engage in self-motivating strategies, self-instruction and self-monitoring. People with high self-efficacy—that is, those who believe they can perform well—were more likely to view difficult tasks as something to be mastered rather than something to be avoided. The degree of the individuals' self-efficacy depended on how good they thought they had been before the challenging computer-mediated tasks. They were exhorted to 'stick with it' no matter what the outcome would be. They really seemed to 'embrace difficulty with relish' (Dweck, 2000, p.10). Baumeister et al. (2005) support Dweck's view and suggest that high self-esteem –when students feel competent and pride of themselves –improves persistence.

On the other hand, the helpless students lost faith and concentration on their task at hand. They gave up trying more quickly than mastery-oriented students and blamed themselves personally for not doing well. They explained that they had difficulty in remembering things, in getting the message of the activity and in understanding the unknown words. As a result, their attention was redirected on other activities which attracted their attention. Dweck suggests that such response "impairs students' ability to use their mind effectively" (Dweck, 2000, p.9).

It was also often the case when, we noted down many areas of conflict in the conversation between the pair members. There were times when we observed arguments and counter arguments regarding which way the pair should follow. This was a direct implication that the children had different goals in mind when they worked towards the unfolding of the same kind of mystery.

Moving towards mystery solution, the target learners did not have any particular plans in mind. What they did, was that they tried out different paths to 'find their way out' but in no particular order. They may often have repeated themselves for no particular reason. This was proved to be the simplest planning strategy, that of trial and error, a characteristic that mainly concerned less experienced computer users. The last ones could not visualize the overall picture of the problem at hand and took to fragmentary moves, whereas learners having more expertise managed to reflect on the aftermath of their actions at hand. In both cases, the learners processed information with the outmost aim to solve a problem. Hope (2002) relates problem-solving to learning, asserting that "when we solve a problem we learn something new" (p.265). According to our observations, it is implied that problem-solving (screenshot 1, below), as a generalized skill, is a valuable learning-mental activity that contributes to children's holistic development.

Trapped inside	The trapdoor	Escape route

Screenshot 1: This picture shows an electronic storybook consisting of three parts. The readers were engaged on exploratory techniques to unfold the mystery (problem-solving situation)
(http://www.bbc.co.uk/schools/digger/9_11entry/9_11.shtml)

In the context of problem-solving, there were certain children who were unwilling to cooperate with the classmates the teacher told them to. What they themselves reported was that they would prefer to sit next to their friends instead. That was another remarkable finding implying that children in friendship were more successful in problem-solving activities than non-friends (Smith et al, 2003). This phenomenon was observed throughout the experimental procedure and related to the learners' willingness to discuss and constructively evaluate their solutions together.

In the context of a close friendship, children made more efforts to conciliate, negotiate and made compromises because they cared for their friend and wanted to maintain their relationship. Friendship 'is a context in which moral understanding is demonstrated very early' (Dunn, 2004, p.157). Even where the children sitting together were not friends but came to terms with each other, they could easily exchange and resolve differences of opinion. This was further reinforced in novice-expert pairs (Katz and Chard, 2000).
Another remarkable finding denoting the children's disposition to online learning was that certain learners declared their intention to work alone. This was often the case of more competent users who stated that they were not used to working with a partner and that it would be better if they were left all alone. In that case, the teacher consented to that initiative as long as it would be productive and served its purpose. Even in this case of solitary play, children had more time to think and more space to reflect privately, supporting the problem-solving theory (Lloyd and Howe, 2003).

4.3. Multiple Intelligences development

Motivational attitudes were further enhanced by the implementation of artistic, visual and kinesthetic skills. By asking the children to 'draw a storybook scene', the teacher mixed the notions of 'electronic narrative' and 'display'. The learners were keen to access the web interface design and subsequently spent time in 'dressing' and coloring their favorite cartoon heroes. The computer tools afforded the target learners with an avenue for their artistic representation which validated their kinaesthetic skills.

 The children's computer-mediated drawing was a mental 'remaking' and a visual representation of that internal remaking. It showed salient elements of a storybook in a particular arrangement –in a line, ordered by size; and in a particular relation to the maker of this representation (video recordings). Anning and Ring (2004) comment on the empowering nature of children's opportunities to be so fluid in their representations. Children's creativity was supported as 'their body senses gathered evidence' (Prentice, 1994, p.127), *enriching* their cognitive schemata. Children express their ideas among group

members and make 'powerful intelligent hypotheses' (Mathews, 2003, p.01), as shown in charts 1 and 2 below.
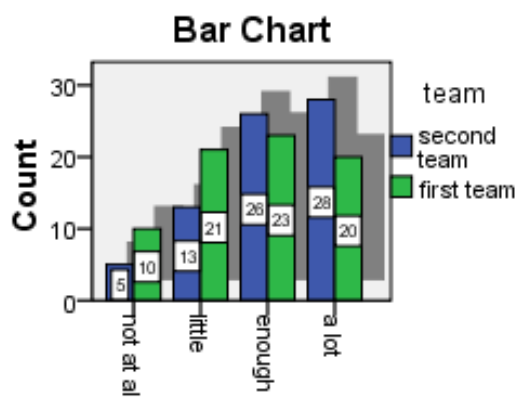
Bar Chart

Bar chart 1 A bar chart of the MI's dataset, comparing the same team's preferences on variable 2 (observe the pictures and videos on the screen and link them with new expressions) before (first team) and after (second team) the experiment
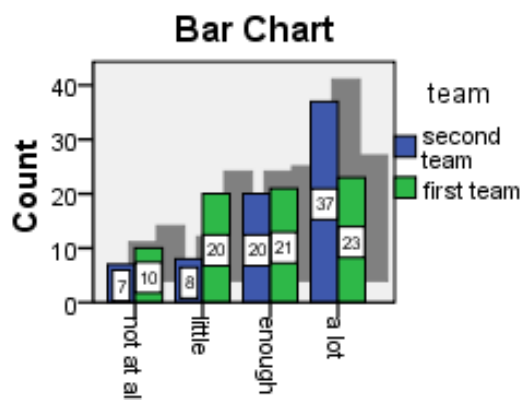
Bar Chart

Bar chart 2 A bar chart of the MI's dataset, comparing the same team's preferences on variable 7 (enrich your knowledge and share your opinion among group members) before (first team) and after (second team) the experiment.

The cognitive act of reshaping an event from the learners' point of view eased the link between conceptual meanings and their visual representations. The target learners had physical and direct experience with the computer. The learners exteriorized their inner feelings to be later transcribed in 'poetic words of art', as shown in chart 3, below. The children were free to draw and color their favorite story scene using word art and painting tools. They manifested their own 'systems of perceiving the world' which are important aspects of the development of metacognitive thinking and perspective taking (Brooks, 2004).
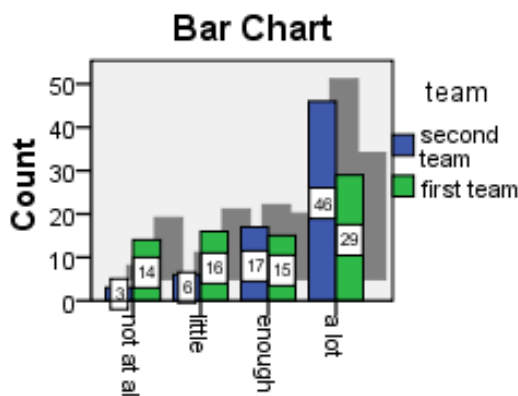
Bar chart 3: A bar chart of the MI's dataset, comparing the same team's preferences on variable 3 (draw and color by clicking on icons) before (first team) and after (second team) the experiment.

Going beyond the intrapersonal reflection, the most widely praised feature of these three-dimensional 'art words' was that the learners found an opportunity to discuss their designs along with their partners. Through drawing and coloring, the young children could express their intentional theories visually. Vygotsky (1978) would regard them as thinking aloud, as well as for sharing with the pair or group members. When the team members gathered around the screen, they had time to pose questions, to test hypotheses, to analyze a situation and to engage in verbal reasoning. Judging from the above facts, we can imply that drawing is a powerful tool not only because "it is immediately holistic and interactive in ways that writing is not" but also because it is "the mediator for an interpersonal dialogic exchange" (Brooks, 2004, p.47-9).

Apart from the visual mode that had a central place in learners' communication, other modes had their own impact as forms of representation and communication as well. Sound, whether in the form of 'soundtrack', 'music' or 'background noise' accompanying a storybook's scene is one of these. The learners could click on words putting them in the right order to form a verse, as if they were composers. They had also the chance to choose their favourite kind of music by playing their favourite disc songs, like amateur deejays. Karaoke software tools helped the pupils to plug their microphones and sing their favourite kids' songs in real time! The learners were finally free to show off by using body movements and facial expressions like dancers.

Exercising bodily and kinaesthetic intelligences was also the case when the children performed a scene, pretending to be the protagonists of the e-book. Like drawing, pretend play also contributed to interaction and verbal communication between two or more 'actors'. Improvisation helped to overcome communication breakdowns. The recordings certified that the 'promising actors' were the embodiment of dexterous actions that manifested many aspects of emotional outbursts, such as cheering, enthusiasm or exasperation.

In that respect, it can also be implied that children's engagement in 'high quality' pretence may assist their linguistic development along with their motor intelligences. Bergen suggests: "Pretend play requires the ability to transform actions symbolically, it is furthered

by interactive social dialogue and negotiation, and it involves role-taking, script knowledge and improvisation" (Bergen, 2002, p.2).

4.4. Limitations of the research

The above findings are based on a large scale project (seventy four pupils) lasting for a long period (six months). Due to the above reason, another colleague could definitely help the teacher and share the work load. He or she could come up with solutions regarding the handling of the video recording or the note-keeping burden. This would put an end to the restless situation and fuss caused by the simultaneous classmates' questions. Moreover, the shortage of peripheral units such as printers deprived learners from having their 'work product' at hand every time they needed to. On the contrary, they had to transcribe their finished product on a paper. The teacher was not in position to use the audiovisual aids, such as the overhead projector, the display panel and the whiteboard, as much as he wished to, due to space limitations. What's more, the server malfunction did not allow for the display of an activity to all the computer screens in real time.

The hourly teaching sessions were actually limited up to thirty minutes each time. This did not let learners complete their online activities on time but forced them to 'store' their semi-completed activities on the computer memory. Furthermore, there was a 'hit-and-run' attitude on the part of the learners where lack of time prevented them from embarking on sustained storybook exploitation over a certain period of time. Robson and Hargreaves (2005) emphasize the importance of time for activities and time for children to talk about their thinking.

5. Concluding remarks and recommendations for further research

More research is necessary so that students' gradual improvement on a longer-term basis can be investigated. Children may enhance their intelligences further endorsing the role of a 'researcher'. Specifically, in a future endeavour during the preparation stage, the target learners may surf on the net, locate their desired storybook activities, and plan their favourite tasks or even back up their initial research with alternative and optional choices. The whole idea is about children being 'ready, willing and able…a combination of inclination, sensitivity and relevant skill and knowledge' (Carr, 2001, p.21). In this case, the learners should start observing internet sites containing e-books and recording the diversity of genres, such as comedy, drama, poetic or adventurous e-books. It would be of outmost interest to discover the degree of interconnectedness among the genres in terms of common problem-solving or entertaining tasks. Dealing with a variety of genres means that learners would not be compelled to perform the same activity simultaneously on their computer screens due to homogeneity of the task. The learners would be able to select their own e-book as a starting point to talk about a teacher's task, such as the theme, the protagonists' goal or the design of a favourite scene. They would automatically be in charge of their own learning and more willing to take initiatives in the actual storybook exploration. This new endeavour would be easily implemented in the English curriculum as long as teacher approves of learners' e-books choices dealing with real-life situations. These have to be in accordance with the criteria of homogeneity regarding structural format but heterogeneity and diversity in terms of thematic areas, goal orientation, contextual information and optional solutions. In real life, children spontaneously discover or select

their own goals, the amount of information available will differ or may be diverse and solutions may be equally diverse. Lambert (2000) suggests that an approach which starts from the child's interests is "aligned with how children in the first years of school prefer to think" (p.37).

The concluding findings demonstrated students' gradual progress in FL learning by exploiting different intelligences in accordance with their learning styles. The combination of two different teaching modes, face-to-face teaching with online learning, formed the basis of individual growth through self-exploratory and cooperative modes. Learning to learn within a computer-mediated environment brings into surface new ways of information display. Video, sound, graphics, animation and text are different forms of media literacies that constitute the cornerstone of children's intellectual growth. Online interactive activities help learners to process problem-solving situations in real time. Engaging learners into such adventurous undertakings enhances learners' intrinsic motivation, overall performance and holistic development. ES did not only help us reshape our understanding of how young learners can be better taught to read, interpret texts and express themselves in a second/foreign language but also encouraged us to reconstruct our teaching and explore new modes of instruction.

Notes

1. Describes learning that is guided by self-observation (monitoring students' activities), self-judgment (self-evaluation of performance), self-reactions to students' performance outcomes and motivation to learn.
2. A computer programme for data management, statistical (%) and descriptive analysis (bars/charts). It is used mainly for surveys by education researchers.
3. It summarizes the discrepancy between the observed values and the values expected under the model in question (also goodness-of-fit).
4. A non-parametric test (not relying on data belonging to any particular distribution) that can be used to compare two samples (the same number of students -74-before and after the experiment).
5. It is commonly used as a measure of reliability of a sample of items such as questions or indicators of which one might ask to what extent they "measure the same thing". Items that are manipulated are called variables (app. I).

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Appendix I

Quantitative research materials

Multiple intelligences' dataset and its fourteen variables

Multiple Intelligences (MIs)
(circle one out of four)
(1=not at all, 2=not much, 3=enough, 4=a lot)

Do you believe that learning English through e-books finally helped you to…				
1. drag the mouse by doing a right or left click, open and close documents, create folders, use toolbar, copy, paste and delete texts?	1	2	3	4
2. spot and observe pictures and images and link them with new vocabulary expressions?	1	2	3	4
3. color and draw by clicking on icons?	1	2	3	4
4. read, watch and listen an English e-book?	1	2	3	4
5. fill the speech bubbles from an e-book scene using the Word?	1	2	3	4
6. learn vocabulary and grammar through games, puzzles, crosswords?	1	2	3	4
7. enrich your knowledge and opinion sharing with your team members?	1	2	3	4
8. cooperate in order to perform a short theatrical scene?	1	2	3	4
9. learn through your teacher's and team's feedback?	1	2	3	4
10. concentrate and think more when it is your turn to do an activity?	1	2	3	4
11. improvise when you take the floor to speak or perform a short theatrical play?	1	2	3	4
12. write a poem, compose an accompanying melody and sing it along with your team members?	1	2	3	4
13. be more decisive and ready to make your choices ? (when you decide upon which way to go…)	1	2	3	4
14. feel very satisfied and happy from your scores and performance on e-books' activities?	1	2	3	4

Appendix II

A.   ONLINE LITERARY FEATURES

Students had to…
1.   Read the instructions in English to gather information about their next move.
2.   Find the right adverb, adjective, phrasal verb or noun to move the story forward. For instance, the three heroes of the story (Digger and the gang) had to 'keep their head down' and students had to click on the right option among four choices offered (find a synonym of this phrase).
3.   Choose their favorite comic story and make their own comic strips by typing their own text inside the bubbles.
4.   Decode images to letters based on a secret code book and form correct sentences.
5.   Print their own story versions and see the results of their actual writing.
6.   Take the role of journalist and write a short report of the story on a word document. Students formed one or two sentences for each story scene.
7.   Correct the spelling and syntax based on software learning tools (ex. Babylon, Ginger it!). These online dictionaries and grammar checkers created correct sentences based on students' spelling, grammatical and syntax mistakes.
8.   Click on the right words (adjectives, nouns) in the gaps to form a little poem.
9.   Writing captions under their drawings (using word art) to describe them.

B.   PUPILS' INTERVIEW EXTRACTS

" I chose to go back and forth the story telling…sometimes we had to go back in order to find a clue we could not remember…this helped us find the right way out…to take the situation under control…"

"I had to move –the story – towards the end because I had not much time left…"

"I could not write the whole story and I had to omit certain scenes…"

"I had to rely most on video and computer's help options because I couldn't understand much of the sound…" (choosing their own way)

"I could cooperate very well with my classmates…I sat next to 'strong' students to listen to what they were saying in English…giving the floor for us to speak…using phrases such as 'what about trying to…let's do …what do you think…is it a good idea to…do you agree'?" (verbal transactions)

"We cooperated together… and we could talk as a team to move the story forward…"

"Great!!Now we're gonna surf on the net and be lucky enough to 'get into' the site I told you about…nice and easy!" (pupils' readiness)

"I did everything on my own because I am too smart…!"

"I know how to use a computer, so I did not have to ask anyone…"

"I mostly helped my classmates but I also got their help in some difficult points…" (self-esteem and self-efficacy)

Introducing a foreign language at primary level: Benefits or lost opportunities? The case of Greece

Η εισαγωγή της ξένης γλώσσας στην Πρωτοβάθμια Εκπαίδευση: Οφέλη ή χαμένες ευκαιρίες; Η περίπτωση της Ελλάδας

Thomaï ALEXIOU & Marina MATTHEOUDAKIS

English language was introduced as a compulsory subject of the Greek state school curriculum in the last three grades of primary education in 1987. In 2003 English was extended to the last four grades while at present, pilot programmes introduce English at the first grade of primary school in 800 state schools around the country. A thriving private sector of foreign language institutes in Greece also provides intensive foreign language tuition and targets learners from very early age. Although Greek children's early start with foreign languages may be considered an advantage, this seems to be lost in their transition to secondary school. Learners in their first grade of secondary education are taught what they have already learned and are required to repeat work covered in previous years; therefore, issues of problematic transition and discontinuity emerge. As a result, they often lose interest in English classes within the state school and feel the need to continue to attend private language classes outside the curriculum. This paper aims to investigate (a) teachers' views with respect to problems related to the lack of continuity and progression in foreign language education between the primary and secondary sector in Greece, and (b) their suggestions for teaching and learning which take into consideration the idiosyncrasies of the Greek educational context so that learners' transition from primary to secondary education will correspond to the development of their language level.

☙

Το 1987 η διδασκαλία της αγγλικής γλώσσας γίνεται υποχρεωτική στις τρεις τελευταίες τάξεις της πρωτοβάθμιας εκπαίδευσης στο ελληνικό δημόσιο σχολείο. Το 2003 η διδασκαλία της αγγλικής ξεκινά από την τρίτη δημοτικού και από το σχολικό έτος 2010-2011 αρχίζει η πιλοτική εφαρμογή προγράμματος διδασκαλίας της αγγλικής από την πρώτη τάξη του δημοτικού σχολείου σε 800 δημόσια σχολεία της χώρας. Παράλληλα, στην Ελλάδα είναι ιδιαίτερα διαδεδομένη η επιπρόσθετη παρακολούθηση μαθημάτων στην αγγλική από μαθητές πολύ νεαρής ηλικίας σε ιδιωτικά φροντιστήρια ξένων γλωσσών. Αν και η εισαγωγή της αγγλικής γλώσσας στην πρώιμη παιδική ηλικία μπορεί να θεωρηθεί πλεονέκτημα, αυτό

φαίνεται να χάνεται κατά τη μετάβασή των μαθητών στη δευτεροβάθμια εκπαίδευση. Ένα σημαντικό μέρος της διδακτέας ύλης της πρώτης γυμνασίου αποτελεί επανάληψη της ύλης της έκτης δημοτικού. Αυτό καθιστά προβληματική τη μετάβαση από την πρωτοβάθμια στη δευτεροβάθμια εκπαίδευση αφού αυτή δεν συνοδεύεται από αντίστοιχη πρόοδο στο επίπεδο της αγγλικής γλώσσας. Οι μαθητές, συνεπώς, συχνά χάνουν το ενδιαφέρον τους στο μάθημα της αγγλικής γλώσσας και επιλέγουν να συνεχίσουν την παρακολούθηση μαθημάτων εκτός του σχολικού προγράμματος. Η παρούσα εργασία στοχεύει στη διερεύνηση των απόψεων των εκπαιδευτικών όσον αφορά (α) τα προβλήματα που σχετίζονται με την έλλειψη συνέχειας και προόδου στη διδασκαλία της αγγλικής γλώσσας από την πρωτοβάθμια στη δευτεροβάθμια εκπαίδευση και (β) τις προτάσεις τους για τη διδασκαλία και την εκμάθηση της αγγλικής γλώσσας με γνώμονα τις ιδιαιτερότητες του ελληνικού εκπαιδευτικού πλαισίου ώστε η μετάβαση από την πρωτοβάθμια στη δευτεροβάθμια εκπαίδευση να συνοδεύεται από αντίστοιχη ανάπτυξη του γλωσσικού επιπέδου των μαθητών.

Key words: transition; (dis)continuity; mixed abilities, early foreign language learning; young learners; Greece

1. Introduction

During the last 30 years Europe has witnessed significant changes in the field of foreign language education. The need to promote literacy in foreign languages in Europe was strongly felt as the European Union expanded and an increasing number of European citizens started travelling and working outside the borders of their country. According to Hunt et al. (2008, p. 915), this commitment to language learning may be attributed to the European Parliament's resolution recommending measures to promote linguistic diversity and language learning. Within this context, plurilingualism became a major issue on the agenda of most European countries and, to this end, compulsory education in at least one foreign language was introduced in the early stages of state primary school.

With respect to the language of instruction, English is by far the most widely taught language in all European countries in both primary and secondary education. On the whole, more than 90% of all students in Europe choose to study English in secondary education (Eurydice, 2008). This means that most European learners study English as a foreign language at school for a substantial number of years, usually between the ages of 8 and 16.

Since 1984, there has been a tendency in Europe towards a continuous increase in the number of years of foreign language instruction; in some countries, instruction of a foreign language is a compulsory subject even from the first grade of primary education (Belgium, Spain, Italy, Malta, Austria, Norway, Luxemburg as found in Eurydice, 2008). Such decisions also demonstrate the willingness of educational planners to take advantage of young children's greater plasticity and ability to acquire knowledge and automatise new skills. According to the critical period hypothesis, the optimum period for language acquisition is the years before puberty; after that time the ability to learn a language naturally atrophies (Lenneberg, 1967). Younger learners have a more intuitive grasp of L2 structures, are more attuned to the L2 phonological system (Johnstone, 2001 cited in Bialystok & Hakuta, 1999), and their auditory processing is better (ibid). Early foreign language learning has also been shown to provide learners with a positive attitude towards the target language and cultural

diversity (cf. Hunt et al. 2005). Their social skills develop and they are confident and enthusiastic, with a natural curiosity for everything (cf. Tierney & Gallastegi, 2005) (For a comprehensive review of language-related research in L2 acquisition see Muňoz & Singleton, 2011). Thus, the assumption is that learners who start learning a foreign language in the primary and continue into secondary school will most probably have an advantage over those with no previous exposure to the language (Hill et al., 1998).

The expansion of foreign language teaching in primary education, of course, does not in itself guarantee success in language learning (cf. Martin, 2000). Research projects in Barcelona (Muňoz, 2006) and Hungary (Nikolov, 2009) cast doubt on the idea of taking young learners' success in language learning for granted. What these researchers observe is that no matter what the onset age of learning is, linguistic stimuli and systematic exposure to the language are indispensable for children's language and cognitive development. This implies that the introduction of early L2 instruction in formal settings will not benefit young learners unless it follows a well-structured programme which ensures systematic exposure to the L2, continuous instruction, continuity in syllabus and smooth transition from the primary to the secondary level of education (cf. Marinova-Todd, Marshall & Snow,. 2000; Mitchell, Martin & Grenfell, 1992). In fact, policy decisions adopted by most European countries to expand foreign language learning at the primary level seem to have an important impact on foreign language learning at the secondary level. Part of the foreign language syllabus previously covered in secondary education has now been moved to primary school level.

With respect to the Greek educational system, Greece aligned itself with the European recommendations and decided on the expansion of foreign language education to the primary sector. What makes this decision a challenging one, is its implementation and the related issues of transition and continuity of input. As English was initially introduced in Greece as a foreign language at secondary schools, consequent decisions had to be made with respect to the expansion and continuity of the syllabus, the coursebooks and other teaching materials to be used in the two educational sectors, and foreign language teachers' training in the respective sectors. It would be reasonable to assume that the syllabus and resources would be modified following this change in policy; in fact, both have remained unchanged since 1997. As a result, the issue of liaison between primary and secondary sector in foreign language learning needs to be addressed in order to ensure a smooth transition between the two educational sectors.

Therefore, this paper aims to explore the issue of progression and continuity with reference to foreign language education in Greece, and it will:

- describe the characteristics of the Greek EFL (English as a Foreign Language) context as well as the current situation regarding foreign language education in both the primary and secondary sector;
- explore the problems related to the lack of continuity and progression in foreign language education between the primary and secondary sector in Greece, and
- suggest strategies for bridging the gap between primary and secondary level in foreign language teaching. Such strategies will recognize the idiosyncrasies of the Greek educational context and aim to capitalize on the benefits of the early start by providing differentiation in the secondary sector.

2. The Greek EFL educational context

Greeks' interest in learning foreign languages is reflected in the Greek educational system, which provides comprehensive foreign language tuition in both the state and private sectors. Foreign language tuition was initially introduced into the secondary school curriculum in 1836 with French as a foreign language being taught 4 hours weekly (Dimaras, 1983); in 1987 this was extended to the last three grades of a few primary schools. In 1991, there was a change in the primary school curriculum and English became the compulsory foreign language in all schools. More recently, in 2003, English was extended to the last four grades of primary education and in 2010 foreign language instruction was introduced in the first grade in a selected number of schools. This is the piloting stage of a new language plan which aims to introduce English language instruction to very young learners. The syllabus for English as a foreign language, and the coursebooks state schools use, are approved by the Pedagogical Institute. This is a state educational institute which belongs to the Ministry of Education, Life Long Learning and Religious Affairs. The Pedagogical Institute aims primarily to provide advice with respect to educational policies and innovations. It is responsible for scientific research, the design and development of instructional materials, the design and implementation of teacher training seminars and various educational projects in Greece.

An intriguing characteristic of EFL education in Greece is that the vast majority of parents choose to intensify young learners' foreign language education and are willing to pay for private tuition alongside state school instruction. Thus, there is a thriving private sector of foreign language institutes which provide intensive foreign language tuition to students as young as 8 years old or even younger. The ultimate goal of this intensification of foreign language studies is to enable learners to obtain language certificates, as future career development is considered to be inextricably linked to certified knowledge of foreign languages. The introduction of foreign language instruction in the early state primary education was expected to limit or even replace private language tuition. Far from such expectations, however, the number of private language institutes in Greece more than tripled between the years 1985 and 2000 as private language tuition seems to have become the norm rather than the exception (Mattheoudakis & Alexiou, 2009). The data of the Ministry of Education show that currently there are more than 7,350 language schools in the country. The fact is that state schools provide fewer contact hours and less intensive courses than private language institutes; this may be one of the reasons why parents tend to believe that foreign languages are better learned at private language institutes. Tables 1 and 2 overlead show a comprehensive breakdown of contact hours in state schools and private language institutes.

Due to several factors relating to students' tutorial schooling outside the state school system, (e.g., differences in the age of entry, differences in contact hours, lack of standardization in the services provided), to parents' socio-economic status (Mattheoudakis & Alexiou, 2009), but also to variability in the students' rate of learning, children's proficiency in English varies widely; thus, by the end of their primary school education, several of them may be holders of two or three language certificates (at A1, A2 or even B1 level, according to the Common European Framework of Reference) (Mattheoudakis & Nicolaidis, 2005). All the above factors, however, create difficulties when it comes to placement and assessement in secondary education.

School year	Age	Contact hours
3rd primary	8	3
4th primary	9	3
5th primary	10	3
6th primary	11	3
1st junior high school	12	3
2nd junior high school	13	2
3rd junior high school	14	2
1st senior high school	15	3
2nd senior high school	16	2
3rd senior high school	17	2

Table 1. School grades during which English is taught in mainstream state schools, age of students and contact hours per week for each grade

Level	Age	Contact hours
Junior	8	3
A elementary	9	3-4
B elementary	10	3-4
C senior	11	3-5
D senior	12	5-6
First Certificate of English	13	6
Proficiency 1	14	6-7
Proficiency 2	15	6-7

Table 2. Levels of English taught in private language institutes, approximate age of students and contact hours per week for each level

To be more specific, young learners at Greek state primary schools are expected to cover a series of three coursebooks (Sepirgioti et al 1998; Sepirgioti et al 1999; Sepirgioti et al 2006) over the last three grades of their primary education, respectively (grades 4, 5, and 6), while for the first year of English language instruction (grade 3 of primary school), teachers are allowed to choose a beginners' book for young learners from a state-approved list of commercially available coursebooks. Such materials and the syllabus aim to take learners up to the elementary level. In the secondary sector, English language teachers are provided with a long list of state-approved coursebooks – by both international and local publishers – and are required to choose a coursebook according to the linguistic and cognitive needs of their students. Teachers are expected to assess learners' foreign language competence upon entering secondary school; this is commonly done by means of a placement test specially designed by teachers themselves. On the basis of the test results, learners are streamed in two levels: elementary or intermediate. However, it has to be noted that the results are often misleading and unreliable as learners may choose to underperform in order to be placed at a lower level class and thus achieve higher grades. Moreover, learners' assessment does not take into consideration their previous language learning experience in private institutes; hence, the placement test is usually undemanding for the majority of the students.

Regarding English language teachers' qualifications in primary schools, they are all graduates of a university department of English Language and Literature; their degree actually entitles

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them to teach in both the primary and secondary sector. This is different from what happens in other countries (cf. Bolster, Balandier-Brown & Rea-Dickins 2004) where generalist teachers are responsible for the teaching of foreign languages in the primary sector. Teachers of English in Greece are expected to be highly proficient in the language they teach and quite well versed in current teaching methodologies. However, university courses in methodology seem to place more emphasis on raising student teachers' awareness of different methods and approaches to language teaching rather than providing an educational background of pedagogical principles (e.g. pedagogical theories, frameworks and practices supported by Piaget, Vygotsky, Montessori, Bruner, Donaldson, Freire, etc.). Contrary to what might be expected, the introduction of English language teaching in primary education has had very little influence on the programme of studies of the relevant university departments; consequently, even today, the pedagogical education of English language teachers seems to be quite limited.

3. The transition from primary to secondary education

The transition from primary to secondary education seems to be much more challenging in the Greek foreign language teaching context than in any other European country because of the extended foreign language teaching private sector in Greece (cf. Mattheoudakis & Alexiou, 2009). Even though the intensification of foreign language studies is mainly due to private tuition outside the school system, realistically one might expect that the state system would take it into consideration and build on it so as to help learners achieve their learning goals faster and earlier. However, whatever benefits young learners are supposed to gain in primary education, due to this early instruction scheme and parallel private tuition, are likely to be lost when they move on to secondary education.

Generally, language teachers in secondary schools are confronted with mixed-ability classes, and these may include highly proficient language learners but also immigrant students who have just moved to Greece and have never been exposed to English before. In view of this wide variety of foreign language learning experience, teachers often choose to ignore the relatively proficient or advanced learners and focus instead on the language needs of the weaker ones; language teachers are strongly encouraged by school advisers to adopt such teaching approaches. Consequently, learners in their first year of secondary education are taught what they have already learned and are often treated as absolute beginners (personal communication with foreign language teachers' advisers). As a result, they feel the need to continue attending private language classes so as to further develop their foreign language knowledge and skills. Due to all the above, language learning in state schools becomes a demotivating and frustrating experience for the vast majority of learners.

When learners move from primary to secondary school, they also experience important changes in methodology and teaching approaches. As primary learners, they are instructed mainly through games, songs, stories, rhymes and playful activities. Limited homework is assigned and learners are informally and alternatively assessed, for example through portfolios and projects. When in secondary school, teaching becomes more formal, assessment is systematic and quite demanding, grammar is taught explicitly, the pace of the lesson is faster, and there may be a huge amount of homework and rote learning activities assigned (cf. Boodhoo, 2005). As learning of a foreign language in the secondary school is 'serious business', interaction is very limited and all this may result in students feeling demotivated. It is obvious that teaching English in a Greek secondary school is a complex and challenging task for English language teachers: they are required to find effective ways

to teach their mixed-ability classes but also to sustain and further develop students' interest in attending their classes (cf. Cameron, 2003).

4. Aims

The aim of this paper is to investigate teachers' views concerning the transition of Greek learners from primary to secondary education. Their views are expected to shed light on the problem of discontinuity viewed in the Greek EFL context and several implications are expected to emerge and lead to useful recommendations. It has to be noted that teachers' views may not necessarily coincide with those of their students; yet, the instructors' opinions represent one perspective on current foreign language education in Greece.

Our assumptions were that (a) there is an unsuccessful transition from elementary to secondary school; (b) as a result, there is discontinuity in learning because of repetition; (c) due to this repetition, learners' motivation is lower in secondary school.

5. Method

Participants

The research was carried out in 2008 and data was collected from 50 Greek state school teachers of English. All of them had worked in primary schools but were later appointed in the secondary sector; therefore, they had experience in both educational contexts and were able to form an opinion regarding the issue of transition from primary to secondary school as well as the teaching syllabi. At the time the study was conducted, the participants were teaching in various parts of the country. Most of the respondents – 46 – were female teachers. Their age ranged between 21 and 51 years (mean age: 29.6) and thus the length of teaching experience varied widely – between 1 and 27 years (mean length of experience: 7 years). Regarding their educational background, 35 teachers were holders of a B.A. degree in English Language and Literature and only 15 teachers had completed postgraduate studies, either in Greece or abroad.

Instruments

The instrument used for the present study was a 34-item survey written in English which included 33 Likert-type statements and 1 open-ended question (see Appendix I). In designing and constructing the questionnaire, general suggestions proposed by Dörnyei (2003) were taken into consideration. To be more specific, the questionnaire included clear instructions and simple statements so as to facilitate and motivate the participants to complete it. In most cases, learners were required to circle the appropriate answer and in a few cases they needed to answer using minimal wording. The advantage of closed questions over open-ended ones is that they make the processing of the results a lot more manageable (Bell, 1993; Dörnyei, 2003).

The questionnaire was distributed via email or personal contact. It required only 5-10 minutes for its completion and yielded both quantitative and qualitative data. The Likert-type statements were classified into six thematic areas aiming to elicit information on practising teachers' views regarding (a) the syllabus of English language teaching in the primary and secondary sector, (b) learners' motivation, (c) the coursebooks used in both primary and secondary schools, (d) the issue of private language institutes, (e) the teaching

methods used in the foreign language classroom in both primary and secondary schools, and (f) the issue of learners' transition from primary to secondary school. Teachers had to indicate their answers by choosing one of the five possible answers: "strongly agree", "agree", "neither agree nor disagree", "disagree", "strongly disagree". The open-ended question required teachers to provide further insights on the issue of learners' transition.

6. Results

A total of 50 questionnaires were analyzed. Due to space limitations, only the main findings are presented and discussed in the present paper. Similarly, the results provided represent the answers chosen by the majority of teachers; the rest of the responses selected can be seen in Appendix I. The open-ended question simply required teachers to express their opinion, beliefs, or comments on any of the issues raised in the questionnaire. Their answers revealed concerns and worries about the state of foreign language education in Greece and their comments actually touch upon four interrelated issues:

a) Greek learners' transition in English language classes from primary to secondary education
b) repetition and lack of continuity in the English language syllabus
c) learners' motivation in learning English within the state school system
d) mixed-ability learners in English language classes

Along with the quantitative data, teachers' responses to the open-ended question will be presented and discussed.

A. Syllabus

For the analysis of the quantitative results, frequencies were calculated and descriptive statistics were conducted. As already noted, there are five possible answers, among which teachers could choose: "strongly agree", "agree", "neither agree nor disagree", "disagree", "strongly disagree"; however, in the descriptive analysis of the results, we chose to report the percentages of the first two and the last two choices, respectively, together. We recognize that this way of presentation may be less accurate; however, it has been chosen because it allows us to have a clearer picture of teachers' views on the issues examined.

Initially, teachers were asked to indicate whether the syllabus of English language in the last grade of primary school is similar to that of the first grade of secondary school. A relative majority of teachers (46%) agreed that there are a lot of similarities in the syllabi of those two years while 26% disagreed. The second statement required teachers to reflect on the effectiveness of the transition in the syllabus between those two grades. The majority of them (56%) believe that this transition is unsuccessful and only 22% stated the opposite.

In response to the claim that there is no progress in the syllabus from the last grade of primary school to the first grade of secondary school, 58% of the respondents agreed that there is no actual progress; only 16% of the teachers thought that there is some progress in the syllabus. At the same time, however, 52% of the teachers disagreed with the following statement, viz. "The syllabus of the coursebook at the first grade of secondary school should follow that of the last grade in primary school" and this view seems to contradict their answer to the previous statements. . This prima facie contradiction may be explained as follows: teachers know that the level of the coursebook used in the final grade of primary

school is much lower than most learners' level of proficiency; it is therefore possible that they do not consider it appropriate to follow it in secondary school. Finally, to the statement concerning continuity in the syllabus between primary and secondary school, 50% replied that there is a lack of continuity, while 26% disagreed.

The following comment may be indicative of teachers' feelings:

"I can only assume what they were taught. I base my assumptions on my students' current level of knowledge as well as on discussions we have about it. As long as children keep attending private language classes, it is impossible to know exactly what everybody has been taught. We can only observe the students' progress; we cannot be sure of the syllabus covered".

B. Learners

The second group of statements aimed to elicit teachers' views regarding learners' motivation. In response to the suggestion that learners' motivation is higher when they enter secondary school, 42% of the teachers indicated that indeed it is higher while 32% of the respondents thought it was lower. With respect to the reason lying behind learners' low motivation, 48% of the respondents agreed that this is because they repeat material previously covered in primary school while 24% disagreed. Repetition of syllabus and of work previously covered is bound to lead to demotivated and uninterested language learners. As one teacher pointed out:

"There's low motivation at all levels of education from the moment students start attending private schools with the 'excuse' that no work is done at state schools. So there has to be a change in mentality".

Most of the teachers agreed that learners' mentality needs to change. One teacher interestingly said that:
"From my experience, learners' proficiency does not depend so much on the amount of English they were exposed to in primary school but rather on their general mentality and motivation. Stronger learners might indeed benefit from syllabus continuity between the sixth grade of primary school and the first grade of secondary school; for weaker students, repeating part of the material already taught in primary school is an opportunity to revise. The teacher's role is primarily to try and develop weaker learners' ability and language awareness as well as to provide interesting material for stronger learners so that they maintain their motivation".

The next statement aimed to elicit teachers' opinion on whether weaker learners actually benefit from the similarities in the syllabus at primary and secondary school. A high percentage of the respondents (56%) believe that learners do benefit from the repetition, 16% of the teachers disagreed while 28% of the respondents did not indicate agreement or disagreement. One teacher stated:

"Although the syllabus is similar in the final grade of primary school and the first grade of secondary school, weak pupils feel that they do completely different things, whereas high achievers are most of the times bored by repetition".

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A large percentage of teachers (54%) indicated that stronger learners benefit from the richer linguistic input provided in secondary schools as compared to that in primary schools; only 20% of the respondents thought otherwise. Such a view may also explain teachers' response to the following statement which required them to state whether learners lose interest in learning English when they enter secondary school. More than half of the teachers (54%) indicated that their secondary school learners do not lose their motivation in learning English; this may be due to the fact that they receive richer linguistic input and start preparing for and focusing on certificate-oriented exams at private language schools; for those reasons, they probably find their English classes quite challenging. Perhaps the most exciting finding in this section is teachers' responses to the final statement which aimed to elicit their view regarding the optimal age for starting English. The overwhelming majority of the respondents (92%) support the view that English language instruction in primary school has a positive impact on young learners and should remain part of the primary school curriculum.

C. The coursebook

The third group of statements elicited teachers' opinions about the prescribed coursebook used in the last grade of primary schools (*Fun Way* 3) and the coursebook used at the first grade of secondary school. The vast majority of teachers (90%) disagreed with the statement that the former is more appealing than the commercially available coursebooks used in secondary school.

With respect to its level of difficulty, teachers' views were divided: 42% indicated that *Fun Way* 3 is more difficult than the coursebook chosen in the first grade of secondary school, whereas 30% indicated the opposite; 28% did not have a clear view on the matter. This is, however, natural, as teachers in secondary schools choose their own coursebook and therefore this is different from one school to another. It is to be expected that some coursebooks will be harder and others easier than *Fun Way* 3.

One of the teachers commented on this issue by stating: "The major problem is the coursebooks used in primary school – they have not been re-evaluated, modified or replaced to suit the needs of primary school students. The syllabus in the 6th grade is at a much higher level – covering past continuous and present perfect – than the syllabus in the first grade of secondary school – of an elementary level".

Regarding the statement that the coursebook in the 1st grade of secondary school is more suitable for learners' age than the *Fun Way* series in primary school, 56% of the teachers answered affirmatively whereas only 6% found it unsuitable. Moreover, 54% of the teachers disagreed with the statement that coursebooks in the 1st grade of secondary school provide continuity to the coursebook of the primary, while another 14% thought otherwise.

An overwhelming 70% of the respondents indicated that the coursebook they choose for their first graders in secondary school is of an elementary level; this choice probably aims at promoting weaker learners' attendance and learning as most classes are mixed-ability ones. At the same time, such choice of teaching material may lead to discontinuity of input since most of this material has already been taught in primary school and is mostly known to learners when entering secondary school. Unfortunately, this choice is also expected to reinforce parents' and students' decision to continue attending private language classes. Finally, 48% of the teachers agreed that it is difficult to choose a suitable coursebook for

learners of the first grade of secondary schools while 38% of the teachers had a different opinion.

D. The private language institutes

Teachers were also required to provide their views about learners' systematic attendance at private language classes and its impact on their language education at school. Nearly all of the respondents (90%) stated that the vast majority of their learners had attended private language classes before entering secondary school. Furthermore, 40% of the teachers indicated that the coursebook they chose for their first graders had already been used by some of them in the private language institute they attended; by contrast, 38% indicated the opposite. It is interesting to note that 36% of the teachers thought that learners who attend private language institutes do not pay attention in their class and seem indifferent and bored; 30% of the respondents did not share this opinion while another 34% did not indicate a clear view.

The following comment made by a teacher highlights the problem of students' low motivation and relates it to their attendance at private language institutes: "The most important problem, in my opinion, is that students attend private language classes and lack intrinsic motivation to attend English lessons in the 1st grade of secondary school. The weak students in my class are probably as weak as in the private foreign language school. Attending a B2 class in the private school doesn't necessarily mean that the student's English is at the B2 level; but it does make them *think* that they are good enough to attend such a class. Thus, when they come to my class they look down on it and regard it as too easy for them – when, in fact, they could benefit from it immensely … They can't realise that. It is this mentality that doesn't help them to become better learners in my class".

 Finally, 44% of the teachers agreed that learners who attend private language classes are better learners because they have had more hours of English language instruction; 40% of the teachers were sceptical about it while 16% of them indicated strong disagreement.

E. Methodological issues

The fifth section of the questionnaire aimed to explore teachers' views and beliefs about the teaching methodology adopted in primary and secondary schools. A high percentage of teachers (62%) seem to be aware that there are important differences in the methodology of teaching English between the two sectors while only 14% stated the opposite. Furthermore, 72% of them indicated that teaching English to primary school children involves a lot more games than teaching English to secondary school students, while only 10% thought otherwise. Similarly, 40% of the respondents agreed that there is a tendency to follow more traditional teaching approaches when teaching in secondary school, while 32% of the teachers thought that this is not true. Nearly one third of the teachers remained indecisive on this issue.

F. Teachers

The final group of statements aimed to explore (a) teachers' opinions on how to address and resolve the problem of learners' transition from primary to secondary school, and (b) their perceived needs in terms of resources. The majority of the respondents (72%) indicated that streaming first grade learners in secondary school is necessary. In particular, one teacher felt

that proper streaming would provide a solution to the problem of transition: "The transition is successful as long as there is the possibility of streaming learners in secondary school *by ability* …". Her point confirms the fact that although streaming is adopted as a means of student placement, in reality it is problematic, as previously explained.

The next item required teachers to state whether visiting and observing English language classes of the final grade of primary school would help them establish continuity in secondary school. The vast majority of them (80%) agreed with this suggestion and only 2% disagreed. Regarding the idea of having a record of the work covered in primary school classes, compiled by the primary English language teacher, none of the teachers disagreed with it, 86% of them indicated a need for it, while 12% did not state an opinion. Similarly, an overwhelming majority of teachers (a total of 90%) expressed their wish to have a bank of materials, including videotaped lessons from English language classes in secondary schools. Finally, 96% of them wished to have access to a complementary folder with teaching techniques appropriate for secondary school learners. This folder would include charts of progress for each student, a brief description of the personality and background profile and certain qualities to be carefully attended to. Moreover, it would ideally provide teaching techniques suitable for the specific group of learners as well as a list of activities that are regarded successful. This folder could serve as a guide and a useful resource of information for teachers who may be appointed to teach the specific class.

The problem of mixed-ability classes is raised by the majority of the teachers who decided to provide further comments in the open-ended question. One teacher claimed that "the fact that there are no levels in primary schools and all students attend the same class is partly the cause of the mixed-ability problem in secondary schools". According to another teacher, "[t]he problem is more intense in small places. Some students have never been taught English in their primary school years (due to lack of teachers), while others have been taught English either in primary school or in primary school and at home and have reached quite a high level of proficiency compared to their peers".

This comment reflects problems related to Greek teachers' reluctance to serve in remote areas of the country which are not particularly popular due to their inaccessibility. As a result, some schools cannot provide English language classes as a core module of the curriculum.

7. Implications and concluding remarks

Referring back to our research questions, teachers indicated that the transition from primary to secondary education, where EFL is concerned, is problematic since there seems to be no actual progress between the two sectors of education. Half of them clearly indicated a lack of continuity in the syllabus between primary and secondary schools and more than half of them thought that the coursebooks used in the two sectors are responsible for this discontinuity. One of the main reasons for this is the repetition of material and input provided in the coursebooks chosen in secondary schools; this repetition, in turn, seems to affect negatively learners' motivation. However, students do not seem to lose their motivation entirely in learning English in secondary schools, according to teachers, probably because they are preparing for certificate-oriented exams at private language schools and thus they feel they can benefit from richer linguistic input.

It should be clear, though, that although the majority of the teachers agree on the issues above, there is less than 60% agreement among them and in any case convergence of opinion seems to be stronger on the following statements: (a) English language teaching should start in primary schools, (b) the coursebook used in the final grade of primary school is less appealing than that used at the first grade of secondary school, (c) the coursebook used at the first grade of secondary school is elementary or beginners' level, and therefore quite low, taking into consideration that learners at this stage have already had four years of English language instruction in primary schools, (d) this coursebook is methodologically sound, (e) there are differences in English language teaching methodology between primary and secondary state schools, (f) teaching primary school learners involves more games, (g) the vast majority of these teachers' learners have attended private language schools, (h) learners in the first grade of secondary school should be streamed because of variety of levels and mixed ability is a problem in secondary schools, (i) it would be good to create more links between primary and secondary classrooms: visiting, observing, shared records, bank of materials, folder with teaching techniques. With respect to the rest of the statements, teachers' expressed opinions on them seem to be quite mixed with no clear-cut agreement or disagreement (60% or more of the sample).

These results reflect the Greek situation with respect to foreign language education and highlight a number of interesting issues. As probably expected, the foreign language teaching context in Greece shares characteristics of similar contexts in other European countries (cf. Bolster, 2009). The issue of mixed-ability classes in the first grade of secondary schools as well as the wish for improved communication between primary and secondary sectors have been discussed with respect to foreign language teaching in England (Driscoll, Jones & McCrory, 2004; Clark & Trafford, 1996) and in the Netherlands (Edelenbos & Johnston 1996). Also, discontinuity in foreign language teaching and learning is a problem that has been identified in countries such as Italy and Scotland where foreign language instruction was introduced in the primary sector (Papadopoulou, 2007). Similar problems have been discussed by Nikolov & Curtain (2000) in Hungary. Hungarians realise that early language education "may be a waste of time unless secondary schools rely on and exploit what primary schools have contributed to children's foreign language development" (ibid, p. 37). As the authors state, secondary schools do not integrate children's previous language learning experiences and as a result students lose their motivation.

The issue of repetition and its relation to motivation is revisited in many countries. Clark and Trafford (1996) found that many pupils complained and felt frustrated because of the amount/extent of repetition in the syllabus covered. More recently, Bolster (2009), in a small-scale case study involving individual interviews of learners of foreign languages, found that learners who had started learning a language in primary school were slightly more motivated than those who had not.

However, apart from those similarities, the Greek situation also exhibits idiosyncratic and unique characteristics, mainly because of the thriving private sector of foreign language instruction in this country. Greek learners' choice to intensify their foreign language learning by receiving private tuition along with their state language education, has serious implications for foreign language learning within the state school system: the creation of mixed-ability classes in both the primary and secondary sector; difficulty in specifying teaching aims and content for each grade; lack of continuity in the syllabus covered in primary and secondary school; problems related to learners' transition to secondary school and lack of motivation in learning English within the state school. Such problems have been identified and discussed in other European contexts as well; however, in those contexts

solutions may be easier to find and adopt than in Greece, where the problem is compounded, and partly caused, by the 'private language school' phenomenon. The second issue which seems to be more specific in Greece is related to the use of coursebooks in both the primary and secondary sector. Teachers clearly questioned the appropriateness of the primary school coursebooks for their learners and indicated that the coursebook used at the first grade of secondary school is elementary or beginners' level and thus inappropriate for several of their students. Of course, this problem is closely related to the fact that their classes are mixed-ability ones and rarely streamed according to learners' real proficiency level.

Greek learners seem to attain high levels of proficiency in English from a very early age; the number of Greek students who sit an EFL exam (e.g., A1, A2 or even B1) upon completing their primary education is the highest in Europe. According to Cummins & Davison (2007), Greece comes first in the number of candidates sitting for those exams. However, this is an achievement of private rather than state language education and those learners are required to start from scratch when they enter secondary education. This teaching approach is expected to affect students' motivation and reinforce parents' and learners' decision to continue attending private language classes. A way to 'inject' motivation would be to have some sort of assessment along the CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference) guidelines. Such a report or portfolio can indicate explicitly what the primary learners have learnt. Monitoring of progress can guarantee continuity and consistency and coordination of syllabi can facilitate this process. When each grade is matched to a certain level according to the CEFR, the role of the teacher in both primary and secondary school will also be upgraded. As previously mentioned, Greece is a highly exam- and certificate-oriented country, a fact that influences both parents' and learners' attitudes towards teaching and learning. Greek learners attach particular importance to the acquisition of a certificate and are thus instrumentally motivated to learn a foreign language. However, to date, this possibility has been exclusively provided by private foreign language schools rather than by state school education. Although such exam-oriented instruction should not be a priority in language education, it makes sense to allow state schools to provide students with the opportunity to attain language certificates; this is expected to induce motivation in learners, to upgrade the status of the English language class and eventually the role of the language teacher. What is more, this kind of exam-encouraged instruction is expected to reduce learners' attendance at private language classes and thus reduce socioeconomic inequalities among them. As one teacher proposed: "Books in secondary schools should be preparing students for the English certificate exams. In this way students may feel that there is a cause they are struggling for; otherwise they lose interest".

One cannot deny that state school English language teachers are usually better qualified than their colleagues in the private language institute since they are all graduates of university departments, as opposed to private school teachers who may be holders of a C2 level certificate. Yet, state school teachers often feel helpless and demotivated as they do not have access to teaching resources and necessary in-service training. State schools receive limited funding as opposed to the affluent private language institutes, and thus cannot provide state teachers with systematic training and material which will give them the opportunity to develop and recognize, among other things, the differences and potentials of primary and secondary learners. Most importantly, due to their learners' 'mentality' and belief in the necessity of private language classes, state school teachers often feel underestimated or even rejected.

Cameron (2001, p. 106) believes that "secondary teachers will need to find ways to start from where the pupils are". The idea of starting from the cognitive and linguistic level of the child is in line with other researchers' views that teachers should build on learners' previous knowledge (Bruner, 1975; Piaget, 1975; Vygotsky, 1978). Perhaps this is difficult to be achieved in the Greek EFL context as it is hard to track learners' progress. The creation of CD ROMs portfolios (cf. Cameron, 2001) and such initiatives as meetings, teleconferences, on-line forums and reciprocal observations may provide a solution as they can help teachers to acquire information about their learners' previous work and knowledge so as to build on it rather than repeat it. To this aim, cognitive and linguistic profiles of the learners should be made available to the foreign language teacher in the secondary school. The development of a common syllabus with realistic criteria for each grade would be useful and practical as long as it did not ignore learners' parallel attendance at private language classes. This means that teachers would be allowed to become autonomous in the selection of their syllabus and flexible in the extent and rate of its coverage. Moreover, materials and syllabus should be properly sequenced but, most importantly, they should extend and build on learners' varied knowledge.

A final note concerns the issue of teacher development. As teachers themselves pointed out, they feel abandoned and helpless and think that "the feedback provided by the school advisers is insufficient". They stress the importance of attending seminars and receiving training in dealing with mixed-ability learners who have attained various levels of language proficiency. This is considered particularly important for them as they try to maintain their learners' motivation and promote their language knowledge and skills.

The findings of our study bring to the fore important problems related to the issue of transition and continuity in foreign language education within the Greek state school. Of course these are key issues for other European countries as well where foreign languages have been recently introduced into primary schools. What is special about Greece is the fact that the vast majority of learners in both the primary and secondary sector choose to attend private language schools; this choice, although it results in learners' attaining high levels of language proficiency quite early, 'interferes' with foreign language instruction in state schools and affects learners' motivation and attitudes towards state school education. The quantitative data as well as teachers' individual comments and views are quite alarming for language policy designers in Greece. Although teachers' wishes and suggestions for further professional development are very promising and optimistic, serious actions should be taken to address the issues raised.

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Appendix I: Questionnaire items and results

	Strongly disagree	*Disagree*	*Neither agree nor disagree*	*Agree*	*Strongly agree*
A. Syllabus					
The syllabus of English language teaching in the last grade of primary school is very similar to that of the 1st grade of secondary school.	6%	20%	28%	42%	4%
The transition in the English language syllabus between the final grade of primary school and the 1st grade of secondary school is successful.	24%	32%	22%	22%	0%
There is no actual progress in the syllabus from primary to secondary level.	2%	14%	26%	36%	22%
The syllabus of the coursebook at the 1st grade of secondary school should follow that of the coursebook used at the final grade of primary school.	18%	34%	12%	24%	12%
There is total lack of continuity between primary and secondary school	8%	18%	24%	32%	18%
B. Learners					
Learners' motivation in the 1st grade of secondary school is higher than that at the final grade of primary school.	10%	22%	24%	38%	4%*
Learners' motivation in secondary school is lower because of repetition.	2%	22%	24%	42%	6%*
Weaker learners benefit from the similarities in the English language syllabus at the final grade of primary school and the 1st grade of secondary school.	0%	16%	28%	48%	8%
Stronger learners are benefited from the richer input provided in secondary school compared to that in primary schools.	2%	18%	26%	42%	12%
Learners lose interest in learning English when they enter secondary school.	6%	48%	26%	14%	6%
Greek students should start learning English at the 1st grade of secondary school and not in primary school.	80%	12%	2%	2%	4%
C. The coursebook					
The coursebook used at the final	66%	24%	4%	2%	4%

grade of primary school is more appealing than the ones used at the 1st grade of secondary school.					
The coursebook at the 1st grade of secondary school is more difficult than the coursebook taught at the final grade of primary school .	12%	30%	28%	30%	0%
The coursebook at the 1st grade of secondary school is more suitable for learners' age than the one used for students of the final grade of primary school.	4%	2%	38%	48%	8%
Coursebooks at the first grade of secondary school provide a continuity to the coursebook of the final grade of primary school.	22%	32%	30%	12%	2%*
The coursebook that I am using at the 1st grade of secondary school is an elementary (or a beginners') level book.	2%	8%	18%	46%	24%*
It is difficult to choose a suitable coursebook for learners of the 1st grade of secondary schools.	12%	26%	12%	40%	8%*
D. Private language institutes					
The vast majority of my learners have attended English private schools before they enter secondary school.	2%	4%	4%	18%	72%
Some learners of the 1st grade of secondary school in my class have already done the coursebook in the private school they attend.	6%	32%	20%	34%	6%*
The learners who attend private schools do not pay much attention in my class and seem indifferent and bored.	6%	24%	34%	20%	16%
Learners who attend private language schools are better learners because they have had more hours of English language instruction.	16%	0%	40%	28%	16%
E. Methodology					
The coursebook at the final grade of primary school is methodologically sound.	14%	30%	40%	14%	2%
The coursebook I am using at the 1st grade of secondary school is methodologically sound.	0%	2%	18%	64%	14%*
There are differences in the methodology of teaching English	2%	12%	24%	46%	16%

between primary and secondary state schools in Greece.					
Teaching English to primary school children involves a lot more games than teaching English to secondary school students.	2%	8%	18%	48%	24%
There is a tendency to use less methodological approaches and be rather more 'traditional' with secondary school students.	6%	26%	28%	34%	6%
F. Teachers					
We attend seminars on the differences in English language teaching between primary and secondary schools (e.g., methodology, syllabus, materials etc.).	22%	24%	10%	32%	12%
It is necessary to stream learners of the 1st grade of secondary school into levels because they belong to different levels of proficiency.	6%	8%	14%	22%	50%
Visiting and observing English language classes in primary schools would help secondary school teachers.	0%	2%	16%	34%	46%*
I would like to have a record, compiled by the primary English language teacher, with information about English language work covered in primary school classes.	0%	0%	12%	30%	56%*
The greatest problem in secondary schools is learners' mixed levels of ability.	2%	10%	16%	48%	24%
I would like to have a 'bank of materials' including videotaped lessons from English language teaching in secondary schools.	0%	2%	8%	34%	56%
I would like to have a complementary folder with methods appropriate to secondary school students.	0%	4%	0%	30%	66%

(*) The remaining percentage of teachers did not indicate their answers to those statements.

Open- ended question:

Please provide your comments, ideas or insights regarding any of the above issues/questions.

Delving into young learners' attitudes and motivation to learn English: comparing the Armenian and the Greek classroom

Εξετάζοντας τη στάση των μικρών μαθητών και τα κίνητρα εκμάθησης της αγγλικής γλώσσας: συγκρίνοντας τάξεις στην Αρμενία και την Ελλάδα

Areti-Maria SOUGARI & Iren HOVHANNISYAN

This paper reports on the findings of a quantitative study conducted among the learners of the sixth grade in the Greek and the Armenian primary educational contexts. This comparative study aimed to unravel the young learners' attitude and motivation to learn English in two different foreign language contexts in order to construe the impact that the socio-educational context plays in their quest for learning English. The data gathering procedure was carried out with the help of a questionnaire that delved into the learners' attitudes and motivation to learn English in general and to establish whether the learners still feel adherent to native speaker norms or whether they show awareness and openness to English as an international language, in particular. The results reflect learners' highly diverse motivational orientation in the educational contexts of the two countries. On the one hand, Greek learners, in general, have more positive attitudes and a higher level of motivation, but, at the same time, exhibit more instrumental orientation, while, on the other hand, Armenian learners' attitudes are less positive, but, at the same time, these learners show a higher disposition to learn English for international communication and opportunities for knowledge growth, experience and job pursuit worldwide.

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Στο άρθρο αυτό καταγράφονται τα ευρήματα μιας έρευνας με ποσοτικά κριτήρια που έγινε σε μαθητές της έκτης τάξης σε δημοτικό σχολείο της Ελλάδας και της Αρμενίας, στο συγκεκριμένο μαθησιακό περιβάλλον κάθε χώρας. Η συγκριτική αυτή έρευνα στόχευε στο να αποκαλύψει τη στάση και τα κίνητρα των μικρών μαθητών στην εκμάθηση της αγγλικής γλώσσας σε περιβάλλον εκμάθησης διαφορετικό στις δύο χώρες, ώστε να ερμηνευθεί η επίπτωση του κοινωνικο-εκπαιδευτικού περιβάλλοντος στην προσπάθεια εκμάθησης της αγγλικής γλώσσας. Η διαδικασία συλλογής των δεδομένων υλοποιήθηκε με τη μέθοδο της έρευνας ερωτηματολογίου, με τη βοήθεια της οποίας εξετάσθηκαν η στάση και τα κίνητρα για την εκμάθηση της αγγλικής γλώσσας. Διερευνήθηκε επίσης κατά πόσον οι μαθητές

προσχωρούν σε νόρμες μητρικής γλώσσας ή θεωρούν συνειδητά και ανοιχτά ότι η αγγλική αποτελεί διεθνή γλώσσα. Τα αποτελέσματα αντανακλούν πολύ διαφοροποιημένα κίνητρα και προσανατολισμούς στον αρμενικό και ελληνικό μαθησιακό περιβάλλον. Οι Έλληνες μαθητές επιδεικνύουν γενικά πιο θετική στάση και υψηλότερο επίπεδο κινήτρων, ενώ την ίδια στιγμή εκδηλώνουν περισσότερα κίνητρα επίτευξης στόχων. Από την άλλη πλευρά, οι Αρμένιοι μαθητές έχουν λιγότερο θετική στάση, ενώ ταυτόχρονα δείχνουν υψηλότερη διάθεση να μάθουν την αγγλική γλώσσα για διεθνή επικοινωνία και ευκαιρίες γνώσης, εμπειριών και εργασίας παγκοσμίως.

Key words: young learners' attitudes and motivation; English as an International Language; EFL context

0. Introduction

Language attitudes and language learning motivation are believed to be the main predictors of success and failure in language acquisition (Gardner, 1985). Throughout many decades, researchers have tried to explore language learning motivation and language attitudes by following different approaches such as socio-educational, situated, process oriented, from the self and identity perspective, and so on (to be discussed in 2.1.). Moreover, attitudes and motivation are not solid constructs and may differ from one context to another. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to establish to what extent two different educational contexts can influence learners' attitudes and motivation to learn English. More specifically, this study investigates the main differences in attitudes and motivation among the Greek and Armenian samples as well as looks into which type of attitudinal/motivational orientation is more dominant between the two groups of learners.

In recent times, together with the development of English into a language of international communication (to be discussed in 2.2), researchers have focused on the investigation of teachers' attitudes to teach English and learners' attitudes and motivation to learn English with respect to its current status. Since the notion of English as an international language (EIL) is a comparatively new concept, it opens up a new and unexplored research agenda where learners' attitudes and motivation to learn EIL are investigated. This consideration spurred our interest to unravel how the learners' attitudes are informed by among other things the awareness of EIL.

Therefore, it is expected that the findings will shed light to the following questions:

- What are Greek and Armenian sixth grade primary learners' attitudes towards English?
- What motivational orientations do Greek and Armenian sixth grade primary learners have?
- What is the impact of the socio-educational context on these learners' attitudes and motivation to learn English?

It is believed that this study will render important and insightful results due to the scarcity of studies conducted in different educational settings on young learners' attitudes and motivation in general and their interrelation with EIL, in particular.

1. Theoretical background of the study

1.1. L2 attitudes and motivation

In research tradition, the study of attitudes towards a specific language has a long history. The interest of researchers on attitudes towards a specific language is based on the reasons for favourability and unfavourability towards those languages. However, the more typical scope of research on attitudes to learn a specific language is on gender, age or background differences between groups of individuals. Attitudes towards the speakers of the language and their culture are researched in second and foreign language (SL and FL) contexts (e.g. Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei & Clément, 2001; Gardner, 1985).

Two components of language attitudes have been identified: instrumental and integrative (Gardner & Lambert, 1972). An instrumental attitude to a language is mostly self-oriented and individualistic and would seem to have conceptual overlap with the need for achievement (McClelland, 1987). Instrumental attitudes to learning a second language or preserving a minority language might be attributed to vocational reasons, status, achievement, personal success, self enhancement, self-actualization or basic security or survival. On the other hand, integrative attitudes towards a particular language are generally of social and interpersonal character. Such an attitude is conceptually associated with the desire for membership. It has been defined by Gardner and Lambert (1972, p. 14) as "a desire to be like representative members of the other language community".

Research on motivation in second/foreign language learning was initiated in Canada by the two Canadian psychologists Gardner and Lambert (1972) about four decades ago. The main constituent of Gardner's motivational theory is the integrative motive as the most influential predictor of L2 acquisition. Gardner (1985, pp. 82-83) defines it as a "motivation to learn a second language because of positive feelings toward the community that speaks that language". Instrumental motive is another component that affects L2 acquisition and is defined as a desire to learn the second/foreign language for pragmatic needs. The majority of studies conducted within the framework of Gardner's Motivation Theory is situated in SL contexts or addresses those who study English as a Second Language.

Gardner and Lambert (1972) classify the various reasons for studying a second language and identify them as orientations, which can take two forms: integrative and instrumental. Integrative orientation refers to a desire to learn, understand, interact and even integrate with members of the target language community, whereas instrumental orientation, on the other hand, reflects practical concerns: professional and social promotion or desire to study in the country where the target language is spoken.

In the beginning of the 1990s, there was a strong call for expansion of motivation theories as many researchers maintained that the dominant L2 motivation theory proposed by Gardner (1985) was restrictive, since it provided a narrow perspective on motivation (Dörnyei, 1994; Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Oxford & Shearin, 1994). Crookes and Schmidt (1991) suggested reopening the research agenda by including need-achievement concepts, expectancy-value ideas and attribution/self-efficacy constructs in an enlarged theory of L2 motivation. The beginning of the 21st century brought about new conceptualizations of L2 motivation, and the concept was reinterpreted in relation to the emergence of theories on self and identity.

Therefore, taking into account the recent trends of globalization and the development of English into an international language, researchers in the L2 motivation field (Coetzee Van Rooy, 2006; Dörnyei, 2005; Lamb, 2004; Yashima, 2000) have started to examine how the globalization phenomenon and the spread of English affect an individual's motivation to learn a foreign language in general and to learn English as a foreign language in particular. Many studies in FL contexts (Dörnyei, 1994; Kimura, Nakata & Okumura, 2001; Lamb, 2004) show that in the World English reality there is a blurring of integrative/instrumental motives, where learners develop a 'bicultural' identity, which, according to Lamb (Lamb, 2004), incorporates an English-speaking globally-involved version of themselves in addition to their local L1-speaking self.

Many studies in the field of language learning attitudes and motivation have delved into the examination of the relationship between age and motivation (Julkunen & Borzova, 1997; Nikolov, 2000), the relationship between language proficiency level and motivation (Lukmani, 1972; Spolsky, 1969; Yamashiro & McLaughin, 2000), gender differences and motivation (Carr & Pauwels, 2006; MacIntyre et al., 2003), the socio-educational context of the study and motivation (Dörnyei, 1990; Gardner, 1988; Oxford & Shearin, 1994; Warden & Lin, 2000), and, most importantly, cross-sectional studies on learners' attitudes and motivation in different countries (Matsukawa & Tachibana, 1996 in Japan, China and Iran; Tachibana et al., 1996 in Japan and China; Taguchi et al., 2009 in Japan and China). In general, the results of the cross-sectional studies (Matsukawa & Tachibana, 1996; Tachibana et al., 1996) show that in different socio-educational contexts the learners develop diverse attitude/motivational trends, thus postulating that learners' attitudes and motivation are context/country specific.

Together with the emergence of EIL (discussed in 2.2), there arose a need to reconceptualize language attitudes and motivation particularly in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) contexts and to shed light to the learners' perceptions of and attitudes towards EIL and motivation to learn English as an international language.

1.2. EFL and the rise of EIL

Traditionally, in EFL contexts, English is taught as a foreign language alongside other foreign languages, such as French, Spanish, German, Chinese, etc., and it is quite natural that English language teaching is mainly based on the native speaker models and cultures, thus, carrying native-speaker ideology. Language learning materials are native speaker (predominantly British or American) oriented as it is supposed to be in the case of foreign language instruction. To quote Graddol (2006, p. 81): "The learner is constructed as a linguistic tourist – allowed to visit, but without rights of residence and required always to respect the superior authority of native speakers."

The main issue at stake is the discussion of the appropriateness of basing English language teaching on native speaker norms in EFL contexts of different parts of the world, particularly when the learners have either limited or no contact with the native speakers or no desire to integrate into their society. Many scholars (Jenkins, 2000; McKay, 2002; Widdowson, 1998) question whether the learners need to learn English together with all the culturally laden elements that learning a FL entails, since, in most FL contexts, English is merely used for communication with other non-native speakers of English.

The development of English into an international language has been widely studied and the researchers (Crystal, 1997; Graddol, 2006; Jenkins, 2000; Kachru, 1992; McArthur, 1998; Smith, 1983; Widdowson, 1994) in the field acknowledge that English has so far surpassed its national borders and has become a language of wider international communication. Such an acknowledgement promoted the rise of EIL. McKay (2002) defines EIL as a language used by native speakers of English and bilingual users of English for cross-cultural communication. EIL can be used both in a local sense between speakers of diverse cultures and languages within one country and in a global sense between speakers from different countries. EIL is viewed as an alternative to "Standard English", which provides a space where speakers can be culturally, politically and socially neutral (Modiano, 2001). Moreover, Modiano (1999) further asserts that EIL combines those features of English, which are easily understood by a broad cross-section of L1 and L2 speakers.

Those facets of EIL that have been researched pertain to such issues as language ownership (Brutt-Griffler & Samimy, 1999; Strevens, 1980; Widdowson, 1994), identity (Dröschel, Durham & Neukirchen, 2002; Meierkord, 2002), standards (Quirk, 1985; Kachru, 1985) and the relationship between EIL and ELT (Alpetkin, 2002; Matsuda & Friederich, 2011; McKay, 2002; Sridhar & Sridhar, 1992). Research on learners' attitudes towards EIL has been initiated, especially in EFL contexts in an attempt to establish to what extent the learners are familiar with the current status of English and whether they are willing to incorporate some EIL features in their English language learning by being introduced to different varieties of English (Decke-Cornill, 2003; Matsuda, 2003; Sifakis & Sougari, 2003, 2005; Timmis, 2002; Young & Walsh, 2010).

In the Greek educational context, Sifakis and Sougari have investigated the views and attitudes towards EIL that are held by Greek teachers of English; some topics that have been examined are the following: beliefs about and attitudes towards their pronunciation (Sifakis & Sougari, 2005), ownership of English (Sifakis & Sougari, 2005), learners' motivation (Sougari & Sifakis, 2006), and the like. Their studies provide an informative insight into teachers' EIL-related beliefs and attitudes in the Greek educational context. Moreover, Nikolaou (2004) investigated Greek high school learners' attitudes and motivation. What is more, in his study, Nikolaou indirectly refers to EIL as an emerging paradigm. In contrast, no studies related to EIL have been traced in the Armenian educational context, which would at least implicitly try to look into the learners and/or teachers beliefs about, attitudes and/or motivation to learn EIL. Several studies (Arakelyan, 2007; Hakobjanyan, 2009; Grigoryan-Nikolai, 2009) conducted within the framework of a Masters in Teaching English as a Foreign Language programme at the American University of Armenia have investigated learners' attitudes and motivation to learn English as a FL but there seems to be no interrelation with EIL.

The present study, therefore, investigates young learners' attitudes and motivation to learn English and seeks to unravel whether there is an interrelation between the learners' motivation to learn English and their acknowledgment and perception of EIL in the two (i.e. Greek and Armenian) different educational contexts within the EFL domain.

2. Method

2.1. The Context: EFL in Greece and Armenia

In the case of the Greek educational context, English is highly promoted in every facet of everyday and business life, on television and radio broadcasting. What is more, English is advocated on the governmental and educational levels, since English has been chosen as a default foreign language of instruction taught from the third grade onwards in Greek primary education in state schools and is taught for three hours per week from grade 3 up to grade 6. According to the curriculum of teaching modern foreign languages (Government Gazette, 2003), the main objective is to develop *Foreign Language Literacy*, *Multilingualism* and *Multiculturalism*, which are regarded as the three core content guiding principles in teaching modern foreign languages.

What is more, a new *Unified curriculum for foreign languages* has been introduced within a new educational framework known as "New School (School of the 21st Century)" for a selective number of schools (i.e. 961 schools in the school year 2012-2013) throughout the country. Furthermore, a new programme entitled *New foreign language education policies in schools: learning English in early childhood* (implemented within the National Strategic Reference Framework 2007-2013) has recently been launched; in the schools which follow this programme, special emphasis is placed on the first and second grades of primary school, where the teaching of English is introduced for the first time. With regard to the time allocation of English instruction in the schools that follow the new programme, English is taught for two hours per week in the first and the second grades and for four hours per week from the third grade onwards up to the sixth grade. It is worthwhile mentioning that tuition in English is also sought outside the school system and the majority of students attend such classes in foreign language centres.

Such a popularity of English and its prevalence in the Greek community are achieved due to several factors: the membership of Greece in the European Union and many other international organizations and the highly developed international relations of Greece in the spheres of economy, politics, culture and education. Needless to mention that English plays a key role in the participation of Greece in international organizations and affairs. It can be deduced, therefore, that the Greek socio-educational context provides opportunities for communication with the wider international community involving speakers of diverse L1 backgrounds.

On the other hand, the Armenian socio-educational context presents quite a different picture. The language policy suggests the instruction of three foreign languages (Russian and choice among English, French or German) so as to develop the learners' communicative and cooperative skills (Zolyan et al., 2008). English is taught from the third grade of the Primary School for two hours per week in state schools, while the language teaching methodology follows rather traditional practices. English language instruction is geared towards the native speaker model, entailing native-speaker cultural elements, ideology, etc. According to the national curriculum of foreign language instruction in general education which is available only in Armenian, (Syllabus of the subject "English" for general secondary education (grades 3-9), 2010), the learners should develop a deep knowledge about the countries where the target FL (i.e. English) is a mother tongue (i.e. countries, such as UK, USA, Australia), including the target countries' culture, geography, customs and holidays, history, famous people, and so on. Due to English being a compulsory subject for University entry exams,

private tuition is widely popular especially among the high school learners who wish to pursue studies at University level. In contrast with Greece, foreign language centres are not very popular in Armenia, which mostly provide English tuition for adults (Zolyan et al., 2008).

Notwithstanding the fact that Armenia is a member state of many international organizations, such as the United Nations, the Council of Europe, the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS), etc. due to its geo-political situation, Armenia does not participate in international affairs and organizations on equal terms with Greece and other developed countries. The sphere of international relations of Armenia is limited to the CIS, i.e. to countries where English does not function as a working language of communication. Besides, English is not promoted on the social level either, and, therefore, the learners and the members of the wider Armenian community, in general, do not have access to and contact with English on a daily basis. From the above discussion, it flows that the Armenian socio-educational context presents a typical EFL-biased milieu where EIL has no real function.

Therefore, the two contexts under investigation, that is, both the Greek and Armenian educational contexts belong to Kachru's Expanding Circle countries (Kachru, 1982), where English is taught as a foreign language. It becomes however apparent that the Greek socio-educational context provides more opportunities to come into contact with English outside the language classrooms in everyday life; in contrast, in the Armenian socio-educational context, English language learning and use are limited to the in-class activities. It is believed, consequently, that, in such different settings, learners will manifest quite distinct attitude and motivational patterns.

2.2. Participants

A questionnaire was administered to 107 learners (Armenia, N=52 and Greece, N=55) in comparable settings in terms of socio-educational and socio-economic level, age and proficiency level. To be more specific, the learners of the sixth grade of a state primary school in Thessaloniki (population of 1,006,730 citizens), Greece and the learners of the same grade in Yerevan (population of 1,121,900 citizens), Armenia were selected. One school per city was chosen and all the sixth-graders within those schools were surveyed. Both schools were situated in working-class districts: in the Western part of Thessaloniki in the case of Greece and in the South-Western part of the capital of Armenia – Yerevan. The cluster sampling method[1] was chosen, which means that the two schools were judgmentally selected as clusters and all the sixth graders within those clusters were surveyed. The only difference that should be underlined in relation to the two settings is that in the case of Greece, Western Thessaloniki, though being populated mainly by working-class citizens of Greek origin, can be characterized as having an emigrant, multicultural population as well, while in Armenia, the population is homogeneous, consisting of 95% Armenians and, consequentially, South-Western Yerevan is inhabited by working-class Armenians.

2.3. Survey instruments, Administration and Analysis

The questionnaire that delved into the young learners' attitudes and motivation was devised in Greek, pilot tested among 20 sixth graders and later translated into Armenian in order to suit the purposes of the present study. The format of the questionnaire made use of a five point Likert type scale, which ranged from *strongly agree (1)* to *strongly disagree (5).* The first subscale in the questionnaire looked into the learners' attitudes towards English (11 items) (rendering a Chronbach's Alpha[2] = .806 for Armenia and .603 for Greece); the second

subscale examined the learners' motivation to learn English (15 items) (rendering a Chronbach's Alpha = .771 for Armenia and .678 for Greece) and the final section asked the respondents to provide their bio data.

The learners' proficiency level was measured with the help of the Oxford Quick Placement Test[3] (QPT), which was completed by the learners immediately after administering the questionnaires. The learners were given one hour to complete the questionnaire and the QPT. The questionnaires and placement tests were anonymous and no teacher or other member of the school staff had access to the questionnaires or the QPT results.

The data was processed using the PASW 18[4] (Predictive Analytics Software) software. The Chi-square crosstab[5] procedure was implemented for determining differences in the learners' profiles across the two samples. The Mann-Whitney U[6] non-parametric test of independent samples was chosen to compare the mean ranks of the two samples as well as to identify statistically significant differences between the Greek and Armenian learners. The significance level was set at p < .05.

3. Results

3.1. Learners' profiles

As already mentioned, the overall number of the respondents is 107 (Armenia, N=52 and Greece, N=55), while 52.3% were females and 47.7% were males (see Table 1).

		Country				Total	
		Armenia		Greece			
		N	%	N	%	N	%
Gender	Boy	22	42.3	29	52.7	51	47.7
	Girl	30	57.7	26	47.3	56	52.3
	Total	52	100	55	100	107	100

Table 1. The distribution of respondents in terms of country and gender

The mean age of the respondents was 12 years. Statistical analysis was performed to examine and to establish statistically significant differences between the two groups of learners in terms of certain aspects of their profile and attitude and motivational patterns. A significant difference was observed between the two samples with regard to the question where they initially started learning English: the chi-square crosstabs procedure was applied to see whether there was a significant difference between the Greek and Armenian samples. The results showed that the Greek sample differed significantly in terms of the place of FL learning onset (N=107, x^2(2)=49.215, p<.001). Therefore, 63.6% of the Greek sample started learning English in a private FL school, whereas 96.2% of the Armenian sample started learning English at the state school.

Moreover, a significant difference (N=107, $x^2(1)$ = 59.796, p<.001) was also observed in the respondents' current attendance at a private foreign language centre: 80.0% of the Greek sample attended classes at such a centre, whereas only 5.8% of the Armenian sample did so. Nevertheless, in the case of private tuition, the Armenian sample shows a significant difference: 50% of the Armenian respondents attended private English language lessons, whereas only 18.2% of the Greek respondents did so.

With regard to the proficiency level (following the classifications outlined by the Common European Framework of Reference for Language learning (Council of Europe, 2001)), the QPT results rendered that 50.5% of the whole sample was at level A1, 43.0% was at level A2 and only 6.5% of the learners was at level B1[7]. As can be seen in Table 2, the learners' proficiency level corresponds to the set standards (A2) for a great number of respondents (43.0%), while most of the learners' level (50.5%) corresponds to A1 level. What is more, no statistically significant differences (N=107, x2 (2)=.916a, p=.633) were observed between the two cohorts, which entails that the language proficiency level is not a dominant factor that affects learners' attitudes and motivation.

QPT RESULTS	Country				TOTAL	
	Armenia		Greece			
	N	%	N	%	N	%
A1	28	53.8	26	47.3	54	50.5
A2	20	38.5	26	47.3	46	43.0
B1	4	7.7	3	6.5	7	6.5
Total	52	100	55	100	107	100

Table 2. QPT results across the two samples

3.2. Learners' attitudes towards English

The Mann-Whitney U-test results (see Table 3) yielded that the attitudes towards English are generally more positive for the Greek sample. The mean score for the Greek sample is considerably lower (which indicates that the attitudes are more positive) for all the items except for one. The data rendered statistically significant results with regard to the following issues: the importance of English for computer use; the knowledge of English rendering them more educated; the importance of having an English language proficiency certificate for future success; the majority of films and songs they like are in English; and their belief that English is an easy language to learn; the acknowledgment of English as a basic language of communication with people from different linguistic backgrounds. The acknowledgment of the role of English as a means of international communication in particular and the preference for films and songs in English as explicitly stated denote that the Greek sample shows a higher degree of EIL-related awareness.

In the cases where significant differences emerged across the two samples, the Greek cohort was more positively predisposed towards the need for and the importance of English in their everyday life. Moreover, the results reflect that the attitudes towards English were on the whole positive across the two groups except for the disagreement that English is an easy language to learn and that the widespread use of English affects their mother tongue. However, there is also some agreement in certain items such as the learners' shared belief

that English is indispensible for internet and gaming, as well for making friends internationally; what is more, both the learners and their parents across the two cohorts attribute great importance in having good knowledge of English for their children's future success in life.

3.3.   Learners' motivation to learn English

With particular reference to the questionnaire items related to motivation, the respondents were asked to state the reasons for learning English. The Mann-Whitney U test results yielded that the Armenian and Greek samples exhibited quite different motivational patterns (see Table 4). To be more specific, the Greek sample demonstrated a greater desire to learn English for pragmatic needs in the case of statements such as Item 1 '*English will be very useful in whatever profession I choose in the future*' and Item 3 '*I want to attain an English language proficiency certificate*'; moreover, other factors that raise the Greek learners' motivation are external pressure, obligation (Item 6 '*English is a compulsory school subject*') and personal enjoyment and sense of association with common trends (Item 7 '*I like the English language*' and Item *8 'My friends and classmates learn English*').

	Attitudes towards English	Country	MW U test			
			M*	MR**	U	p
1	The knowledge of English is indispensable for computer use	Armenia Greece	1.85 1.42	65.70 42 .94	821.500	**.000**
2	English is indispensable for internet use and gaming	Armenia Greece	1.85 1.73	58.13 50.09	1215.000	ns
3	The knowledge of English will help me make friends with people from other countries	Armenia Greece	1.71 1.75	56.80 51.35	1284.500	ns
4	The knowledge of English will make me more educated	Armenia Greece	1.75 1.47	61.86 46.57	1021.500	**.004**
5	English is the basic language of communication with people from other countries	Armenia Greece	1.83 1.60	61.56 46.85	1037.000	**.007**
6	If I know English well I will be more successful in life	Armenia Greece	1.90 1.89	56.96 51.20	1276.000	ns
7	I believe if I have any English language certificate I will be more successful in the future	Armenia Greece	1.96 1.69	61.38 47.02	1046.000	**.010**
8	My parents believe that the knowledge of English is very important for my future	Armenia Greece	1.75 1.60	58.18 50.05	1212.500	ns
9	The majority of films and songs that I like are in English	Armenia Greece	2.20 1.80	60.39 47.11	1051.000	**.018**
10	The widespread use of English in Greece affects my mother tongue	Armenia Greece	3.43 3.47	50.42 56.35	1245.500	ns
11	English is an easy language to learn	Armenia Greece	3.06 2.42	61.94 46.49	1017.000	**.008**

M= Mean, M**= Mean Rank*

Table 3. Learners' attitudes towards English

	I learn English because…..	Country	MW U test			
			M*	MR**	*U*	*p*
1	English will be very useful in whatever profession I choose in the future	Armenia Greece	1.88 1.45	66.65 42.98	824.000	**.000**
2	I want to study abroad (e.g. UK, USA, etc.)	Armenia Greece	2.37 2.40	55.10 52.96	1373.000	ns
3	I want to attain an English language proficiency certificate	Armenia Greece	2.44 1.58	68.69 40.11	666.000	**.000**
4	I will learn through English more things about native speakers (e.g. Americans, British, etc.), their customs and way of living	Armenia Greece	2.12 2.58	50.53 57.45	1240.000	ns
5	I will learn through English more things about nonnative speakers (e.g. German, Japanese, etc.), their customs and way of living	Armenia Greece	2.19 2.76	46.87 60.75	1059.000	**.015**
6	English is a compulsory school subject	Armenia Greece	2.75 1.87	65.75 42.89	819.000	**.000**
7	I like the English language	Armenia Greece	2.52 2.16	62.36 46.10	995.500	**.004**
8	My friends and classmates learn English	Armenia Greece	2.83 2.09	64.41 44.15	888.500	**.001**
9	It is my parents' wish	Armenia Greece	1.33 2.55	40.39 66.86	722.500	**.000**
10	I want to travel to native speaking countries (e.g. UK, USA, Australia, etc.)	Armenia Greece	1.62 1.93	55.87 54.13	1423.000	ns
11	I want to travel to nonnative speaking countries (e.g. Japan, Germany, Spain, etc.)	Armenia Greece	1.63 2.11	49.84 57.94	1213.500	ns
12	I realize the important role of English in the world today	Armenia Greece	1.88 1.69	58.71 49.55	1185.000	ns
13	I want to communicate with native speakers of English (e.g. Americans, British, etc.)	Armenia Greece	1.67 2.22	46.17 61.40	1023.000	**.007**
14	I want to communicate with nonnative speakers of English (e.g. Spanish, German, Japanese, etc.)	Armenia Greece	1.67 2.24	45.54 62.00	990.000	**.004**
15	I want to browse the internet	Armenia Greece	1.77 2.13	51.15 56.69	1282.000	ns

M= Mean, M**= Mean Rank*

Table 4. Learners' motivation to learn English in the Armenian and Greek contexts

On the other hand, the Armenian sample manifested a higher motivation to learn English in relation to such issues as an interest in attaining knowledge about people from various nationalities (Item 5 '*I will learn through English more things about nonnative speakers of English, their customs and ways of living*'); communication (Item 13 '*I want to communicate*

with native speakers of English' and Item 14 '*I want to communicate with nonnative speakers of English*'); and parental influence (Item 9 '*It is my parents' wish*'). The Armenian sample showed that their motivational orientation can, in a broader sense, be characterized as integrative, because the inner drives for learning English among the Armenian learners have to do with the desire to travel, to communicate both with native speakers as well as with people from other countries and to learn about the cultures of different countries.

4. Discussion

In the present study, the focus was on investigating the learners' attitudes and motivation to learn English in two quite distinct socio-educational contexts: those of Armenia and Greece. The results rendered that in terms of English language proficiency level and English language learning experience, the learners of both groups show a high rate of resemblance and homogeneity. Nevertheless, the number of those who started learning English at a private FL school as well as those who attended a private FL school is much greater in the Greek sample. Such a result was anticipated, because, in contrast with the great popularity of foreign language centres in Greece, such schools are not popular in Armenia. As already mentioned, apart from learning English at school, private tutoring is favoured, which is quite popular and inexpensive (in contrast to Greece) in Armenia, and thus many parents engage their children in private tuition provided by non-native speaker teachers of English. This is the reason that in the case of receiving private English tuition, the Armenian sample prevails considerably.

The analysis of the young learners' attitudes towards English across the two samples showed that the learners across the two groups exhibit positive attitudes towards English, which is in line with the findings of other studies, that young learners hold more positive attitudes towards the target language in comparison with older learners (Nikolov, 2000). The high appreciation of films and songs in English as well as the belief that English is an easy language to learn among Greek learners verifies whatever has been outlined about the two educational contexts (see 3.1), where in the case of Greece, the learners have a greater exposure to English due to the socio-educational context, thus resulting in their positive attitudes towards the language and English-based media. Such positive attitudes towards English and general acknowledgement of the international role of English is also observed in other studies conducted on learners' attitudes towards EIL (Friedrich, 2000; Matsuda, 2003).

A closer look into the learners' motivation across the two groups highlights the general motivational profiles of the respondents. As has been depicted in the results, Greek learners reported having more pragmatic reasons for learning English and related their future career success to the knowledge of English and most importantly to being a holder of a language proficiency certificate in English. Factors such as societal pressure, parental influence and expectations and peer pressure can contribute to the Greek learners' attendance of additional instruction in English and the learners' struggle for the attainment of proficiency certificates. In Greek society, the language proficiency certificate is a prerequisite and a key that opens up many job opportunities. A quick glance at job vacancy announcements in a Greek newspaper will reveal that the vast majority of announcements require a certified knowledge of English.

In Armenia, on the other hand, though the knowledge of English is a prerequisite for many job positions and an extra advantage in general, language certification is not that popular and well-established as it is in Greece. The intentions of those who sit the IELTS exams

organized by the British Council in Armenia are either to study or live abroad. Therefore, applicants who wish to pursue post-graduate studies at the American University of Armenia are expected to sit an institutionalized TOEFL exam.

It is also noteworthy to underline the fact that the Greek sample exhibits a higher level of awareness of the role of English as a basic language of communication with people from different countries as well as their belief that the knowledge of English will make them more educated, which implicitly portrays that the Greek respondents do not view English as a mere foreign language, but as a tool of acquiring universal knowledge and becoming generally more educated. Nonetheless, Armenian learners also acknowledge that the knowledge of English will help them make friends with young people who do not share their mother tongue, but it is believed that this is not so much attributed to their awareness of the international role of English but rather to their recent experience of using English and making new friends on social sites such as the Facebook. Such an acknowledgment, however, can be considered a tiny step towards the development of their perception of the role of English as an international language.

Moreover, there is a tendency among Greek learners to view English as a means of widening their general outlook. Such motivational orientations as travel and communication do not emerge as the main drives that spur the Greek learners' motivation to learn English. In other words, the Greek learners' motivational orientations can be characterized as instrumental, which appears in other studies in FL contexts as well (Dörnyei, 1990; Oxford & Shearin, 1994; Warden & Lin, 2000; Dörnyei, 2005).

On the other hand, the Armenian sample demonstrates a higher level of motivation to learn English for reasons such as travel, communication and interest in different cultures. Such a motivation can, in a broader sense, be called "integrative", as it entails such motives as travel, communication and cultural interest. Of course, it should be emphasized that the term *integrative motivation* is not used in its classical Gardnerian sense; it can rather be defined as the desire to integrate into the global community, with no particular reference group (McClelland, 2000). Moreover, it seems that the lack of exposure to English on a daily basis outside the formal educational context develops a desire to travel and to communicate with native and non-native speakers of English. Besides, the existence of the integrative motive among the Armenian learners can be explained by the socio-economic situation in Armenia; the migration rate is very high and the majority of Armenians wish to migrate to another country (predominantly to countries such as the United States of America, Canada, Germany, Holland, Belgium, etc.) in search of a better job and a better life. This could explain the Armenian learners' desire to learn English mainly for travel and communication purposes. Thus, many young learners envision their future elsewhere and, therefore, are psychologically prepared to migrate. This is the reason why many parents want their children to learn English, notwithstanding their financial state and difficulties. It becomes apparent that they need to know English as a means of international communication, since it will open up better job opportunities and promote mutual understanding, construction of social identity and establishment of relations within the new society.

In synopsis, as depicted in other cross-educational studies (Matsukawa & Tachibana, 1996; Tachibana et al., 1996), it becomes quite clear that the socio-educational context is responsible for designating the young learners' attitudes and motivation to learn English. With regard to the Armenian and Greek learners, distinct patterns of motivational orientation emerge; Greek learners are motivated to learn English predominantly for *internal* use (within their country and society) to satisfy their everyday pragmatic needs,

thus manifesting instrumental motivational orientation, while Armenians envision their future use of English outside their country, i.e. for *external* use initially, in order to settle down and integrate into a new society, thus manifesting integrative motivational orientation.

Such assumptions, of course, need an ethnographic enquiry and confirmation, a thing that would shed light and provide a deeper insight into the learners' attitudes and motivation. The lack of an ethnographic enquiry is not, of course, the only limitation of this study. It is believed that a larger number of respondents both from Greece and Armenia would allow to make a deeper analysis of the respondents' attitudes and motivation and to state that the results could be generalizable of the whole population. Nevertheless, the results of the study were quite informative and provided an insight into the learners' attitudes and motivation to learn English in two different socio-educational contexts and led to reasonable conclusions.

5. Conclusion

The results of the present study revealed that in general both the Greek and Armenian learners' attitudes towards English and its role in the world today and their motivation to learn it are quite positive, but at the same time it becomes apparent that the socio-educational context informs the formation of the learners' attitudes and motivation as the main predictors of success in foreign language attainment. Even though the number of the participants does not allow generalizable conclusions, it seems that in our study, given the different socio-educational, socio-economic and even geo-political factors, the Armenian and Greek learners have developed distinct attitudinal and motivational profiles. What can be deduced from this study is that language attitudes and motivation are context-specific; therefore, in every educational context detailed research on learners' attitudes and motivation to learn a foreign language and English in particular should be conducted and language teaching pedagogy, language teaching policies and teaching materials should be appropriated to the needs of the learners within the concrete educational context. With regard to the issue of EIL, the Greek sample showed a higher awareness of the EIL-related issues due to such factors as the Greek learners' socio-educational and geo-political milieu, which contribute greatly to the promotion of EIL in Greece. More cross-sectional studies like the present one should be conducted in different educational contexts in order to reveal the underlying differences in learners' attitude and motivation to learn English and to examine those crucial factors which affect learners' attitudes and motivation and give rise to those differences.

Notes

1. In the case of cluster sampling, the entire population is divided into groups, or clusters, and a random sample of these clusters are selected. However, all observations in the selected clusters are included in the sample.
2. Cronbach's alpha is the most commonly used method of examining reliability.
3. The Oxford QPT (UCLES 2001) is a flexible test of English language proficiency. It is quick and easy to administer and it is ideal for placement testing and examination screening. It has two versions: a computer-based and a paper and pen version. Learners of all levels and all ages can sit for this test.

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4. PASW 18 (Former SPSS) (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) is a statistical package used for statistical data analysis in order to draw descriptive statistics such as frequencies, charts, etc., as well as to carry out quite sophisticated inferential statistical procedures like analysis of variance, factor analysis, cluster analysis, etc.
5. The chi-square test is a popular non-parametric statistical test used for examining the association between the variables and a large value of chi-square is an indication of a great difference (Hinton et al., 2004).
6. The Mann Whitney U test is a non-parametric statistical test used to trace the difference between two groups. It is one of the most popular significance tests equivalent of the independent samples t-test. We use the Mann-Whitney U test when the assumptions of the t-test are not met (Hinton et al., 2004).
7. According to the Common European Framework of Reference for Language learning (Council of Europe, 2001), level A1 is called *Breakthrough* and is considered the lowest level of generative language use. Level A2 is called *Waystage*, entailing the knowledge of the majority of descriptors stating social functions, and finally level B1 is characterized by the ability to maintain an extended conversation. The anticipated proficiency level that the learners of the sixth grade of primary school should possess has been set to A2-level proficiency level (Basic user).

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Research Papers
in Language Teaching and Learning
Hellenic Open University
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A penetrating Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) *praxis* in Italian mainstream education: Stemming novelties and visions

Εξερεύνηση της εφαρμογής της Ολοκληρωμένης Εκμάθησης Περιεχομένου και Γλώσσας (ΟΕΠΓ/CLIL) στο γενικό Ιταλικό εκπαιδευτικό σύστημα: Απορρέουσες καινοτομίες και οπτικές

Renata AGOLLI

This research purports to highlight Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) effectiveness in Italian mainstream education, as to implementation format, competences and affective factors pinpointed. The crux of the study is closely related to any concurrent local, or global socio-cultural developments reflecting the necessity to conform pedagogical choices to imminent social trends. The research in an upper secondary school in Rome, Italy, demonstrates that learners embrace choices pertinent to their sphere of interest, which are tailor-made and carefully perceived. Italian learners seem to be ready to experience a full CLIL version, as juxtaposed to prevailing national hybrid CLIL forms. The study moreover endorses the view that CLIL is an intriguing learning experience, which offers opportunities for the cultivation of multiple competences by motivating learners and augmenting their volition and sense of self-efficacy creating integral learning personalities.

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Η παρούσα μελέτη αποσκοπεί να ερευνήσει την αποτελεσματικότητα της Ολοκληρωμένης Εκμάθησης Περιεχομένου και Γλώσσας (ΟΕΠΓ/Content and Language Integrated Learning/CLIL) στη δευτεροβάθμια ιταλική εκπαίδευση, ως προς τον τύπο εφαρμογής, τις δεξιότητες και τους απορρέοντες συναισθηματικούς παράγοντες. Η ουσία της μελέτης είναι άρρηκτα συνδεδεμένη με όποιες τοπικές η' παγκόσμιες κοινωνικοπολιτιστικές εξελίξεις αντικατοπτρίζοντας την αναγκαιότητα για συμμόρφωση των παιδαγωγικών επιλογών στις επικείμενες κοινωνικές τάσεις. Η έρευνα σε ένα Ιταλικό σχολείο δευτεροβάθμιας εκπαίδευσης έδειξε πως οι μαθητές υιοθετούν επιλογές σχετικές με τη σφαίρα του ενδιαφέροντός τους, οι οποίες έχουν συλληφθεί και προσαρμοστεί προσεχτικά. Οι Ιταλοί μαθητές δείχνουν έτοιμοι να βιώσουν μία πλήρη εκδοχή του CLIL, σε αντίθεση με την πλειονότητα των εθνικών υβριδίων τύπων του. Η μελέτη ενισχύει την επικρατούσα άποψη

πως το CLIL είναι μία ενδιαφέρουσα μαθησιακή εμπειρία, που προσφέρει ευκαιρίες για την καλλιέργεια πολυπληθών ικανοτήτων παρακινώντας τους μαθητές και αυξάνοντας την μαθησιακή βούληση και το αίσθημα αυτοεκπλήρωσης αυτών επισημαίνοντας την ακέραιη μαθησιακή προσωπικότητα που αναπτύσσεται.

Keywords: structural CLIL, deontic CLIL, epistemic CLIL, affective factors, CLIL competences, Content English Shared Learning (CESL) model, CLIL praxis, interthinking

0. Introduction

CLIL is an epitome of interrelated methodologies and enters the educational arena as a mode to enhance European policy on multilingualism (MT (Mother Tongue+2) by synthesising language competence and content knowledge. The research fosters an *ad hoc* twofold CLIL implementation trajectory (CLIL continuum) moving smoothly from the national symbiotic L1/ L2 CLIL model to the established international CLIL immersion format, aiming to facilitate a more gentle and gradual introduction. The foci of the research evolve around the scrutiny of three seminal features of CLIL implementation that for the purpose of this study are perceived as: structural, deontic and epistemic. Structural CLIL alludes to the implementation format (i.e., CLIL Continuum: pre-CLIL/full CLIL phase), deontic CLIL refers to the development of basic and generic competences, whilst epistemic CLIL pertains to the development of affective factors, such as learners' motivation, empathy, volition and their overall stance towards the CLIL learning practice (CEFR, 2001).

1. Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) as a state-of-the-art approach

1.1. CLIL identity and functional philosophy

CLIL is a "a fusion of subject didactics, which has emerged as education for modern times" (Coyle *et al* 2010:1) approaching thus subject content through the target language and acting as a bridge that colligates learning aspects into a coherent whole, where interdisciplinary element pervades. It is a revolutionary learning approach that brings about beneficial change as being devoid of pseudo-realistic aspects, which learners may potentially face in a traditional foreign language learning locus (Ting, 2011). In this way, learners are granted the opportunity to experiment with foreign language learning in a process of exploring and processing content in authentic situations. During the CLIL process learners activate their content schemata (namely, background knowledge), in order to perceive the nature of subject content that in turn they elaborate and reproduce through an ameliorated L2 competence (Caplen-Spence, 2011). The starting point involves both L1 (first language), as to the content schemata and L2 (target language), as to the language medium. The final objective is to approach content both cognitively and linguistically in L2, which marks the passage from L1 semi- dependence to total independence boosting learner autonomy in a metamorphic process, as shown in Figure 1.1 (Agolli, 2012)

CLIL, despite a versatile identity, is heteroglossic as well (Lorenzo et al, 2009). The dominance of English as a CLIL medium is overwhelming and this naturally leads to a new acronym: CEIL (Content-and -English Integrated Learning), embraced by Dalton- Puffer reflecting the identity of CLIL even in this research (2011). English CLIL (CEIL) though, in many cases, has been considered an evidence of Linguistic Imperialism being in sharp

contrast to the notion of multilingual promotion (Dalton-Puffer, 2011). Indicative is the case of Malaysia where English CLIL introduction received a fierce social reaction being deemed a national threat, as it could acquire a hegemonic position (Mehisto *et al*, 2008). The Malaysian case, according to some researchers, mirrors the attitude of cynical Susans and doubting Thomases against this educational innovation (Mehisto *et al*, 2008).
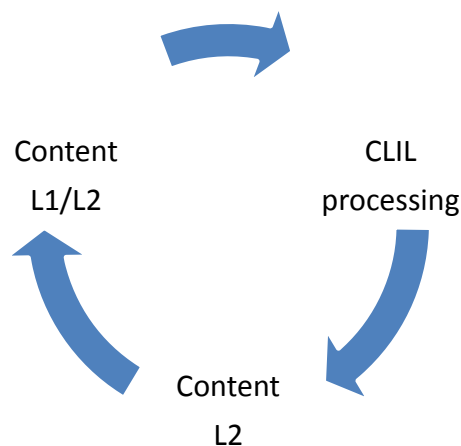
Content
L1/L2

CLIL
processing

Content
L2

Figure 1.1 CLIL Metamorphic Process

1.2. CLIL as a medium of globalization and cosmopolitanism through international models

Despite the recent booming interest, CLIL is not a new mode of communicating content in a foreign language, as it makes its debut during the Roman Empire that by having conquered a large Greek territory, felt the necessity to provide an educational curriculum in the target language (Coyle *et al,* 2010). The Roman Empire conjures up the actual globalization process that views mobility as a pragmatic openness to diverse lifestyles and detachment from the nation state (Kumaravadivelu, 2011). A society deprived of a multilingual policy would result in being monochromatic in its language use and thought.

CLIL, as a fruit of globalization, is an episteme of Bilingual Education (BE) that evolved in Canada in the 1960s out of the need to teach the other official language (i.e. French) to the Canadian English-speaking majority population (Cummins, 1999; Lasagabaster and Sierra, 2010). Alternatively, Content-Based Instruction (CBI) that "changed the focus from teaching language in isolation to its integration with disciplinary content" in school contexts (Kaufman and Crandall, 2005:11) evolved in the USA. However, an incrementing demand for dual-language programs (i.e., bilingual programs), as compared to CLIL ones, has been recently evidenced as a path towards more promising careers (Crystal, 2012; Short, 2011). The international interest has brought in other acronyms compatible with CLIL, such as: EMILE (Enseignement d'une Matière par l'Intégration d'une Langue Étrangère) in French, or ALID (Apprendimento di Lingua Integrato nella Disciplina) in Italian and AICLE in Spanish (Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras) (Eurydice, 2006).

1.3. CLIL conceptual framework

Though proliferating the status of CLIL may be, there is a dearth of grounded methodology, so "combining different methodologies in *a mutualistic entente[1]*" is ideal for CLIL contexts

(Llinares and Morton, 2010: 62). CLIL therefore espouses versatile values of EFL (English as a Foreign Language) methodologies blurring their boundaries. It functions on the basis of the 4Cs framework (i.e., Culture, Communication, Content and Cognition) (Coyle *et al* (2010) embedded in a relevant Context, which calls for an enriched framework (i.e., 5Cs).
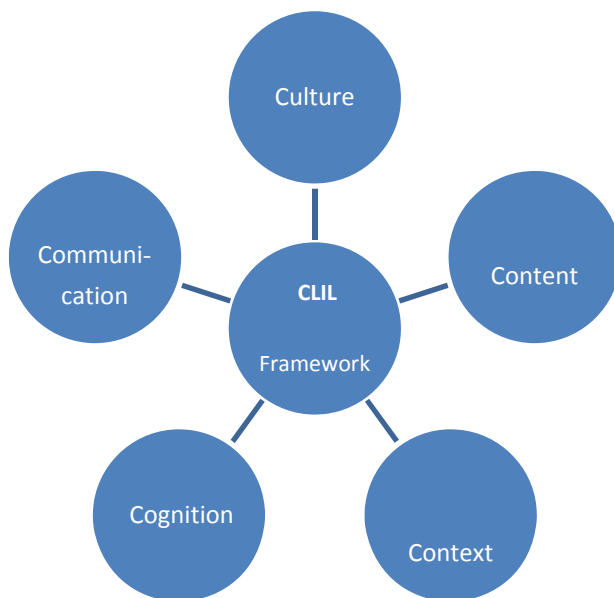
Figure 1.2 CLIL Conceptual Framework

1.3.1. Culture-oriented CLIL

The multicultural and intercultural aspects of CLIL education reside in the Theory of Identity and Second Language Learning that peruses the socially and constructed relationship of learners to the target language (Fay, 2008; Marginson *et al*, 2011). The cultural aspect of CLIL fosters learners' exposure into the target culture by enhancing intercultural competence, which seems to be the most neglected one (15%) in the majority of European ESL educational curricula (Table 1.1). CLIL can therefore act as a dynamic alternative to distil the intercultural aspect of learning process (European Commission, 2012).

Table 1.1 Integration of ESL Competences in L 2 European Educational curricula (LACE, 2007)

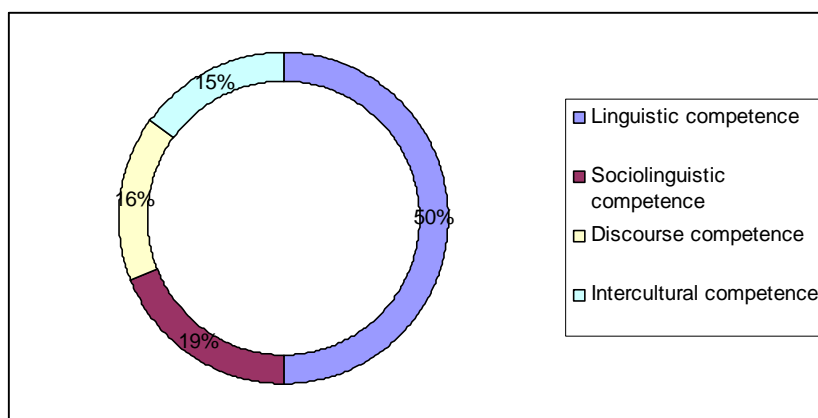### 1.3.2. Communication-oriented CLIL

Furthermore, communication is another CLIL variable inculcated into Krashen's Input Hypothesis conceptualizing learning as a feasible acquisition process, solely if the learner is exposed to comprehensible input and experiences positive emotions (Dalton- Puffer, 2011; Hunt, 2011). This is extended through Swain's Output Hypothesis, which stresses that learners can experiment and enrich their linguistic repertoire, only if they proceed into "self-regulated production of utterances that encode learners' intended meanings" (Dalton-Puffer, 2011: 194). This approach implies that learner's initiative and autonomy in experimenting and generating vivid parole in the learning context is of paramount importance. Both theories underscore the role of cohesive learning steps (i.e Input- Process-Output (I-P-O) in the communication spectrum. The linguistic competence and its entailing sub competences (e.g *grammatical competence, phonological competence, semantic competence, lexical competence*) can therefore be developed in CLIL through a process of I-P-O trajectory (CEFR, 2001). The communicative aspect of CLIL encompasses elements from Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and Task Based Learning (TBL). The transcendence from CLT to TBL is pinpointed by Kumaravadivelu (2006) as a move from *awakening* to *awareness*. Through CLIL procedure it may be extended to *praxis,* as learning experience becomes more bountiful, leading to a transcendental language learning model (Agolli, 2012) (Figure 1.3).

CLT   **TBL**

Awakening   *Awareness*

CLIL

Praxis
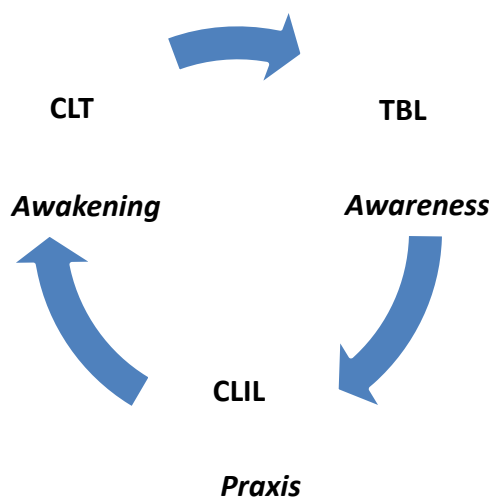
Figure 1.3 CLIL transcendental language learning model

For some researchers though, CLIL does not always successfully elicit communicative competence and relevant skills, as they are conditioned by some myopic pedagogical choices, which thwart in a way an active linguistic involvement of learners leading to a stilted language output (Dalton- Puffer, 2011).

1.3.3. Content - Cognition CLIL nexus

Additionally, cognition and content are interleaved in the CLIL process being slantingly linked to Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), accentuating the cognitive processing of language learning suited to each learner's comfort zone (Davies, 2011). CLIL, as an offspring of Bilingual Education (BE), illustrates two types of English proficiency: Basic Interpersonal

Conversational Skills (BICS) that are devoid of cognitive load, as they involve an everyday interaction type and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP), which is characterized as context- reduced, as it is mainly traceable in content areas such as maths, science and social studies (Blasco, 2011; Dupuy, 2011). CALP English is reflected even in the *CDC (Construction- Deconstruction- Connectionist) model*[2] used in teaching science, as put forward by Pang and Ross, which constitutes a part and parcel of this CLIL paradigm (2010).

2. Contextual analysis of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) implementation

2.1. Socio-linguistic composite

CLIL implementation in Italy and worldwide springs from the necessity to link the microcosm of classroom with the real market world inspired by the Bologna Reform[3]. The latter has inspired even the recent education reforms of 2008 and 2010 in Italy, which set CLIL as a compulsory curricular subject from 2012-13 in the last three years of *licei linguistici* and from 2013-14 in the final year in all other secondary schools (Eurydice, 2010; MIUR, 2011; Ludbrook, 2011) aiming to promote multilingualism. Linguistic diversity is omnipresent in Italy with many minority languages (e.g Greek, Albanian, Catalan, German, Croatian, Slovene, French, Sardinian etc) being officially recognized by *Law No 482 –art. 2 15/12/1999,* that has granted the opportunity to promote novel policies focusing on bilingualism in the region of Valle d' Aosta, Friuli Venezia Giulia and in the province of Bolzano (Eurydice, 2006; Langé, 2007; Lucietto, 2010).

2.2. CLIL profile as an educational innovation

CLIL, as a reform model, evolves and progresses in the course of two congruent factors: *education policy making* and *education politics* (Giroux, 2010). *Education policy making,* as an activity based on specialisation and expertise comes into conflict with *education politics,* that represents the activity of citizens- parents, teachers, academics, who set into question the content of any reform (Giroux, 2010). CLIL as a model of educational novelty is amenable to three phases: *1. Initiation 2. Implementation 3. Institutionalization* (Fullan, 2001). CLIL in Italy, known even as *insegnamento veicolare (vehicular language)* seems to seems to have been part of the second phase for a roughly 10 year period of implementation without having had a uniform pattern (Clegg, 2007; Marsh, 2002). Recently though the school reform has dictated an orientation towards institutionalization process by commencing with teacher education through blended training courses (MIUR, 2012).

From a cultural point of view, English CLIL enjoys a prestigious status over traditional English language learning and is embraced with enthusiasm, despite the chasm between target language and content area level (Eurydice, 2010; Coonan, 2011). It has become a sort of cult movement taking on many hybrid forms (Clegg, 2007). The lesson is mainly *a team-work CLIL (CLIL in compresenza/ codocenza),* or teachers acquire split roles within the lesson by co-assessing the learning process and product (Coonan, 2011; Clegg, 2007). There has been though detected an EFL teacher intervention to correct content teacher's inaccuracies distorting in a way the normal sequence of the lesson, so *independent learning* (*monodocenza*) is considered indispensable (Ludbrook, 2011; Coonan, 2011; MIUR, 2011).

2.3. Embedded CLIL locus

It is vital to tackle the reform of the upper secondary school, known as *secondo ciclo di istruzione (the second cycle of education)*, so as to better perceive the situated learning panorama in a *Liceo Scientifico* (Eurydice, 2010). The reform reinforces scientific subjects through a new study branch called *Scienze applicate (Applied sciences)* aiming to nurture life-long skills and competences introducing mandatory CLIL in the fifth grade. The upcoming *de jure* status of CLIL is a further impulse for the school authorities to launch a pilot CLIL project funded by the Ministry of Education, University and Research (MIUR). The initiative emanates from the autonomy status that Italian schools are granted (i.e *School Autonomy Decree (n. 275/1999)* in experimenting novel, cutting- edge educational programmes and teaching methodologies (Langé, 2007; Magnani, 2009; Coonan, 2011). The aims of the actual CLIL project are as follows:

1. To create a new school ethos open to linguistic and cultural diversity
2. To set the ground for the second cycle education compulsory CLIL (2013- 2014)
3. To introduce and establish " independent learning" (monodocenza)
4. To promote positive experiential learning through cultivating multiple competences

The project's aims along with CLIL retrospective and introspective analysis orientate the research questions towards the subsequent issues:
- Which is the most effective CLIL procedural implementation?
- What kind of competences do CLIL learners develop?
- What kind of affective factors do stakeholders develop?

3. Research design and components

3.1. Research framework

This paradigm is an action-research-oriented case study aiming to steer clear of the methodolatry, that is simply "a slavish attachment and devotion to methods", as pointed out by Janesick (2007: 48). It is oriented towards a more eclectic approach consisting of a *macro (i*.e research case study principles) *and micro level approach* (i.e student questionnaire, classroom observation, a Science test and finally interviewing) (O' Leary, 2010). Moreover, the *informed consent* (i.e., the process of informing all the involving parts about all aspects of the research procedure) and *positionality* (i.e., the stance of the researcher throughout the researching process) through *reciprocal communicative stance* (i.e., the sharing of views with the Science teacher) and *non reciprocal communicative stance* (i.e., an opinion distancing from learners and parents) are respected throughout the procedure (Koulouriotis, 2011).

3.2. Sampling

Sampling, as a key element to rendering research affordable involves (n= 267) students, who are both participants and evaluators. Their linguistic level in English after an initial *focus group interview* can be considered heterogeneous (Ferreira, 2011). The interview along with a consultation with their English language teachers led to a definition of fluctuating levels (A2Waystage - B1Threshhold) (CEFR, 2001). Males outnumber females by around 80% being a tangible evidence of non emancipation in the upper secondary school. The gender ratio is

closely connected to age range and is an explicit source of information, as to the attitudes developed, once some researchers claim that males are less predisposed towards CLIL (Lasagabaster and Sierra, 2010).

4. CLIL in action

4.1. CLIL situated teaching model (CESL - CEIL continuum)

The CLIL course, apart from CLIL principles, is built upon the premise of case-based curriculum[4] science lessons (i.e., geoscience and biology), as put forward by Goldsmith, consisting of two consecutive phases of a CLIL continuum: pre-CLIL and full CLIL (i.e CESL-CEIL model) (2011). The observation is pivoted on the speaking and writing aspects in an almost three month period (November, 2011 - February, 2012) where learners are roughly exposed to CLIL for about 2- 4 hours per month.

CESL model

The CESL model is developed on the premise of getting a lucid picture of learners' linguistic and content level, as well as gauging SM Teacher and learners' disposition and expectations. The CLIL continuum purports to introduce English CLIL gradually without sticking to *content-obligatory language,* but oriented towards *content- compatible language* objectives, for the main aim is to support student communication and engagement in the content classroom (Pawan and Craig, 2011). This phase is considered vital for introducing CLIL considering learners' level of English (cf. section 3.2) and as part of an inclusive and integrative education (Theoharis, 2009).

Content learning is approached via exploratory and Socratic methods shared between SM (Subject Matter) and EFL teacher. The SM teacher explains the main content points in Italian (L1), whereas the EFL teacher recapitulates the focal points and assesses the taught content in English (L2) through questioning strategies, which can elicit effective output in L2. The emerging teaching model can be considered as *Content- English Shared Learning* (CESL) model that precedes CLIL, or English CLIL in this case (CEIL). The CESL model fosters a simultaneous exposure to first and target language in a trajectory of *Input in L1, Process in L2,* and *Output in L2* as shown in Table 4.1.

Procedure	Teacher	Language	Time	Activity
Session 1	SM Teacher	L1	8- 10 min	Input
Session 2	EFL Teacher	L2 (Process)	8- 10 min	R- CQ[a]/ Output
Session 3	SM Teacher	L1	8- 10 min	Input
Session 4	EFL Teacher	L2 (Process)	8- 10 min	R- CQ/ Output
Session 5	SM Teacher	L1	8- 10 min	Input
Session 6	EFL Teacher	L2 (Process)	8- 10 min	Round-off/ HW

(a) Recapitulation/ Comprehension Questions

Table 4.1 CESL Lesson Typology

The CESL pattern seems to be linear, but it is not always the case, as learners may intervene in L1 in any point of the lesson giving it novel nuances. A CESL phase is never *a priori* predictable, as there is always the element of unexpected that stems from code-switching between SM and EFL teachers and learners' involvement. It is precisely this unpredictability

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factor that renders the lesson interesting and embraced by learners as a CLIL premiere (i.e pre- CLIL)

CEIL model

The English CLIL lessons, as opposed to pre- CLIL ones are more context oriented and built up by taking stock of the CLIL underpinning methodological principles, as well as modern pedagogies of the science field, as evident in many researches (Cook, 2011; Jee *et al,* 2010; Pang and Ross, 2010; Sarma, 2006). The selection of materials follows the hierarchal order of the CLIL pyramid, as proposed by Meyer (2010) taking into account all those parameters that point to a holistic process of learning procedure (e.g topic selection, choice of media, task design etc). Language and content objectives are clear-cut and pervade diverse stages of the learning procedure relating learning to real- life situations by involving learners in natural ways (Table 4.2). They should explore and synthesize information about planets, perceive the subduction theory, process the phases of the Moon and then observe its phases for one month etc. They approach these natural phenomena through English by processing content and reality through an internal cognitive processing by dint of CALP English (Cummins, 1999; Goldsmith, 2011; Jee *et al,* 2010). Apart from content learning, the practitioner searches to introduce and boost lexis. Unlike pre-CLIL, full- CLIL is more oriented towards *content-obligatory language* and an etymological approach helps learners, who get confounded with esoteric language (e.g *iso, gen, morphic, para, syn, pseudo, thermo* etc) (Sarma, 2006; Ferreira, 2011).

5. Unravelling research findings

5.1. Top down expository research approach

The scrutiny of the data starts from the periphery to the core, so that data processing can be gradual and penetrative. The top-down approach pertains to an interview held with one of the subject teachers, who prefers anonymity and is hence referred to, as Science teacher. She seems quite enthusiastic and believes that CLIL can help both in the assimilation of content and target language (e.g *sia un vantaggio non solo per l'acquisizione dell' inglese, ma anche per la comprensione degli argomenti / it's an advantage not solely for acquiring English, but also for understanding the topics involved)*(Science Teacher, 2012). In general, she perceives CLIL as an opportunity to explore content in a new way, but insists upon exploring some science subjects first in Italian and then in English especially when there is a cognitive load. In addition, she considers pre- CLIL (i.e. CESL model) as a way to get to know how CLIL works (e.g e' *servita a prendere confidenza con il nuovo progetto*), but does firmly support that the real phase of work is full-CLIL, that permits a better preparation for learners and a more efficacious assessment procedure (Science Teacher, 2012). The Science teacher considers that an abrupt compulsory CLIL integration in the fifth grade of upper secondary school, as put forward by the school reform, without an intensive preparatory phase could be a utopia.

LESSON PLAN: TYPES OF ROCKS AND ROCK CYCLE
Objectives
Session 1:
Define rock and describe what rocks are made of.
Know how rocks are classified and described.
Practise oral presentation skills
Introduce context specific vocabulary
Session 2:
Explain how each of the three main rock types are formed.
Describe the rock cycle
Practise process reading skills
Develop reviewing skills

LESSON PLAN: PLATE TECTONICS (EARTH's LAYERS)
Objectives
Session 1
Compare and describe each of Earth's layers.
Define lithosphere, oceanic and continental crust
Compare and contrast the two parts of the core
Session 2
Define the concept of Pangea
Explain Plate Tectonics Theory
Assimilate the " subduction theory "
Practise prepositons of place: near, next to, opposite to, far from etc

LESSON PLAN: SOLAR SYSTEM
Objectives
Learn the planets and their position in the solar system:
Practise structures relevant to expressing opinion
Practise second conditional sentences

LESSON PLAN: THE MOON'S PHASES
Objectives:
Introduce the phases of the Moon
Practise listening skills
Promote cognitive and metacognitive skills through experiential learning

Table 4.2 Full CLIL (CEIL) Science Lesson

On the other hand, the post-interview comments permitted a kind of *reciprocal communicative stance* (cf. section 3.1) (Koulouriotis, 2011). She reveals that learners seem motivated and their interest is increased even in L1 science lessons, but insinuates a kind of preoccupation for L1 curriculum implementation schedule with CLIL integration. Whenever CLIL therefore comes to substitute parts of L1 curriculum, it is seen as a "menace" for future assessment procedural goals.

5.2 Bottom-up expository research approach

5.2.1. Structural CLIL

The background CLIL penetration is a window to the consecutive pre- and full CLIL phase. Pre-CLIL concerns 157 learners, as not all courses are subsumed to this phase. Its ancillary role is prevalent as to first hearing the notions in L1 and then in L2 (34%) followed by the fact that they have time to think and elaborate the new notions (31%). The phase facilitates

learning according to 22% of the respondents, whereas the sense of security offered is limited to 14%. In addition, referring to preferences towards pre-CLIL phase the intermittent passage from Italian to English and *vice versa* seems to gather the top preferences of learners by 34,3% , followed by the coexistence of L1 and L2 by 33,7%. The subject assimilation follows by 19.6% and is rounded off by the presence of two teachers and methodologies (12, 2%).

Finally, as to the usefulness of pre-CLIL, learners deem it to be important to some extent by 48 %, whilst 27% do absolutely agree on its usefulness. Those that disagree reach the level of 25% manifesting a propensity towards full- CLIL procedure. The Science teacher sees pre-CLIL solely as a way to get to know CLIL, whilst learners consider it indispensable for deep thinking and intercultural understanding. Despite the heterogeneous level, they demonstrate a greater flexibility towards CLIL continuum as an innovation, whereas conversely, a small percentage of subject teachers seem sometimes sceptical and a kind of pseudocompliance[5] is developed.

Observation shows that pre-CLIL cultivates extensively two aspects of 5Cs framework: *cognition* via interthinking and *culture* via code switching that are in a constant interplay. A round table discussion with those taking solely pre-CLIL classes brings to the fore that learners conceptualise pre-CLIL as a way to first develop their *phonological competence* through being exposed directly to new terminology and practise *prosody* (i.e the right pronunciation) on the spot. It helps them as well into building their *cognitive competence* through code switching, whilst one of the drawbacks pinpointed is the absence of circular learning, as the CESL model has an ancillary role (CEFR, 2001; Seedhouse, 2010).

5.2.2. Deontic CLIL permeation

This phase elucidates basic and generic competences developed throughout the CLIL procedure that emerge as content, language, group and self oriented ones.
Development of content and language oriented competences

The first part of full- CLIL phase refers to areas that CLIL lessons affect. Learners speak more fluently by 60, 1 %, definitely more fluently by 21, 1 % and not so fluently by 18 %. Fluency is by and large extended in other domains and is typical of paratactic structures where meaning is delivered with some grammatical errors that are not penalised (Dalton-Puffer, 2011). Moreover, the majority does not read science related articles (60, 2 %), as opposed to the rest (31, 2%) and this is due to the fluctuating English level observed and to any potential degree of difficulty faced. As well, around 33, 5 % of students do not do an Internet research regarding CLIL lessons and solely 24, 9 % do so.. Additionally, they do relatively understand better Science related notions through CLIL lessons by 49, 6 %, whereas 24, 8% fails to perceive Science terminology this way. It is evident that CLIL etymological approach helps into meaning perception and retention. CLIL seems to facilitate comprehension as well and creates a positive learning ambience, but there is still room for improving comprehension and lexical competence (CEFR, 2001; Eldridge *et al,* 2010; Science Teacher, 2012).

Finally, considering the CLIL science test, there is observed content and lexis assimilation (Eldridge *et al,* 2010). There is an evident *Morphology* and *Phonetic Transfer* (MT/ PT), as some words are written under a tacit L1 interference (Figure 5.1) implying a *grammatical* and *phonological competence* (CEFR, 2001; Seedhouse, 2010). Word 1 Giove is diverse from Jupiter, but learners elaborate the latter under the phonetic rules of Italian language where if a three syllable word is stressed on the first syllable, the following consonant is doubled i.e

Juppiter, which is a reflection of MT. They develop an idiosyncratic *grammatical competence* through L1 morphology transfer, once lexis is loaded with PT and MT.

Italian Word (L1)	English Word (L2)	CLIL Word (MT)
1. Giove	Jupiter	*Juppiter*
2. Sistema	System	*Sistem*
3. Telescopio	Telescope	*Telescopy*
4. Plutone	Pluto	*Pluton*

Figure 4.2 Science CLIL Morphological Transfer

Development of CLIL critical competences and learning beliefs

Furthermore, learners do by 32, 3 % definitely learn more about science with CLIL, whereas solely 17, 7 % support the opposite. CLIL science seems to enhance to a considerable extent *savoir-apprendre* (i.e ability to learn) (CEFR, 2001). It is evident even in the science test where there is observed a good performance, as to content learning and vocabulary assimilation. When comparing Science lessons to CLIL ones as to the comprehension degree, the majority consider that it is not particularly difficult refuting the Science Teacher's opinion that CLIL lessons should be first tackled in L1, implying that the distinctiveness of CLIL subject and the corresponding curricular one can be clear cut.

In addition, during the evaluation procedure, it is noted that learners do absolutely agree that their *linguistic competence* has improved (30, 2%) followed by those that agree to some extent (63, 7%) and those that disagree (6, 6%) (Linares and Whittaker, 2007). The perception that learners develop about their performance moulds their attitude about it. Learners seem to feel quite confident about their English after the CLIL experience (Marsh, 2002; Lasagabaster and Sierra, 2010). They admit to understand and know more about science by absolutely agreeing by 32, 2%, agreeing to some extent by 47, 9% and those disagreeing by 20, 2%. Finally, CLIL seems to enhance *transversal competences* (i.e., content oriented research ones) where 55, 8 % and 25, 1 % do relatively and absolutely agree respectively (CEFR, 2001). This specific kind of competence is conceptualised as *supra content* competence, because learners extend their content and language knowledge into realistic contexts, so as to perceive and process natural phenomena through L2. (e.g., the observation and presentation of the Moon's phases for a whole month—cf. section 4.1).

They eventually develop cognitive and metacognitive competences that comply with Science CDC model of learning through a purposeful linguistic use (cf. section 1.2.3). CLIL in this way transfers content knowledge and language use by conducing to a versatile meta-learning practice. However, a percentage of around 19, 4% think that they have not been benefited by CLIL in the science research procedure implying that these learners trust traditional L1 content research practices (Cook, 2011). The positive beliefs cultivated for the development of *linguistic, cognitive, metacognitive and transversal competences* seem to permeate Science CLIL by reinforcing CLIL *savoir apprendre* dynamics, which is crucial for learning productivity and success.

5.2.3. Epistemic CLIL elaboration

Epistemic CLIL on the other hand, sheds light on diverse affective factors developed in course of the CLIL experience such as: attitudes, beliefs, learning personality development, as well as ensuing parameters like: motivation, empathy, self confidence etc (Dellar, 2011).

Development of CLIL attitudes and collaborative competences

Learners demonstrate a positive attitude towards CLIL lessons, where 88, 4% denotes liking it *versus* 11, 6 %. This is due to the fact that CLIL is as an opportunity to practise both content and language (54%) and because they like English (23, 3%). Conversely, the main reason for CLIL aversion (11, 6 %) resides in the complexity of CLIL lessons (46, 6 %) and because of resistance to change (23, 3%). Another emerging reason related to the latter aspect derives from a questionnaire answer (e.g. *I think I won't learn science as good as with lessons in Italian).* It came out that some learners see CLIL as a subject about to substitute their regular Italian science lessons, for they perceive a rather stagnant L1 science curriculum implementation on the part of the Science Teacher, who being enthusiastic about CLIL, preferred lessons to be delivered mainly in L2. Their preoccupation is valid given that the maturity exams are in Italian and that the role of CLIL is by no way to substitute other disciplines, but to enrich them (Coyle, 2011; European Commission, 2012).

Moreover, as to the kind of collaborative competences developed, in the CLIL science context the Teacher/ Learner collaboration gathers the maximum of positive answers followed by group, project work and pair work. The self-confidence of a CLIL learner is cultivated via dual (i.e T/L) and group collaboration. The kind of relationship developed between T/L, L/Ls is part of *savoir etre competence*, as learning experience is processed as a group practice (CEFR, 2001). In general, learners seem to create solid expectations for CLIL lessons, as 91 % would like to continue them , as compared to the positive attitude towards CLIL (88,2%) implying a latent extrinsic motivation (i.e related to future occupational interests) (Dellar, 2011).

6. Data interpretation towards theory building

6.1. CLIL continuum as a mode to foster situated learning

Structural CLIL (CLIL continuum) is an attempt to launch and sustain the principal role of language and content learning. Its scope serves *inter alia* the need to perceive and extend endemic socio cultural traits into an authentic CLIL classroom practice, by adapting the versatility of Italian CLIL models to the profile of the specific context (Jamet, 2009). CLIL continuum develops gradually the school ethos towards cultural awareness by firstly establishing team teaching (*codocenza*) and gradually moving to independent learning (*monodocenza*) (Ludbrook, 2011). The CESL model through its ancillary and motivational role indicates that code switching (L1/L2) does not offer *per se* a sense of security, but is an implicit mode to step into processing the content exclusively in L2. Given the situation, the CESL model can acquire a tripartite identity in the classroom context (Figure 5.1). It can be used as a *dual learning model* in case of pseudocompliance, so as to strike a balance in partnership collaboration between EFL and SM teacher. It can further work as *a preparatory phase* (i.e pre-CLIL) that could lead gradually to the full- CLIL model, especially when the practitioner needs to get a full picture. Finally, it may function as a flexible *evaluative CLIL* model assessing contemporaneously the degree of content assimilation and L2 use.
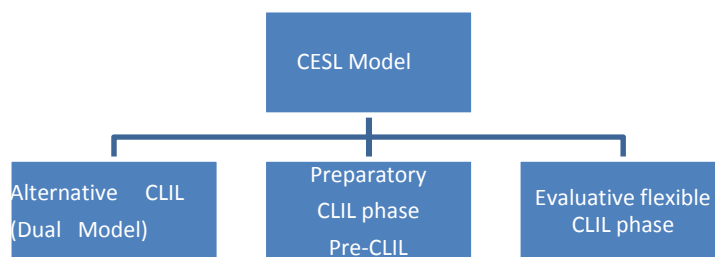
Figure 5.1 Utility of CESL model

Observation demonstrates that learners prefer CESL model in its second variation: i.e as a preparatory CLIL phase, as they are eager to move on to the full CLIL phase denoting that learners are open to educational formulas that approach holistically the content in the target language (Coyle, 2011; MIUR, 2011; Ting, 2011). CLIL should naturally take on elements by both target language and subject matter, but overenthusiasm with CLI, or an "overdose" of it may sometimes be a deterrent to L1 school curriculum implementation and create resistance by learners that are in need of having a good command of science knowledge in L1, once it is part of the final maturity exams. The role of CLIL should be that of complementing the subject area and not substituting it, with the harmonious consent of all stakeholders without imposing choices, which are not easily digestible (European Commission, 2012).

6.2. Deontic CLIL as source for CLIL competences' repertoire

Additionally, deontic CLIL is a source of information, as to what competences are developed in the CLIL continuum and boosts the transcendental character of CLIL praxis by implying correlations with the Common European framework of competences (CEFR, 2001). During pre- CLIL the preference over L1 and L2 coexistence supersedes that towards SM and EFL teachers demonstrating that Italian and English language symbiosis is not conceptualised as a way to assuage their fears, or inhibitions, but to reinforce their intercultural and cognitive thinking that leads respectively to the cultivation of intercultural and cognitive competence (Byram and Feng, 2004).

On the other hand, linguistic competences (i.e *grammatical, phonological, semantic)* and content ones are moderately developed in the full CLIL phase. It is noteworthy that the incrementing levels of comprehension observed, despite the relatively low L2 level of learners, as compared to the cognitive and vocabulary load that they cope with, indicate that CLIL may suit knowledge gradually to the ZPD of learners and help them to surpass language difficulties (Ball, 2012; Jamet, 2009). Science CLIL permits learners to go a step beyond classroom reality by transferring and synthesising prior knowledge and presenting new context related knowledge through the target language. The ensuing skills developed through approaching content via disparate modes pertain to the *savoir faire* competence, as learners enter into a process of *know how* to approach, deconstruct and synthesise CLIL input in a creative and experiential mode through building multiple competences, whereas the equivalence of CLIL competences to those outlined in CEFR could construct a more solid CLIL profile.

6.3. The development of epistemic CLIL variables

The variables of epistemic CLIL (e.g attitude/ stance, beliefs, motivation, collaboration, volition, self- confidence) entail a tacit cultivation of diverse competences that in turn lead to the development of critical learning personalities. One of the prevailing affective factors is that of stance towards CLIL practice. Research shows that CLIL succeeds in shaping positive attitudes towards learning debunking the myth that males are less predisposed towards CLIL. The positive learning stance is developed as to English language learning, content learning perception and assimilation, as well as exploratory skills pertinent to content discovery and language integration. In this way, learners develop a transversal knowledge that covers a lot of areas of knowledge and competences (e.g linguistic, content, and digital ones) (Vlachos, 2009).

Furthermore, *volition* as another momentous CLIL aspect is oriented towards the dual focused character of CLIL, as contrasted to the preferences of English and Science as single subjects (CEFR, 2001). Hence, both Science and English gain a special reputation via CLIL, whilst the intersection of both seems to be the culminating point of intrinsic motivation for them. CLIL as well shapes learners' self confidence in many ways and degrees regarding the three principal CLIL variables (i.e content learning, language learning, content language medium (i.e CLIL practitioner) (Figure 5.2).
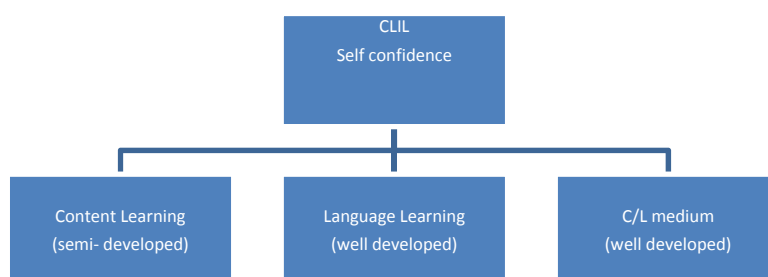

Figure 5.2. The influence of CLIL variables in building up self-confidence

Research once more has found that CLIL has a complementary role as to the development of self confidence regarding content learning and a principal one, as to language learning and content- language medium. Due to the short term CLIL exposure, it is natural that learners still consider L1 as a medium that can better enhance content learning and assimilation, whereas the observed teacher- dependent cultivation of self confidence demonstrates that CLIL as a novel practice can not be established automatically into learners' ZPD, but gradually through scaffolding and a negotiation of meaning (Lasagabaster and Sierra, 2010). In the same vein, the rather weak self confidence developed as to content learning implies that learners should reach a higher level of English that can relatively approach that of content because "Linguistic competence helps in the acquisition of content knowledge, and content knowledge can make input more comprehensible, which helps the development of linguistic proficiency" (Krashen, 2011: 7).

Finally, the beliefs developed by learners, as to the CLIL experience, along with the immediacy that CLIL allocates for program negotiation renders learning authentic and learners active decision makers along with the practitioner. This evinces that through CLIL

learners develop a new learning personality that is pluralistic and integral by cultivating not solely interthinking, but also free thinking, as to educational preferences. CLIL learners set the goals for a type of learning with future by developing personalities imbued with a life-long learning philosophy (Bologna Secretariat, 2006) conjuring up Rousseau's motto that the person's natural tendencies and abilities should dictate the pace of intellectual development, rather than a set of standards imposed by an institution (Krilic, 2011).

6.4. Extensive implications and perspectives

CLIL continuum approaches learning as a classroom and social experience rendering language proficiency and content knowledge perceivable and transferable as a coherent whole, albeit content transferability outweighs language transferability, due to their between chasm . The transferability cultivates and consolidates the *savoir apprendre* profile of CLIL, as well as harnesses competences and increases learners' self esteem, motivation and volition moulding new learning personalities saturated with expectations. The overall CLIL experience considers imperative a context oriented policy on a national and international level. CLIL implementation on an international level should evade a one size fits all approach, calling for the establishment of pluriCLILism, as an educational strategy, whilst CLIL methodology should exploit pedagogies that are inherent to both EFL terrain and subject matter area (e,g CDC model, etymological approach etc). On a national level though, CLIL should have an autonomous role within the Italian school curriculum, without touching its integrity and coherence, but complementing it as a stand alone school subject via independent learning formula that can contribute to school ethos and the needs of the globalised world (Crystal, 2012; European Commission 2012).

A further acute aspect is the gradual CLIL implementation implying *the earlier the better* principle, that is applicable in foreign language learning (Milton and Alexiou, 2006) implying that CLIL can not be considered a panacea, but it needs to be supported by the system in order to be programmatic and effective (Coonan, 2011). As the actual study is conducted under the auspices of EAP and concerns a Greek target audience as well, it implies that the actual research may constitute an impetus for a more drastic CLIL implementation in the Greek context, which is linguistically fecund and open to challenging practices like heteroglossic CLIL.

7. Conclusion

In sum, the implementation of CLIL continuum becomes feasible due to a permutation of pedagogic choices that draw on any congruent factors of CLIL innovation by entailing that CLIL, as a new policy, should not be elusive and imposed, but realistic without myopically conforming to a uniform, or monolithic approach. English CLIL (CEIL) praxis in an Italian upper secondary school is an overt propensity to put into practice the MT + 2 principle by thus promoting multilingualism and intercultural spirit rendering it a lingua franca used among people that share the same L1 (Lorenzo *et al,* 2009). The promotion of multilingualism through CLIL continuum grants learning novel nuances, not solely as part of mainstream curriculum, but also as part of a life-long learning process cultivating critical learning personalities "capable how to govern, rather than simply be governed" (Giroux, 2010: 10).

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Notes

1. Romero-Trillo (2008) uses this term to refer to the combination of two independent linguistic disciplines that benefits both as in Ecology (Llinares and Morton, 2010).
2. "The researchers suggest that the effectiveness of active and metacognitive learning can be further evaluated using a novel model referred to as the Construction-Deconstruction-Connectionist process (CDC Model) built upon the premise that learning in the classroom is not only a cognitive event, but also a psycho-dynamic, social process" (Pang and Ross, 2010: 80).
3. A reform agreed by 29 European states in the Italian city of Bologna in 1999 on creating a "European space for higher education" aiming to harmonize higher education qualifications across Europe. Today 45 states are part of the Bologna Process.
4. A case-based curriculum is a teacher-originated curriculum that diverges from that of the textbook, in that it has a new order of issues to be tackled, that evolves in a narrative engagement and curiosity by rendering learners active participants of the learning process (Goldsmith, 2011).
5. Pseudocompliance or passive resistance: Teachers would prefer to continue with the traditional pull-out program, so they do not embrace the philosophies, or practices of teacher collaboration

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Research Papers
in Language Teaching and Learning

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"The spider ripped loose and swung free": a corpus based study of the resultative V (n) Adj pattern

Μία μελέτη του σχεδίου αποτελέσματος Ρ(Ο)Ε βασισμένη σε σώμα κειμένων

Vassiliki RIZOMILIOTI

This paper is concerned with an area in lexico-grammar which is of particular difficulty for learners of English and especially those whose mother tongue does not include an equivalent structure. More specifically it explores quantitatively and qualitatively the encoding of the resultative pattern V (n) Adj in a large corpus (i.e. the COCA). It identifies the adjective - verb combinations in the pattern and distinguishes the semantic categories they fall into. It further analyses each of these combinations giving their collocation profile and frequencies in the corpus. It is argued that a detailed account of this highly idiomatic structure which is hardly, if at all, included in descriptive and pedagogic grammars and teaching materials, would be enlightening for language teaching and the training of translators and could contribute to a better understanding and mastery of it. A study of this type can shed light on the complexity and variability of a particular multi-word sequence, which would not be possible without the use of corpora and corpus linguistic methods, and might provide other schools of linguistics focusing on this area with some useful insights.

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Το άρθρο αυτό εστιάζει σε ένα λεξικο-γραμματικό φαινόμενο το οποίο παρουσιάζει ιδιαίτερη δυσκολία για τους μη φυσικούς ομιλητές της Αγγλικής, ιδιαίτερα όταν η μητρική τους γλώσσα δεν περιλαμβάνει ένα αντίστοιχο φαινόμενο. Συγκεκριμένα ερευνά ποιοτικά και ποσοτικά το σχήμα του αποτελέσματος Ρήμα Ουσιαστικό Επίθετο (Ρ.Ο.Ε.) σε ένα μεγάλο σώμα κειμένων (το COCA). Ταυτοποιεί τους συνδυασμούς επιθέτων και ρημάτων σε αυτό το σχήμα και τους κατηγοριοποιεί με σημασιολογικά κριτήρια. Επιπλέον αναλύει τον κάθε συνδυασμό ξεχωριστά και παραθέτει το συμφραστικό τους προφίλ και τη συχνότητα που παρουσιάζουν στο συγκεκριμένο σώμα κειμένων. Υποστηρίζουμε ότι η λεπτομερής περιγραφή αυτού του σχήματος, το οποίο εμφανίζεται ελάχιστα ή καθόλου σε βιβλία γραμματικής και σε εγχειρίδια εκμάθησης της Αγγλικής, μπορεί να χρησιμεύσει στη διδασκαλία της γλώσσας και την εκπαίδευση των μεταφραστών αφού μπορεί να καταστήσει πιο κατανοητή τη χρήση του. Μελέτες αυτού του είδους μπορούν να βοηθήσουν στην κατανόηση της πολυπλοκότητας και της ποικιλότητας συγκεκριμένων πολυ-λεξικών ακολουθιών, το οποίο δεν θα ήταν δυνατό χωρίς τη χρήση σωμάτων κειμένων και των

σχετικών μεθόδων ανάλυσης, καθώς και να προσφέρουν χρήσιμα στοιχεία σε άλλες σχολές γλωσσολογίας που ασχολούνται με το θέμα αυτό.

1. Introduction

Resultatives, by definition, are structures which express the end result of an action e.g. *push* a door *shut* and *tear* something *to pieces*. They have long been the object of study of Post-Chomskyean linguistics including Lexical-Functional Grammar (e.g. Simpson 1983) and Construction Grammar (e.g. Goldberg 1995, Boas 2003, Goldberg and Jackendoff 2004 and Iwata 2006). However, in descriptive and applied linguistics this seems to be an area that has been rather neglected. Therefore it is rather poorly, if at all, represented in pedagogical grammars (with the exception of Grammar Patterns I which, however, does not refer to this pattern as a resultative) and EFL/ESP textbooks. Hence it is expected that the use of resultatives will be limited in non-native speakers' productive repertoire and possibly in certain cases it will be difficult to decode. This seems to be even more the case with speakers of Greek, Romance, Semitic and Slavonic languages (Horrocks and Stavrou 2003), whose mother tongue contains no equivalent structure.

This article focuses on a particular type of resultative occuring in the pattern V (n) Adj (after Francis, Hunston and Manning 1996), in which a verb may be followed by a noun and always by an adjective, and may denote, in addition to result, cause, manner or intensification. Addressing the difficulties mentioned above, it aims to provide a detailed account of the pattern which is hoped to inform language teaching and pedagogic grammars. Using the rich possibilities offered by a large corpus, namely the COCA (the Corpus of Contemporary American English, Davies 2008-), it will identify the verb-adjective combinations of the pattern and their frequencies, as well as the semantic categories they tend to fall into. This paper will first refer to the nature and exponents of resultatives and then will review briefly some relevant literature. Next it will explain the method used to identify the attested instances in the corpus. Subsequently it will present the semantic categories of verb-adjective combinations identified and their frequencies in the corpus under examination. Finally it will present the collocation profile of each category of the resultative pattern identified in this study and will discuss the implications for language teaching.

2. The resultative V (n) ADJ pattern: An overview

In the literature, resultatives have been considered to involve clauses, phrases, and constructions or patterns consisting of subject +verb+ Complement, which may contain an adjective, a prepositional phrase or a phrasal particle, describing the end result indicated by the verb, as shown in the following examples taken from Simpson (1983), Horrocks and Stavrou (2003), and Goldberg and Jackendoff (2004).

1. Mary *wiped the table clean.*
2. Susan *hammered the metal smooth*
3. He *screamed himself hoarse*

4. The pond *froze solid*
5. He *pushed the door shut.*
6. I *painted the car yellow*
7. Bill *hammered the nail into the wall*
8. The truck *rumbled into the station*
9. Bill *rolled the ball down the hill*
10. He *sang himself to exhaustion/to boredom/to* (a state of) *exhilaration*
11. The boxer *knocked John out*.
12. The critics *laughed the play off the stage*

This study will be concerned with the resultatives of the type shown in the examples 1-5, and partly example 6, in the pattern V (n) Adj. Following previous studies, it distinguishes between the resultative meaning of this pattern and the depictive or current one e.g. *bring* (a child) up *healthy* and *return* a letter *unopened* (Quirk et al 1985: 1198), which 'are adjuncts and …do not designate states that are contingent on the action described by the main verb' (Goldberg and Jackendoff 2004: 536). As shown in all five examples above, a particular process (*wiping, hammering, screaming, freezing* and *pushing*) leads to a specific result, which is expressed through an adjective. An alternative structure in English involves V+*until,* where a process leads to a result. However, as Boas (2003) notes, in this case it is the duration rather than the result that is important, which is shown in the following contrasting examples from the COCA: *stir* in milk <u>until **smooth**</u> -The metal was *worn* **smooth** by a lifetime of use. A search of the COCA shows that the verbs which *until* co-occurs with are mainly those associated with cooking such as *bake, stir, beat, simmer, heat, cook, refrigerate, stir-fry, roast, freeze, fry, broil, steam, blend* and *grill,* which is not the case with the verbs in the pattern under study.

With regard to the V (n) Adj pattern, the crucial questions involve the types of adjectives and verbs which are co-selected, to use Sinclair's (1991) terms. Referring to the adjectives, a restricted number of them tend to occur in this pattern, for instance *clean* and *dry* (e.g. He *wiped* it *clean/dry*), but not *dirty* or *wet*, *solid* but not *slippery*, e.g. 'the puddle froze *solid*' (Wechsler 2001: 20) and *sick* rather than *ill* in 'she ate herself sick' (Goldberg and Jackendoff 2004: 561). The literature concerned with the resultatives has attempted to suggest certain semantic constraints in order to account for the possible adjectives occurring in this construction (except for instances which are purely idiomatic) such as gradability or 'scalarity'. Goldberg (1995), cited in Wechsler (2001), for instance, claims that the allowable adjectives tend to be 'non-gradable' (e.g. *dry*). Wechsler (2001, 2005), on the other hand, does not accept adjectives such as *dry* as being non-gradable as they can be pre-modified by '*completely'* and used in comparative forms. Instead he proposes a distinction between, on the one hand, closed-scale gradable adjectives with *maximum* end point such as *dry,* and closed-scale adjectives with *minimal* endpoint such as *wet* and *dirty* which, unlike closed-scale gradable adjectives, need only a small quantity of a substance to qualify as such; on the other, open-scale adjectives such as *wide* and *short* which have no end-point and thus could not be intensified by *completely*. Wechsler suggests that it is closed-scale gradable maximum end-point adjectives that tend to be involved in resultative structures. He notes though that *dead,* which may occur in such structures, is a non-gradable adjective. We could also add more adjectives such as *awake*, *senseless* and *unconscious* which denote a non gradable state of consciousness*.* However, while Wechsler's observation is interesting and useful and can account for a large number of the adjectives possible in this pattern, on its own it cannot provide and account for a complete list of resultative adjectives.

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Concerning the verb types in this pattern, Levin (1993: 100, 101) argues that they include a wide range of classes except for stative verbs (e.g. *The teacher <u>hated</u> the pupils angry), directed motion verbs, for example *arrive*, and verbs of perception (for example * Midas <u>touched</u> the tree *gold*, Simpson 1983). De-adjectival verbs (e.g. *awaken*) have also been noted to be incompatible as they already encode the resultant state (Fong et al 2001). Concerning the 'allowable' verb-adjective pairs in this construction, Wechsler (2001) argues that 'durative' verbs tend to combine with 'maximal-end point closed-scale gradable' adjectives (e.g. Mary <u>hammered</u> the metal *flat*: ibid 19*)*, while 'punctual' verbs with 'non-gradable' adjectives (e.g. he *was <u>shot</u> dead*). Although this seems to be a general tendency, there are non-gradable adjectives such as *awake*, *senseless* and *unconscious*, mentioned above, which are preceded by durative verbs (e.g. *shake <u>awake</u>* and *beat <u>unconscious</u>*).

The attempts of formalist approaches to specify the 'allowable' adjectives and verbs in this pattern provide useful insights into an area hardly touched upon by applied linguists, as mentioned above. For applied linguistic purposes there seems to be a need for a detailed study of this pattern which will focus on what is actually said rather than on what cannot be said, as Hunston and Francis (2000: 263) maintain in a similar context. This is only attainable by identifying the attested instances of use in large corpora, as will be shown below.

3. Method

This paper follows a corpus-based approach and relies on the data yielded by a large corpus. The corpus selected was the COCA, a 'monitor' corpus which is updated every year and is well balanced (Davies 2010), and at the moment of writing this paper it has reached 410 million words at the moment of writing. The starting point of the search of the corpora has been the possible adjectives occurring in this pattern. The list of adjectives was compiled from two sources and from the writer's own search for possible candidates in the corpora in question. One of them was Boas' (2003), the most comprehensive one in the literature, which includes the adjectives *awake, black, clean, crooked, dead, dry, flat, full, hoarse, open, shut, sick, silly, smooth, soft, solid, sore, stupid, thin* and *unconscious.* The other was Francis, Hunston and Manning (1996), which will be discussed in detail below. The verbs preceding the adjectives were identified and the instances of those used as resultatives were noted using the left sorting facility of the corpus at a span of 4, capturing thus both continuous and discontinuous instances of the pattern. Subsequently their frequency and collocation features were recorded and semantic categories were distinguished.

It should be pointed out that this study, unlike other studies such as Boas (2003), will not be concerned with lexical resultative verbs, to use Goldberg and Jakendoff's (2004) term, such as <u>make</u> *(something smooth)*, or <u>render</u> (*somebody unconscious)* describing only the result in which the action is performed, but it will include verbs, such as *slam (something shut)* or *wear (something thin),* which also denote the manner in which the result has been accomplished, literally or metaphorically. Furthermore, for practical purposes, it will not include most instances of the pattern referring to a deliberate change of colour as in example 6 above. It will include, however, instances involving colour, such as '*beat* someone *black and blue'* and *'bleed white'*, which express the end result of an action or procedure which had not been intended to change the colour, as it would have been in the case of '*paint* a wall *red'*.

In this study the following adjectives occurring in the pattern V (n) Adj were identified: *adrift, awake, bare, black and blue, blind, clean, closed, crooked, dead, deaf, dry, dumb, flat,*

free, full, hard, helpless, hoarse, loose, naked, open, *raw, senseless, shiny, shut, sick, silly, smooth, solid, spotless, stiff, stupid, thin, threadbare, unconscious* and *white.* The semantic groups which are involved in the pattern identified in this study are presented in the following section.

3.1. Semantic classification of the V (n) ADJ pattern

The fundamental notion around which this study revolves is the 'pattern' which is expounded in the two volumes of the pioneering Grammar Patterns (1996 and 1998) by Francis, Hunston and Manning, based on corpus evidence from the Bank of English, and in Pattern Grammar (2000), the theoretical account of the Grammar Patterns by Hunston and Francis as well, in Hunston, Francis and Manning (1997) and Hunston and Francis (1998). Unlike other pedagogical grammars, the object of Pattern Grammar is to identify and give a detailed account of a large number of lexico-grammatical structures and the meanings they are associated with. Among the patterns it is concerned with is the pattern in question, though not explicitly referred to as resultative, as its starting point is the pattern and not the function. Grammar Patterns (1996) distinguishes the following inter-related patterns: *V Adj* (i.e. intransitive use of verb, e.g. he *broke free*, ibid 77), *V n Adj* (i.e. verb with object and object complement: ibid 281, e.g. she *forced the door open*). In addition the patterns with ergative verbs that can occur either as (ibid 502) *V Adj (*e.g The lock *jerked free)* or as *V (n) Adj* (e.g. He *snapped his box shut*).

In the Grammar Patterns (1996), the pattern *V Adj* includes '*the slide open group'* with the adjectives *open* and *shut,* and the *break free* group, with the adjectives *free* and *loose*. The patterns *V (n) Adj* and *be V-ed Adj* are associated with *the make group* in which the 'verbs are concerned with having a particular effect on someone or something' and 'the adjective indicates the final condition or attribute of something after the action has been completed' (ibid: 282). The verbs are subdivided further into a number of groups, of which only those related to the resultatives under study will be mentioned, namely 1) the '*pull open'* group 'with adjectives indicating the position of something after the action has been completed', with the adjectives *open, shut* and *tight* (ibid 283); 2) *the 'squash flat'*group with adjectives 'indicating the physical state of a person or thing after the action has been completed' (ibid), with adjectives such as *flat, dry, full, loose, free, clean* and *dead*; 3) the *'drive mad'* group, with adjectives 'indicating someone's mental or psychological state after the action has been completed' (ibid), such as *unconscious, awake, stiff/rigid*, and *dumb/blind* in the passive (ibid), and 4) the '*paint yellow'* group with 'adjectives indicating colour after the action has been completed'(ibid). Under Ergative verbs, in the same pattern (i.e. *V n Adj* and *V Adj*) Grammar Patterns distinguish the '*slam*' group with the adjectives *open* and *shut* as well as the '*work free'* group with the adjectives *free* and *loose* (ibid 502).

This study adapting and extending these categories distinguishes the following resultative groups on the basis of the type of change effected, as shown in the examined corpora: 1) the Open/shut group (*open*, *shut* and *closed*), 2) the Detachment group (*adrift, free* and *loose*), 3) the Substance removal group (*dry, clean* and *shiny*), 4) the Change of shape/texture group (*flat, smooth, thin* and *crooked)*, 5) the Layer removal group (*bare, naked* and *threadbare*), 6) the Make full-solid group (*full, hard, solid* and *stiff*), 7) the Physical/Mental change of state group (*awake, blind, dead, deaf, dumb, helpless, hoarse, senseless, sick, silly, stupid* and *unconscious*) and 8) the Colour change group (i.e. *white* and *black* and *blue*). The 'Open/shut' group denotes the change of position of an object (e.g. the door was *pushed open*) caused by the action expressed by the preceding verb. It includes verbs of movement

which can be subdivided into: a) those that entail forceful movement accompanied by s*ound* (e.g*. bang and click*) and b) those that denote movement which can be slow (e.g*. slide* and *swell*) or quick and violent (e.g. *push* and *rip).*

The 'Detachment' group denotes detachment (i.e. *adrift, free* and *loose*) which is the result of the action encoded in the preceding verb. The 'Substance removal' group denotes removal of a substance such as a liquid (i.e. *dry*) or dirt (i.e. *clean* and *shiny*) from a surface. The 'Layer removal' group denotes the removal of the layer (or part of it) covering a surface (i.e. *bare, naked, raw, threadbare*). In the 'Change of shape/texture group' (i.e. *flat, smooth, thin, hard, stiff*), the change of shape or texture of a surface is most often due to a brisk or violent movement the manner of which is denoted by the preceding verb. In the 'make full/solid' group (i.e. *full, solid, hard and stiff*) the adjectives denote intensification of the action already mentioned in the verbal part of the pattern and could possibly be paraphrased by *completely* or *very,* as in the case of the phrases *booked solid, fill full* and *scared stiff*. The 'Physical/ Mental change of state' group entails a change in the state of consciousness (*awake*, *dead, senseless* and *unconscious*), physical condition (*blind, deaf, dumb, hoarse* and *sick*) and mental state (*silly* and *stupid).* Finally the 'Colour change' group in this account includes only the two resultative phrases mentioned above, that is, *white* and *black and blue.*

The types of verbs preceding the adjectives in this pattern were also examined in this study. The types of verbs favoured in the pattern, according to Simpson (1983: 146), are verbs of change of state (e.g. *freeze*) and verbs of contact (e.g. *kick* and *shoot*). The examination of the concordances in the corpus, however, shows that while verbs of contact accompanied by movement prevail, verbs of change of state occur less frequently. The types of verbs identified in this pattern include:

1) Verbs of movement indicating: a) forceful action (e.g. *thrust, pull, shake* and *squeeze*), b) gentle movement (e.g. *glide*).
2) Verbs indicating change of physical state (e.g. *melt* and *burn*).
3) Verbs which are de-nominal (i.e. they were initially used as nouns) often encoding the instrument and used either literally (e.g. *nail* something *shut*) or metaphorically (e.g. *milk* an economy *dry*).
4) Verbs which combine movement and sound (e.g. *click, hiss, clank* a door *open*).
5) Verbs involving a mental, physical or behaviour process which are often followed by a reflexive pronoun (e.g. *sing <u>oneself</u> hoarse; worry <u>oneself</u> sick* and *laugh <u>oneself</u> silly).*

3.2. Frequency of the V (n) ADJ Resultative pattern

As mentioned above, there are hardly any studies on this pattern in applied linguistics and therefore there are no quantitative accounts of the pattern as a whole. The only attempt at a numerical account of this pattern and the verbs the adjectives co-occur with is made by Boas (2003), who examines other resultative structures as well, using the British National Corpus (BNC). His study includes some of the resultative adjectives in the present study, as shown above, but it counts in lexical resultative verbs such as *make* and *drive,* and adjectives which collocate only with this type of verbs (e.g. *mad* and *insane*). Furthermore, it did not include instances of participial forms of verbs, such as, for example, *frozen, booked* or *rusted* with *solid* which were yielded by a search of the BYU-BNC (Brigham Young University-British National Corpus) Davies (2004-). Therefore the total of instances of adjective-verb

resultative combinations and the number of verbs revealed by that study would differ from those revealed by a search of the same corpus but using the criteria used in the present study. For instance the resultative pattern with *open* in Boas (ibid: 331) amounts to 393 instances and 34 different verbs, while a search of the BYU-BNC (ibid.) reveals a total of 1,575 instances and 47 verbs (cf. 11,162 instances and 88 different verbs in the COCA in the present study). It should be added in this context that the BNC, consisting of 100 million words, does not seem to be large enough for the study of a pattern which is not particularly frequent with certain adjectives, as shown in Table 2 below, even in a corpus, such as COCA, which is four times as large.

The corpus analysis of this pattern using the COCA reveals the frequency of the pattern as a whole in the corpus, which is 25,625 (60,2 per million words), as shown in Table 1. Looking at the frequencies of the semantic groups identified in this study, we can see that the Open-shut group is the most frequent one (i.e. 15,428 instances), followed by the Detachment, Substance removal and Mental/Physical change of state groups (3,746, 2,156 and 2,016 instances respectively), the Change of shape/texture group (992 instances) and the Make Full/Solid group (746 instances). The least frequent categories are the Layer removal group and the Change of colour group (438 instances and 104 respectively). With regard to the adjectives in the pattern in the corpus examined, as can be seen in Table 2, *open* (11,162 instances)*, shut* (3,722 instances)*, free* (2,186 instances)*, loose* (1,491)*, dry* (1,155 instances) and *clean* (975 instances) are the most frequent ones. Interestingly, the Quirk et al (1985: 1198) Grammar, in its brief reference to this structure, although not based on information yielded by a corpus, mentions that 'Among resulting attributes, the adjectives *open, loose, free,* and *clean* are particularly common'. However, it fails to refer to *dry,* and especially *shut* which is particularly frequent.

Open/shut group	15,428
Detachment group	3,746
Substance removal group	2,156
Mental/physical change of state group	2,016
Change of shape/texture group	992
Make full/solid group	746
Layer removal group	438
Change of colour group	104
TOTAL	*25,625 (60,2 per million words)*

Table 1: The frequencies of the V (n) Adj R*. meaning groups in the COCA*

Open	11,162	Full	367
Shut	3,722	Unconscious	269
Free	2,186	Solid	256
Loose	1,491	Flat	254
Dry	1,155	Naked	174
Clean	994	Smooth	167
Thin	562	Sick	161
Awake	553	Silly	139
Closed	544	Senseless	102

Table 2: The most frequent adjectives in the pattern V (n) Adj *in the COCA*

3.3. *Collocational profile of the identified groups*

This section will look into the frequency and collocational characteristics of each of the semantic groups identified in this study. The most productive group is the **open/shut** group. With reference to *open,* the verbs in the pattern tend to be mostly ergative and intransitive e.g.,

(1) I had surgery- they **cracked** me **open** like a lobster/ The door **cracked open**, and an intern's head appeared)/His eyes **sprang open** in panic.

As shown in Table 3, the verbs tend to denote forceful movement (e.g. *break, force, yank, pull, rip, tear* and *throw*), smoother movement (e.g. *drop, fall, slide, inch*), movement accompanied by sound emission (e.g. *buzz, bang, creak, slam, and squeak*) and less frequently the instrument used in a literal or metaphorical sense (e.g. *prise, pry, wedge* and *wrench*).

The most frequent collocates of *open*, are *door* (with 55 different verbs, e.g. *blow, creak, clank, force, fly, inch, wrench*), *eyes* (with 17 verbs, e.g. flick, *prop, pry, nudge, peek)* and *mouth* (with 9 verbs, e.g. *drop, prise, pry* and *snap*). As might be expected, the majority of the nouns in this pattern are used in a literal sense and a smaller number of them metaphorically (e.g. *clamp* one's lips *shut*). *Open*, in this pattern, is pre-modified by *wide* when co-occurring with the following verbs: *swing* (15), *throw* (11), *crack, fling, burst* and *split* (10), *break* (9), *swing, pop* and *blow* (5), *fly* and *shoot* (3)*; push* and *pull* (2)*.* Notably in a number of instances having a metaphorical sense the verb co-occurs with intensifying adjectives (e.g. *wide*) e.g.,

(2) The end of apartheid had **thrown wide open** the public debate/ History is about to **crack wide open/** That very important doctor-patient relation is now **blown wide open.**

Open		*Shut*		*Closed*	
Swing	1205	Slam	981	Pull	83
Push	828	Snap	347	Slide	75
Crack	777	Squeeze	330	Slam	66
Pull	561	Swing	166	Snap	63
Rip	536	Pull	161	Swing	41
Throw	525	Clamp	132	Flip	23
Slide	482	Slide	123	Squeeze	21
Pop	429	Click	106	Flutter	20
Fling	427	Bang	94	Fall	14
Flip	426	Force	76	Ease	13
Pry	420	Swell/seal	65	Click	12
Break	414	Lock	60	Stitch	11
Fly	354	Nail/sew	59	Zip/pinch	10
Burst	327	Tape	50	Draw	10
Tear	303	Sew	52	Sew/clamp	8
Snap	232	Slap	47	Drift	5
Yank	218	Pinch	46	Droop	5
Drop	202	Clang	45	Bang	4
Fall	201	Kick	42	Seal	4
Cut	193	Zip	30	Fold	3
Kick	184	Clap	29	Jam	3
Flip	180	Chain	27	Cycle	3
Blow	139	Clench/weld	25	Scrunch	3

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Prop	130	Wire	24	Irise	3
Creak	125	Screw/click	22	Yank	2
Force	110	Flip	21	Spring	2
Slice	99	Ease/nail	20	Thump	2
Bang	91	Creak	19	Creak	2
Click	80	Hiss	18	Flicker	2
Flutter	77	Bolt	17	Squinch	2
Spring	68	Drift/fold	16	Suture	2
Crash	54	Glue	14	Wedge	1
Smash	43	Flutter/Squint	12	Swoosh	1
Hiss	42	Jam	11	Lick	1
Flick/squeak	36	Wedge	10	Latch	1
Slam/shove	35	Squinch/staple	9	Rumble	1
Crick/wrench	34	Yank/board	9	Force	1
Slash	49	Rust	8	*Total*	*544*
Blink	31	Thud/clank/squeak	7		
Whip	27	Droop/thump	7		
Yawn	25	Whip/scrunch	7		
Slit/nudge	22	Padlock/latch	6		
Flap	17	Snick/smack	6		
Heave	18	Fasten/whoosh	5		
Tug	16	Boom/solder	4		
Splay	14	Freeze/fuse	4		
Ease	12	Twist/clack	3		
Buzz/jam	11	Wheeze/suture	3		
Cycle	10	Ram/cement	3		
Clang/zip/flicker/hinge	9	Sag/glide/heave/puff	3		
Sag/steam	8	Crinkle/ clasp/clip	3		
Shake	6	Crust/stitch/purse	2		
Inch/squeal/thrust	7	Force/cinch/button	2		
Snatch/jimmy/thumb	7	Gum/crank	2		
Wedge/whisk/whoosh	7	Grumble/clatter/penny	1		
Dilate/flop/lever/clank	7	Whisk/fling/crunch	1		
Shoulder	6	Thud//smack	1		
Prise/wrestle	4	*Total*	*3,722*		
Clack/knife/wheeze/	3				
Winch/punch/swish	3				
Thump/fix	2				
Total	*11,162*				
<u>TOTAL</u>					<u>*15,428*</u>

Table 3: The Open/Shut group

Shut in this pattern (see Table 3) is similarly preceded by verbs denoting forceful movement (e.g. *heave, jerk, kick, press, pinch, pull* and *squeeze*), smooth movement (e.g. *droop, fold, roll, sew, swell* and *weld*), verbs of movement+ sound emission (e.g. *buzz, bang, click, creak, hiss, squeak, swish* and *whip*), and denominal verbs denoting instrument which include a wider range than those with *open* (e.g. *chain, clamp, cement, screw, seal, solder, suture, tape*, and *wire*). The premodifiers of *shut* include *tightly, tight*, and *firmly*. *Tightly* is used to premodify *shut* when it co-occurs with *nail, clench, screw, swell, squeeze, press* and *clamp* (one instance each), and *tight* when it co-occurs with *squeeze (6), clamp (2), clutch, screw, draw, slam* and *seal* (1). Finally there are two instances of *firmly* used as a pre-modifier of *shut* with the verbs *push* and *pull.* The most frequent collocates of *shut* in this *pattern* are <u>door</u> (with 51 different verbs, e.g. *bolt, click, click, lever, snap, wedge*), *eyes* (with 19 different verbs, *e.g. droop, drift, freeze, glue, stick, seal*) and *mouth* (10 instances, e.g. *clamp, cement, jam, pinch* and *wire*).

Closed, which is much less frequent than *shut* in this pattern, also co-occurs with the same categories of verbs as *open* and *shut*. More specifically with verbs denoting forceful movement (e.g. *flip, pinch, press, pull, spring, squeeze* and *yank*), smoother movement (e.g. *drift, fold, ease, lick, puff, slide* and *weld*), movement+sound emission (*bang, click, creak,*

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hiss, slam, snap and *thump*), as well as with denominal, instrument verbs (e.g. *bolt, clamp, seal, stitch, suture* and *wedge)*. As in the case of *shut*, the most frequent nouns *closed* collocates with are *door* (19 verbs e.g. *bang, bolt, lever, pull, slide, swing* and *thump*), *eyes* (10 verbs, e.g. *droop, flinch, flutter, stitch* and *scrunch*) and *mouth* (4 verbs i.e. *clamp, pinch, snap* and *stitch*).

The Detachment group is the second most frequent group. The adjectives *adrift, loose* and *free* encoding the result of an action express separation and release of one entity from another or from a place, often implying that the previous situation was a rather unpleasant one, e.g. (3) The fish **_shook loose_**. This is indicated by the frequent addition of/from+N to the pattern, e.g. (4) She **shook loose of** his grasp and left him behind). As shown in Table 4, *loose* is preceded by a total of 39 verbs, mostly verbs of movement (e.g. *break, shake, wiggle* and *pull*), less frequently by verbs denoting also sound (e.g. *rattle* and *jiggle*) and verbs originally denoting an instrument (e.g. *pry* and *wrench*). *Free* co-occurs with 22 verbs in the corpus examined which are of the same type as those occurring with *loose.* They are ergative (e.g. *break*), transitive (e.g. *drag*) and intransitive (e.g. *work*). The entities involved are people, animals, clothes and other objects. *Adrift,* in its resultative sense, co-occurs with the verbs *cut*, *cast* and *blow* (36, 31 and 2 instances respectively). Interestingly the pattern is used metaphorically occasionally with *loose* and *free* and frequently with *adrift* e.g.,

(5) The cold slap of the tile **jarred loose** a memory too horrible for her to comprehend; A storm **broke loose** in her head; Find a really comfortable place to lay down and **cut loose;** the body of the actor must be **wrenched free of** its conventional postures; But they did **wriggle free** of personal responsibility; Billy **pulled loose** a bark fiber and raced back down the mountain to the wizard's door; Physics is the lever that **pries loose** the secrets of the universe, and students need to see the power of basic; that the military sector is a leech on the rest of the economy, and that it must be **plucked loose** in order to halt the decline in U.S. productivity; She is elsewhere (or nowhere), **cut adrift** by her illness, living in a private world (or hell); Without her link, Carrie felt **cast adrift**, separated from the rest of humanity.

Free		*Loose*		*Adrift*	
Break	652	Break	419	Cut	36
Cut	446	Pull	158	Cast	31
Shake	213	Shake	99	Blow	2
Pull	137	Wrench	74	*Total*	*69*
Tear	111	Yank	73		
Pry	99	Knock	57		
Knock	68	Tear	66		
Slip	46	Jerk	57		
Work	43	Wriggle	55		
Swing	36	Cut	50		
Rip	33	Slip	46		
Jar	31	Rip	38		
Struggle	28	Jar/kick	29		
Wrench/fall	23	Spring	25		
Kick/pop	22	Pop/work	24		
Spring/yank	20	Pry	22		
Bust/jerk	11	Bust/fall	19		
Tug	9	Tug	15		
Blow/wiggle	6	Kick/squirm/blow	12		
Swing/wriggle/drift	5	Rattle	10		
Twist	5	Wrest/shrug/swing	7		
Spin/jostle	4	Pluck/jostle	4		
Jolt/whip	3	Spin/twist	3		
Flop/blast/rip/	3	Billow/wiggle	3		
Burst/snap/pluck	3	Blast/ jiggle	2		

Wrestle	3	Struggle/spring	1
Strip/wrest/slip	2	*Total*	*1,491*
Crack/jiggle/clamp	2		
Hack/rattle/lever	1		
Total	*2,186*		
<u>TOTAL</u>			<u>3,746</u>

Table 4: The Detachment group

The Substance removal group encodes the result of an action through the adjectives *dry, clean* and *shiny*. In the case of *dry,* as shown in Table 5, the verbs indicating the process and manner leading to the specific result are mainly verbs of contact, involving gentle (e.g. *pat* and *lick*) or forceful movement (*wring* and *shake*), verbs indicating the instrument used (e.g. *mop* and *pump*), and less frequently, physical state (e.g. *boil* and *freeze*). Most of the verbs are transitive (e.g. *steam*) and very few intransitive (e.g. *bleed*). The entities involved are parts of the body and objects containing a liquid. In the case of *clean*, there are 18 different verbs in the corpus (while 32 with *dry*), mostly transitive, which are also verbs of contact involving more or less forceful movement (e.g. *wipe/rub*, and *scrub/ scrape* respectively), and a few denominal verbs (e.g. *brush* and *polish*). The objects of the verbs tend to be surfaces (e.g. *face, plate*) and the substance removed is indicated by *of N*. With both adjectives the pattern is used often metaphorically, mainly with the verbs *milk, bleed, wring* and *suck* with *dry* indicating maximum degree and exaggeration, and the verbs *wipe, wash* and *sweep* with *clean*, especially in financial and literary contexts e.g.

(6) people who only **sucked** the system **dry**; Hell, if they can **suck** the sea **dry** of fish, why don't we?; After they have **bled** the plan **dry**, there is often little or no money to pay off the participants' claims; he says there's a risk the companies will be **bled dry** from the litigation; she **milked** Levitz so **dry** he sold himself to a worm like Spoleto; **Slate is wiped clean**, as if the dispute never happened; **wipe** the bank account **clean**; Skies seem **washed clean** of summer's hazy humidity; I wanted to feel my soul and my thoughts **washed clean** of anger.

Clean		*Dry*		*Shiny*	
Wipe	450	Pat	612	Wear	4
Sweep	150	Suck	114	Scrub	1
Scrub	114	Wipe	94	Lick	1
Wash	98	Squeeze	83	Glaze	1
Lick	76	Bleed	53	*Total*	*7*
Brush	21	Blot	41		
Scour/rinse	20	Blow	32		
Shave	18	Wring	23		
Scrape	15	Rub	18		
Suck	5	Towel	16		
Bleach/gnaw	3	Spin	15		
Polish	1	Drink/pump	10		
Total	*994*	Shake	8		
		Boil/drain	6		
		Milk	4		
		Scrape	2		
		Bake/frreeze	1		
		Mop/steam/cake	1		
		Crack/rot/scrub	1		
		Total	*1,155*		
<u>TOTAL</u>					<u>2,156</u>

Table 5: The Substance Removal group

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The fourth group, i.e. the Layer removal group, involves activity which leads to the removal of a layer from a surface such as skin or plant, when used literally, and includes the adjectives *bare*, *naked*, *raw* and *threadbare*, e.g. (7) an area at the end was **worn** completely **bare** by the five dogs/ One night she **rubbed** her skin **raw** trying to scrub off the tattoo/ At last I tore my eyes from it for a moment and saw that the hail curtain had **worn threadbare**. As shown in Table 6, in the corpus examined, the number of verbs with which the three adjectives co-occur are rather limited. *Bare* co-occurs mainly with *strip* and mostly with non-human entities as objects, e.g. (8) By the beginning of the eighteenth century they had *stripped* Ireland *bare of* her forests and less frequently with *scrape, scratch, wear*, *wash, rub, wash, polish* and *shear,* while *naked* collocates only with *strip* and the N slot is filled most frequently with human entities whose clothes are removed. *Raw* collocates with *rub* and *scrape* and less frequently with *scrub, strip* and *chap,* while *threadbare* mainly with *wear* and rarely with *beat* and *stretch*. The pattern is used often metaphorically as shown in the following examples:

(9) On the way home he **rubbed** his emotions **raw** by telling himself Rachel had betrayed himHer heart had been **rubbed raw** in the time it had taken leukemia to claim her young husband's life; Nerves **rubbed raw**, he scanned each passenger who boarded; The delay **scraped** his nerves **raw;** I felt like that I had just been **stripped raw** of every emotion I could even think of; Their credibility and confidence has been **stripped bare** after three successive Premier League defeats; within a few years; But in McPherson's case, the rationalization would get **stretched threadbare**.

Bare		*Naked*		*Raw*		*Threadbare*	
Strip	138	Strip	174	Rub	*63*	Wear	*5*
Scrape	10			Scrape	*32*	Beat	*1*
Scratch	3			Scrub	*4*	Stretch	*1*
Rub/wash	2			Strip	*3*		
Polish/shear	1			Chap	1		
Total	*154*		*174*		*103*		*6*
TOTAL							*438*

Table 6: The Layer Removal group

The fifth group, the Change of shape/texture group, involves activity which leads to the change of shape or texture of a surface, such as metal, skin and hair and includes the adjectives *flat, thin, smooth* and *crooked*. *Thin,* the most frequent adjective in this group, occurs in this pattern less often in a literal sense and more frequently in a metaphorical sense with the verbs *wear* (with nouns such as *patience, humour, stamina, excuses, relationship, joke*) and the verb *stretch* (226 instances) and nouns such as *talent, resources, budget, ranks* and *forces*. It should be noted, however, that the instances with s*pread* and *cut* were not counted in as they were considered to express manner rather than result.

Flat, as we can see in Table 7, collocates mainly with verbs of forceful movement (i.e. *press, knock, trample, smooth, squeeze, crush, scrape, smash, pound* and *mash*) and verbs of movement denoting an instrument or material (i.e. *clip, comb, plaster, hammer, iron* and *pin*), and rarely with verbs denoting movement+sound (i.e. *swish*). *Smooth* collocates mainly with *wear* and less frequently with *rub*, *scour*, *scrape* and the denominal verbs *sand, bulldoze, powder, sandpaper, brush, rake*, and *polish*. Metaphorical use of *smooth* in this pattern is rare in the corpus e. g. (10) Unfortunately, the song had been **worn smooth** by too many singers before. *Crooked*, as shown in Table 7, is quite infrequent in this pattern. Examples of metaphorical use of this resultative group include the following:

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(11) Itinerant special education teachers often find themselves **stretched** too **thin** across schools with too many responsibilities/ Are there concerns about resources being **stretched** too **thin**?/ Silence **stretched** so **thin** it had to snap); The theories are beginning to **wear thin;** Gibbs's relationship with Beathard began to **wear thin** in the final years of Beathard's tenure; the patience of the first-time tourists started to **wear thin./** The floor was bare rock, **rubbed** nearly **smooth** by the passage of many feet/ Its cover is **worn smooth** from handling.

Flat		*Smooth*		*Thin*	
Press	74	Wear	72	Wear	318
Knock	52	Sand	43	Stretch	226
Smash	21	Polish	16	Press	9
Mash	19	Rake	13	Pound	8
Squash	14	Rub	12	Flatten	1
Pound/smooth	11	Brush	4	*Total*	*562*
Comb	8	Scrape/shave	3		
Stretch	8	Sandpaper	2	*Crooked*	
Plaster	6	Iron/scour	2	Knock	1
Hammer	4	Comb/bulldoze	1	*Total*	*1*
Iron/roll	5	*Total*	*174*		
Fling/jam/scrape	3				
Shear/grind	2				
Rake/trample/slick	1				
Total	*254*				
TOTAL					*992*

Table 7: The Change of Shape/Texture group

The sixth group, the 'Make full/solid' group, involves the adjectives *full, solid, stiff* and *hard*, which encode the result of an activity that leads to an extreme state or endpoint. *Full,* as shown in Table 8*,* occurs most frequently with *stuff* (83 instances), and *pump* (80 instances) mostly in a metaphorical sense and with negative prosody (e.g. **pumped full** of painkillers/carcinogenic/chemicals), and *pack* and *cram* (69 and 67 instances respectively), and less frequently with soak, *jam* and *stock*.

Instances of metaphorical use of the pattern include the following:

(12) the birds are **pumped full** of antibiotics; Everything he recognized had been made over-glitzed up, polished, **pumped full** of sophistication, completely ruined./she gushed instantly, her voice **crammed full** of false surprise; I was so happy to be free after **cramming** my brain **full** of invertebrates and Russian verbs; She was standing there **crammed full** of enthusiasm and energy like a bomb on a short fuse (BNC); Check out our summer reading guide **stocked full** of suggestions; My memory is as good as it ever was, and it's **stocked full** of recollections about the poor people of West Virginia; His stories were enticing and **packed full** of detail; Corporate publications **jammed full** of terms like " challenging

Solid, as shown in table 8, occurs mainly with *freeze* (187 instances), *book* (56 instances, and less frequently with *pack, cram* and *fuse* e.g.,

(13) oceans would eventually **freeze solid** from the bottom up/ Gaston and his horse were **frozen** almost **solid**)/ Hotels are **booked solid** in the area)

Stiff, on the other hand, occurs in a metaphorical sense with *scare* and *bore,* while with *freeze* mostly in a literal sense, e.g. (14) Pam's hands were **frozen stiff**, and infrequently with *whip, swell, stir*, and *starch,* e.g. (15) The grass there now was **starched stiff** with frost. *Hard*, finally, collocates only with *freeze*, most often with a literal sense, with the N slot filled by *earth, snow, food, ground* and *water pipes.*

Full		*Solid*		*Stiff*		*Hard*	
Stuff	83	Freeze	187	Scare	51	Freeze	6
Pump	80	Book	56	Freeze	41		
Pack	69	Pack	10	Bore	19		
Cram	67	Cram	2	Starch	3		
Fill	34	Fuse	1	Stretch	2		
Jam	16			Swell	1		
Stock	13						
Soak	5						
Total	*367*		*256*		*117*		*6*
TOTAL							*746*

Table 8: The Make Full/solid group

The Mental/physical change of state group includes two sub-groups: a) the group that occurs mainly with reflexive pronouns and verbs which are not normally transitive such as *laugh* and *cry* and b) the group which occurs less frequently with reflexive pronouns. In both groups (with the exception of the pattern with *awake*) there is most often an action involved which leads to extreme changes relevant to health and behaviour. The first sub-group includes the adjectives *hoarse, sick, silly* and *stupid. Sick,* as shown in Table 9*,* occurs most frequently with *worry* (132 instances), in the pattern N V-ed Adj (e.g. *he was worried sick*) and less frequently in the pattern V (n) Adj, the N slot being filled with a reflexive pronoun (e.g. *worry oneself sick***)**. Less frequently it collocates with *laugh* (10 instances)*, cry, drink* and *eat* (6 instances). *Hoarse* occurs with a reflexive pronoun and, as might be expected, only with verbs related to the production of sound, the most frequent of which is the verb *shout*. With *silly* and *stupid* the pattern is used most often metaphorically with a reflexive pronoun to denote excessive use of something leading to a behaviour which is negatively evaluated, the former being particularly productive, as shown in Table 9 e.g., (16) He **drinks himself silly**, and claims that only a woman can tame the beast in a man.

The second sub-group denoting Mental/physical change of state, as shown in Table 10, includes the adjectives *awake*, *blind, dead*, *deaf, dumb*, *helpless*, *senseless* and *unconscious,* and the verbs in the pattern most often involve forceful movement and less frequently mental or behaviour processes. *Senseless* and *unconscious* collocate mainly with *beat* (53 and 227 instances respectively) and *knock* (39 and 227 instances respectively), a number of other verbs denoting violent movement, or behaviour processes such as drinking, and infrequently with denominal verbs such as *club. Senseless* co-occurring with *scare* and *bore*, and *unconscious* with *stun* are used in a metaphorical sense. *Awake,* which is particularly productive, like the two other adjectives in this group, collocates more frequently with verbs involving forceful movement (e.g. *shake, startle* and *jolt*), and less frequently with verbs denoting behaviour (e.g. *swim* and *yawn*) or other verbs and is used transitively, intransitively or with reflexive pronouns. *Dead* collocates most frequently with *shoot* (555 instances), while the least frequent adjectives in this pattern *deaf*, *dumb*, *blind* collocate with *strike,* as shown in Table 10.

The change of colour group, as mentioned above, in this study is restricted to the pattern indicating the change of an existing colour as a result of continuous action or process, rather than of simply adding colour to a surface. In the pattern with *white*, the adjective is preceded by verbs denoting the removal of the initial colour through strenuous or prolonged action, with *bleach* being by far the most frequent. The pattern with *black and white* occurs

mainly as a fixed expression with *beat,* as shown in Table 11, and less often with other verbs denoting exertion of physical force.

Sick		*Hoarse*		*Silly*		*Stupid*	
Worry (22+*self)	132	Shout (*self)	17	Scare (7+ *self)	37	Eat (*self)	4
Laugh (*self)	10	Scream (*self)	5	Knock (4+*self)	24	Drink (*self)	4
Cry (*self)	6	Yell (*self)	3	Bore (2+*self)	23	Knock (*self)	2
Drink (*self)	6	Bark (*self)	2	Laugh (*self)	16	*Total*	*10*
Eat (*self)	6	Cheer (*self)	2	Slap (3+*self)	15		
Total	*160*	Talk (*self)	1	Gorge (*self)	3		
	7	Screech (*self)	1	Smack	3		
		Holler (*self)	1	Eat/drink (*self)	2		
		Shriek(*self)	1	Pound (*self)	1		
		Sing (*self)	1	Ride (*self)	1		
		Babble (*self)	1	Blow (*self)	1		
		Pray (*self)	1	Stuff/steam/sweat (*self)	1		
		Crow (*self)	1	Fuck/screw/talk/play (*self)	1		
		Total	*37*	Spend/sport/whistle (*self)	1		
				Promote/giggle (*self)	1		
				Total	*140*		

TOTAL **347**

Table 9: The Mental/physical change of state group mainly with a reflexive pronoun

Senseless		*Unconscious*		*Awake*		*Helpless*	
Beat (1+*self)	53	Knock (3+*self)	227	Shake (25+*self)	161	Flutter	3
Knock	39	Beat	23	Startle (1+*self)	84	Strike	2
Scare	8	Choke	4	Jolt	80	Knock	1
Pound	5	Batter	3	Jerk/nudge (3/1 +*self)	32	Seize	1
Bore (1+*self)	4	Drink (*self)	3	Snap (1+*self)	29	Tease	1
Punch	1	Club	2	Blink	17	*Total*	*8*
Pummel	1	Kick	2	Jar (1 +*self)	14		
Club	1	Stun	2	Bolt/stir	12		
Drink (*self)	1	Strike	2	Prod	8		
Total	*113*	Bludgeon	1	Force (5+*self)	6		
		Total	*269*	Jump	5		
Dead				Scream (2+*self)	5		
Shoot (2+*self)	555			Drag/spring/kiss	4		
Strike	14			Snort/slap (1+*self)/-	4		
Knock	14			Struggle	3		
Kill	8			Yank/kick	3		
Total	*591*			Blast/jostle	2		
				Pinch/gasp (*self)/-	2		
Deaf				Snatch/tickle (*self)/-	2		
Strike	9			Coax/ yawn (*self)	1		
Total	*9*			Write/blink (*self)	1		
				Ruffle (*self)	1		
Blind				Hunch/swim (*self)	1		
Strike	24			Crow/buzz (*self)	1		
Total	*24*			Straighten (*self)	1		
				Shout/twitch (*self)	1		

172

Dumb		Rock/seize/tease	1
Strike	102	*Total*	*553*
Total	*102*		
TOTAL			*1,669*

Table 10: The change of Mental/physical state group with or without a reflexive pronoun

White		*Black and blue*	
Bleach	80	Beat	7
Bleed	7	Bruise	1
Drain	4	Batter/pinch	1
Scrub	3		
Total	*94*		*10*
TOTAL			*104*

Table 11 The Change of colour group

4. General remarks and suggestions for language learning and teaching

The analysis of the instances of this 'unit of meaning', which is at the interface of lexis and grammar, attested in the corpus examined, shows its highly idiomatic nature as it allows certain combinations of verbs and adjectives and not others and each of these combinations often has a different collocational profile. In other words it demonstrates the 'phraseological tendency' of language expressed by the 'idiom principle' (Sinclair 1991). Some of the *V Adj* combinations involve semi-fixed collocations which may be quite productive, as in the case of V+*open/shut* (i.e. 87 and 96 different verbs respectively), which is an example of a 'pocket of productivity' in Goldberg and Jackendoff's (2004: 564) words. Others are restricted, in terms of collocation (e.g. *strip naked*), semantic set of verbs and type of acceptable object (e.g. Verb of sound +reflexive pronoun+hoarse), apparently due to pragmatic reasons. Finally others involve fixed phrases such as *wipe the slate clean* and *scared stiff*, while there are instances of more creative ones including metaphorical extensions of the pattern. This confirms Boas' (2003 and 2005) and Goldberg and Jackendoff' s (2004) view about the idiosyncratic and partially productive nature of resultatives, based on ample evidence which specifies in which particular verb-adjective pairings this is the case.

What regard to language teaching, this study confirms the importance of teaching and learning a language not as isolated lexis and structures with empty slots, but in meaningful chunks. Teachers could become aware of the number of choices available in encoding this language function and in turn help advanced students notice it, comprehend it and express it in an acceptable way. They might highlight the differences of encoding result, or intensification (e.g. *freeze solid*) and manner (e.g. *the door flew open*) through this pattern, if possible, across more than two languages. They could indicate that whereas in English in this pattern the result is encoded through the adjective and the manner in which it is achieved through the verb, in a number of other languages such as Greek and French, the result may be expressed in the verb (see example 1 below), and the manner could be omitted, or might be expressed by means of a prepositional phrase specifying the instrument and by implication the manner (as in examples 1 and 2). Furthermore they could point out that the result in these languages could also be omitted as shown in example 2 and might be inferred using real world knowledge. In addition they might show with examples that in certain cases

both manner and result may be present in a clause but, unlike English, it is the duration rather than the result that is highlighted, as shown in example 3 below.

1. *Beat* the metal *flat/ **Isiono*** to metallo [*with or without an object e.g.* me ena sfiri] (I **straighten** the metal- with e.g. a hammer) / ***applatir*** le metal (flatten the metal, Collins English-French Robert Dictionary 2008).
2. *Wipe* the glass *clean* / skoupizo to potiri [*with or without an object* e.g. **me ena pani]** (I wipe the glass – e.g. **with a piece of cloth**]) / essuyer la verre (wipe the glass, Collins English-French Robert Dictionary 2008).
3. *Beat* someone *unconscious* / ktipo kapoion **mehri** anesthisias/**mehri** na pesi anesthitos (I beat someone **to the point of** unsconsciousness/**until** he falls down unconscious); batter quelq'un **jusqu' a** lui perdre connaisance (beat someone until s/he loses consciousness, Collins English-French Robert Dictionary 2008).

Students should therefore be sensitized to the differences between English resultatives and the corresponding ones in their mother tongue through practice in noticing and practising. Activities could be designed so that learners can render a number of them in their own mother tongue (or other languages for awareness raising purposes, as mentioned above), after having been exposed to concordances, if possible, yielded by bilingual corpora. Practice could also involve matching verbs and subjects/objects with particular adjectives from the list presented in this study or matching verbs and adjectives with the semantic categories mentioned above. In addition it would be useful to combine visuals with resultatives in two or more languages. It follows that the findings of this study could also prove useful for translators-in training as they would be able to see clearly the variability of the expression of this function across different languages, the possible verb-adjective combinations in authentic language use, as well as the wealth of possible verbs in particular co-texts. Thus their language awareness would be enhanced and their productive repertoire in this area at both literal and figurative level would be enriched. Teaching materials could make use of the semantic categories presented in this paper and include concordances of the most frequent resultatives followed by practice material. Finally pedagogic grammars could similarly include this resultative pattern with an indication of the frequencies of the different semantic categories and the particular adjectives involved. They could also present examples of typical manifestations of the pattern including the transitivity and word order variations.

5. Conclusion

This study shows the value of using patterns in language teaching, as Hunston and Francis (2000) point out, as well as the potential of corpora in language study and description. It has looked into a pattern encoding result which has hardly been dealt with in applied linguistics, using a 410 million words corpus (i.e. the COCA). More specifically it has presented the frequency of the pattern in the corpus (i.e. 60,2 per million words) and the semantic categories involved. It has also presented the possible verb-adjective combinations, revealing a wealth of verbs most of these adjectives can occur with, which enable the expression of manner in the achievement of result in a very detailed and often iconic way, as can be seen in the resultatives in the title of this paper. It is hoped that some of the findings such as those reported in Boas'study (2003), which entails other resultative patterns as well, and the present study, which examines in detail on the particular pattern, could find their way into descriptive, pedagogic grammars, EFL/ESP textbooks, dictionaries and possibly materials for training translators. It is also hoped that, as Gries (2008) points out in a similar context, other approaches to grammar will benefit from corpus informed work which provides frequencies and detailed language description, and corpus linguistics work will

benefit from the different perspectives offered by those approaches, as has been the case in this study.

Further research could look into the occurrence and frequencies of the pattern under study in particular genres and registers as well as in advanced learner and native speaker corpora and use the results in materials catering for advanced students. Furthermore, future research could investigate the occurrence, frequencies and collocations of other resultative patterns and other important patterns in large corpora and contribute thus to an improved description of this and other major functions of language, aiding thus the conscious learning of them.

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Research Papers
in Language Teaching and Learning
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Self-assessment: its impact on students' ability to monitor their learning process in the English classroom and develop compensatory strategies

Η επίδραση της αυτοαξιολόγησης στην ικανότητα των μαθητών να κατευθύνουν την ατομική τους μαθησιακή διαδικασία στο μάθημα της αγγλικής και να αναπτύσσουν αντισταθμιστικές στρατηγικές

Alexandra ANASTASIADOU

Alternative assessment, that is, portfolios, self-assessment and peer-assessment, has been burgeoning the last two decades resulting from the need to re-establish the relationship between learning and evaluation. These alternative forms represent complex indications of student achievement, engagement and learning styles and strategies requiring contextual information in order to be interpreted since they cannot always be measured numerically like traditional grades. Specifically, the implementation of self-assessment equips students with a new instrument in the learning context by enabling them to assume responsibility of their own learning. This paper will delve into young learners' self-assessment in EFL through reflective practice report during the implementation of a process writing component in teaching writing. More specifically, a study was carried out at the sixth grade of two Greek state primary schools addressing 12-year-old students and the results articulated in the present paper are part of a greater study involving two experimental (44 students) and two control (46 students) groups. The two experimental groups of the study followed seven specially formulated writing lessons under the "process writing" philosophy to teaching writing. Reflective reports were provided to these students after each lesson in the form of retrospective questionnaires so as to investigate their ability to think on their learning procedure and trace any differences of their attitudes towards writing due to the intervention. The analysis of the items indicates that there is change of the students' capacity to judge their improvement and their attitudes towards writing.

⋐⋑

Η εναλλακτική αξιολόγηση, δηλαδή, οι φάκελοι εργασιών, η αυτοαξιολόγηση και η ετεροαξιολόγηση, έχει παρουσιάσει μεγάλη ανάπτυξη τις δύο τελευταίες δεκαετίες ως

αποτέλεσμα της ανάγκης επανακαθορισμού της σχέσης μεταξύ της μάθησης και της αξιολόγησης. Αυτές οι εναλλακτικές μορφές αντιπροσωπεύουν πολύπλοκα δείγματα σχετικά με το τι μπορούν να καταφέρουν οι μαθητές/τριες, με τι ασχολούνται καθώς επίσης και με τα μαθησιακά προφίλ και τις στρατηγικές που απαιτούν εμπλαισιωμένες πληροφορίες για να ερμηνευθούν, αφού δεν είναι δυνατόν να μετρηθούν πάντα αριθμητικά όπως οι παραδοσιακοί βαθμοί. Συγκεκριμένα, η εφαρμογή της αυτοαξιολόγησης εφοδιάζει τους/τις μαθητές/τριες με ένα νέο εργαλείο στη διάρκεια της μαθησιακής διαδικασίας καθιστώντας τους/τις ικανούς/νές να αναλάβουν την ευθύνη της προσωπικής τους μάθησης. Αυτό το άρθρο θα ασχοληθεί με την αυτοαξιολόγηση των νεαρών μαθητών/τριών στο μάθημα των Αγγλικών, μέσα από τη χρήση αναστοχαστικών παρατηρήσεων, σε συνδυασμό με την εφαρμογή της προσέγγισης "έμφαση στη διαδικασία παραγωγής γραπτού λόγου" κατά τη διδασκαλία της παραγωγής γραπτού λόγου. Πιο συγκεκριμένα, έγινε μία μελέτη στην έκτη τάξη σε δύο Ελληνικά δημόσια δημοτικά σχολεία που απευθυνόταν σε δωδεκάχρονους μαθητές/τριες και τα αποτελέσματα που παρουσιάζονται σε αυτό το άρθρο είναι μέρος μιας ευρύτερης έρευνας που αφορά δύο πειραματικές ομάδες (44 μαθητές/τριες) και δύο ομάδες ελέγχου (46 μαθητές/τριες). Οι δύο πειραματικές ομάδες της μελέτης παρακολούθησαν επτά μαθήματα παραγωγής γραπτού λόγου, τα οποία ήταν ειδικά διαμορφωμένα σύμφωνα με τη φιλοσοφία της προσέγγισης "έμφαση στη διαδικασία παραγωγής γραπτού λόγου". Σ' αυτούς/ές τους/τις μαθητές/τριες δόθηκαν στο τέλος κάθε μαθήματος παρατηρήσεις αυτοαξιολόγησης με τη μορφή αναστοχαστικών ερωτηματολογίων με σκοπό να ερευνήσουν την ικανότητα τους να σκέφτονται σχετικά με τη μαθησιακή τους διαδικασία και να ανιχνεύσουν τυχόν διαφορές των αντιλήψεων τους για την παραγωγή γραπτού λόγου που οφείλονται στην παρέμβαση. Η ανάλυση των δεδομένων δείχνει ότι υπάρχει αλλαγή στην ικανότητα των μαθητών/τριών να κρίνουν την πρόοδο τους και τις απόψεις τους σχετικά με την παραγωγή γραπτού λόγου.

Key words: self-assessment; reflective reports; "process writing" approach to teaching writing; young learners; Greek state primary school; reflecting on the learning process

1. Introduction

Assessment in education has changed perspective. Broadfoot (1993: 3) avers that internationally "we are witnessing the emergence of a new assessment paradigm in which *it is learning itself,* rather than simply the *measurement* of that learning, which is its central purpose". Seen in this light, rather than being a decontextualised means of gauging the students' performance, assessment is viewed as a means to integrate evaluation with instruction. Moreover, this shift in the design of assessment has triggered the adoption of learner-centred methods of evaluation.

Following Baum & Baum's (1986) definition of self-assessment, Somervell (1993) supports the view that it provides the learners with the opportunity to make judgements about their own work. In this way, they reflect on their own thinking and learning process and become decision-makers in their own progress in knowledge. Consequently, self-evaluation implies that students get involved actively in their own learning rather than become passive recipients of knowledge. In this vein, the learners' self-awareness and progress is developed. Student self-evaluation entails the students' engagement in active reflection of their own performance with a view of improving it.

Another issue that has shifted its focus is the approach to teaching writing through different pargadigms emphasising:
- imitation of model texts – *controlled or guided writing* (Pincas, 1962)
- the product of writing – *product-oriented pedagogy* which is text-based (Tribble, 1996: 37)
- the process of writing – *process writing* approach (Emig, 1971)
- the product of writing with reference to the surrounding social context- *genre approach* (Cope & Kalantzis, 1993).

Opposing the linearity and the overconcentration on form and pre-prescribed patterns of the first two abovementioned approaches to teaching writing, process writing is concerned with the students' cognitive struggle, the stages they go through and the interactions that take place during the process of writing. Writing is a circular, problem-solving procedure to trace and convey meaning. In no way does this concern with process reveal that the form is neglected, nevertheless. On the contrary, Hedge (1994: 2) supports that "process writing" centres equally on both form and procedure, including, simultaneously, the students' proficiency and preferences for writing. Taking the philosophy of process writing a step further, other theorists like (Hedge, 1988; Byrne, 1988; and White & Arndt, 1991) retained its creative thinking angle but also incorporated other significant issues. These included the purpose, the target reader, context and cooperation among the students and between the students and the teacher embedding, thus, the interactive and social aspects in writing. Last, White & Arndt (1991) stressed the importance of the experimentation with the characteristics of various discourse types.

In the present study, the "process approach" was singled out with a view to enabling the learners to develop familiarisation with the process of producing various writing texts and become able to monitor their own progress and way of learning.

1.1. Presentation of the reflective reports

Giving advice to teachers in the primary classroom, Sougari (2006: 98) encourages practitioners to develop reflective practice during their teaching practice course which will offer them the opportunity to internalise reflective strategies in their future teaching. "Reflection can be defined as the process of looking at their experiences by examining actions, reactions and thoughts to reach a better understanding of the teaching situation" (ibid: 98). Transferring the term reflective practice report of perspective teachers to the reflective procedure of the students, the present author used reflective reports in the form of reflective answers to specific questionnaires designed by the researcher with the aim of empowering the learners to gauge their progress and realise the benefits of process writing.

1.2. Description of the process-oriented paradigm

Having selected the process writing as the most suitable approach for teaching writing, an effort will be made in this part of the paper to introduce its underlying assumptions and stages and a model will be proposed.

Emig (1971) was the first scholar to identify five stages of process writing:
a) prewriting (being motivated to write, generating ideas, outlining and rehearsing, making notes),
b) drafting (writing in progress individually or collaboratively),

   c) revision (replanning, adjusting according to readers, and redrafting after receiving peer or teacher comments),
   d) editing (getting ready for publishing the written text), and
   e) publication (sharing the product with the public).

Throughout the entire process, the writers take into consideration the target audience, the purpose of writing, the requirements of the specific topic, the generic organisation of the text and the social milieu within which writing is established (White & Arndt, 1991). In this light, the present author designed a framework for process writing which indicates the recursiveness of writing and displays the interactions between the subcomponents of writing along with the relationships of is participating members (Figure 1- page 5). The writer takes into account the task requirements including the reader, the target of writing, the discourse type of the text, the topic demands and the social environment of the writing. The teacher is related to all these features by aiding the learner to internalise and use the task requirements. Furthermore, these task specifications, determine the outcome, that is, the produced text.

The requirements of the task trigger the writing process which is in the form of a cycle, permitting thus the writer to move backwards and forwards following the stages of writing. This cyclical process is connected with the text, as the process activates the formation of the text and the text informs the process. The teacher and the writer cooperate in a common endeavour, namely the writing procedure and the creation of the text.

2. Researh background

2.1. Research review on self-assesssment

In a comprehensive review of the research on self-assessment mostly in higher education, Dochy, Segers & Sluijsmans (1999) argue that the relevant literature pertains to six main topics:

1. *The impact of varying abilities.* Having analysed various studies, Boud & Falchikov (1989) detected a connection between evaluation and difference in students' abilities. The data indicated that better performing students underrated themselves while their low-performing counterparts overestimated their qualifications.
2. *The time factor.* According to Griffee (1996), the students' confidence of their proficiency ranked low in the beginning of the academic year but gradually increased as the semester progressed.
3. *Accuracy.* In an effort to compare student and teacher evaluation, Longhurst & Norton (1997) explored the accuracy of psychology tertiary students in assessing their essays. The results revealed a high correlation between learners' and instructors' grades confirming the students' capacity to judge their own texts.
4. *Effective intervention.* McNamara & Deane (1995) tried to shed light on the kind of self-evaluation activities which can foster successful language learning. These tasks, which entailed written correspondence with the teacher, daily personal log and a portfolio contributed to the students' capacity to report their strong and weak points, and detect appropriate learning strategies.
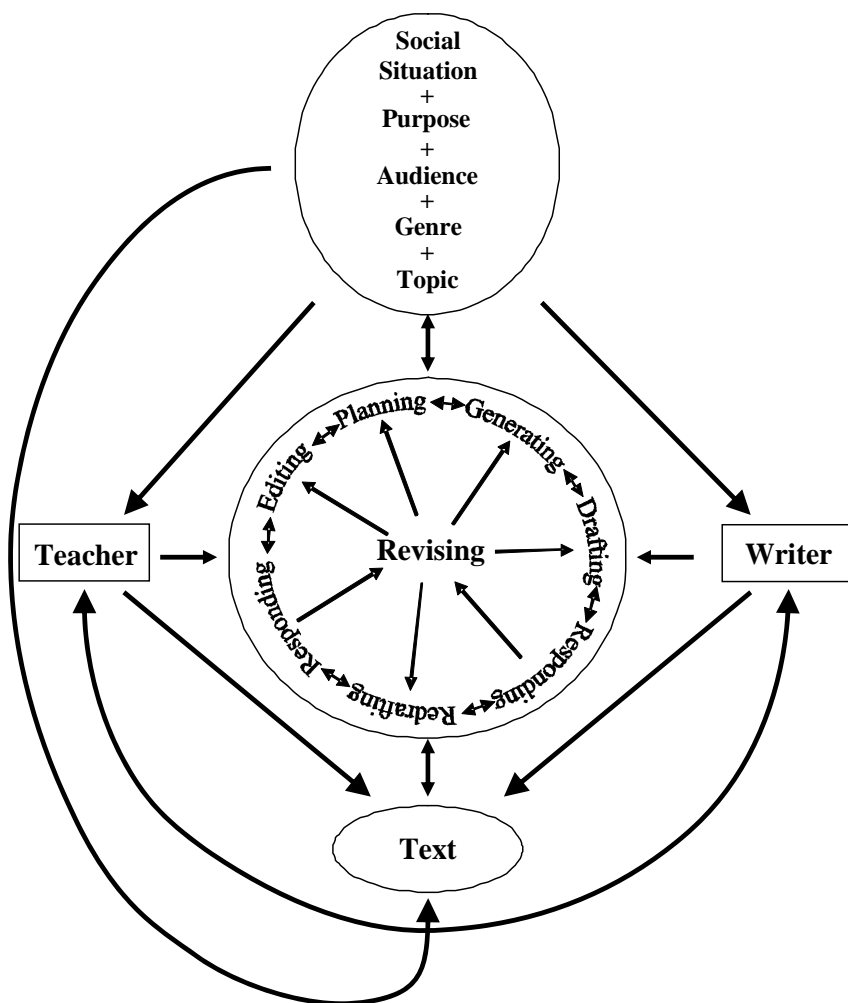
Figure 1: The proposed model of process writing (Anastasiadou, 2010)

5. *Self-assessment instruments.* Various scholars tried to investigate the efficacy of different evaluation methods. Having employed a list of the learners' strengths and the Likert scale for degrees of ability (i.e. excellent, above average, average, below average, poor), Harrington (1995) identified less time-consuming forms of assessing students. In an effort to present an appropriate assessment framework, Adams & King (1995) proposed the use of activities that promote the students' skills in self-assessment: (1) receiving training in assessment, namely, detecting good and bad qualities in samples, (2) designing proper evaluation criteria and (3) determining the criteria and employing them in action.

6. *Content.* As far as the content is concerned, self-assessment is exploited formatively in that it develops abilities. Loacker & Jensen (1988) report the case of Alverno College in Milwauke where problem-solving is one of the prerequisites for the students to be able to graduate. In the core of their educational policy stands self-assessment, which fosters creative reasoning and discovery of knowledge.

2.2. Research of students' revision techniques during the application of process-writing

Even though a significant body of research investigated the value of:

- the introduction of the process approach in product-oriented educational environ-ments,
- the importance of peer feedback and training of learners to comment on their peers' texts,
- the effectiveness of teacher response,
- learners' preferences of teacher versus peer treatment of their texts and
- students' expectations of feedback,

very few studies centred on a noticeable aspect of the process paradigm, which is the learners' revision strategies. The most outstanding of them was carried out by Sengupta (2000) who explored the findings of teaching revision techniques in three classes in a Hong Kong secondary school. The participants were 15-16 year old students learning English in an educational system not favouring process writing. Consequently, the subjects were not familiar with revising and required special instruction.

All three groups were asked to present a pre-write sample and respond to a questionnaire. After that, they were required to produce multiple drafts of six compositions. The two experimental classes (40 and 38 students respectively) were provided with specific guidance in revision after the first draft, while the control group (40 learners) was not given any aid whatsoever. The purpose of revision tuition was to render the consecutive draft more readable to the audience as far as appropriacy, adequacy and organisation of information are concerned. In doing so, the ownership of the commentary re-established its origin departing from the teacher to move to a peer and finally to the writers themselves. The findings indicated that, after three terms at the end of the academic year, the two groups who had been offered tuition in revision displayed more progress than the group stuck with the traditional method. Questionnaires and interviews conducted after the experiment revealed that students acknowledged the expertise they had received on both a theoretical and practical basis, as they managed to realise how teachers think and developed self-confidence in succeeding in the Hong Kong examination system.

Zamel's (1983) study of six advanced L2 students shed light on the revision differences between skilled and less skilled writers, proving that expert writers tend to parameters such as readership, topic, organisation and revisions on a global level. More specifically, the skilled writers devoted more time planning, drafting and revising. Additionally, they concentrated on meaning and considered writing as a process of discovering and experimenting with ideas. In contrast, the low performers focused on grammatical errors labelling writing as a linear continuity of words, sentences and paragraphs, amending, as a result, only the local level.

Porte's (1997) research, lasting nine months, is also indicative of the variations of approaching revision between the able and less able L2 writers. Seventy-one second year students (28 male, 43 female) in a university of Granada, Spain were chosen as participants of the study. Two methods of measuring the writers' proficiency were employed, namely semi-structured interviews and audio tapes of the students during revision. The organisation of the interviews was designed with the aim of mobilising students' thinking about their writing and revision techniques. The main finding which emerged in the interviews was the fact that, having received no explicit instruction in revising, the participants limited revision to a proofreading role, emphasising words, mechanics and search for synonyms. Revision was perceived as a means of achieving a higher grade rather than a way to self-development. Finally, this study highlighted the impact of the teachers' perceptions of

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feedback and assessment on the students' outlook of revision by proving that the learners' revision strategies mirror teaching practice.

3. Aim and scope of the present study

This study focuses on one particular dimension of self-evaluation, that is, the learners' reflective reports on their progress and learning strategies on the one hand, and their attitudes towards process writing on the other hand. This experiment was conducted during the application of the process writing approach in the sixth grade of two Greek state primary schools in the English language classroom. The reflective reports used in the current study are in the form of students' written responses to specific statements designed by the researcher at the end of each writing lesson, depicting their opinion about their own progress and the development of their writing skills. These questionnaires were administered to the experimental group students of the current study in order to involve them meaningfully in the procedure of their own learning. The reflective reports were formulated in this layout so as to accrue quantitative results.

The original assumption of the present research was that it is the lack of active student participation in the process of learning and their way of thinking which prevents learners from developing useful insights into the ways they think, learn and write in L2. Therefore, the present study sought to discover if, during the intervention, "metacognition" (Bruner, 1988: 265) is instilled on learners, in the form of the evolvement of their capacity to reflect on their own learning and thinking.

To this end, the following research questions were addressed:
1. Can self-assessment aid learners to gain insight into their own learning progress and skill development?
2. Do the students who receive "process writing" tuition to teaching writing acknowledge its merits?

4. Methodology and design

A longitudinal research was carried out lasting one school year along with a research for a doctoral thesis. This study was conducted in the sixth grade of two state primary schools in a middle-sized town in northern Greece representing the vast majority of the state elementary schools in Greece concerning the student traits, that is most of the students are of Greek origin whereas a percentage of them belong to families who have emigrated from the countries of the former Soviet Union, Albania and Romania.

4.1. Instrumentation

A reflective report to a questionnaire (Appendix I) was implemented at the end of each writing lesson, the differentiation being that the first questionnaire included only eight items, since it entailed only familiarisation with various text types, as well as the aim and target readership of writing, whereas the other six lessons involved producing written assignments following the tenets and stages of process writing including, thus, more items. The questionnaire was administered in Greek (appendix II), which is considered as appropriate for young learners in order to enable them to think creatively about their progress without any linguistic obstacles.

The reflective report on lesson one consisted of items 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 11 and 20, while all the other reflective reports of lessons two to seven included all the above mentioned statements.

4.2. Participants

Two mixed proficiency EFL classes took part in the research, that is the experimental group students of a greater study. These classes were randomly defined to serve as experimental groups. Moreover, in Greek state schools, the students are allocated in classes in alphabetical order minimising, therefore, the possibility of selection bias.

The two teachers of the classes in both schools were present during the study but it was the present writer who did the teaching and conducted the current research.

4.3. Analysis of the data

The quantitative analysis of the data was conducted by measuring and comparing the students' answers to the various items of the questionnaire on a percentage scale with a view to gauging their ability to think on their own progress and trace any rise of their self-confidence about their own learning and capacity to critisise and reason their development.

5. Findings and interpretation

This section introduces and interprets the results of the study in an effort to examine whether the research questions were substantiated, to seek for plausible explanations and discuss the pedagogical implications of the obtained findings. The most striking findings will be presented here.

Table 1 illustrates that a small percentage of the students admit that they can identify different discourse types in the beginning of the study. This percentage soars to 79,5% in the second lesson and then stabilises at a proportion of almost half of the students. The fact that in the second writing lesson they were asked to produce a letter, which was the only genre they were familiar with in the previous year, accounts for their confidence, as they dealt with a known generic type feeling, thus, certain, about their skills. The findings reveal that they are in need for more experimentation with diverse text types, such as stories, recipes, travel brochures and descriptions.

Table 2 exhibits a similar pattern to the previous table, with the students presenting low confidence about their ability to explore the features of a written text in the first lesson, rising their beliefs in the second lesson where the familiarity with the genre offers them certainty. There is a fluctuation in the following lessons due to the fact that they encounter a different text type in each one. Their confidence rises at the end and it can be deduced that they feel more certain about their progress.

Table 3 indicates the repeated pattern of low certainty in the first lesson, a high increase in the second, a stability in the following four lessons at about 60% and a final rise at 80,5%, which shows that the students benefited from the intervention. Table 4 and 5 are indicative of the fact that at the outset of the study the students did not value the importance of working both individually and collaboratively, whereas at the exit point of the experiment they

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value the significance of cooperation and seem to have realised how to work more effective-
ly (Table 4 - 97,6% and Table 5 - 100%).

Lesson		A LOT	A LITTLE	NOT AT ALL	TOTAL
1st	N	15	28	1	44
	%	34,1	63,6	2,3	100,0
2nd	N	35	9	-	44
	%	79,5	20,5	-	100,0
3rd	N	18	25	1	44
	%	40,9	56,8	2,3	100,0
4th	N	25	16	2	43
	%	58,1	37,2	4,7	100,0
5th	N	19	21	-	40
	%	47,5	52,5	-	100,0
6th	N	23	20	1	44
	%	52,3	45,5	2,3	100,0
7th	N	23	18	-	41
	%	56,1	43,9	-	100,0

Table 1. I can identify different text types

Lesson		A LOT	A LITTLE	NOT AT ALL	TOTAL
1st	N	8	35	1	44
	%	18,2	79,5	2,3	100,0
2nd	N	33	11	-	44
	%	75,0	25,0	-	100,0
3rd	N	15	28	1	44
	%	34,1	63,6	2,3	100,0
4th	N	22	19	2	43
	%	51,2	44,2	4,7	100,0
5th	N	21	19	-	40
	%	52,5	47,5	-	100,0
6th	N	24	20	-	44
	%	54,5	45,5	-	100,0
7th	N	27	14	-	41
	%	65,9	34,1	-	100,0

Table 2. I can find the characteristics of a written text

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Lesson		A LOT	A LITTLE	NOT AT ALL	TOTAL
1st	N	15	27	2	44
	%	34,1	61,4	4,5	100,0
2nd	N	34	10	-	44
	%	77,3	22,7	-	100,0
3rd	N	29	15	-	44
	%	65,9	34,1	-	100,0
4th	N	25	15	3	43
	%	58,1	34,9	7,0	100,0
5th	N	25	15	-	40
	%	62,5	37,5	-	100,0
6th	N	27	15	2	44
	%	61,4	34,1	4,5	100,0
7th	N	33	8	-	41
	%	80,5	19,5	-	100,0

Table 3. When I know the organisation of a text in English, I can produce a similar text

Lesson		A LOT	A LITTLE	NOT AT ALL	TOTAL
1st	N	21	23	-	44
	%	47,7	52,3	-	100,0
2nd	N	37	7	-	44
	%	84,1	15,9	-	100,0
3rd	N	36	8	-	44
	%	81,8	18,2	-	100,0
4th	N	29	14	-	43
	%	67,4	32,6	-	100,0
5th	N	28	12	-	40
	%	70,0	30,0	-	100,0
6th	N	43	1	-	44
	%	97,7	2,3	-	100,0
7th	N	40	1	-	41
	%	97,6	2,4	-	100,0

Table 4. I know when I need help from my partner or my teacher

Lesson		A LOT	A LITTLE	NOT AT ALL	TOTAL
1st	N	22	22	-	44
	%	50,0	50,0	-	100,0
2nd	N	34	10	-	44
	%	77,3	22,7	-	100,0
3rd	N	33	11	-	44
	%	75,0	25,0	-	100,0
4th	N	31	12	-	43
	%	72,1	27,9	-	100,0
5th	N	31	9	-	40
	%	77,5	22,5	-	100,0
6th	N	40	2	2	44
	%	90,9	4,5	4,5	100,0
7th	N	41	-	-	41
	%	100,0	-	-	100,0

Table 5. I know when I need to work with my team or my partner and when I can work alone

Table 6 puts forward a noticeable finding, which is that they are confident about the use of linking words in order to organise their text in lesson two whereby they have to employ simple, well-established cohesive devices (and, but). During the following lessons they confess that they are less able (one out of two) to employ cohesive devices, since they are gradually asked to utilise more demanding cohesive devices such as sequential words (first, then, after that, finally, etc.). The obvious explanation of this finding is that they have realised that it is more difficult to implement complex devices, therefore their critical reasoning is developed.

Lesson		A LOT	A LITTLE	NOT AT ALL	TOTAL
2nd	N	35	8	1	44
	%	79,5	18,2	2,3	100,0
3rd	N	13	30	1	44
	%	29,5	68,2	2,3	100,0
4th	N	19	23	1	43
	%	44,2	53,5	2,3	100,0
5th	N	21	16	3	40
	%	52,5	40,0	7,5	100,0
6th	N	24	19	1	44
	%	54,5	43,2	2,3	100,0
7th	N	24	17	-	41
	%	58,5	41,5	-	100,0

Table 6. I can use linking words (and, because, but, etc.) to organise my text

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Table 7 corroborates the influence of process writing on the experimental group because they adopt a positive viewpoint towards collaboration with their partners during the formation of their drafts. They start with a low percentage, as they are totally unaware of drafting and cooperation, to end up with 70,7% in favour of drafting and receiving treatment from their fellow students.

Lesson		A LOT	A LITTLE	NOT AT ALL	TOTAL
4th	N	7	36	-	43
	%	16,3	83,7	-	100,0
5th	N	21	19	-	40
	%	52,5	47,5	-	100,0
6th	N	23	21	-	44
	%	52,3	47,7	-	100,0
7th	N	29	12	-	41
	%	70,7	29,3	-	100,0

Table 7. My partner's comments on my drafts help me to improve my final text

Although the notion of drafting and obtaining response by the teacher during the writing procedure is a new notion to them, the learners admit its significance from the first writing they produce and finally reach unanimous acceptance (Table 8). Moreover, they prioritise the teacher's commentary on their drafts as compared to the feedback on their final product (table 9) proving that they have understood the contribution of focusing on the process of writing to the improvement of their writing skills. This is a clear sign that they are able to self-assess themselves and decide on ways that help them to become better writers.

Lesson		A LOT	A LITTLE	NOT AT ALL	TOTAL
2nd	N	42	2	-	44
	%	95,5	4,5	-	100,0
3rd	N	39	5	-	44
	%	88,6	11,4	-	100,0
4th	N	36	7	-	43
	%	83,7	16,3	-	100,0
5th	N	34	6	-	40
	%	85,0	15,0	-	100,0
6th	N	39	5	-	44
	%	88,6	11,4	-	100,0
7th	N	41	-	-	41
	%	100,0	-	-	100,0

Table 8. My teacher's comments on my drafts help me to improve my final text

Lesson			A LOT	A LITTLE	NOT AT ALL	TOTAL
2nd	N		37	7	-	44
	%		84,1	15,9	-	100,0
3rd	N		37	7	-	44
	%		84,1	15,9	-	100,0
4th	N		28	15	-	43
	%		65,1	34,9	-	100,0
5th	N		38	2	-	40
	%		95,0	5,0	-	100,0
6th	N		43	1	-	44
	%		97,7	2,3	-	100,0
7th	N		40	1	-	41
	%		97,6	2,4	-	100,0

Table 9. I believe that my teacher's comments on my drafts are more useful than the comments on my final text

Table 10 indicates the participants' recognition of their improvement through errors, as they were actively involved in rectifying their own drafts and final texts being led, in this way, to realise the importance of student participation in the correction of their own pieces of writing.

Lesson		A LOT	A LITTLE	NOT AT ALL	TOTAL
2nd	N	32	12	-	44
	%	72,7	27,3	-	100,0
3rd	N	40	4	-	44
	%	90,9	9,1	-	100,0
4th	N	36	7	-	43
	%	83,7	16,3	-	100,0
5th	N	31	9	-	40
	%	77,5	22,5	-	100,0
6th	N	32	11	-	43
	%	74,4	25,6	-	100,0
7th	N	39	2	-	41
	%	95,1	4,9	-	100,0

Table 10. Everybody makes mistakes, so I can learn from my own mistakes

Table 11 reveals again that in lesson two, they are confident about their capacity to write a better piece of writing next time due to the fact that they dealt with the familiar generic type of the letter. As the intervention continues, they encounter new genres, therefore,

their certainty is decreased and finally it increases highlighting that they reflect that, during the procedure of experimenting with their ideas and the text, they are assisted to become more competent writers.

Lesson		A LOT	A LITTLE	NOT AT ALL	TOTAL
2nd	N	38	6	-	44
	%	86,4	13,6	-	100,0
3rd	N	32	12	-	44
	%	72,7	27,3	-	100,0
4th	N	27	15	1	43
	%	62,8	34,9	2,3	100,0
5th	N	31	9	-	40
	%	77,5	22,5	-	100,0
6th	N	30	13	-	43
	%	69,8	30,2	-	100,0
7th	N	34	7	-	41
	%	82,9	17,1	-	100,0

Table 11. I know how to write a better piece of writing next time

Little assertiveness is displayed in the first lesson by the learners about their progress, but gradually it is increased and reaches a high percentage of 75,6% which shows that not only did they manage to monitor their improvement but they also realised the value of process writing on their personal thinking and writing evolvement (Table 12).

Lesson		A LOT	A LITTLE	NOT AT ALL	TOTAL
1[o]	N	12	31	1	44
	%	27,3	70,5	2,3	100,0
2[o]	N	30	14	-	44
	%	68,2	31,8	-	100,0
3[o]	N	22	20	2	44
	%	50,0	45,5	4,5	100,0
4[o]	N	24	17	2	43
	%	55,8	39,5	4,7	100,0
5[o]	N	24	16	-	40
	%	60,0	40,0	-	100,0
6[o]	N	26	16	1	43
	%	60,5	37,2	2,3	100,0
7[o]	N	31	10	-	41
	%	75,6	24,4	-	100,0

Table 12. I am sure about my progress

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6. Pedagogical Implications

An attempt will be made in this section to provide certain recommendations regarding self-assessment and the teaching of writing by selecting meaningful priorities.

6.1. Fostering autonomy in learning

Self-assessment in the form of reflective reports can be a part of a procedure which leads to a student-centred teaching situation, whereby there is a change of emphasis from the assessment of the final product to the self-evaluation of the process. This seems to lead to increased student confidence in their ability to perform and monitor their own participation in the learning procedure. Consequently, students can become independent learners who can measure their learning progress.

6.2. Stressing the importance of writing

This shift of focus from traditional assessment to self-assessment prioritises the importance of the process of learning and is in accordance with the underpinning assumptions of the process writing approach in which the process is of equal importance with the form. Moreover, devoting time to writing in the classroom is of utmost significance as students develop linguistically and cognitively by becoming independent writers and autonomous learners.

7. Limitations of the study

The major limitation of the present research is that it only monitors students' attitudes about their own learning progress and ways of learning how to write efficiently in an immediate questionnaire, that is after each writing lesson. Therefore, the learners' opinion is attributed to the intervention. No summative questionnaire or a delayed questionnaire, after a certain period of time, was possible to be administered due to time constraints. This delayed questionnaire might reveal the retention rate of the positive effects of self-assessment on students' ability to participate in their own learning process and reflect on their cognitive and linguistic attainment. In this way, a more reliable picture might surface if both short-term and long-term instrumentation tools were feasible.

8. Conclusion

In order to contribute to the need for more research on the efficacy of self-assessment in the classroom and the application of process writing, the present study examined the extent to which self-evaluation and the "process approach" facilitated the students of the experimental group of the sixth grade of Greek state primary schools to develop their reasoning capacity. In this way, they were aided to select appropriate ways to help themselves to maximise their critical reasoning about their learning and thinking. It was found that the students seem to have gained insight into their own learning progress and skill development and to have acknowledged the merits of process writing in rendering them active participants in the learning context. As a result, both research questions were verified.

The contributions of the present study are the following:

1. The students seem to have realised that through self-assessment they are aided to develop their cognitive, metacognitve, motivational and affective abilities.
2. "Learning how to learn" (Williams, 1991: 206) seems to assist learners to realise that learning is a problem-solving situation within which knowledge is discovered rather than passively acquired.
3. Self-assessment seems to empower students to assume responsibility of their own learning by participating meaningfully in the process of their own learning and being led gradually, thus, to structure their reasoning.

Finally, further research is proposed in other contexts, such as secondary schools in order to validate the efficacy of self-assessment in empowering students to use proper resource management strategies.

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Appendix I

<u>*REFLECTIVE REPORT*</u>

In this questionnaire you will find statements regarding the methods which help you to im-prove your writing in English. Try to think for a while and discover the strategies-methods which help you to produce better pieces of writing.

ALL YOUR ANSWERS WILL BE TREATED AS CONFIDENTIAL

School: _____   *Year of birth: _____*
Gender   ☐ *Boy*   ☐ *Girl*

Put a ✓ in the box with the face which shows how you feel about each statement.
Remember the following symbols:

☺ *= A lot*   ☹ *= A little*   ☹ *= Not at all*
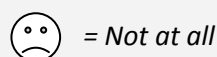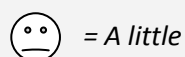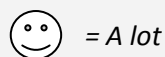
What is your opinion? Put a (✓) in the correct box.	☺ A lot	☹ A little	☹ Not at all
1. I like writing in my English class	A lot	A little	Not at all
2. I do not have to know everything I am going to write before I start writing	A lot	A little	Not at all
3. When I am writing I can come up with ideas	A lot	A little	Not at all
4. I can identify different text types	A lot	A little	Not at all
5. I can find the characteristics of a written text	A lot	A little	Not at all
6. When I know the organisation of a text in English, I can produce a similar text	A lot	A little	Not at all
7. I know how to work alone (without help)	A lot	A little	Not at all
8. I know when I need help from my partner or my teacher	A lot	A little	Not at all

What is your opinion? *Put a (✓) in the correct box.*	😊 *A lot*	😐 *A little*	🙁 *Not at all*
9. I can check my text to spot mistakes	*A lot*	*A little*	*Not at all*
10. I can use punctuation correctly	*A lot*	*A little*	*Not at all*
11. I know when I need to work with my team or my partner and when I can work alone (without help)	*A lot*	*A little*	*Not at all*
12. I can use linking words (and, because, but, etc.) to organise my text	*A lot*	*A little*	*Not at all*
13. My partner's comments on my drafts help me to improve my final text	*A lot*	*A little*	*Not at all*
14. My teacher's comments on my drafts help me to improve my final text	*A lot*	*A little*	*Not at all*
15. My teacher's comments on my final text help me to improve my writing	*A lot*	*A little*	*Not at all*
16. I believe that my teacher's comments on my drafts are more useful than the comments on my final text	*A lot*	*A little*	*Not at all*
17. Grammatical mistakes are more important than the mistakes in the content	*A lot*	*A little*	*Not at all*
18. Everybody makes mistakes, so I can learn from my own mistakes	*A lot*	*A little*	*Not at all*
19. I know how to write a better piece of writing next time	*A lot*	*A little*	*Not at all*
20. I am sure about my progress	*A lot*	*A little*	*Not at all*

THANK YOU

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Appendix II

ΗΜΕΡΟΛΟΓΙΟ ΜΕ ΠΑΡΑΤΗΡΗΣΕΙΣ

Σ' αυτό το ερωτηματολόγιο θα βρεις προτάσεις σχετικά με τους τρόπους που σε βοηθάνε να βελτιωθείς στο να γράφεις γραπτά κείμενα στα Αγγλικά. Αφιέρωσε λίγο από το χρόνο σου για να ανακαλύψεις τις στρατηγικές-μεθόδους που σε βοηθάνε να παράγεις γραπτά κείμενα καλύτερα.

ΟΛΕΣ ΟΙ ΑΠΑΝΤΗΣΕΙΣ ΣΟΥ ΘΑ ΘΕΩΡΗΘΟΥΝ ΕΜΠΙΣΤΕΥΤΙΚΕΣ

Σχολείο:_____

Έτος γέννησης: _____

Φύλο : Αγόρι   Κορίτσι

Βάλε ένα (✓) στο πρόσωπο που δείχνει πώς αισθάνεσαι για κάθε πρόταση.
Θυμήσου τα παρακάτω σύμβολα:

😊 = Πολύ   😐 = Λίγο   ☹️ = Καθόλου

Τι ισχύει για σένα; Βάλε ένα (✓) στο σωστό κουτί.	😊	😐	☹️
	Πολύ	**Λίγο**	**Καθόλου**
1. Μου αρέσει να γράφω γραπτά κείμενα στα Αγγλικά	**Πολύ**	**Λίγο**	**Καθόλου**
2. Δεν είναι απαραίτητο να γνωρίζω όλα όσα πρόκειται να γράψω προτού να αρχίσω το γράψιμο	**Πολύ**	**Λίγο**	**Καθόλου**
3. Όταν γράφω γραπτά κείμενα μπορώ να ανακαλύπτω τις ιδέες που έχω στο μυαλό μου	**Πολύ**	**Λίγο**	**Καθόλου**
4. Μπορώ να αναγνωρίσω διαφορετικά είδη γραπτών κειμένων	**Πολύ**	**Λίγο**	**Καθόλου**
5. Μπορώ να βρω τα χαρακτηριστικά ενός γραπτού κειμένου	**Πολύ**	**Λίγο**	**Καθόλου**
6. Όταν γνωρίζω την οργάνωση ενός κειμένου μπορώ παράγω ένα παρόμοιο γραπτό κείμενο	**Πολύ**	**Λίγο**	**Καθόλου**
7. Ξέρω πώς να δουλεύω μόνος/μόνη μου	**Πολύ**	**Λίγο**	**Καθόλου**
8. Ξέρω πότε να ζητήσω βοήθεια από το διπλανό/τη	**Πολύ**	**Λίγο**	**Καθόλου**

διπλανή μου ή το δάσκαλο/τη δασκάλα μου			
9. Μπορώ να ελέγξω το γραπτό μου κείμενο για να εντοπίσω λάθη	**Πολύ**	*Λίγο*	**Καθόλου**
10. Μπορώ να χρησιμοποιήσω τα σημεία της στίξης σωστά	**Πολύ**	*Λίγο*	**Καθόλου**
11. Ξέρω πότε χρειάζεται να δουλεύω με την ομάδα ή το διπλανό/τη διπλανή μου και πότε μπορώ να δουλεύω μόνος/μόνη μου	**Πολύ**	*Λίγο*	**Καθόλου**
12. Μπορώ να χρησιμοποιώ συνδετικές λέξεις (και, επειδή, αλλά κ.λ.π.) για να οργανώνω το κείμενο μου	**Πολύ**	*Λίγο*	**Καθόλου**
13. Τα σχόλια του διπλανού/της διπλανής μου στα προσχέδια του τελικού γραπτού μου με βοηθάνε να βελτιώσω το κείμενο μου	**Πολύ**	*Λίγο*	**Καθόλου**
14. Τα σχόλια του δασκάλου/της δασκάλας μου στα προσχέδια του τελικού γραπτού μου με βοηθάνε να βελτιώσω το κείμενο μου	**Πολύ**	*Λίγο*	**Καθόλου**
15. Τα σχόλια του δασκάλου/της δασκάλας μου στο τελικό γραπτό μου με βοηθάνε να βελτιώσω το κείμενο μου	**Πολύ**	*Λίγο*	**Καθόλου**
16. Θεωρώ ότι τα σχόλια του δασκάλου/της δα-σκάλας μου στα προσχέδια μου είναι πιο χρήσιμα από την ανατροφοδότηση-τα σχόλια στο τελικό μου κείμενο	**Πολύ**	*Λίγο*	**Καθόλου**
17.Τα γραμματικά λάθη είναι πιο σημαντικά από τα λάθη στο νόημα-περιεχόμενο της έκθεσης	**Πολύ**	*Λίγο*	**Καθόλου**
18. Όλοι κάνουν λάθη. Έτσι και εγώ μπορώ να βελτιωθώ από τα λάθη μου	**Πολύ**	*Λίγο*	**Καθόλου**
19. Ξέρω πώς να γράψω ένα καλύτερο γραπτό κείμενο την επόμενη φορά	**Πολύ**	*Λίγο*	**Καθόλου**
20. Είμαι σίγουρος/η για την πρόοδο μου	**Πολύ**	*Λίγο*	**Καθόλου**

ΕΥΧΑΡΙΣΤΩ

Implementing Collaborative Process Based Writing in the EFL College Classroom

Handoyo Puji WIDODO

This article reviews the application of collaboration, which is very rarely implemented in the EFL process based writing classroom in Indonesia. It also tries to expand the scope of collaboration in all aspects of the EFL college writing process. First, this article addresses the operational definition of collaboration in process based EFL writing instruction. In what follows, the article sheds light on the benefits of collaborative process based writing in the EFL classroom. The remaining section of the article discusses step-by-step procedures for collaborative process based writing in the classroom. Anchored in this collaborative process based writing framework, a teacher enables students to engage in collaborative and dialogic activities through the process of writing. The ultimate goal is to help EFL college students write academic pieces better and more easily as they go through the writing process from pre-writing to post-writing.

Key words: Collaboration, college students, process based writing, the EFL classroom

1. Introduction

Collaborative learning has been widely implemented in the language classroom. The term, 'collaborative learning,' is generally perceived as joint intellectual effort by individual members of each group or students and a teacher, and it is the mutual engagement of group members in a coordinated effort to complete a particular learning task (Lai, 2011). Commonly, in collaborative learning, students work in groups of two or more students in which they mutually share knowledge and linguistic resources, negotiate with others, and create a joint product. In other words, collaborative learning involves knowledge and linguistic resource sharing, mutual engagement, negotiation, and a jointly completed product.

Ample empirical findings and literature have discussed the benefit and efficacy of collaborative learning (e.g., group work activities and collaborative dialogs) in the ESL/EFL classroom (e.g., Sert, 2005; Storch, 2011; Wanatabe & Swain, 2007). Particularly in the ESL writing classroom, there are ample literature and research on the implementation of collaborative learning (e.g., Nelson & Murphy, 1992; Storch, 2005; Storch, 2011). However, there is little attention to the integration of collaboration into process based writing

instruction, particularly in the EFL context (e.g., in Indonesia). To fill these practical and contextual gaps, this article attempts to review the integration of collaboration into the process based EFL college writing classroom where writing is perceived as a process and as a product.

This article is structured into three main parts: (1) the operational definition of collaboration in the process based EFL college writing classroom, (2) the benefits of this writing instruction, and (3) step-by-step procedures for such instruction. Overall, this article attempts to expand the scope of collaboration in all aspects of the EFL writing process at college level.

1.1. Collaboration in the process based EFL college writing classroom

According to Jacobs (2006), collaborative work can be defined as pair or group work. In a process based writing activity, collaboration in writing means that two or more students write together. They are encouraged to collaborate throughout the process of writing. Such collaboration means that students are jointly responsible for composing a text (Storch, 2005). This joint text production by two or more student writers paves the way for "the joint ownership of the document produced" (Storch, 2011, p. 275). In integrating collaboration into the process based writing classroom, teachers need to consider two main issues, as briefly described below.

The first issue is forming groups. This is the first step that a teacher needs to negotiate with students. Ideally, small groups of two members are preferred in order to allow for greater participation (Jacobs, 2006). Two options are possible for forming groups: teacher chosen or student chosen (Widodo, 2006). The former rests on the teacher's decision. Groups can contain mixed ability levels (e.g., a low achiever and a high achiever work together). It is crucial to keep in mind that the group members should assume equal participation during the writing process if the mixed ability group is chosen. On the other hand, the latter rests on the students' choice to work with their group mates. In this regard, a teacher affords students the opportunity to choose their own group mates so that they feel comfortable to work with each other.

The second issue relates to when collaboration is implemented in the process based writing classroom. In this article, students work collaboratively throughout the entire process of writing (from pre-writing to post-writing stages). The same groups with the same members are assigned to produce a particular piece of writing until a writing process cycle is completed. In another writing process cycle, a teacher may assign students to write with other peers so that they gain different experience. Thus, as Nelson and Murphy (1992) point out, shifting or rotating group membership periodically allows students the opportunity to work with different peers in different writing cycles, thereby interacting with different readers. The group membership rotation can be decided based on (1) the initial preferences of students, (2) a mixture of genders (males and females), (3) a mixture of student proficiency level in language and writing, and (4) a shared or similar writing topic.

1.2. Benefits of integrating collaboration into the process based writing classroom

In process based writing, collaboration provides students with some benefits throughout the process of writing. First, unlike solitary writing, when students generate ideas, they can pool ideas together, and they receive immediate feedback from their peers within the group. This social interaction in the classroom "promote[s] a sense of co-ownership and hence

encourage students to the decision making on all aspects of writings: content, structure, and language" (Storch, 2005, p. 154). In this way, at the beginning phase of writing, students can make shared decisions on and negotiate what to write and how to pool ideas together.

Second, in a drafting process, students can share both knowledge and linguistic resources, and more importantly, they can assume shared responsibility for completing particular writing tasks. As a result, collaborative writing may enlighten student workload. Dissimilar to writing solo, writing collaboratively allows students to do personal and interpersonal negotiations for meaning to turn ideas into cohesive and coherent pieces of writing without waiting for a peer or teacher feedback session. Third, by writing collaboratively, if a peer feedback or response session is implemented in pairs, more students are involved in responding to each other's writing. Students may receive more feedback or response from their peers if a peer feedback session is well managed, or training in peer feedback is intensively provided.

Fourth, collaborative process based writing allows students to coordinate writing activities as they collaborate on an assigned essay (Widodo, 2006). It also builds on student sense of shared responsibility for completing a certain assigned writing task, thereby assisting students in gaining group pride in work accomplishment (Harmer, 2007). Fifth, collaboration in process based writing promotes social support. For example, low achieving students can benefit from their high achieving peers. The low achieving students may learn the way the high achieving students use different writing strategies that the former students may want to adopt. For high achievers, collaborative process based writing encourages them to have an awareness of social responsibility for scaffolding or supporting others, so they can help one another develop ideas into completed essays through collaboration. This is known as collective scaffolding, as Donato (1994) pinpoints.

The last benefit that students may gain from collaborative process based writing is that they can build and develop their critical thinking skills. In groups, students are expected to collaboratively evaluate strengths and weaknesses of drafts written. Students may be unable to automatically evaluate the drafts critically, but through a step-by-step process, they will learn how to evaluate their drafts and critique their peers' pieces of writing (Nelson & Murphy, 1992). As Stapleton (2001) maintains, critical thinking can be promoted through content familiarity and schemata (prior knowledge) because these shape the range and depth of argumentation. For example, if students are familiar with content, they have a greater chance of refining their ideas and provide critical feedback on their peers' pieces of writing. Through the gradual process of writing and teacher scaffolding (e.g., showing students the way to evaluate and critique a piece of writing), students will be able to become engaged writers who have competence in explaining, clarifying, and defending their arguments with each other. In turn, this can promote interpersonal negotiation for meaning through group discussions in the classroom so that the intended meanings can be successfully achieved.

To conclude, collaboration in process based writing may be used to build a supportive learning atmosphere for students and provide them with an opportunity to experience the

process of writing collaboratively. Writing collaboratively can optimize mutual benefits in a stress reduced classroom atmosphere (Gaith, 2002).

2. Implementing collaborative process based writing in the EFL classroom

2.1. Pre-writing activity

Forming groups

This activity is the first step for implementing a collaborative process based writing activity. As earlier mentioned, groups can be formed based on a teacher decision, a student preference, a mixture of genders, a mixture of student proficiency level in language and writing, or a shared writing topic or interest. More importantly, a teacher facilitates students to form groups so that the mutual agreement about composing together can be reached through negotiation between teacher and students or between individual members of each group.

Teacher scaffolding

This refers to providing support to students; teachers act as facilitators who try to make a writing task itself easier and make it possible for students to complete the task with support (Hammond, 2002).

In both solitary writing and collaborative process based writing, there are different types of scaffolding or support that teachers can provide to students. Such types of scaffolding include (1) writing prompts/clues—e.g., statements, questions, or pictures that provide students with informational input; (2) noticing activities—e.g., asking students to look at typical features of essays; (3) modeling essay writing through text co-construction with students; and (4) information on literacy in academic writing—e.g., providing how to cope with plagiarism and use sources appropriately and ethically.

Other types of teacher scaffolding are (a) the use of graphic organizers—e.g., listing or outlining ideas using semantic maps or mind mapping, (b) peer response and reflection guides, (c) peer feedback modeling—e.g., showing students how to respond to each others' drafts, and (d) teacher feedback—commenting on students' drafts before a teacher grades the drafts. Through the process of writing, teachers can provide such scaffolding to students to do writing tasks more easily (e.g., by generating ideas, drafting, and responding to each others' drafts).

Collaborative idea generating

Before students get started to write, it is a good idea to give them the opportunity to activate their prior knowledge and find out information they need to obtain (Rao, 2007). For this reason, teachers allow students to generate ideas; this activity can be done through brainstorming. In groups, students can brainstorm any ideas that they have in mind and share such ideas with one another. Students may use possible brainstorming techniques (e.g., listing, outlining, clustering, or free writing). At this stage, students assume responsibility for choosing a topic that interests them, narrowing down the topic that fits with an assigned writing task, and collecting as much information as possible and developing ideas. In short, this

phase gives the students a chance to stimulate their thinking and allow them to create and organize ideas in a clear order collaboratively (Rao, 2007).

2.2. While-writing activity

Collaborative drafting

Once students have produced clear idea outlines, they proceed to a drafting activity. In this activity, there are two options for teachers: asking students to sit together and compose a piece of writing collaboratively using handwriting or asking them to sit together at the computer, and they type a piece of writing on a word processor. If the second option is chosen, teachers should ensure that students are familiar with the functions of a word processor (e.g., *Microsoft Word*), which can facilitate students' process of writing. Moreover, the decision of whether the second option is chosen or not depends on the availability of instructional resources (e.g., computers), student and teacher competence in their use of computer and program applications, and students' preferences (e.g., some students may write using handwriting, or others may feel at ease in writing on a word processor). Regardless of the option chosen, teachers will ask students to sit together and compose a text together until one writing process cycle is completed.

Similar to solitary drafting, in collaborative drafting, students need to develop ideas into rough drafts without considering language accuracy first. In other words, rough drafts are not supposed to be perfect in that process based writing is a continuous process of meaning discovery, and promotes the fluency of ideas so that students can complete a certain writing task gradually. During the drafting process, students may use different strategies for expressing their ideas collaboratively. For example, some may express ideas in their native language, and then translate such ideas into English. Others may express ideas in English directly. Considering these composing strategies, a teacher needs to give students sufficient time to complete their drafts. Moreover, in the drafting process, teachers have to allow students to write multiple drafts (second, third, or fourth drafts) after they receive feedback from their peers and teachers. The number of drafts that students can produce depends on that of groups, time allotment, and students' proficiency levels in language and writing. Through collaboration, students can share unique resources (e.g., language and content) when developing ideas into completed drafts.

Giving feedback collaboratively

Feedback is believed to lead to student writing development, and it is given by teachers or by students. Feedback is commonly focused on content (e.g., ideas), rhetorical organization, and form (e.g., vocabulary and grammar). Balancing these aspects is crucial in student writing development. Although teacher feedback is more highly valued by students than is peer feedback, peer feedback offers some advantages (Carson & Nelson, 1996; Miao, Badger, & Zhen, 2006; Rollinson, 2005; Tsui & Ng, 2000). Here are some advantages of peer feedback:

- Peer feedback or comment can help students enhance a sense of audience because their peers are potential readers who can help increase text comprehensibility;
- Peer feedback helps students foster a sense of ownership of a text. When students receive feedback from their peers, they will most probably reflect on whether the feedback or comment needs to be considered;

- As far as language and content are concerned, peer feedback urges students to learn from one another. Peers may spot something (e.g., incorrect tenses or unclear ideas) that their fellow students may not realize, thereby helping them become aware of strengths and weaknesses of their writing;
- When peer feedback is given orally, students can have the opportunity to clarify their ideas, explain the intended meanings, and explore effective ways of expressing ideas intelligibly, thereby developing critical thinking and building collaborative and negotiable dialogs among students (Hansen & Liu, 2005);
- Peer feedback assists students in understanding the fact that teachers are not the sole sources of authority that can provide valuable feedback for students' writing improvement; and
- Peer feedback can lead to learner autonomy and a learner centered learning atmosphere in which collaborative learning is promoted among students.

Although there are some benefits of peer feedback, there are also some challenges (Carson & Nelson, 1996; Rollinson, 2005; Tsui & Ng, 2000). First, students may not trust their peer responses to their writing because they are not native speakers of English or have poor English proficiency. Second, students insist on seeing teachers as the only sources of authority in such a way that their peers are not knowledgeable enough to comment on their drafts. Third, students may not know how to critique their peers' pieces of writing, so they just spot surface linguistic mistakes. Another challenge is that in some cultures where being critical is concerned about one's feeling, students may not want to hurt their fellow students by critiquing their drafts.

In order to facilitate peer feedback, teachers should take cognizance of "how [students] actually engage with and process the feedback, and why they use (or fail to use) the feedback received" (Storch & Wigglesworth, 2010, p. 305). By considering these ideas, a teacher should provide in-class training in peer feedback as a sort of scaffolding for students and give them a peer review guide (Berg, 1999; Hansen & Liu, 2005; Min, 2006). The teacher can show the students how to respond to their peers' drafts using a peer review guide. Peer feedback training may take some time to be successful, but at least teachers can promote students' positive attitudes toward peer feedback (O'Brien, 2004). In the peer review activity, teachers get students "to clarify writers' intentions, identify the source of problems, explain the nature of problems, and make specific suggestions" for further draft improvements (Min, 2006, p. 123). The success and failure of peer feedback depend on students' capabilities of commenting on their peers' drafts, students' willingness to respond to these drafts, and students' attitudes towards peer feedback. Above all, teachers need to facilitate a peer review activity so that students become good and critical readers.

In addition to peer feedback, teacher feedback plays a crucial part of the writing process. Some authors (e.g., Miao, Badger, & Zhen, 2006) suggest that teacher feedback be given after peer feedback so that students feel free to comment on their peer drafts. Feedback practices may differ from one teacher to another. More importantly, according to Ferris (2007, p. 167), teachers should "find the correct balance between intervention (helpful) and appropriation (harmful)" so as to maintain students' self voices and encourage students to work on their further drafts and make significant revisions. In other words, a teacher is required to help students focus on the general content of the texts they produced and assist the students in decision making for reworking their drafts.

Revising and editing drafts

Similar to individual writing, after students receive feedback, they should rework their drafts. Revision is one of the crucial aspects in the process of writing, but whether revision gives rise to improvement in students' drafts rests on the students' capabilities and the quality of the feedback they receive from their peers (Tsui & Ng, 2000). Whether students will attend to feedback or not will depend on how they perceive it for improvement in their further drafts; they have to maintain their authorial voices. According to Lee and Schallert (2008), revision includes these series of activities: "reading the text, detecting problems, selecting a strategy, and revising the text" (p. 168). Drawing on the process of revision, revising does not simply involve looking at language errors, but it also addresses global content and organization of ideas so that the writers' intents are made clearer to readers (Widodo, 2006).

In the collaborative process based writing classroom, editing also plays a crucial role in the text producing process (Shin, 2007). It commonly deals with local issues of writing (e.g., incorrect spelling or inappropriate grammar). As a rule of thumb, editing is regarded as the last writing task that students need to do so as to complete the final draft after they produce multiple drafts and receive feedback from their peers and teachers. In short, the goal of editing is to check minor mistakes in grammar, vocabulary, and mechanics without changing substantial ideas before students submit their final drafts to teachers for process assessment.

2.3. Post-writing activity

Once students have revised and edited their final drafts, a teacher should start assessing the students' drafts. In student essay scoring, teachers must decide whether they prefer holistic scoring or analytic marking. The former deals with general impressionistic marking. In this kind of marking, a teacher quickly reads student's piece of writing and judges it against a rating or scoring rubric without explicitly stating criteria of individual writing aspects. The latter pertains to detailed or analytical marking in which a teacher rates a student's piece of writing based on several aspects of writing such as content, organization, cohesion, coherence, grammar, vocabulary, and mechanics. In short, analytical scoring allows for detailed information on student's writing performance (for more information on holistic and analytical scoring systems, see Assessing Writing by Sara C. Weigle, 2002). These two scoring systems have advantages and disadvantages. For example, as Weigle (2007) points out, the holistic scoring system is quicker and more efficient than the analytic scoring system. However, the analytic scoring system is "more useful feedback to students, as scores on different aspects of writing can tell students where their respective strengths and weaknesses are" (Weigle, 2007, p. 203). The choice of the two scoring systems depends variably on teacher preferences and goals, class sizes, time constraints, and needs for writing course assessment. More crucially, teachers should not view this assessment merely as an end, but as a process of helping students to write better.

Once students have carried out the entire collaborative process based writing activities, in each collaborative process based writing cycle, they are asked to reflect on what they have learned during the entire writing process. This reflection can also be applied to solitary writing. This reflective activity can encourage students to self-evaluate their strengths and weaknesses of their writing and think further of how they will improve in their own writing skill. To possibly help students focus on their reflection, teachers may provide a student reflection guide. For teachers, this reflection record allows them to look at what students

have accomplished and what teachers need to do to help students with their future composing tasks.

3. Conclusion

As Storch (2005) points out, the difficult task that writing teachers encounter in collaborative process based writing is to respond to students' preferences to work alone. Nonetheless, teachers should prepare their students to write collaboratively to facilitate students' writing skill development. The success and failure of collaborative process based writing rely on a number of factors such as teacher competence in teaching writing and managing the process of writing, the particular writing classroom context, the nature of the school curriculum and class syllabus, and individual student differences (e.g., a student proficiency level in language and writing or motivation to write collaboratively). Above all, writing teachers should not lose sight of the fact that writing is a social act and takes time for students to be competent writers who are aware of their writing goal or purpose, context, and intended audience (Hyland, 2007).

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An overview of lifelong learning practices, with an emphasis on the 'Grundtvig' action

Γενική θεώρηση πρακτικών δια βίου μάθησης, με έμφαση στη δράση 'Grundtvig'

Angeliki ANAGNOSTOPOULOU & Alexandra ATHANASIOU

Nowadays, it is generally accepted that the pivotal concern of the Educational and Training policy of Europe revolves around the enhancement of employment and growth opportunities within the broader scope of innovation and knowledge. Towards that end, the creation of a modernized and at the same time strong European Social Model of a 'knowledge economy' is anticipated. Recognizing the increasing workforce competition within Europe along with the growing significance of Information and Communication Technologies (ICT), the European Union is preparing to face the technological and the social challenges which will constitute the starting point towards achieving the objectives of increased employment and social welfare. Within the above described context, the present research aims at examining the impact of putting into effect components of the European Lifelong Learning Programme focusing on the Grundtvig action and its sub-division, Learning Partnerships.

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Στην εποχή μας, είναι γεγονός, ότι κύριο ενδιαφέρον της εκπαιδευτικής πολιτικής της Ευρώπης είναι η ενδυνάμωση της απασχολησιμότητας και της ευρύτερης ανάπτυξης στο γενικότερο πλαίσιο της καινοτομίας και της γνώσης με στόχο τη δημιουργία ενός μοντέρνου και ταυτόχρονα ισχυρού Ευρωπαϊκού κοινωνικού μοντέλου 'οικονομίας με γνώμονα την απόκτηση γνώσης'. Αναγνωρίζοντας τον αυξανόμενο ανταγωνισμό στον τομέα της εργασίας στην Ευρώπη με τη σπουδαιότητα του τρίπτυχου Τεχνολογίας-Πληροφορίας-Επικοινωνίας να αυξάνεται, η Ευρωπαϊκή Ένωση προετοιμάζεται να αντιμετωπίσει τις τεχνολογικές και κοινωνικές προκλήσεις οι οποίες θα αποτελέσουν την αφετηρία προς την επίτευξη των στόχων για πλήρη απασχόληση και κοινωνική ευημερία. Σε αυτά τα πλαίσια, η παρούσα μελέτη στοχεύει στο να εξετάσει τον αντίκτυπο της εφαρμογής πτυχών του προγράμματος Δια Βίου Μάθησης εστιάζοντας στο πρόγραμμα που αφορά στην εκπαίδευση ενηλίκων, Grundtvig, μαζί με μια από τις υποδιαιρέσεις του, τις εκπαιδευτικές συμπράξεις.

Key words: Lifelong Learning Program, Grundtvig action, Learning Partnerships

1. Introduction

It is common knowledge that in recent years the challenge of a knowledge-based society constituted the core of the Educational and Training Policy of Europe. Towards making Europe more competitive by integrating employment and growth, the modernized European Social Model of a 'knowledge economy' has emerged. This model is likely to provide European citizens with essential skills-based knowledge in the form of Information, Communication and Technology (ICT), which constitute significant tools for job creation.

Within the above described framework, the aim of the present study is to outline the effects of efficiently implementing aspects of the European Lifelong Learning Programme so as for Second Chance School adult learners to become active, not only as Greek but also as European citizens. More specifically, the specific research presents the European Union's principles and policies for Adult Education and Training via the Lifelong Learning Programme (LLP) within Second Chance School framework while analyzing one of its aspects, i.e., the Grundtvig Action, its policy context and structure. In the Grundtvig context, the parameters of Learning Partnerships and how they are likely to be put into effect when training Second Chance adult learners are also described.

2. Towards a Europe of innovation and knowledge

2.1. The contribution of the Lisbon Strategy to promoting a European Social Model

The adoption of the Lisbon Strategy in March 2000, i.e. the European Union's overarching program focusing on growth and jobs, has provided significant momentum to the European Education and policy. Within this framework, the aim of the Lisbon European council formed on the 23rd and 24th of March 2000 in order to take long-term measures on the basis of the above mentioned 'Lisbon Strategy' was primarily to "invigorate the Community's policies, against the backdrop of the most promising economic climate for a generation in the Member States" (The Lisbon Special European Council, 2008).

To further elaborate on the goal of the Lisbon Special European Council previously referred to and how it could possibly relate to the Educational and Training policy of Europe, two trends influencing the European economy and society will be mentioned. First of all, the fact that workforce competition within the European bosom is rising due to the renowned 'globalization' notion; secondly, the growing importance of Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) in all sectors of life demands a thorough and at times exhaustive examination of the Education system in Europe for potential reforming, along with guaranteed lifelong learning opportunities.

To develop economic growth, the Commission intends to attract more people to the employment market and encourage them to remain active, to improve the adaptability and flexibility of the labor markets and to definitely invest more in human capital by improving education and skills (Spring European Council, 2005)(A new start for the Lisbon Strategy, 2005). To even more effectively accomplish that aim thus contributing to an efficiently innovative and knowledgeable Europe, the Commission has set up a Lifelong Learning Programme having officially launched its action plan in September 2007 (EACEA, 2003).

2.2. *Connecting the Lisbon Strategy to Adult Education and Training*

In connection to the above mentioned lifelong learning policies, adult learning seems to be a vital component. Based on Widdowson (1983: 6-8), adult education and training are two fundamental terms which can be defined as follows: adult education refers to the development and acquisition of a generic knowledge, whereas training provides learners "with the restricted competence they need to meet their requirements". What is more, they both constitute essential factors to "competitiveness and employability, social inclusion, active citizenship and personal development across Europe" (European Commission, 2009a)(European Commission-Educational Training, 2009).

At this particular point, it should be stressed that there are varying definitions concerning adult learning. For example, Rogers claims that adult education relates to "the international interdisciplinary study of adults as learners and/or trainees of all types and in all environments" (Rogers, 1996). However, the term 'adults' seems to be a prevalent notion throughout the specific research being defined as "people over the statutory school-leaving age…" (OECD, 1997). In this framework, the previously mentioned term 'adult' should be essentially viewed in the light of the following adulthood-oriented characteristics as mentioned in Sifakis (2008: 250):

- they (adults) are in a continuing process of growth, not at the start of a process
- they bring with them a package of experience and values
- they come to education with intentions
- they bring expectations about the learning process
- they have competing interests
- they already have their own set of patterns of learning

These characteristics are undoubtedly valid especially when considering English for Specific Purposes (ESP) learners' needs and an accompanying teaching methodology. For instance, in the case of Second Chance Schools, the specific learners seem to possess the above elaborated profile of the adult student/participant who is:

- voluntarily involved in learning
- conscious of the learning process as a necessary step towards his/her personal and/or academic/vocational fulfillment
- conscious of and reflective on, to a considerable degree, their own learning preferences and difficulties (Sifakis, 2008: 166)

In the stated definitions above, adulthood appears to be relating not only to age but also to each learner's unique social and cultural characteristics (ibid). Moreover, within European policy discussions and in agreement with the description of the adulthood – oriented characteristics mentioned earlier, adulthood refers to people who have potentially abandoned initial education and training; these people are at this point making a rigorous effort to readjust to a variety of training systems in or outside formal education with the aim to continue learning for personal, civic, social as well as employment-related purposes (European Commission, 2009b) (European Commission-Education & Training, 2009).

In the light of the aforementioned, The Reference Framework, drawn by the European Council stated earlier (The European Parliament and the council of the European Union, 2006) (Recommendation of the European Parliament and of the Council, 2006), sets out eight key competencies which can be summarized into the following:

- Communication in foreign languages
- Digital competence,
- Learning to learn skills (the ability to learn independently)
- Social and civic competencies
- Cultural awareness and
- Expression

These competencies in essence constitute fundamental adult education principles. Specifically, learning how to function within society by bringing in prior life experience and previous learning are primary adult learning benchmarks, which can contribute to a successful life in a knowledge-based society and economy. Such adult learning themes as learners' existing experience modified in the form of critical thinking, learning strategies such as problem solving and decision making, initiative and creativity in decision making when negotiating syllabus topics and many more (Sifakis, 2008: 148,150) play a great role in learners' acquiring the eight competencies being crucial for their personal, professional and social development.

2.3. Adult Education and Lifelong Learning Programme (LLP)

As mentioned above, the eight competencies adult learners are required to attain through their education programs are key factors not only to their own but also to their facilitators' benefit, i.e., teachers/trainers, realizing that learning takes place everywhere. What is more and according to Adult Education theory regarding the adult learners' existing knowledge and experience (Sifakis, 2008: 150), learning in contexts other than formal education "may even be more important or make more sense to the learner in his/her daily life than what is learned in the formal setting of the educational institution" (Kumpulainen, 2009).

In order to support the European citizens' right to learn in all environments, the European Commission has recognized that "nowadays lifelong learning is key to both jobs and growth and the participation of everyone in society" (European Commission, 2009a) (European Commission-Education & Training, 2009: 1). This is precisely the reason why it has integrated its varied educational and training initiatives under a single umbrella, namely the Lifelong Learning Programme (LLP) whose goal is to "enable individuals at all stages of their lives to pursue stimulating learning opportunities across Europe" (ibid).

As elaborated in the Memorandum on Lifelong Learning in 2000, the lifelong learning programme entails the combating of social exclusion as well as the fostering of social inclusion, i.e. "giving all individuals equal opportunities to be part of a local community and to play an active role in making it better" (The Conclusions of the Consultation Platform, 2001:6) (Focusing on Lifelong Learning, 2001: 6). Fighting social exclusion means supporting people who, for such reasons as disability, age, racism, gender, social class and other, do not participate in various social events.

In addition to the acquisition of the new basic skills, the Lifelong Learning Programme (LLP) promotes active citizenship in the form of learning in connection to cultural diversity and

creativity which should also be expressed in agreement with different bodies on a regional, national and European level. More specifically, active citizenship concerns social responsibility and solidarity and the Lifelong Learning Programme can be a part of an active citizenship process.

3. The umbrella of lifelong learning programme (LLP) leading to the 'Grundtvig' action

3.1. The Grundtvig policy context – the programme structure and the Learning Partnerships

In section 2, mention was made to the Lisbon Strategy concerning the European Union ambitious policy of supporting economic expansion and entrepreneurship along with reinforcing social inclusion. In this context, adult education bears a profound role in raising adult learners' level of knowledge and skills primarily through supplying early school leavers with a crucial second chance as well as assisting people at a later stage in life, in remaining active via attending varied learning programs.

As a consequence of the previously stated aims, the European Union has launched, among other actions, the Grundtvig Action which constitutes an integral part of this paper. More specifically, "the Grundtvig programme focuses on the teaching and study needs of those immersed in Adult Education and alternative education streams, as well as the institutions and organizations delivering these services" (European Commission, 2009a) (European Commission-Education-Practical Learning,2009: 1). Moreover, the Grundtvig Action of the LLP programme aims at providing adult learners with ways to improve their knowledge and skills while keeping them mentally fit and potentially more employable.

Initially put forward in 2000 in the framework of the Socrates II Programme, Grundtvig has both contributed to the development and implementation of the European Union's initiatives for a better economy and society; "it provides the vital bridge between policy and practice" (European Communities, 2008: 5) enabling, on the one hand, educators to develop innovative teaching approaches and, on the other hand, allowing learners to "cross national borders in search of new opportunities for training and knowledge" (*ibid*).

In the above Grundtvig frame, the Grundtvig Learning Partnerships constitute part of this action. According to the European Commission (2009c): 1), "a learning partnership is a framework for small-scale cooperation activities between organizations working in the field of adult education in the broadest sense". To be more specific, in a Grundtvig Learning Partnership (LP), trainers and trainees from at least three participating countries work together on one or more topics of mutual interest. This exchange of experiences, practices and methods, i.e. learning from the other, contributes to an awareness of the European cultural, social and economic diversity and leads to a better understanding of common areas of interest within adult learning.

Grundtvig Learning Partnerships constitute a major division in the context of the Lifelong Learning Programme. The reason for this is their special asset to bring a European dimension to organizations directly involved in Adult Education (CIMO, 2008). In addition, they seem to be a 'first taste of Europe' for many of the above mentioned organizations while at the same

time practitioners develop sustainable networks of professionals for exchanging experience and improving practice; what is more, Learning Partnerships (LPs) appear to foster social cohesion and intercultural dialogue thus contributing to a Europe of active citizens.

3.2. "Green terraces across Europe": a Learning Partnership in action

In the light of the above, the target group of learners participating in the learning partnership to be examined belongs to a regional Second Chance School for adults. More specifically, according to the Greek Ministry Document on Second Chance Schools operation (2008), the law relating to the specific type of schools was passed in 1997 (article 5, 2525/1997) and concerns adult learners over the age of 18 who are in need of obtaining secondary school certification.

Within such a framework, adult learners are able to acquire basic qualifications and skills while developing their competence in Modern Greek, Mathematics, Environmental and Social issues, Foreign Languages (English) and Informatics. In addition, the Second Chance School program offers career consultation and psychological guidance as well as awareness in such practical issues as modern teaching methodologies; the latter involve new technologies, learners' active participation and specialized teaching staff. Additionally, an innovative schedule is determined by learners' needs most frequently dictated by the cooperation among the school, the local community, the enterprises and the education system.

To further clarify the specific school schedule, the overall duration of the Second Chance Schools program is 18 months leading to the acquisition on the part of the trainees of the official secondary school diploma equal to the equivalent certification obtained by adolescents finishing secondary education. Moreover, the trainee's weekly participation is 21 hours comprising a great number of cognitive, cultural and environmental activities. It is also worth noting that the Second Chance School discussed in this study commenced its operation in September 2005, with a total of 85 trainees, whereas the programme itself also encompasses a number of workshops and projects.

As far as the aforementioned project work is concerned, a group of twenty trainees are required to participate in a designed Grundtvig learning partnership called *'Green Terraces across Europe'*. More specifically, the initial and most profound activity in this partnership engages learners in the construction of a vegetable and flower garden on top of their school building. Once the first plants have been cultivated, the trainees are expected to extract vegetables from the garden; these are going to be used as ingredients for a meal they going to prepare for their European guests since the partnership involves exchange visits during which constructing, planting and cooking experiences will have to be discussed in English.

For this reason, a special English course is going to be designed as a means of preparing trainees for interaction with other European adult learners from the corresponding countries-partners namely Romania, the coordinating country, Italy, Poland, Bulgaria and France. In reality, this tailor-made English course, which explores its learner needs in a concise manner for a short term as shown below, can be orientated as English for Specific Purposes (ESP) as claimed in Sifakis (2008: 30). Therefore, to be able to handle all the associated challenges, the learners need to acquire fluency in relevant language use, something that is accomplished by means of an English course integrating all four skills-

reading, writing, speaking, listening - focusing on clear and specific objectives (Sifakis, 2008: 43).

3.3. Needs analysis findings

Designating specific learning needs for the trainees of the Second Chance School in question, through the specification of the goals, objectives and content of the English course that is going to be taught to them, is absolutely essential. In this way, the trainer planning the respective course is capable of gathering data which will help her 'to design, implement or even review and evaluate an existing program' (Nunan, 1988: 43) embodying a 'needs-based philosophy' which will maximize the effectiveness of her ESP teaching efforts (Richards, 2001: 51).

Towards meeting this end, the goal of the particular English workshop deriving from the needs analysis conducted is, on the one hand, to strengthen the Second Chance learners' communicative ability so that they can cope with welcoming trainees from the aforementioned European nations. On the other hand, according to the designed questionnaire findings, the aims/objectives of the English workshop can be viewed as a way in which all four skills can be developed on the part of the learners. What is more, the above mentioned questionnaire findings shed light on essential skills in need of improvement, for example such micro skills as reading silently, understanding recipe text-types and listening to authentic speech.

In the above context, the demographic trends resulting from the data collected through the participants' questionnaire involve the following:

- Eight of them are female and only two are male on a total of ten trainees that finally appeared (women as a vulnerable social group in need of professional skills for the attainment of full time employment).
- The permanent whereabouts of the majority (56%) seem to be in the capital of the prefecture. However, a great deal of them (34%) live in a rural area as well.
- The majority (78%) belongs to a certain vocational environment but are in need of more specialized skills so as to be rendered employable in their search for full time employment.
- The fact that most of the average learners (46%) are between 25 and 35 years old designates the exclusion of productive age from the competitiveness of contemporary labor markets.

According to the data we collected, participants' subject preferences have positioned English (80%) and Computers (70%) first in the rank, while the projects 'Related to Health' (40%) and 'Green Terraces across Europe' (30%) come next. As regards the intensive courses, the English workshop constitutes their first preference.

Concerning their English language level before the conduct of the particular English workshop, 30% of the learners have described it as quite good while another 30% have claimed that their English language knowledge had been very little up to the point the workshop was about to begin. Regarding the ways in which they have viewed the obtained knowledge in the English language upon completion of the workshop, participants have not provided any answer.

In relation to the questionnaire results, the following graph results refer to learning and teaching modes respectively. Within this framework, some highly indicative trends as to how these learners perceive teaching/learning modes are as follows: 70% have responded they could manage listening comprehension and drilling relating to grammar, syntax and pronunciation while 50% would like to enhance their speaking ability after the end of the course.

In addition to the above, 60% have responded that they like learning a foreign language through communication with foreigners as well as reading comprehension; 50% would prefer to learn from software or the internet, 40% from Television or video modes while 40% from Educational CDs. Regarding their views on innovative teaching modes implemented during the teaching/learning sessions at school, 90% of them have appeared to possess knowledge of the internet along with the social networking.

3.4. Implications

Taking all these insightful statistics into consideration, the English practitioner of the particular Second Chance School carried out a needs analysis questionnaire for the purpose of designing an intensive English course. The latter would intensify the learners' communicative competence; what is more, the conduct of the questionnaire ultimately orientated the learners' actual *needs,* being to fluently communicate with trainees from the European countries participating in the learning partnership 'Green Terraces across Europe. In addition to this, the questionnaire constituted an indicator of the trainees' *interests,* which depicted their willingness to learn English and Computers.

The needs analysis in question also designated their learning preferences and styles thus highlighting their perception about the classroom teaching modes along with their preferred ways of learning. Moreover, the results of the questionnaire assisted in setting the learning objectives (Berggren, 1987) of the units to be designed and taught to the learners; these objectives were summarized into the development of the learners' linguistic and communicative competence for the main reason of fulfilling the aim for employment opportunities. Finally, the questionnaire resulted in promoting student motivation (*ibid*) via taking into account the students-participants' opinion on such items of the syllabus design as for instance the (non-) existence of a course book or the study workshop within the school operation hours.

4. Conclusion

The purpose of the present research constitutes an endeavor to explore the implications of putting into effect parameters of the Lifelong Learning Programme in Adult Education. Specific reference has been made to the 'Grundtvig' action within the broader scope of creating a modernized European Social Model of a 'knowledge economy' through innovative practices such as the training scheme presented in this paper.

European Lifelong learning policies were examined in the context of a strong European model which will be supportive towards its citizens, in particular such vulnerable groups as elderly people, women, migrants and the disabled, in terms of full employment opportunities and more efficient Education and Training. The Grundtvig action, along with its sub-division, the learning partnerships, all under the umbrella of the Lifelong Learning

Programme (LLP) were also presented. Having analyzed European principles about employment and growth, in relation to the adult student-participant profile, emphasis was placed on the example of the 'Green Terraces' Grundtvig Learning Partnership and how it is likely to have a positive impact in educating Second Chance adult learners.

Glossary

- The Grundtvig program is the Lifelong Learning Program (LLP) action which focuses on the teaching and study needs of those in adult education and alternative education streams, as well as the institutions and organizations delivering these services" (European Commission, 2009b) (European Commission-Education-Practical Learning,2009: 1).
- The Grundtvig Learning Partnerships according to the European Commission (2009c) European Commission (2009: 1) refer to a framework for small-scale cooperation activities between organizations working in the field of Adult Education in the broadest sense". It focuses more on the process rather than the product of learning aiming at broadening the participation of smaller organizations that want to include a European orientation in their educational activities.
- The Lifelong Learning Program constitutes a single umbrella for education and training programs thus enabling individuals at all stages of their lives to pursue stimulating learning opportunities across Europe (http://eacea.ec.europa.eu)
- The Lisbon Strategy is the European Union's overarching program focusing on growth and jobs, has provided significant momentum to the European Education and policy. The aim of the Lisbon European council formed on 23-24th March 2000 in order to take long-term measures on the basis of the already mentioned 'Lisbon Strategy' was primarily to "invigorate the Community's policies, against the backdrop of the most promising economic climate…(The Lisbon Special European Council, 2008: 1) among Member States".

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Book reviews

Language Learning Strategies in the Foreign Language Classroom.
Angeliki Psaltou-Joycey (2010). Thessaloniki: University Studio Press, 293 pages.

The book extends over 10 chapters, which are evenly grouped into two parts. Part One, titled "Language learning strategies and related areas of interest", presents the theoretical background to strategies, which comprises both a historical account of related theories and an appreciation of the research involving the successful use of strategies and styles in language learning. Part Two is titled "Developing language skills and strategy use" and focuses on the impact of strategies on the development of the four language skills.

Part One begins with a comprehensive understanding of the theoretical underpinnings of language learning strategies. Chapter 1 provides a brief introduction to second language acquisition (SLA) theories such as behaviourism, innatism, the communicative competence model, monitor theory and interlanguage theory, with reference to key readings in each case. This is followed by presentations of cognitive, interactionist and socio-cultural theories of SLA. The chapter provides the basic readings for each theory and a summative orientation of the potential each theory can have for understanding language learning strategies. In a way, therefore, this first Chapter sets the scene for the second Chapter, which exposes the reader to the vast complexity of language learning strategy theorising. The chapter has sections on terminology and the various subtle aspects of strategies that have been suggested over the years—to that end, Table 2.1 on p. 43 and the author's definition on p. 42 provide a useful way of navigating the different perspectives to strategies. The chapter also cites the major "good language learner" studies of the 1970s to 1990s and wraps up by providing a helpful overview of the major taxonomies and classifications of language learning strategies (among which, Oxford's and O'Malley and Chamot's).

Chapter 3 is particularly useful as it contributes a series of characteristics (or variables) of individual language learners. The usefulness of this presentation is primarily its relevance with language learning strategies. The variables described here are learner age and gender, motivation, beliefs about language learning, proficiency level, field of specialization (when referring to university students), and culture. These descriptions are particularly handy for the foreign language teacher interested in understanding some of the requirements for a differentiated teaching environment. Further information, in this regard, is provided in Chapter 4, which focuses on discussing the perceptual, personality and cognitive dimensions of learning styles. Of particular interest to researchers is the account of learning style instruments. Part one rounds up with Chapter 5, which presents instruments for selecting information and assessing language learning strategies. Among the various tools described

are classroom observation, verbal report methods, and questionnaires developed by Oxford, Stoffer, Gu and Johnson, Dörnyei, and Psaltou-Joycey (pp. 144-6).

In the second part of the book, Psaltou-Joycey focuses on the impact of strategies on the development of the four language skills. Chapter 6 looks at reading, Chapter 7 on vocabulary learning, Chapter 8 on listening, Chapter 9 on speaking and, finally, Chapter 10 on writing. Each chapter presents a careful overview of the importance of strategies in engaging with the different language learning skills, with reference to published research that includes, among others, pre-, while- and post- reading strategies (which could also be useful in the teaching of the other skills as well), different ways of approaching, teaching and learning different types of lexis (discussed in section 7.5), aspects of engaging in oral communication (sections 9.5 and 9.6), or ways of approaching the development of a writing assignment (in section 10.4). Although there is no overt linking of the different language skills, the reader can draw parallels between the four skills (and their sub-skills) by looking into the different bibliographical resources presented in each chapter.

An important advantage of the book is that it does not merely consider language learning skills and strategies in an academic way, but it is concerned with the development of a teacher's understanding of the cognitive processes involved in a successful integration of differentiated instruction. As already mentioned, the book offers a lot of useful information for the teacher interested in the differentiated classroom. For example, section 5 of chapter 4 describes case studies that have researched different learning styles using various research instruments. The same can be said with most of the information provided in the second part of the book, where the focus is on understanding the needs of different learners and linking them with the demands of their corresponding proficiency levels—clearly, this needs a lot more care and attention, and it was not the original aim of the book, but what we are offered here is an excellent starting point which informs the uninitiated in the demands of working with groups of individual learners and catering to their specific needs by tailoring many different strategies that are discussed in the available literature.

The book is clearly targeted at undergraduate courses in applied linguistics and TESOL, but it can also be used as reference by postgraduate students as well. From a structural point of view, the book is very reader friendly, with the brief Preface and Epilogue providing a comprehensive introduction and conclusion to the chapters. The reader can also search the book with an extensive author and subject index and it offers helpful lists of abbreviations and illustrations as well.

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Research Papers
in Language Teaching and Learning
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Economic and Business English in a Nutshell: A Coursebook for Specific and Academic Purposes for Business Administration, Accountancy, and Economics.
Fotini Perdiki and Zoe Malivitsi (2012). Kavala: TEI of Kavala, 399 pages.

The field of teaching English for specific and academic purposes in Greece has been a growing field for a long time. In particular, the area of teaching English at university-level has been in demand for at least two decades, with different disciplines having different levels of demand for English and enjoying different levels of student participation and subject-tutor involvement. In the 2000s, the global spread of English has brought about a widespread recognition of the "need for English" in both academia and the workplace. This has also resulted in better training of in-service teachers of English for academic purposes and a concomitant interest for the development of high-quality teaching materials that are relevant in terms of content and updated from an instructional point of view.

The work at hand is an example of a well-researched and well-written course book that is targeted at Business Administration, Accountancy, and Economics courses at university level. The course book has two key advantages. On the one hand, it is written by experienced teachers of English for academic purposes (EAP) who have worked long and hard with students and subject-tutors of these disciplines at the Technological Educational Institute (TEI) of Kavala. On the other hand, it is written with the express purpose of preparing students for the in-house EAP examination of the same institution.

True to its purpose, the course book spans 16 Units, a Practice Test, an answer key to the tasks of each Unit and of the Practice Test. According to the Foreword, the course book is targeted at upper intermediate and advanced level university students. The course book covers all the language skills, except for listening. The topics selected are well-researched and, most importantly, draw on a broad range of areas related to business and the economy, from the Euro zone to unemployment. There are vocabulary items and grammar functions that are very closely linked to these disciplines: for example, Unit 4 introduces terminology such as "debit", "credit", "balance"; in Unit 5 one will find "mortgage", "interest" and "invoice"; other Units introduce terminology from banking, marketing and economics. More importantly, though, there are topics that are tangential to the disciplines serviced by the course book but equally crucial when using English to communicate, such as thinking about the importance of multiple intelligences, engaging with job searching and reflecting about the industry.

It is especially important that the course book also draws on issues that are topical and almost certain to elicit warm argumentation and participation from students. An example is Unit 13, which refers to the current financial crisis. It goes without saying that the authentic reading inputs and the tasks and activities that accompany them both engage students into critical thinking about the issues discussed and give them tools (in this case, argumentative vocabulary) with which to become involved in interesting debates about recession, depression and the financial crisis.

Reading inputs vary in length and integrate various genres, from newspaper articles (which tend to be the majority) to interviews. Language activities are, in the main, objectively tested activities (in the form of clozes, gap-filling tasks, multiple-choice tasks, multiple matching tasks, etc.) and, in this regard, it would be interesting to see more extensive activities in the form of role playing or even simulations. This does not imply, of course, that important subjectively assessed tasks are not at play here: we have letter/memo/report writing (although not emails), summarising, etc. That said, although the purpose of the

course book was certainly to teach the topics, functions and vocabulary as advertised, it is, as already mentioned, intended to support students in sitting the examination that leads to the "English for Specific Professional Purposes Certificate", which is developed and administered by the Centre of Foreign Languages at the Kavala Institute of Technology. This is, of course, further corroborated by the existence of the Practice Test at the end of the course book, whose structure and content follows very closely that of the previous Units.

The print is large enough and the pages are not choke-full of information or activities but are allowed to "breathe". This reviewer did not find any editing oversights (bar one: the word "aluminum" in the contents pages, under the "Unit" and "Topic" columns, on p. 8). It is obvious that the authors, being experienced EAP teachers themselves, have taken special care to provide the teacher with the necessary material that has to be covered, but also to allow her freedom to move around topics and activities, integrating, for example, online material if and where necessary. Having said that, the course book can be used completely independently of any additional materials, online or otherwise and, as the authors suggest in the Foreword, it can be easily used as a self-study course by the more diligent student.

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Acknowledgement