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# I. ARTICLES

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# FL learners in late adulthood: A report of seniors' willingness to communicate in English in the classroom context

ABSTRACT. The article aims to examine older learners' points of view concerning their in-class willingness to communicate (WTC) in English and to identify their expectations regarding an English teacher. The instrument was a questionnaire that comprised – among others – of questions referring to variables that could exert an impact on third-agers' WTC in English in class. The factors which were used as options in the closed and open-ended questions in the study had been identified by the third agers as the ones that positively or negatively shaped their in-class WTC in an earlier piece of qualitative research (Borkowska 2021a). The data analysis revealed that the informants (63 older participants) reported an eagerness to communicate in English, and they perceived speaking with the teacher as the most motivating type of interaction. The most crucial components of language instruction that boosted older adults' WTC was gentle error correction, a friendly atmosphere, and teacher support that seemed to have a positive effect on their lower self-esteem. Similarly, an empathetic and patient instructor could be of great help in diminishing seniors' self-depreciating views. In contrast, negative teacher attributes (e.g., anxiety, criticism) could lead to inhibiting the older participants' WTC and active involvement during English classes.

KEYWORDS: seniors, willingness to communicate, learning English.

## 1. INTRODUCTION[1]

Foreign language learning (FLL) in late adulthood appears to be gaining in popularity in the contemporary world mainly owing to demographic changes and the necessity to maintain older adults' quality of life, well-being, and sense

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[1] The article is based on the present author's dissertation which was originally published in Public Information Bulletin (Biuletyn Informacji Publicznej, BIP) (available at https://bip.up.krakow.pl/wp-content/uploads/sites/11/2022/01/ropzrawa-doktorska.pdf).

of achievement (e.g., Piechurska-Kuciel & Szyszka 2018). In this regard, learning English at an advanced age opens new doors to acquiring pragmatic skills which, in turn, enable third agers to become active and independent members of international communities (cf. Jaroszewska 2013). However, little is still known about age-advanced students' speaking behaviours in English in the classroom context and their willingness to communicate (WTC) which "represents the probability that a learner will use the language in authentic interaction with another individual, given the opportunity" (MacIntyre MacIntyre, Clément, Dörnyei & Noels 1998: 558).

The present paper attempts to explore third agers' perceptions about their learning English as such, and to determine the most vital variables that may foster or inhibit their WTC in English in the classroom context.

## 2. MACINTYRE ET AL.'S (1998) HEURISTIC MODEL OF L2 WTC

Basically, the construct of L2 WTC originated with reference to the L1 which was recognised as a trait-like notion that referred to an individual's stable predisposition towards entering into verbal communication (McCroskey & Richmond 1987). L2 WTC, on the other hand, was conceptualised at dual levels, namely as personality and situation-based variables (MacIntyre et al. 1998). The engagement in L2 communication was perceived as a state of "readiness" rather than an innate "tendency" (MacIntyre el al. 1998: 547). The theory of L2 WTC proposed by MacIntyre et al. (1998) is a pyramid-shaped model that illustrates factors affecting the eagerness to communicate in the L2. This multi-layered heuristic model includes "long-term stable, enduring influences" at the bottom (Layer IV, V, VI), and "shorter-term, more situation specific or time-limited processes" at the top layers (Layer I, II, III) (MacIntyre 2020: 115). The three bottom layers which comprise – among others – personality (Layer VI), communicative competence (Layer V), and motivation (Layer IV), appear to be more individually based and distal influences on L2 WTC (MacIntyre et al. 1998). The most proximal determinants of the L2 located in Layer III comprise two components: desire to communicate with a specific person and state communicative self-confidence (MacIntyre et al. 1998). Layer II is viewed as the final step before actual L2 communication, and it includes only one constituent, namely the L2 WTC defined as "a readiness to enter into discourse at a particular time with a specific person or persons, using a L2" (MacIntyre el al. 1998: 547). The actual L2 use is found in Layer I, and it involves communication behaviours in a variety of contexts.

It is worthwhile to mention that MacIntyre (1998) and his associates emphasise that both situational and stable components of the model are of paramount importance in the formation of one's L2 WTC. On the one hand, the highest

levels of the pyramid are claimed to be decision points where the learner "must decide either to act, or not to speak at all" (MacIntyre 2012: 16). On the other hand, the lowest levels are to prepare individuals for the interaction by creating a tendency to react orally and these "pervasive influences of distal factors cannot be neglected due to their more universal nature" (Piechurska-Kuciel 2021: 149).

## 3. FACTORS AFFECTING WTC IN AN FL CONTEXT

Importantly, early research on L2 WTC made no distinction between in-class and out-of-class WTC, and it was Weaver (2005) who introduced the most significant modification. The scholar developed a scale that measured WTC in both speaking and writing tasks, and in situations that typically occur in a FL context (e.g., role-plays). However, this scale was criticised as some items contained the unspecified word "someone" which could be interpreted as "the teacher" or "classmates", and the lack of clear reference might have a strong effect on the measurement of WTC (cf. Cao 2011). Weaver's (2005) tool was adapted by Peng and Woodrow (2010) who created a new instrument based on WTC in meaning-focused and form-focused tasks. The authors intended to gauge students' WTC in a variety of exercises between three kinds of interlocutors: the teacher, a peer, and a group of classmates. More recent qualitative and mixed-methods studies carried out – among others – by Kang (2005), Cao (2011), Peng (2014), as well as Pawlak and Mystkowska-Wiertelak (2015) attempted to identify situation-based variables linked to the dynamic nature of in-class WTC in an FL context. MacIntyre and Wang (2021: 882) underscore that due to the fact that "communication processes are so fluid, highly adaptive, and change rapidly, the most relevant factors and the signature dynamics underlying WTC also can change rapidly".

According to Zhang, Beckmann and Beckmann (2018), framework of situational antecedents of state WTC, a learner's readiness to communicate heavily hinges on negativity and positivity. The authors highlight the fact that negativity viewed as "any sort of negative feeling caused by the situation" may hinder one's WTC (Zhang et al. 2018: 233). It involves the lack of self-confidence, anxiety, fear of losing face, or fear of making mistakes (cf. Pawlak and Mystkowska-Wiertelak 2015). In contrast, positivity that represents "the elation" prompted by a certain situation refers to interest and excitement (Zhang et al. 2018: 234). In a general sense, emotions play a powerful role in shaping WTC (Khajavy, MacIntyre & Barabadi 2017). Cao (2011) mentions a range of negative emotions (anxiety, boredom, frustration, embarrassment, and anger) that have a debilitating effect on WTC whereas positive ones (enjoyment and satisfaction) could significantly enhance the level of WTC. Additionally, Khajavy (2021: 173) and his colleagues

state that "positive emotion motivates students to discover and play, two crucial activities to promote social cohesion".

In a similar vein, Mystkowska-Wiertelak and Pawlak (2017) have posited that various teacher-related and student-related factors have the potential to influence learners' levels of WTC. For instance, the scholars emphasise the importance of the teacher's involvement and supervision that may be recognised as a motiving factor while involved in dyadic work. Also, as stressed by Zarrinabadi (2014), the most prominent factors shaping the learners' readiness to speak are the teacher's wait time, error correction, teacher support, and the teacher's decision on the topic. Significantly, the attractiveness and easiness of topics promote active involvement in communicative interactions whereas students feel reluctant to talk about topics they find uninteresting (Cao 2011). Likewise, background knowledge and topical vocabulary might enhance an individual's WTC while the lack of familiarity with the topic can hinder one's linguistic self-confidence and inhibit communication (e.g., Zhang et al. 2018). Kang (2005) points out that interesting topics may lead to one's feeling of excitement, and students who are knowledgeable about a certain topic appear to be more responsive and cooperative. The teacher's extended wait-time, on the other hand, is viewed as patience whereas decreased time for reflection is prone to evoke embarrassment and leads to an unwillingness to communicate (Zarrinabadi 2014).

Much prominence is given to the instructor's ability to create a pleasant class and a relaxed atmosphere which seem to be critical for boosting students' cooperation while preparing tasks in a variety of classroom interactions, for instance pair work (Eddy-U 2015). Such an approach may generate a high WTC because dyads as such appear to be less anxiety-provoking than whole-class activities and they provide communicative opportunities for both interlocutors (Cao 2011). What is more, dyadic work may increase students' familiarity and group cohesion that, in turn, lead to positive classroom dynamics (cf. Mystkowska-Wiertelak & Pawlak 2017). Mystkowska-Wiertelak (2021) underlines that students tend to be more engaged in a task when they feel more secure among peers. Gałajda (2017: 109) remarks that learners "who feel safe in their learning groups are not only less anxious about communicating in a foreign language but also their self-perception changes and becomes more positive".

What needs not to be ignored at this point is the fact that WTC studies have been intensively conducted among teenagers and younger adults, and the literature lacks empirical data concerning older adults' eagerness to communicate in an FL context. However, many studies have identified third-agers' motives to learn an FL in late adulthood showing a strong tendency to gain pragmatic language skills, particularly the ability to communicate (e.g., Jaroszewska 2013; Oxford 2018; Ramírez Gómez 2016).

## 4. MAJOR MOTIVES TO LEARN AN FL IN LATER LIFE

It is worth noting at this point that older adults, as FL learners, by all means constitute a unique language learning group due to the fact that, in most cases, their professional careers have ended, which, on the one hand, is related to a huge lifestyle change, and on the other, it "provides the opportunity to explore learning goals that people at earlier stages of the life course are often too busy to pursue" (Formosa 2014: 11). Importantly, a number of studies have indicated that older citizens value learning an FL since they are conscious of the advantages it may bring (cf. Oxford 2018). The benefits refer mainly to the increase in mental acuity and memory capacity which is frequently one of the most vital motives to study an FL in later years (e.g., Gabryś-Barker 2020; Ramírez Gómez 2016). It is well-established that "foreign language learning could be an especially beneficial safeguard for ensuring healthy cognitive function in older adults" (Antoniou, Gunasekera & Wong 2013: 2690). In fact, FL training, which involves cognitively challenging tasks, ought to be viewed as cognitive therapy that contributes to promoting neural plasticity (Park & Reuter-Lorenz 2009). However, apart from the health benefits, third agers' main objectives are precisely associated with self-directed, as well as understanding and appreciating the value of practical knowledge (cf. Derenowski 2021). Similarly to all adult learners who "become ready to learn those things they need to know and be able to do in order to cope effectively with their real-life situations", students in late adulthood seek skills and competences that are linked to their needs and interests (Knowles, Holton III, Swanson & Robinson 2020: 45).

With this in mind, it comes as no surprise that another substantial motive to learn an FL at an advanced age is communication with foreigners (e.g., Pfenninger & Polz 2018; Piechurska-Kuciel & Szyszka 2018). Singleton and Ryan (2004: 219) claim that when older adults are likely to learn an FL with a view of travelling and communicating abroad, "one can expect not a few foreign language students to become involved in face-to-face communication with native speakers of the target language, indeed to be principally motivated by a desire to be able to engage in precisely this kind of communication". Likewise, third agers have the need to be in contact with their family and friends living abroad (Pawlak, Derenowski & Mystkowska-Wiertelak 2018). Derenowski (2021) highlights the fact that age-advanced students learn an FL because they wish to communicate with their grandchildren who are frequently unable to speak their mother tongues.

In-class communication in an FL is also of much relevance since as aptly stated by Werbińska (2015: 169) "communication leads to learning" and one needs to talk in order to learn a target language. For this reason, FL speaking

as such should be promoted in older learners' language classroom on a regular basis as it is not only communicative practice but it is also congruent with older adults' principal motivation to learn an FL (cf. Oxford 2018). Therefore, it is critical for the teacher to offer numerous communicative opportunities that might provide room for interactions and they, in turn, may help to establish or maintain interpersonal relationships between groupmates which are highly appreciated by older adults (cf. Gabryś-Barker 2020). Likewise, dyads or small groups increase student talking time and reduce the potential fear of speaking in front of the whole class, Derenowski (2021: 90) notes that they foster "the development of soft competences such as negotiation and co-operation skills" that play a paramount role in authentic communication.

What should also be underscored is that speaking in an FL may affect older adults' self-esteem and confidence, which are already lowered because of self-stereotyping and self-depreciating views, and as acknowledged by Singleton (2018: 22), they "often seem to believe that the changes experienced by them in the course of ageing will inevitably have a negative impact on their L2 learning capacity and progress". Thus, it is advised to create and maintain a stress-free atmosphere, as well as the use of positive reinforcement (cf. Olszewski 2018). A teacher's constant support and encouragement constitute the core of good classroom dynamics that enhances the process of learning and helps to evoke positive emotions, such as enjoyment, pride and satisfaction (cf. MacIntyre & Mercer 2014). Dewaele and Dewaele (2020: 48) highlight that positive emotions "enhance learners' ability to notice things in a classroom environment and strengthen their awareness of language input". Therefore, what learners value most is an educator's emotional contribution to classroom interactions and the learning process (Gałajda 2017). The language instructor, as the key figure in the classroom, needs to be aware of the fact that "positive emotions tend to be seen as correlating not only with well-being, but also with success in performance" (Komorowska 2016: 45). In the case of older students, language success is not strictly associated with "measuring progress in foreign language learning in terms of the number of acquired structures and vocabulary items", but it ought to "focus on the senior students' sense of developing purposeful intellectual activity and agreeable social contacts" (Niżegorodcew 2018: 174–175). Interestingly, socioemotional selectivity theory posits that "perceived limitations on time lead to a motivational shift that direct attention to emotionally meaningful goals" (Carstensen, Fung & Charles 2003: 104). In essence, giving a high priority to positivity might exert a great influence on FLL in late adulthood as even small linguistic successes should be viewed as the driving factors that have the potential to broaden active involvement in language classes, as well as enhance their willingness to communicate (cf. Grotek 2018: 136).

At this juncture, it appears justifiable to hypothesise that third agers ought to be willing to communicate in English since in-class speaking is a prerequisite for encouraging and enhancing out-of-class communication. Therefore, the present study intends to gain a better understanding of their readiness to speak, as well as to identify which variables are likely to facilitate or hamper their in-class WTC in English the most.

## 5. STUDY[2]

### 5.1. Research aims and questions

The study sought to determine which English language skills were the most fundamental for older adults, as well as to examine their points of view regarding their in-class WTC in English. More precisely, it set out to investigate the following questions:
1. Which language skills are deemed to be the most important, the easiest, and the most difficult for third agers?
2. Which form of interaction motivates older adults to communicate in class the most?
3. What are the respondents' expectations regarding an English instructor and what teacher characteristics may discourage them from active communication in English?
4. Which components of classroom instruction facilitate the in-class WTC in English the most?
5. Which factors hamper WTC in English in a classroom setting the most?

### 5.2. Participants

The informants were 63 members of the Third Age University (TAU) in Nowy Targ and Zakopane who had been regularly attending English courses for seniors (Table 1).

As regards age, the largest number of the students in late adulthood were between 66-70 years old (40%) and between 61-65 years of age (30%). The analysis showed that 35% of the participants had been learning English between 1-3 years whereas 19% between 3-5 years throughout their life. Likewise, 65% reported 1-3 years of attendance in English courses for seniors. Likewise, 84% of

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[2] The present study was the first out of five individual studies included in my unpublished doctoral research project.

the learners admitted to knowing other foreign language(s), mainly Russian (68%) and German (38%).

**Table 1.** The participants' gender, place of residence, and education

| Gender | | Place of residence | | | Education | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| male | female | village | town up to 50,000 residents | town / city with more than 50,000 residents | tertiary | secondary |
| 5 (8%) | 58 (92%) | 6 (10%) | 57 (90%) | —— | 38 (60%) | 25 (40%) |

Source: current study.

When it comes to the older students' motives for learning English at an advanced age, they are depicted in Figure 1.
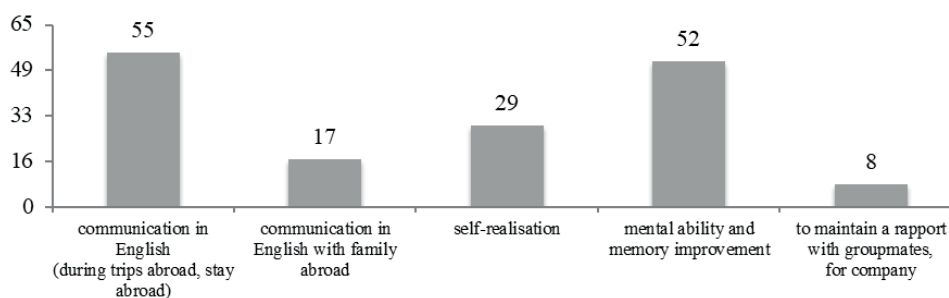


**Figure 1.** The participants' motives for learning English in late adulthood

The participants mainly represented intrinsic reasons for learning English (i.e., mental ability and memory improvement – 53 students, self-realisation – 29 students), as well as instrumental motives (i.e., communication in English during trips – 55 learners, and with family abroad – 17 learners).

## 5.3. Research instrument and procedure

The instrument adapted to this study was a questionnaire[3] comprising biodata items, two open-ended questions referring to learning English throughout the participants' life and exclusively during English courses for seniors at the

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[3] The survey was written in Polish and was prepared to accommodate specific seniors' needs, that is to reduce difficulties from potential age-related impairments (the font size – 14 points, in-between line space – 1.5 points) (see Ramírez Gómez 2016).

TAU. There was a closed-ended question related to the most vital reasons for learning English. The informants were also asked about their knowledge of other foreign languages. Additionally, the subjects were to indicate which language skills they found the most important, the easiest and the most difficult to learn. The further part of the survey included two closed-ended questions associated with communication and in-class WTC in English (*Are you willing to communicate in English during class?; Which form of interaction motivates you to communicate in English during classes most?*). Similarly, two multiple choice questions regarding variables influencing the in-class WTC were asked (*What, according to you, increases in-class WTC in English?; What, according to you, inhibits in-class WTC in English?*). Importantly, multiple choice options for these last two questions were adapted from the study conducted by Borkowska (2021a), where the participants identified the components of classroom instruction that were considered to foster in-class WTC, as well as the factors that were deemed to hinder WTC in English. Additionally, the questionnaire included two open-ended questions concerning the English teacher (*What are your expectations when it comes to an English teacher?; What teacher characteristics, according to you, may discourage from communication in English during classes?*).

The tool underwent an analysis of content validity, which was conducted by four competent judges, namely independent English language instructors who had been working with older learners on a regular basis. Each of the questions was evaluated on a 3-point scale (1 – the item should not be included in the test, 2 – the item is useful but not essential, 3 – the item is essential). The content validity ratio (CVR) (Lawshe 1975) was 1.0 (high validity) for most questions, it was 0.5 (not very good validity) only for one question (*How long have you been learning English only at the Third Age University?*). The mean score for all questions indicated that the judges found the items essential ($M = 2.99$; $SD = 0.12$).

Before conducting the study, all the informants were asked to sign the consent and they were ensured that all the data would be gathered and analysed only for scientific purposes. The researcher (the present author) informed the third age students to feel free to ask questions in case they had any doubts or problems while filling out the questionnaire. The survey was completed during the students' regular class time, and it took the respondents approximately 15 minutes to answer all the questions.

Once the study was completed, the questionnaires were collected and coded. The data was computed by means of IBM SPSS Statistic 26 software. In order to answer the closed-ended questions, a chi-squared goodness-of-fit test series was performed, and a qualitative analysis was conducted for the open-ended questions.

## 5.4. Study findings

### 5.4.1. Language skills

As far as language skills are concerned, Table 2 illustrates the most crucial, the easiest, and the most difficult ones in the learners' points of view.

**Table 2.** The participants' views about the language skills

| Skills / subskills | Speaking | Writing | Reading | Listening | Grammar | Vocabulary |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| The most important | **59 (93%)** | 4 (6%) | 9 (14%) | 12 (19%) | 3 (5%) | 12 (19%) |
| The easiest | 16 (25%) | 23 (37%) | **41 (65%)** | 14 (22%) | 8 (13%) | 16 (25%) |
| The most difficult | **37 (59%)** | 17 (27%) | 4 (6%) | **33 (52%)** | 20 (31%) | 8 (13%) |

Source: current study.

The data revealed that 59 students acknowledged that speaking was the most important skill ($\chi^2(1) = 48.02$; $p < 0.001^4$), whereas the least weight was given to grammar ($\chi^2(1) = 51.57$; $p < 0.001$). Similarly, 41 respondents perceived reading to be the easiest skill ($\chi^2(1) = 5.73$; $p = 0.017$). In contrast, speaking turned out to be the most difficult for about half of the informants ($\chi^2(1) = 1.92$; $p = 0.166$). Listening ($\chi^2(1) = 0.14$; $p = 0.705$) was considered to be the most difficult skill by more than 50% of the older adults. When it comes to the most difficult skill, the difference between speaking and listening was not statistically significant.

### 5.4.2. Communication and in-class WTC in English

What the data suggested was that the older students were basically willing to communicate in English during classes, and only one person reported an unwillingness to communicate (Figure 2).

The analysis showed a statistically significant difference ($\chi^2(2) = 40.10$; $p < 0.001$) in the type of interaction that motivated them to speak English during classes most. 62% of the informants reported that answering the teacher's questions turned out to be the strongest encouragement to interact while 30% found dyadic work to be the most beneficial in terms of their readiness to communicate in class.

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[4] p < 0.001 denotes a significant difference.

Are you willing to communicate in English during classes?
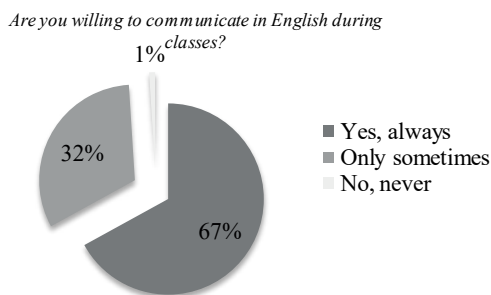


**Figure 2.** The older adults' WTC during English classes

## 5.4.3. The components of classroom instruction fostering and hindering in-class WTC in English

When it comes to in-class WTC in English, the participants indicated that gentle error correction is the most fundamental component of language instruction which facilitated the eagerness to speak (Figure 3).
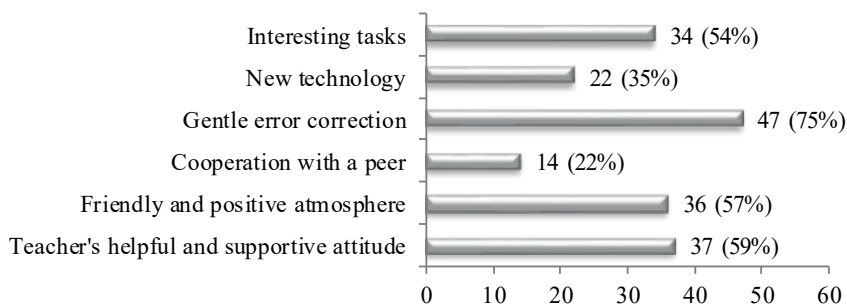


**Figure 3.** The components of classroom instruction increasing WTC in English

The teacher's gentle error correction seemed to exert a significant influence on WTC in English ($\chi^2(1) = 15.25$; $p < 0.001$). The instructor's helpful and supportive attitude ($\chi^2(1) = 1.92$; $p = 0.166$), as well as a friendly and positive atmosphere ($\chi^2(1) = 1.29$; $p = 0.257$), were vital for over half of the students. Interesting tasks ($\chi^2(1) = 0.40$; $p = 0.529$) were reported to play a key role in boosting in-class readiness to speak for over about half of the respondents as well.

On the other hand, the factor that could generate low WTC in English was an anxious classroom atmosphere ($\chi^2(1) = 2.68$; $p = 0.101$) (Figure 4).
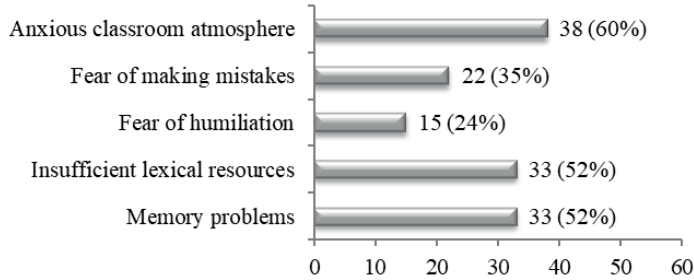
**Figure 4.** The factors hampering in-class WTC in English

The same number of participants, namely 33 learners indicated that insufficient lexical resources ($\chi^2(1) = 0.14$; $p = 0.705$) and memory problems ($\chi^2(1) = 0.14$; $p = 0.705$) might have a negative influence on WTC in class. A fear of making mistakes had an insignificant impact on WTC ($\chi^2(1) = 5.73$; $p = 0.017$). A fear of humiliation ($\chi^2(1) = 17.29$; $p < 0.001$) was deemed to have a significantly less detrimental effect on the older learners' openness to speak.

## 5.4.4. The teacher

When it comes to the third agers' expectations about the language instructor, the most vital characteristics of an English teacher mentioned by the subjects are presented in Table 3.

**Table 3.** The most crucial teacher characteristics named by the third agers

| No. | The most salient teacher's characteristics | No. of students |
|-----|-----------------------------------------------|-----------------|
| 1.  | understanding, empathetic                     | 13              |
| 2.  | patient                                       | 12              |
| 3.  | cheerful, friendly                            | 9               |
| 4.  | helpful and supportive                        | 8               |
| 5.  | professional                                  | 7               |

Source: current study.

The data showed that the instructor needed to be understanding, empathetic and patient. One of the participants reported: "[the teacher] should be patient because a senior often has an unreliable memory"[5] (S34). Friendliness and cheerfulness were also indicated as one of the most preferable teacher's traits.

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[5] All the older adults' views were translated into English by the present author.

Table 4 shows that 15 students viewed a positive atmosphere as a substantial element of both the teaching and learning processes.

**Table 4.** The most fundamental components of English classroom instruction
for the older students

| No. | The participants' expectations from an English teacher | No. of students |
|-----|--------------------------------------------------------|-----------------|
| 1. | create a nice and friendly atmosphere | 15 |
| 2. | prepare interesting lessons | 9 |
| 3. | correct students' pronunciation | 8 |
| 4. | prepare conversation tasks and dialogues | 6 |
| 5. | prepare frequent revision exercises | 6 |

Source: current study.

As outlined by some older adults: "Professionalism, engagement, the ability to create a friendly atmosphere which gives students courage" (S57); "[the teacher should be] understanding, likeable with a great sense of humour with reference to an imperfect language group, the atmosphere in the group should be friendly" (S17). The age-advanced learners highlighted the importance of the teacher's professionalism and methodological knowledge. They placed an emphasis on pronunciation correction and interesting tasks, mainly in the form of conversation tasks, dialogues, and revision exercises: "An English teacher for seniors should be understanding when it comes to our bad memory. Teaching material should be introduced in small amounts, frequent revision tasks and a lot of dialogues" (S47).

As regards the teacher characteristics discouraging the older students from active communication, it turned out that an anxious teacher had a debilitating effect on in-class WTC among the third-age learners as he or she was deemed to create and maintain a stressful classroom climate (Table 5).

**Table 5.** The most demotivating teacher characteristics

| No. | Teacher characteristics that discouraged students from communicating in English during classes | No. of students |
|-----|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------|
| 1. | anxious | 11 |
| 2. | impatient | 8 |
| 3. | critical | 6 |
| 4. | unsupportive | 4 |
| 5. | chaotic | 4 |

Source: current study.

The mindful teacher, who wishes to work with age-advanced learners, should bear in mind that impatience and criticism may exert a negative influence on older citizens' eagerness to interact. In a general sense, an impatient teacher may have undue expectations and conduct a lesson in a fast manner: "[…] an anxious atmosphere, fast-paced lessons, an anxious teacher, a lack of understanding when it comes to students' age and abilities" (S43).

Moreover, a lack of methodological knowledge may inhibit in-class WTC (Table 6).

**Table 6.** The affective factors influencing in-class WTC in English

| No. | Detrimental factors affecting in-class communication in English mentioned by the older learners | No. of students |
|---|---|---|
| 1. | anxious classroom atmosphere | 9 |
| 2. | undue expectations | 9 |
| 3. | fast pace of a lesson | 7 |
| 4. | lack of methodological knowledge | 5 |
| 5. | infrequent revision | 2 |

Source: current study.

It might be assumed that the negative teacher attributes could result in an inability to conduct a well-organised and interesting lesson, as well as an indifference towards the seniors: "[…] a stressful attitude towards students, a chaotic teaching style and an inability to maintain discipline" (S41); "[…] an unwilling attitude, too brutal remarks about mistakes and an arrogant attitude" (S17) were mentioned as having a detrimental effect on in-class WTC.

## 6. DISCUSSION

The present study shed some light on the third agers' opinions about learning English in later life, and the role the teacher played with reference to shaping their eagerness to speak. It should be emphasised that the vast majority of the students declared that speaking was the most substantial skill, yet it was also viewed as the most difficult language skill by over half of the respondents. Older students generally realise that speaking English is quite complex, and it requires a knowledge of vocabulary and grammar, not to mention, appropriate timely reactions to the interaction due to reduced working memory and potentially longer retrieval (cf. Stuart-Hamilton 2012). An interesting fact is that although speaking was found the most demanding, the present study indicated that the

great majority of the participants were still willing to communicate in English during classes (cf. Derenowski 2021). This finding is directly related to the older adults' main motivation to learn English in later life, namely communication (e.g., Oxford 2018). Owing to their learning experiences, they realise that in order to speak out-of-class, in-class regular communication practice is required.

Importantly, more than half of the students found listening problematic. This may be associated with older people's potential auditory issues (cf. Singleton 2018). Most language textbooks are not specifically designed for seniors who require clear articulation. Therefore, in order to ease third agers' process of learning, it is advised to make a careful selection of listening tasks including no background sounds as they have a detrimental effect on hearing capacity (cf. Ramírez Gómez 2016). When it comes to reading, the analysis showed that it was the easiest skill for the majority of the students. One possible corollary for this situation is that older adults are used to being taught English in a traditional method in the past which was popular when they learnt a language in a formal class (Gabryś-Barker 2020). Therefore, reading, as one of the most fundamental techniques in the grammar translation method seems to be "effective in developing their [older adults'] competence in English" (Grotek 2018: 135).

Interaction with the teacher was reported to be the most motivating, and it had the potential to generate a high level of in-class WTC in English among the learners in late adulthood. This result stands in contrast to previous studies in which communication in dyads was deemed to be less anxiety-provoking and more engaging than teacher-led tasks (e.g., Pawlak & Mystkowska-Wiertelak 2015). It is also worth noting that older students view the teacher as the authority figure in the classroom, and thus, they appear to be more willing to speak English with him or her (cf. Pawlak et al. 2018).

It is fairly evident that the respondents placed utmost importance on the language instructors, their personality features, as well as their classroom management and teaching style (Grotek 2018). The teacher as such ought to be able to build interpersonal relationships with students, provide support and patiently correct mistakes in a gentle manner as his or her positive attitudes towards older learners may enhance their eagerness to use English orally. It should be noted that "when the conditions foster enjoyment of the learning process, anxiety may be manageable, and can recede into the background" (Khajavy et al. 2021: 186). Instructors ought to draw students' attention to even small linguistic successes which evoke positive emotions, give a sense of self-achievement, and indicate the ability to acquire new knowledge (cf. Niżegorodcew 2018). Typically, third agers also give priority to the instructor's professionalism and didactic skills (e.g., Jaroszewska 2013). In teaching practice, FL teachers ought to pay due attention to older adults' learning experience since "any situation in which the participants'

experiences are ignored or devalued, adults will perceive this as rejecting not only their experience, but rejecting themselves as persons" (Knowles et al. 2020: 45).

In this study, the respondents acknowledged that a laid-back classroom climate where the fundamental element was the teacher's support might broaden and facilitate their communicative behaviours (Gałajda 2017). It seems to be rather clear that a friendly classroom environment and teacher immediacy exert an influence on students' WTC regardless of their age (e.g., Mystkowska-Wiertelak & Pawlak 2017; Peng & Woodrow 2010). Conversely, a negative and stressful atmosphere leads to lower levels of in-class WTC, and an anxious and negative teacher, according to the older participants, discouraged them from active involvement most (cf. Cao 2011).

In this respect, it needs to be stated that the age-advanced students' well-being in the classroom environment should be of great value, both for the teacher and students themselves because "students with positive and high self-esteem tend to be more cooperative, which may add to [a] positive classroom climate and rapport among the students" (Gałajda 2017: 27). This study finding indicated that a fear of humiliation had a significantly less negative effect on WTC than other factors. This might suggest that the learners were supported by cheerful peers and a supportive instructor that provided "a positive emotional climate" (Mystkowska-Wiertelak 2021: 107). Positive attitudes among peers play a beneficial role in learning an FL more effective as positive emotions tend to "help counteract the damage caused by negative emotions" (Dewaele & Dewaele 2020: 48–49). Komorowska (2021: 38) underlines that "when group interaction produces strong emotions" students could become more attentive in the learning process. A good classroom atmosphere as such may be perceived as one of the most substantial variables which may foster or halt students' WTC because it "pulls learners to speak by increasing their desire to participate and also pushes them to speak by naturally reducing self-consciousness" (Eddy-U 2015: 51). On the negative side, a stressful climate inside a language classroom appeared to generate a more powerful fear of humiliation or making mistakes, which may result in older learners' passivity, discouragement and negative emotions. Komorowska (2016: 45) remarks that negativity may lead to lower WTC "less interpersonal contact, less intercultural competence and lower fluency levels together with a tendency to ignore one's problems and avoid difficulty connected with direct face-to-face communication". Needless to say, adults at an advanced age are more prone to losing their state confidence and self-esteem since there is a high probability that anxiety and stress might block or decrease their memory capacity which has already been affected by ageing (cf. Oxford, 2018). As a consequence, it seems substantial to build the positive image of older learners during FL teaching process as focus on a "positive evaluation may

increase the level of self-esteem and help in overcoming negative stereotyping" (Derenowski 2021: 81).

In addition, the data analysis showed that, statistically, gentle error correction constituted a significant factor that boosted WTC in English. Feedback ought to be given in a stress-free manner, as it has a positive impact on shaping a higher level of WTC (e.g., Zarrinabadi 2014). One needs to bear in mind that non-threatening correction helps third agers to become more open to experimenting with a foreign language on a regular basis, and consequently, their low self-esteem might be enhanced.

It is also noteworthy that over half of the older learners placed an emphasis on interesting tasks. This resonates with the previous research conducted by Zhang et al. (2018) in which task interest was found to serve as a facilitator of state WTC. Kang (2005) stresses that interesting topics have the potential to generate learners' feeling of excitement that, in turn, may boost their involvement in the task. In the case of age-advanced learners, one ought to remember about the variety of revision tasks, topics which present positive images of retirement and ageing, as well as modern teaching devices which may inspire students to explore the language, not only in-class but also at home (e.g., Piechurska-Kuciel & Szyszka 2018).

Although this study provides some insights into older adults' in-class WTC in English, it is not without limitations. It included only members of the TAU located in the south of Poland, and its residents frequently immigrate to English-speaking countries or they are likely to have friends and families abroad. This basically means that those senior citizens might have homogenous backgrounds, and thus, they represented the profile of an older person in the south of Poland. Extending the scope of this study could indicate how third agers' opinions in different parts of Poland vary and it might show more significant discrepancies between certain factors that influence in-class WTC in English. In addition, it would be beneficial to perform a test-retest reliability in future studies. This approach could verify the consistency of students' opinions and indicate whether the responses remain unchanged over time.

## 7. CONCLUSIONS

The evidence from this study suggests that in order to enhance older learners' communicative behaviors in the classroom context, teacher support and their positive personality traits are of unquestionable importance. What needs to be remembered is that third agers attend FL classes mainly because they wish to spend time together in a comfortable atmosphere that boosts their well-being

and self-confidence. The principal implication is that the teacher is expected to establish and maintain a pleasant environment that may be a source of positive emotions and motivation to communicate in English. Furthermore, a supportive instructor is of great value for building social bonds and good group dynamics that give older adults the courage to speak English despite a certain level of insecurity and anxiety. Future research should surely be undertaken to examine the links between older students' in-class WTC in English more closely and the various factors that may shape the readiness to speak both in a positive and negative manner.

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### Studenci w późnej dorosłości: gotowość komunikacyjna starszych dorosłych w języku angielskim

Abstrakt. Celem niniejszego artykułu jest przedstawienie wyników badania ilościowego dotyczącego gotowości komunikacyjnej (GK) osób w późnej dorosłości w języku angielskim w klasie językowej. Narzędziem badawczym była ankieta zawierająca m.in. pytania odnoszące się do czynników mogących mieć wpływ na kształtowanie GK w języku angielskim. Zmienne użyte do pytań zamkniętych opracowane zostały na podstawie wcześniejszego badania jakościowego (Borkowska 2021). Analiza danych pokazała, iż respondenci (63 starszych dorosłych) byli chętni do komunikacji w języku angielskim, a najbardziej motywującą formą interakcji była rozmowa z nauczycielem. Fundamentalnym czynnikiem, który pozytywnie wpływał na GK, była delikatna poprawa błędów, przyjacielska atmosfera oraz wsparcie nauczyciela. Cierpliwość i empatia ze strony nauczyciela to cechy, który pomagały obniżyć poziom samokrytycznych poglądów seniorów. Natomiast, negatywne cechy instruktora (tj. niepokój, krytyka) prowadziły do zmniejszenia angażowania starszych dorosłych w komunikację podczas zajęć.

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# Hungarian higher education EFL students' perceptions of learner autonomy

ABSTRACT. Technology has provided language learners with opportunities to learn English autonomously. Despite previous studies in the Hungarian context (e.g., Édes 2008; Szőcs 2017), more research on learner autonomy is required in order to find out what might explain university EFL learners' lack of autonomy and help them become more autonomous. The purpose of this quantitative study was to address the problem by investigating learners' perceptions of their own and their teachers' responsibilities in language learning, their perceived abilities and motivation to learn English, their autonomous behaviours outside and inside the classroom, and the relationships between the above variables. The questionnaire was completed by 74 EFL students from a Hungarian university. The data were analysed by SPSS 26.0. The results indicate that in the investigated context, in the EFL learners' perceptions, teachers were more responsible for their in-class learning than themselves. Nevertheless, the students demonstrated some autonomy both inside and outside class, to an equal extent.

KEYWORDS: Autonomous language learning, learner autonomy, EFL, autonomous behaviours, Hungary.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

As one of the most accepted educational notions, learner autonomy still stimulates more critical discussion, especially in language education (e.g., Borg & Alshumaimeri 2019). Although autonomy favours a learner-centred teaching approach, how it should be defined, applied, and appropriated in each educational context still needs to be dialogued. A balance between the level of language learner autonomy and the level of teacher involvement in the overall teaching-learning process is a notable point in promoting language learner autonomy. To address this issue, the roles of language teachers and learners within this concept have been discussed in the relevant literature.

In the context of higher education in Hungary, learner autonomy is among the objectives outlined in the National Core Curriculum (NCC), alongside the widely acknowledged educational goal of fostering learner autonomy in the modern era of language learning (Sifakis, Oder, Lehmann & Blūma 2006; Szőcs 2017). The NCC calls for a degree of autonomy for institutions and teachers to develop local curricula for individual institutions and educational programmes. Despite its positive shift towards competence-based education relevant to the current 21st-century education era, the Hungarian curriculum reform has been criticised for not reflecting the reality of language education in Hungary (e.g., Medgyes & Nikolov 2010; Öveges & Csizér 2018). Furthermore, in the centralised framework curriculum, learner autonomy is somewhat limited, as compulsory language education and school-leaving exams are likely to restrain learners from choosing what and how they want to learn (Sifakis et al. 2006).

Based on the previous Hungarian studies, despite both learners' and teachers' positive attitudes towards autonomous language learning, delays in promoting learner autonomy in Hungarian secondary and higher language education are attributed to teacher-centred methods, students' beliefs about teachers having more responsibility for their learning, and students' failure to put their beliefs about autonomous language learning behaviours into practice (Asztalos & Szénich 2019; Édes 2008; Kormos, Csizér, Menyhárt Török 2008; Szőcs 2017). Moreover, Asztalos, Szénich and Csizér (2020) recently stated that despite the reforms, such as increased contact hours and in-service teacher training in Hungarian language education, there are hardly any significant changes in terms of autonomy. Asztalos et al. (2020: 280) mentioned "lack of long-term strategies in compulsory education and the monolingual Hungarian context" as possible reasons for this. Despite previous similar studies in the selected area, further research on language learner autonomy is still needed in the Hungarian tertiary education context in order to investigate the underlying causes of the phenomenon while potentially providing solutions that facilitate the fostering of language learner autonomy.

## 2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

In academia, it is not uncommon to define an educational concept from different angles. The concept of autonomy is viewed differently by many scholars, depending on their perspectives and contexts. Its concept or role in language education has also been discussed in the context of other educational concepts (e.g., motivation and self-efficacy) (Dong & Mustapha 2020; Girelli et al.

2018; Hornstra, Stroet & Weijers 2021; Liu 2015; Tabassam, Azhar & Islam 2021). The following section presents a brief explanation of the concepts of language learner autonomy and some related constructs such as ability and motivation.

## 2.1. Autonomy in life, autonomy in learning, autonomy in language learning

The term *learner autonomy* came under discussion in language education with Holec's (1981: 3) definition: "the ability to take charge of one's own learning". Later scholars (e.g., Benson 2001, 2008, 2012; Dickinson 1994; Little 1991; Littlewood 1996; Nunan 2003) have contributed to the dialogue with diverse conceptualisations of the term. Although Dickinson's (1994: 12) definition of autonomy is "an attitude to learning", both Dickinson (1994) and Holec (1981) similarly recognised the importance of taking responsibility for learner autonomy. Dickinson (1994: 5) claimed that "language learning is best facilitated by the development of greater independence on the part of the learner, involving the learner in accepting a greater share of responsibility for his own learning". The notion of taking responsibility for one's life and learning stems from the concept of being a responsible individual (e.g., Benson 2012; Dickinson 1994).

However, in Little's (1991: 4) definition, autonomy is "a *capacity* – for detachment, critical reflection, decision-making, and independent action". Another similar conceptualisation was conceived by Littlewood (1996: 428), who proposed that autonomy is "a capacity for thinking and acting independently that may occur in any kind of situation (including, of course, a situation where the focus is on learning)". According to Littlewood (1996), this *capacity* is based on two aspects: *ability* and *willingness.* The former involves knowledge and skills necessary to make decisions when learning, while the latter relates to the motivation and confidence to do so.

*Learner autonomy* seems to be the point where the philosophical concept of autonomy in life and the educational concept of autonomy in learning meet. According to Benson (2001), learners can be inherently autonomous, which can also be related to *personal autonomy*, i.e., *autonomy in life* (Benson 2012). Benson (2012) claimed that a person's autonomy in life can somehow affect their autonomy in general learning and language learning. Personal autonomy refers to how and to what extent individuals can exercise autonomy in their lives. Accordingly, the level of ability to practise personal autonomy will have implications for individuals' learning journey. The educational environment itself plays a significant role in this matter, particularly in whether it enables learners to exercise autonomy and to what extent it enables them to do so. Consequently, being able to promote

the language learner's autonomy seems to be, in some way, tied to fostering the learner's personal autonomy (Lou, Chaffee, Lascano, Dincer & Noels 2018).

The view that learners may have the ability to take responsibility for their language learning to some extent is insufficient to conclude that every autonomous language learner will know how to make appropriate choices for their learning (Little 1991; Littlewood 1996). In general, "…a lot of learners actually don't know what is going on in their classes" (Dickinson 1993: 330). This is where *learning competence* (Holec 2008: 3) or *informed autonomy* (Dickinson 1994: 5) needs to be nurtured in learners via *learner training* (Dickinson 1994; Little 1991).

While it is desirable to implement learner autonomy in EFL classes, the practical challenges are unavoidable, depending on the number of institutional constraints that arise in any formal educational context. In this case, the most likely solution may be to balance the level of autonomy shared by all stakeholders, such as learners, teachers, and administrators, and allow learners conditioned freedom or *situational freedom* (Benson 2008: 29). However, before learners are trained on learning competence, i.e., on learning to learn, their presumably existing autonomous behaviours, i.e., "the learners' overall attitudes towards the idea and practice of autonomous learning" (Benson & Lor 1998: 1), must be identified in order to determine their level of autonomy.

Moreover, the growing English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) and multilingual communities cannot be disregarded since they bring challenges and discussions to English language teaching and learning. From this ELF perspective, Illés (2012: 509) defined learner autonomy as "the capacity to become competent speakers of the target language who are able to exploit the linguistic and other resources at their disposal effectively and creatively". Palfreyman's (2014: 179) similar definition of learner autonomy as "a capacity for intentional use in context of a range of interacting resources towards learning goals" also highlights the significance of exploiting resources. Also, Illés (2019) proposed a model that might be able to accommodate the needs of the current education age, particularly in using English as an international lingua franca for adult tertiary-level language learners. The model consists of three perspectives: autonomy as a communicator, autonomy as a learner, and autonomy as a person.

Besides, Benson and Lamb (2020) recently discussed learner autonomy by linking it with multilingualism. They emphasised that learner autonomy nowadays can mean more than taking responsibility for learning. In Benson and Lamb's (2020) view, it also encapsulates the enactment of autonomy in language learning and language use through the use of possible learning opportunities and the target language. Therefore, with the current trends in language learning, it is crucial to provide choices and promote the potential learning opportunities and resources available to learners. Benson and Lamb (2020) proposed a model suit-

able for multilingual communities in which "learners would choose a language that they wished to learn, identify manageable targets (which may or may not relate to certified accreditation), find available resources, monitor their learning, and assess and evaluate their progress" (Benson & Lamb 2020: 85–86). This can be relevantly adaptable for English learners and also coincides with Illés' (2012) definition of learner autonomy.

## 2.2. Learner Autonomy, Motivation, and Self-determination

Learner autonomy, motivation, and self-determination are often discussed together as interrelated concepts in the focused research field (Lou et al. 2018). As Masgoret and Gardner (2003: 173) described,

> a motivated individual expends effort, is persistent and attentive to the task at hand, has goals, desires, aspirations, enjoys the activity, experiences reinforcement from success and disappointment from failure… and makes use of strategies to aid in achieving goals.

In the context of second language (L2) learning, goal setting is a topic frequently associated with both learner autonomy (e.g., Nunan 2003) and motivation (e.g., Dörnyei 1998; Tremblay & Gardner 1995). Learners who establish clear objectives for their L2 development tend to exhibit higher motivation (Tremblay & Gardner 1995). Additionally, *learner autonomy* is regarded as one of the essential principles for motivating language learners, as stated in Dörnyei and Csizér's (1998) ten commandments for motivating language learners. Deci and Ryan (1985), Dickinson (1993, 1995), and Ushioda (2008) investigated the connections between autonomy and motivation and established how the two ideas are related. According to Dickinson (1993), achieving success in learning can elevate learners' motivation, prompting them to assume greater responsibility for their own learning. This is exemplified by the fact that learners driven by intrinsic motivation can also be considered autonomous learners, and vice versa. These learners take ownership of their learning journey and attribute their achievements or setbacks primarily to their own attempts. Consequently, even in the face of failure, their motivation remains intact throughout the learning process (Dickinson 1995).

Continuing the discussion, Deci and Ryan's (1985) self-determination theory (SDT) serves as a link between the concepts mentioned earlier. In the framework of SDT, there are three fundamental motivational aspects: intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, and amotivation, which were categorised by Ryan and Deci (1985) as autonomy orientation, control orientation, and impersonal orientation. According to Deci, Olafsen and Ryan (2017), only those who possess a sense of

autonomy will take on more responsibility, act autonomously, and thus achieve more favourable outcomes. Autonomy represents one of the psychological needs alongside competence and relatedness, which collectively serve as prerequisites for personal happiness under the concept of SDT (Deci et al. 2017). Existing literature consistently highlights the significance of all three psychological needs for fostering learners' autonomous motivation. When learning takes place in an autonomy-supported environment, there is a higher chance for learners to be more motivated and autonomous (Noels, Pelletier, Clément and Vallerand 2000). Again, Noels, Lou, Chaffee, Zhang and Zhang (2019) mentioned the positive relationship between autonomy perceived (self-perceptions of autonomy), competence, relatedness, and self-determined and intrinsic motivation. Therefore, SDT plays an important role in explaining how learner autonomy and motivation are connected.

## 2.3. Learners' beliefs in their ability in autonomous learning

Since the ability or capability of taking responsibility for one's learning is frequently used to define learner autonomy, autonomous learners are generally those who can set goals, select learning content and materials, assess their achievements, etc., i.e., learners who are autonomous at different stages of the learning process. It has also been acknowledged that learners' learning efforts and behaviours are influenced by their beliefs in their competence to carry out an activity (e.g., Bandura 1997). Bandura (1997: 3) defined *self-efficacy* as "beliefs in one's capabilities to organise and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments". Numerous studies have addressed the significance of self-efficacy in language learning and its impacts on other aspects of learning such as learner autonomy and motivation (e.g., Csizér, Albert & Piniel 2021; Xiao 2021). This study also examined whether learners believe they can take responsibility for their learning in the conventional classroom environment.

## 2.4. Autonomous Learning Behaviours

Benson's (2008: 15) assertion that "autonomy is primarily concerned with learning, in a much broader sense, and its relationship to learners' lives beyond the classroom" also signifies the importance of understanding learners' beliefs about autonomous learning and their autonomous learning behaviours inside and outside the classroom. Learners may demonstrate different forms of autonomy throughout their language learning process (Benson 2001; Little 1991); nevertheless, they may not be aware of their autonomy practices. Therefore, it is

worthwhile to examine learners' beliefs and behaviours to get to know individual learners' level of autonomy in learning English in each context (Chang 2007).

## 3. PREVIOUS STUDIES

In terms of the research setting, a review of previous similar studies conducted in secondary and tertiary education in the chosen context (Asztalos & Szénich 2019; Édes 2008; Kormos et al. 2008; Szőcs 2017) has been undertaken. Édes' (2008) case study with three first-year English majors at a Hungarian higher education institution explored their autonomous beliefs and behaviours and yielded some insights into how autonomous they were and how they adapted to the transition between secondary and tertiary learning. The findings revealed that the learning process differed between the secondary and tertiary levels because learning tended to be more passive in the former, whereas the latter demanded a more autonomous attitude from the students, to which they were not accustomed. Szőcs (2017) investigated the correspondences and discrepancies between learners' and teachers' beliefs about autonomous learning in secondary schools. By emphasising the value of both life experience and language learning experience, the teachers made a connection between their students' autonomy as language learners and their personal autonomy in life. Later, Asztalos and Szénich (2019) examined language learners' learning habits beyond the classroom. They discovered that learners seemed to recognise the salience of being responsible for their learning achievement, and they viewed both learners and teachers as being responsible for their learning process. More than half of the participants implied that they would need guidance and support from teachers. Based on the reviewed studies, one consistent finding seems to characterise language learner autonomy in the Hungarian EFL context, namely, that it does not seem to reach a satisfactory level. In secondary schools, learners do not appear to have developed the habit of autonomous learning, which adversely affects their learning in higher education as well (Kormos et al. 2008). The current study focused on the Hungarian tertiary context and attempted to investigate the beliefs about autonomous learning and autonomous learning behaviours of English majors.

## 4. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Considering the literature reviewed and the aims of the investigation, the following research questions were developed:

RQ1.: What characterises students' views regarding their own roles and those of their teachers in terms of taking responsibility in learning English?

RQ2.: What are the patterns of their autonomous English language learning behaviours both within and outside the classroom?

RQ3.: How do students' perceptions of their own responsibilities, their autonomous behaviours, their motivation, and their perceived ability in learning English intersect and influence one another?

## 4.1. Participants

A total of 74 EFL students filled in the online survey. Among them, there were 17 male students, 55 female students, and one individual who did not specify their gender. 32 of them were from a particular Hungarian university, while the rest did not provide information about their university affiliation. Their nationalities included 65 Hungarians, one Hungarian-Estonian, one English-Hungarian, two Russians, two Kazakhs, one Turkish, one Bangladeshi, and one Chinese. Their ages ranged from 18 to 32, and their academic years of study ranged from first year to sixth year. Seven of them attended the first year, 10 the second year, 46 the third year, three the fourth year, seven the fifth year of the university, and one was in the sixth year. In spite of studying in different academic programmes, the participants were English majors, taking another language or subject as another major or minor, such as English in Business, English in the Media, Mathematics, French, German, Hungarian, Spanish, or Italian. 31 of them were teacher trainees. The distribution of their self-reported proficiency was as follows: 53 of them regarded their English as advanced, 11 as native-like, nine as intermediate, and one as pre-intermediate. The fact that they were specialised in English made the participants well-suited for the purpose of the research since they could be assumed to be more motivated learners of English.

## 4.2. Instrument

The original questionnaire, developed by Spratt, Humphreys and Chan (2002), was adapted for a similar study conducted in Japan by Tomita and Sano (2016). In their study, Tomita and Sano included 47 items that measured four main constructs in their questionnaire: 13 items assessed students' perceptions of their own and their teachers' responsibilities; 11 items evaluated their perceptions of their abilities; one item gauged their motivation; and 22 items examined their autonomous behaviours. The questionnaire items of Tomita and Sano (2016)

(discussed below) were modified for the Hungarian context in the current study. Clear section instructions were added for the respondents' convenience, and the scales were again revised in the present questionnaire. The questionnaire adopted a five-point Likert scale, as students were asked to choose from options ranging from 1 to 5. This made the students' choice easier due to their familiarity with the Hungarian grading system, which consists of five grades. The pilot questionnaire's last version contained five sections: background information and four other sections, with a total of 60 items to measure six variables. The background information section of the survey asked about the respondents' nationality, gender, course title, academic study, specialisation, age, and English proficiency. The items for the six variables were structured in the survey as follows:

1. *Students' responsibility* (13 items): In Section 1, the point (Fairly) was introduced between "A little" and "Mainly" on Tomita & Sano's (2016) four-point Likert scale (Not at all, A little, Mainly, Completely). This allowed students to provide more nuanced responses regarding their own responsibilities in learning English.

2. *Teacher's responsibility* (13 items): The questionnaire reused the identical items from Section 1 to assess how learners perceived their teacher's responsibilities within the context of learning English.

3. *Students' perceived abilities* (11 items): Tomita and Sano's (2016) five-point scale was adjusted to (Very poorly, Poorly, OK, Well, Very well) to maintain grammatical consistency with the modified question: "If you had the following opportunities, how well do you think you would be able to…?"

4. *Students' motivation* (5 items): The original questionnaire's single item measuring motivation was replaced with five items designed by the researchers, that inquired about learners' motivated learning behaviour. A five-point scale ranging from "Completely agree" to "Completely disagree" was used.

5. *Students' autonomous behaviours outside the classroom* (22 items): In Section 4, additional items were included to assess learners' current autonomous learning activities both outside and inside the classroom. These additions were based on input from Hungarian students regarding their common independent English learning practices. The original four-point scale (Often, Sometimes, Rarely, Never) was changed and extended to a five-point scale (Almost Daily, A couple of times a week, A couple of times a month, A couple of times a year, Never).

6. *Students' autonomous behaviours inside the classroom* (9 items): No changes or modifications were made for this construct. The same five-point scale as in Section 4 was used.

The questionnaire was developed in English for the target participants speaking a different language from the researchers. To ensure clarity and precision, some items were rephrased and adapted in accordance with the professional opinions of experts in the field. The researchers used a free version of Qualtrics and a PhD student's institutional account to create an online survey.

## 5. DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

To collect the data, the researchers circulated the online survey link with the help of university professors, since they were unfamiliar with the research context and had no direct contact with the participants. The survey received a total of 74 responses between February and March 2022. Next, the data were transferred into an SPSS dataset, and data analysis was conducted using SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) 26.0. To answer the research questions, descriptive statistics, paired-sample t-tests, correlation, and regression analyses were computed.

## 6. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This section presents the results and their interpretations for each research question. Descriptive statistics for the scales will be shown after reporting the scales' Cronbach's alpha internal reliability coefficients. Subsequently, the results of the paired-sample t-tests will be discussed, followed by the scales' correlation and regression analyses.

All the dimensions achieved Cronbach's alpha values exceeding the necessary criterion of .70 (Dörnyei 2007), as shown in Table 1.

**Table 1.** Reliability coefficients for the scales

| Scales | Cronbach's Alpha coefficients |
|---|---|
| Students' responsibility | .80 |
| Teacher's responsibility | .74 |
| Students' perceived ability | .75 |
| Students' motivation | .85 |
| Students' autonomous behaviours (outside class) | .83 |
| Students' autonomous behaviours (inside class) | .75 |

Source: own study.

Based on the descriptive statistics presented in Table 2, the scale with the highest mean value (M = 4.08, SD = .72) pertains to *students' motivation*. This suggests that the Hungarian EFL learners participating in the study exhibited a notably high level of motivation in their pursuit of English language learning. Following *students' motivation*, students' views on their *teacher's responsibilities* and *students' perceived abilities* recorded the second and third highest mean values among the six variables. More than half of the students demonstrated confidence in their abilities related to autonomous learning. Furthermore, they displayed autonomous behaviours both within and outside the classroom.

**Table 2.** Descriptive statistics of the scales

| Scale | Mean | Std. Deviation |
|---|---|---|
| Teacher's responsibility | 3.90 | .41 |
| Students' responsibility | 3.31 | .49 |
| Students' autonomous behaviours (inside class) | 3.21 | .61 |
| Students' autonomous behaviours (outside class) | 3.19 | .53 |
| Students' perceived ability | 3.60 | .47 |
| Students' motivation | 4.08 | .72 |

Source: own study.

A paired sample t-test could provide an answer to RQ1, which inquires about students' opinions of their own responsibilities and their teachers' responsibilities. The result in Table 3 shows that it was statistically significantly different between *students' responsibility* and *teacher's responsibility* ($t = -10.719$, $p < 0.01$). The fact that *teachers' responsibility* (3.90 with SD =.41) produced a higher mean value than *students' responsibility* (3.30 with SD =.49) suggests that students are likely to attribute more responsibility to their teachers than to themselves. Remarkably, they seem to feel that teachers are more accountable for classroom learning than they are.

**Table 3.** Paired sample t-test between students' responsibility and teacher's responsibility

| Scales | Mean | Std. deviation | $t$ | $p$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Students' responsibility | 3.30 | .49 | −10.719 | < 0.001 |
| Teacher's responsibility | 3.90 | .41 | | |
| Students' autonomous behaviours (outside class) | 3.19 | .53 | −0.380 | 0.705 |
| Students' autonomous behaviours (inside class) | 3.21 | .61 | | |

Source: own study.

This confirms what has been claimed by Albert, Tankó and Piniel (2018a, 2018b) and Illés and Csizér (2018), who concluded that "foreign language teaching in Hungary is still overwhelmingly teacher-centred by employing traditional, classroom-focused teaching methods" (after Asztalos et al. 2020: 280). This finding also corroborates the idea that "teachers believed that more autonomy would be possible, but they did not think it was applicable in their context, revealing the discrepancy of the world that was desirable but not available to them at the time of the research" (Szőcs 2017: 134). Perhaps students also do not feel assured about or unacquainted with taking more responsibility for their classroom learning.

An analysis of paired sample t-tests was performed to respond to RQ2. The two results did not show a statistically significant difference, even though the mean value of *students' autonomous behaviours (outside class)* (*M* = 3.19, SD =.53) was slightly lower than that of *students' autonomous behaviours (inside class)* (M = 3.21, SD =.61, *t* = -.380, *p* 0.705). As a result, the study's participants demonstrated moderately autonomous behaviours both inside and outside of the classroom. The majority of them scored highly on reading news articles, novels, and TV shows with regard to autonomous behaviours (outside of class), according to the item analysis of the scales. A third of them spoke English every day with foreigners. A very likely reason for this is the international university environment. The students do not seem engaged in other types of autonomous learning activities, such as using language learning applications, etc. A relatable justification can be seen in this: "a reason for the lack of out-of-classroom language learning may be students' workload at the university, combined with the time and energy they need for part-time jobs necessary to finance their studies" (Asztalos & Szénich 2019: 7). An alternative reason might be explained by the fact, that due to their perceived high level of English, they may not feel the need to improve it. Regarding students' autonomous behaviours (inside class), more than half of them chose 'never' for 'making suggestions to the teachers about class activities or assignments'. This suggests that although they showed confidence in their autonomous abilities, it did not seem clear to them how autonomous they should or could be in class. This is also associable with the result of Kormos et al. (2008). There can be several reasons behind this, for instance, the way teachers act in the class, the nature of the courses, or the curricula.

To address the final research question, which explores the connections between students' perceptions of their responsibilities, their autonomous behaviours, their motivation, and their perceived ability in English learning, correlation and regression analyses among the scales were conducted. Table 4 illustrates the significant correlations between these dimensions (*p* < .01).

**Table 4.** Significant correlations between the scales (p < .01)

| | Scale | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Students' responsibility | ___ | | | | | |
| 2 | Teacher's responsibility | .439** | ___ | | | | |
| 3 | Students' perceived ability | | | ___ | | | |
| 4 | Students' motivation | | | | ___ | .351** | .439** |
| 5 | Students' autonomous behaviours (outside class) | | | | | ___ | .682** |
| 6 | Students' autonomous behaviours (inside class) | | | | | | ___ |

Source: own study.

There is a moderately significant correlation ($r = .439$, $p < .001$) between *students' own responsibilities* and *teachers' responsibilities*. This data suggests that if students view themselves as responsible, they also place responsibility on their teachers. Besides, there is a moderate correlation between the students' *perceptions of their motivation* and their *autonomous behaviours (inside class)* ($r = .439$, $p < .001$) and their *motivation* and *autonomous behaviours (outside class)* ($r = .359$, $p = .002$) This can prove that motivated students are more likely to be autonomous both inside and outside the classroom.

The fact that the students demonstrated some autonomous behaviours both inside and outside class while perceiving their teachers as having more responsibility for course-associated decisions seems to be at odds. However, this can be explained by the students' tendency to feel more eager and at ease with autonomy as long as their autonomous behaviour does not infringe on the teacher's authority, particularly in in-class learning. This might be due to their belief that teachers are the only and most authoritative persons regarding class-related decisions, although they were confident about their autonomous abilities. Their ability to operate autonomously in a classroom setting may thus be influenced by how and how much space their teachers give them to do so. Consequently, the potential reason behind this outcome could be that when teachers involve students in decision-making and participation in classroom activities, it not only motivates them but also enhances their self-assurance in executing these tasks. This finding confirms that of Little (1996). Besides, there is a strong correlation between *students' autonomous behaviours (outside class)* and *students' autonomous behaviours (inside class)* ($r = .682$, $p < .001$), which proves that if students are autonomous inside the classroom, they will also act autonomously outside the classroom.

In addition to the correlation analysis, regression analysis was also computed to find out causal relationships between the scales. Table 5 below shows the influence that *students' responsibility* and *autonomous behaviours inside the classroom* have on *students' perceived ability*.

**Table 5.** Results of regression analysis of the scales with students' perceived ability as the dependent scale (p < .01)

| Scale | β | t | p | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Students' responsibility | .25 | 2.24 | .028 | |
| Students' autonomous behaviour (inside class) | .23 | 2.07 | .042 | |
| R² | | | | .14 |

Source: own study.

Based on the results, 14% of the students' perceived ability can be explained by students' perceptions of their own responsibility and autonomous behaviours inside the classroom, and the influence of the two dimensions is almost the same (.25 vs. .23).

Table 6 shows the impact the scales *teachers' responsibility*, and *students' autonomous behaviour (inside class)* have on *their motivation*.

**Table 6.** Results of regression analysis of the scales with students' motivated learning behaviour as the dependent scale (p < .01)

| Scale | β | t | p | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Students' autonomous behaviour (inside class) | .40 | 3.80 | <.001 | |
| Students' perceptions of teachers' responsibility | .23 | 2.18 | .033 | |
| R² | | | | .24 |

Source: own study.

The results indicated that 24% of the students' motivated learning behaviour can be explained by the two dimensions together, and the effect of students' autonomous behaviour inside the class is almost twice as strong as that of their perceptions of their teachers' responsibility. This can be interpreted in a way that students' motivated learning behaviour is enhanced when they feel a sense of independence in the classroom. In other words, an autonomy-supported environment can lead to positive learning experiences. This is consistent with the recommendation made by Csizér et al. (2021: 17) to "allow for successes that learners can take pride in, where they can feel that they are equipped with the tools they need to become competent foreign language users."

## 7. CONCLUSION

The aim of this research was to examine how Hungarian EFL learners perceive learner autonomy and how they manifest autonomous behaviours in the process of learning English. The study's findings align with the outcomes of prior research studies, suggesting that learners' autonomous beliefs are not always fully translated into practice despite their confidence in their ability to learn autonomously.

In response to RQ1 (What characterises students' views regarding their own roles and those of their teachers in terms of taking responsibility in learning English?), we can conclude that students continue to view their teachers as being more in charge of their language learning than themselves. As regards RQ2 related to their autonomous learning practices in and out of the class, the students appear to exercise some autonomy in roughly equal amounts both in and outside the classroom, although they seem to stick to their preferred extra-curricular activities (e.g., reading books, watching TV programmes). Given their self-confidence in their abilities for autonomous learning, they may be ready to further enhance their language learner autonomy. Regarding RQ3 (How do students' perceptions of their own responsibilities, their autonomous actions, their motivation, and their perceived ability in learning English intersect and influence one another?), the results demonstrated that if students view themselves as responsible, they also hold their teacher accountable. Additionally, students' motivated language learning behaviour seems to be positively influenced by their autonomous behaviours inside the classroom, and their teachers taking responsibility for their language learning.

Based on the results, a few pedagogical recommendations can be made to Hungarian tertiary EFL teachers in the study's context, which is also an English as a lingua franca context. Owing to the high level of motivation of English majors in Hungary and their beliefs in their abilities for autonomous learning, it would be rewarding both for teachers and the learners to get learners involved in course-related decisions. The first step for teachers is to raise awareness of learner autonomy and how it can be practiced. Since "'choice' is a fundamental aspect of learner autonomy" (Lamb 2009: 69), encouraging students to make choices and autonomous decisions can motivate them to take responsibility for their language learning, potentially leading to positive outcomes.

Allowing tertiary EFL learners to choose any autonomous language learning activities (e.g., using language learning applications, watching news or reading news or books, etc.) may be beneficial for these adult learners who may need to balance their studies with work commitments. It might also be beneficial to bring together those learners who choose the same activities with a view to sharing and

discussing their learning challenges and experiences as they progress through the learning process. Illés' (2019) adult learner autonomy model of autonomy as a learner, autonomy as a communicator, and autonomy as a person, can be partially applied and implemented. By actively participating in both language learning and language use under the supervision of teachers, learners will also become aware of the opportunities and resources for language learning that are available to them (Benson & Lamb 2020). Additionally, teachers might discuss with their students how to develop learning objectives, choose resources and activities, and evaluate those in order to foster their autonomy. Furthermore, because the majority of the study participants were English language teacher trainees, these implications might especially be valuable for them in their future careers as educators.

The current study had its limitations. Due to the limited sample size, the generalisability of the findings should be questioned first. Moreover, the students' high level of English proficiency may have some bearing on their engagement in autonomous language learning activities, as they do not seem particularly enthusiastic about them. Investigating whether this lack of enthusiasm is due to a perceived lack of necessity or other factors would necessitate further research. While they demonstrated confidence in their ability for autonomous learning, it appeared that they were less inclined to participate in decisions concerning classroom affairs. Conducting follow-up interviews could offer more explanations for the underlying reasons. Therefore, further research is necessary to explore the reasons behind the findings and yield more insights into aspects related to the focus of the study.

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**Autonomia ucznia z perspektywy studentów uczących się języka angielskiego jako obcego w kontekście węgierskiej szkoły wyższej**

Abstrakt. Rozwój technologii znacząco zwiększył możliwości uczących się w zakresie autonomicznej nauki języka angielskiego. Chociaż jak dotąd przeprowadzono wiele badań nad autonomią ucznia osadzonych w kontekście węgierskim (e.g., Édes 2008; Szőcs 2017), nadal istnieje potrzeba prowadzenia dalszych badań, które wyjaśnią przyczyny braku autonomii wśród studentów uczących się języka angielskiego jako obcego i pomogą wskazać, w jaki sposób można uczynić ich proces uczenia się bardziej autonomicznym. Celem przedstawionego w artykule badania ilościowego było zanalizowanie sygnalizowanego powyżej problemu poprzez zbadanie sposobów postrzegania zadań i odpowiedzialności nauczyciela i uczących się w procesie nauki języka, ich umiejętności, motywacji, zachowań autonomicznych w klasie językowej i poza nią, a także zależności pomiędzy tymi zmiennymi. Kwestionariusz zastosowany w projekcie wypełniło 74 respondentów – studentów węgierskiego uniwersytetu. Zebrane dane zostały zanalizowane za pomocą SPSS 26.0. Uzyskane wyniki wskazują, iż w badanym kontekście nauczyciele są postrzegani przez studentów jako osoby bardziej odpowiedzialne za proces uczenia się niż sami uczący się. Niemniej jednak studenci prezentują określone zachowania autonomiczne, obecne w jednakowym stopniu zarówno w środowisku szkolnym, jak i poza nim.

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# Foreign language teacher preparation in Slovakia and Poland from skills to competences

Abstract. The paper discusses the challenges of foreign language teacher preparation in Slovakia and Poland resulting from observed tendencies such as digitalisation, mobility and specialisation of disciplines. The background for these reflections on the state of teacher training education is the document *European Profile for Language Teacher Education – a Frame of Reference* (2004) and *DigComp 2.2 The Digital Competence Framework for Citizens* (2022), which point out the main fields essential for the development of high-quality foreign language teachers in terms of digital, life and entrepreneurial competences. The authors of the paper analyze example curricula at two universities, one in Poland (Adam Mickiewicz University, Poznań) and one in Slovakia (Constantine the Philosopher University in Nitra) to answer the following research questions: how will future foreign language teachers be supported in developing their competences at the tertiary level? How do the current foreign language teacher training curricula at universities in Slovakia and Poland incorporate the need for the development of new competences? The results of the analysis present the discrepancies at both universities in the way the recommendations concerning competence development are incorporated, however they also reveal the weaknesses and strengths of the existing solutions.

Keywords: foreign language teacher training, skills, competences, Slovakia, Poland.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Teaching foreign languages is a complex process that does not take place in isolation, but is part of the surrounding reality in which both teacher-instructor and learner-student are immersed and interact with. Any change in this setting has an influence not only on the efficiency but also on the quality of teaching. Dynamic changes require even more flexibility, creativity and readiness to adapt from teachers, something which is slowly becoming part of the teaching profession. Understanding the need for the best possible preparation of future teachers

for their profession in the field of foreign languages, the European Profile for Language Teacher Education – A Frame of Reference (Kelly, Grenfell, Allan, Kriza & McEvoy 2004) was created, providing an overall structure of professional competences necessary for the pre-service and in-service preparation of future language teachers. The main objective of the study that was carried out by a team of language experts and supported by the European Commission was to answer the needs and produce a definitive draft of the European Profile for Language Teacher Education – A Frame of Reference. The research team provided case studies in eleven European teacher education institutions with the aim of finding out how their teacher training programmes are formed, and then compared with the Profile. The document offers, in total, forty competences essential for professional language teacher development, grouped into four categories regarding their character and nature. The first is the structure of educational courses, dealing with the curriculum. The following category, knowledge and understanding, talks about the concepts "central to foreign language teaching" (Kelly et al. 2004: 4). The third category, strategies and skills, identifies the diversity of teaching and learning particular skills and strategies. The last category talks of values that should be encouraged and promoted through language teaching. The framework was the starting point for the development of the curricula in foreign language teacher training in many countries, including all those in Poland and Slovakia, whose current shape is described below.

## 2. THE SLOVAK PROFILE OF A FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHER

Following the Velvet Revolution, the educational landscape in the Slovak Republic underwent substantial transformations aimed at instilling democratic and humanistic values. Notably, foreign language education was restructured in accordance with the guidelines set forth by the European Council. The primary objective was to equip graduates with the skills necessary for coexistence in a multicultural Europe, emphasising proficiency in a minimum of two foreign languages (Council of Europe 2007; Kováčiková 2021).

In Slovakia, aspiring foreign language educators are required to hold a master's degree obtained from either a faculty of arts or education. The tradition of preparing language teachers prior to their entry into the profession has deep roots in faculties of education. This preparation places a strong emphasis on linguistic and methodological training, ensuring that teachers acquire the essential knowledge, skills, and competencies needed to excel in primary

and secondary school environments. The curriculum for this degree integrates theoretical knowledge with practical teaching experience. Upon completing their master's degree, individuals seeking to become foreign language teachers typically embark on a 2–3-year journey as novice teachers. During this period, they typically work under the guidance and supervision of experienced senior language teachers.

In 1989, the training of English teachers in Slovakia was limited to just two faculties, located in Bratislava and Prešov. However, with the turn of the century, the educational landscape witnessed a significant expansion. By then, a total of twelve faculties dedicated to English teacher training had been established (Gadušová & Harťanská 2002). The 1990s marked a pivotal period, during which the number of teacher training programmes in Slovakia experienced notable growth, adapting to evolving methodology requirements. It isworth noting that during this period, Slovakia faced a substantial shortfall in English teachers, with a demand for 3,000 instructors but with only around 2,000 available (Gill 1997). Following the establishment of the independent Slovak Republic on January 1, 1993, the approach to lifelong learning for teachers underwent significant changes. The concept, initially proposed in the 1990s, evolved into a more structured framework. Act No. 568/2009 on Lifelong Learning, which took effect on December 1, 2009 (Zákony pre ľudí, 2010), redefined lifelong learning with a focus on ongoing professional development. This encompassed both formal and informal avenues for growth. The formal aspect was assured through higher educational institutions or accredited educational establishments, leading to the issuance of diplomas or certificates, often achieved through attestation or "rigorosa" exams. Informal studies, on the other hand, involved various means of self-improvement, including teacher observations, practical training, participation in methodological seminars, and attendance at teacher conferences, all aimed at enhancing various facets of foreign language teaching. A survey conducted by the British Council of Slovakia in 2014 among English teachers (British Council, 2014) revealed a prevailing dissatisfaction with the conditions for teaching English in Slovakia. A significant 95% of respondents cited the absence of a structured system for additional in-service training, as well as a lack of opportunities for language immersion abroad, as major concerns. Furthermore, 93% of respondents expressed dissatisfaction at the absence of integrated teaching materials, which encompassed didactic and digital content to complement textbooks. It is important to note that these findings align with similar issues faced in several other European countries, highlighting the common need for qualified teachers, improved standards in teacher training, and increased availability of in-service courses (Enever 2011).

## 3. THE POLISH PROFILE OF
## A FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHER

In Poland, similarly, the transformation in 1989 was a moment of significant changes in the field of education, beginning with the introduction of Western European languages from year VI, for 2 hours a week (Komorowska 2017: 68). Those changes were a sign of the increasing importance of foreign languages, which again caused preoccupations about the quality and preparation of foreign language teachers. In the 1990s, the education of language teachers was concentrated mainly in so-called foreign language colleges, where, apart from theoretical classes, future teachers received a very large dose of practical preparation for their future work in the form of work experience. Studies at these colleges lasted 3 years, after the end of this cycle, the young graduates could teach in primary schools. The years 2004–2005, after Poland's accession to the European Union, introduced numerous changes in the context of education, primarily by transferring education to universities and introducing a division into bachelor's and master's studies.

The qualifications for teaching foreign languages in public education in Poland were formulated in the Regulation of the Minister of National Education of 1 August 2017 defines the specific qualifications required for teachers, a person who seeks employment as a foreign language teacher needs to have completed[1]

1) studies in a second-cycle or long-cycle master's degree in philology with a specialisation in a given foreign language, or in applied linguistics with a specialisation in a given foreign language, and teacher training,
2) studies in a country where the official language is not Polish, and has a teaching background, or;
3) second-cycle studies or a single master's degree, in any field (specialisation), and has
    a) a certificate of proficiency or advanced standing in the relevant foreign language as referred to in the annex to the Regulation and teacher training, or
    b) a certificate of passing the state examination in the relevant foreign language at level II referred to in the annex to the Regulation.
4) teacher training college of foreign languages specialising in a given foreign language.

After finishing the first cycle, graduates are allowed to teach in primary schools, whereas graduating from the second cycle allows them to teach foreign languages in all kinds of schools and institutions.

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[1] https://www.ilo.org/dyn/natlex/natlex4.detail?p_lang=en&p_isn=105969.

In Poland, the path to becoming a fully independent foreign language teacher is relatively long (approximately 15 years) with two preparation periods of 3 years and 9 months, during which teachers are supposed not only to develop their teaching competences (hands on) in a real environment, but also to participate in methodological and pedagogical courses to enhance their knowledge about the latest teaching tools and methods. The motivation for extending the path to professional independence was care for the quality of education and changes in labour market needs. Briefly summarising the situation in Slovakia and Poland, the changes have gone in the direction from knowledge to the development of practical competences. In both cases, Poland and Slovakia university degrees provide the necessary background for future teachers, however thanks to internships and teaching practice in both countries, young graduates are already confronted with the potential challenges awaiting them in the school environment.

## 4. MODERN FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHERS' COMPETENCES

The dynamically changing pace and standard of living strongly influence education. Not only technological advancement, but also internationalisation and demographic changes belong to the biggest challenges today's teacher is confronted with. A competence is more than just knowledge or skills. Referring to the definition of competence formulated by the OECD (2005), it points out that it is an "ability to meet complex demands, by drawing on and mobilising psychosocial resources (including skills and attitudes) in a particular context." For example, the ability to communicate effectively is a competence that may draw on an individual's knowledge of language, practical IT skills and attitudes towards those with whom he or she is communicating (OECD 2005: 4). The statement by Andrzejewska (2008: 42) that teachers' competences are in a permanent state of development seems to be very true. Bearing that in mind, the training of a prospective teacher is nowadays a process requiring flexibility and adaptation to changing circumstances. The table below depicts the current directions in socio-geo-political changes and their consequences for the development of foreign language teacher competences based on recent literature from the field (cf. Owens 2017; Selvi 2010; Sala, Punie, Garkov & Cabrera Giraldez 2020; Vuorikari 2022).

**Table 1.** Presentation of recent trends and their relationship to teacher competences

| Trends | Teacher competences and reference to the latest research / documents | Description |
|---|---|---|
| Digitalisation | Digital competences (**DigCompEdu**) "digital competences educators need to foster efficient, inclusive and innovative teaching and learning strategies" (Vuorikari 2022: 16) | Ability to use new technologies in class, in lesson planning and assessment<br>Familiarity with tools for online learning and teaching |
| Development of new teaching tools | Professional engagement / long-life learning competences – **LifeComp** (Sala et al. 2020) | Ability to search for sources of new knowledge and self-develop<br>Observe changing trends in the surrounding reality<br>Searching for networking and exchanging teaching ideas with peers and more experienced teachers<br>Ability to critically self-assess |
| Diversification of learners / heterogeneity of aims, needs and backgrounds | Socio-cultural competences Pedagogical competences **LifeComp** (Sala et al. 2020) | Ability to recognise well and answer very diverse learner needs<br>Ability to scaffold work<br>Ability to motivate learners |
| Specialisation of disciplines | Field competencies Selvi (2010), | Ability and willingness to expand knowledge based on recent developments<br>Familiarity with the results of recent research from the field |
| Globalisation – multiligualism, multiculturality | Communication Competencies Selvi (2010), Council of Europe (2020), **LifeComp** (Sala et al. 2020) | Understanding the similarities and differences between languages, building references<br>Cultural awareness of coexistence of different cultures |
| Constant development of new technological and social solutions | Transversal competences **EntreComp** (Sala et al. 2020) | Ability to search for new and creative teaching solutions<br>Encouraging students to develop individual learning paths, tools<br>Looking for bridges between teaching and real life situations |
| Networking / socialising through social media | Media / multimedia competence, Collaboration competence **(DigCompEdu)** **LifeComp** (Sala et al. 2020) | Ability to use social media for contacting and networking<br>Incorporating the resources available on social media in the teaching process |

Source: current study.

The above table shows the array of competences expected from the modern teacher, proving only the complexity and interdisciplinarity of the profession. Coping with new challenges requires new, extended skillsets that can ensure better understanding of learners and easier adjustment to the way they learn, so as to optimise the teaching process. However, it needs to be highlighted that the development of competences is a long process, for which the foundation is delivered during teacher training at university level. In the next part of the paper, the responsiveness of the curricula representing the teacher training programmes at universities in Slovakia and Poland will be analysed, to answer the following research questions:

– How are future foreign language teachers supported in developing their competences at the university level?
– How do current foreign language teacher training curricula at universities in Slovakia and Poland incorporate the need for the development of new competences?

## 5. METHODOLOGY

The data analysed in the empirical part of this paper has been extracted from the websites, the respective syllabuses for bachelor and master studies at the chosen universities – Adam Mickiewicz University, Poland and Faculty of Education, Constantine the Philosopher University in Nitra, Slovakia, which conduct foreign language teacher training courses as a part of modern language studies. The set of foreign language teacher training courses have been analysed and compared with the proposed set of competences in foreign language teacher education described in *DigComp 2.2 The Digital Competence Framework for Citizens – With new examples of knowledge, skills and attitudes*. The intention of the analysis is to examine and evaluate the institutional plan for language teacher preparation in Slovakia and Poland. It will be interesting for researchers to see which courses incorporate the development of DigComp, LifeComp and EntreComp (Sala et al. 2020), and how the mentioned competences are trained. The analysis of the two curricula was made using the syllabuses for the Bachelor and Master degrees in English Teacher Training in Slovakia and Poland. The competences were identified in the topics that are covered in the courses offered by both educational institutions. Later on, the allocated hours for specific courses were counted and the results are shown in the tables below.

## 5.1. DigComp

DigComp are interdisciplinary competences which are taught in several courses, since the range of developed aspects is broad, including searching for information, using available educational materials such as Open Educational Resources (OER), sharing ready materials and connecting with teacher communities, as well as "using a computer and other electronic devices, handling the Internet as well as the use of various types of applications and software, and creating digital content"[2]. The table below presents the courses and number of hours where elements of DigComp for future foreign language teachers are incorporated in Polish universities.

**Table 2.** Names of courses with incorporated elements of DigCom development

| Name of the course / number of hours / cycle | Topics covered |
|---|---|
| Information technology/30/I | • Developing ability to work with office software<br>• Developing ability to present information<br>• Developing ability to search for information |
| Research methodology in applied linguistics/30/I | • Presenting the methodological specifics of applied linguistics to an advanced degree<br>• Describing methods, techniques and research tools in applied linguistics<br>• Selecting methods and research tools and using them effectively during individual or team research work<br>• Development of independent searching, analysing, evaluating, selecting and integrating written information using innovative and multimedia sources of information |
| Foreign language didactics 30/II | • Developing teaching materials based on the latest technologies in line with the needs communicated by the learners<br>• Assessing existing materials based on the utility principle, considering existing learners needs with regard to the latest subject literature |
| Language for specific purposes teaching training 30/II | • Using technologies to create networks between teachers communities<br>• Preparing materials for LSP using new media<br>• Use of AI for evaluating LSP learners work |

Source: current study.

DigComp are present in the curricula for foreign language teacher training, their spectrum is rather broad, considering the interdisciplinary of its use. The

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[2] https://depot.ceon.pl/bitstream/handle/123456789/9069/The_Framework_Catalogue_of_Digital_Compe.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y.

tables below present the number of hours in teacher training courses devoted to developing DigComp in Slovakia and Poland.

**Table 3.** The number of hours of courses supporting the development of DigComp at Adam Mickiewicz University in Poland

| Adam Mickiewicz University | Bachelor | Master |
|---|---|---|
| Number of hours of information technology | 30 | |
| Number of hours of Foreign language didactics | 60 | |
| Number of hours of media and multilingual communication | | 30 |

Source: current study.

Digital competences are trained in Poland within information technology, which is a general course dedicated to developing general fluency in the use of computer and information technology. Foreign language didactics is a course during which students are made familiar with the application of information technology in the teaching context. During master studies, students complete a course on media and multicultural communication where they are confronted with authentic examples of media application in strengthening of awareness of multicultural and multilingual communication. In Slovakia the direction of English language teacher training aims at development of linguistic skills and competences in Bachelor degree and methodological competences related to their practical application in English language teaching in Master degree. The courses on the bachelor degree cover Introduction to English language, Phonetics and phonology, Morphology, Lexicology, Development of Language skills (Speaking, Listening, Reading, Writing), Development of intercultural awareness and Introduction to history, culture and literature of English-speaking countries. Introduction to methodology, and classroom observations and assistant teaching practice is introduced already in the bachelor degree. The focus of teacher training in the master degree is placed on reflection on all the skills and competences gained in the bachelor degree, with the aim of using it in teaching practice. Therefore, the courses such as Teaching literature to very young and young learners, Teaching SEN learners, Bilingual education and CLIL, etc. are included. Since 2022, the new accreditation study plans have been followed, that reflect the necessary demands of the modern era and emerge from the modern teaching profession. Thus, ICT and modern technologies are involved a great deal in planning and carrying out the teaching process at the Faculty of Education. A big advantage is that all classrooms are equipped with all the necessary technology.

**Table. 4.** Number of hours supporting development of DigComp at Constantine the Philosopher University in Nitra in Slovakia

| Constantine the Philosopher University in Nitra, Slovakia | Bachelor | Master |
|---|---|---|
| Number of hours of information technology | 78 | 52 |
| Number of hours of foreign language didactics | 39 | 206 |
| Number of hours of media and multilingual communication | 78 | |

Source: current study.

In the Bachelor degree of teacher training, three courses are offered in order to develop digital competences of future teachers, namely Information and communication technologies, ICT of modern teacher, Work with interactive instructional systems. Two courses cover media, such as Digital Games in Education, and Multimedia support in Education out of which pre-service teachers must select one. These courses are taught in Slovakian because they are compulsory for all teacher training programmes. In the rest, the language of instruction is English. On the Master's degree, the Web creation and Application of ICT courses offer 52 hours of instruction. Foreign language didactics is covered on the bachelor's degree, with 39 hours in Introduction to ELT methodology and VideoAnalysis in English language teaching. The increase in the number of hours to 206 on the Master's degree is due to 8 courses (2 hours/week).

## 5.2. LifeComp

LifeComp are undeniably those competences that are necessary for a foreign language teacher to understand and adjust to the dynamically changing needs of the learners and react flexibly to new, sometimes unexpected situations. Without doubt, the moment for developing LifeComp is at the start of one's independent professional life, however, the preparation for this takes place during teaching practice while studying. Teaching practice is an integral part of studies within the foreign language teaching specialisation. The purpose of teacher training is to combine theoretical knowledge with practice, and to familiarise the student with the requirements for teachers.

In Poland, the amount of teaching practice is standardised for each university. The practice is divided into two kinds[3]: **pedagogical practice** is to learn about the educational issues of elementary school children. As part of this module, students observe the work of a pedagogue or school psychologist

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[3] https://ils.amu.edu.pl/dla-studenta/praktyki/praktyki-studia-i-stopnia.

and **teaching practice** including lesson observations, preparation of lessons, preparation of lesson plans, preparation of teaching materials, discussion of topics with the teaching staff, preparation of documentation and other self-directed activities, discussion and evaluation of lessons conducted by the student-practitioner.

**Table 5.** The number of hours of courses supporting the development of LifeComp at Adam Mickiewicz University, Poland

| Adam Mickiewicz University | Bachelor | Master |
|---|---|---|
| Number of hours of pedagogy practice | 30 | 30 |
| Number of hours of teaching practice | 90 | 90 |

Source: current study.

**Table 6.** The number of hours of courses supporting the development of LifeComp at Constantine the Philosopher University in Nitra in Slovakia

| Constantine the Philosopher University in Nitra | Bachelor | Master |
|---|---|---|
| Number of hours of pedagogy practice | 80 | 40 |
| Number of hours of teaching practice | 20 | 120 |

Source: current study.

The Centre of Teaching Practice at the Faculty of Education in Nitra organises practice hours at elementary and secondary schools for all pre-service teachers at the whole university. During the bachelor's degree they undertake class observations and lesson analyses, and on the master's degree, the pre-service teachers gradually start real teaching under the supervision of a teacher. In 2021, the number of hours in practice of pre-service teachers was enriched with additional practice hours (assistance of one university student to one in-service teacher). The aim of this mode is to maximise the time university students spend in a real schooling environment, helping teachers to either prepare or conduct a class, or assisting during the teaching process.

## 5.3. EntreComp

EntreComp refers to the tasks connected with a teacher being a manager and organiser of student activities, as well as operating within the educational system. The development of competences in that field is realised at Adam Mickiewicz University in the courses on the legal aspects of the teaching profession and the practice of teaching in school.

**Table 7.** The number of hours of courses supporting the development of EntreComp at Adam Mickiewicz University, Poland

| Adam Mickiewicz University | Bachelor | Master |
|---|---|---|
| Number of hours of legal aspects of the teaching profession | 2 | 0 |
| Laboratory of teaching in school | 20 | 30 |

Source: current study.

Apart from the linguistic and methodological preparation for teaching English, some of the courses in pre-service preparation offer very specific insights into the teaching profession, in which teachers are seen as managers and organisers. The courses mentioned in the table require step-by-step development and modelling the projects that go beyond planning, realising and evaluating the teaching process. These courses lead the students through project management, the legal background and the requirements for the teaching profession in Slovakia.

**Table 8.** The number of hours of courses supporting the development of EntreComp at Constantine the Philosopher University in Nitra in Slovakia

| Constantine the Philosopher University in Nitra | Bachelor | Master |
|---|---|---|
| Courses providing EntreComp | Development and Management of Projects | School Policy and School Management, Teacher Profession |
| Number of hours | 26 | 26 |

Source: current study.

## 6. CONCLUSION

The role of a modern teacher is a universal one, transcending borders and cultures. It demands a high degree of adaptability to keep pace with the rapidly evolving trends in society, all while upholding the values of humanity and European democracy. Consequently, the most significant challenge in teacher preparation lies in aligning the teacher training curriculum with the ever-changing needs of society, equipping educators to meet the challenges of the future. This paper undertakes a comparative examination of two educational systems, Slovakia and Poland, which share historical similarities, such as a profound shift in ideology following the pivotal year of 1989, their subsequent accession to the European Union, and the implementation of multiple reforms in their respective schooling systems. Recent studies and research underscore the emergence of new para-

digms in education, encompassing digitalisation, the development of innovative teaching tools, the diversification of student demographics, the specialisation of academic disciplines, globalisation, with its inherent multilingualism and multiculturalism, the continuous advancement of technology, and the pervasive influence of networking and social media. Consequently, contemporary societies call for the cultivation of skills and competencies that mirror the dynamic demands of our ever-evolving world. The preparation of future educators must thus be closely intertwined with the content offered by universities, which should reflect these ongoing trends. An analysis of the teacher training curricula in Slovakia and Poland reveals that both educational institutions address the aforementioned requirements to a considerable extent. The findings demonstrate that all the topics associated with modern educational trends are integrated into the teacher training programmes of both countries. However, there may be variations in the number of instructional hours allocated to specific areas. Importantly, all the essential skills and competencies are developed, whether at the bachelor's or master's degree level. Consequently, it can be asserted that both programmes are in harmony with the contemporary trends in foreign language teacher preparation. One contributing factor to this alignment could be the accreditation process that both universities regularly undergo, ensuring that their programmes remain attuned to prevailing needs and social changes. It is noteworthy that the topics related to modern trends are discernible in the courses offered within foreign teacher training programmes. Nevertheless, it is important to acknowledge the study's limitations, primarily stemming from its qualitative analysis of course content and the assessment of outcomes post-course completion. This could potentially serve as a basis for further research in this area.

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## Przygotowanie nauczycieli języków obcych na Słowacji i w Polsce od umiejętności do kompetencji

Abstrakt. W artykule omówiono wyzwania związane z przygotowaniem nauczycieli języków obcych na Słowacji i w Polsce wynikające z obserwowanych tendencji, takich jak cyfryzacja, mobilność i specjalizacja dyscyplin. Autorki artykułu analizują przykładowe programy nauczania na dwóch uniwersytetach, jednym w Polsce (Uniwersytet im. Adama Mickiewicza w Poznaniu) i jednym na Słowacji (Uniwersytet Konstantyna Filozofa w Nitrze), aby odpowiedzieć na następujące pytania badawcze: w jaki sposób przyszli nauczyciele języków obcych będą wspierani w rozwijaniu swoich kompetencji na poziomie szkolnictwa wyższego? W jaki sposób obecne programy kształcenia nauczycieli języków obcych na uniwersytetach na Słowacji i w Polsce uwzględniają potrzebę rozwoju nowych kompetencji? Wyniki analizy przedstawiają rozbieżności na obu uniwersytetach w sposobie uwzględniania zaleceń dotyczących rozwoju kompetencji, ale także ujawniają słabe i mocne strony istniejących rozwiązań.

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# Designing a digital portfolio as an instrument to address literary texts in the EFL classroom

Abstract. This study discusses the use of a digital portfolio as a means of incorporating literary texts as didactic resources in the EFL classroom. It is structured as follows: (i) introduction, (ii) advantages of using literary texts in the EFL classrooms; (iii) an analysis of portfolios in general, and digital portfolios in particular; (iv) a description of the current proposal for teaching and learning, involving an e-portfolio which focuses on the book *Frankenstein, or The Modern Prometheus*, by Mary Shelley; and (v) conclusion. In using such a digital resource, students not only read the book itself, but need to complete the three components of the portfolio – a language diary, a language biography, and a section about literary landscapes – all at the different stages in the learning process. The benefits to students were expected to include a positive effect on their overall acquisition of the foreign language, along with the development of other skills and competences, particularly self-assessment and digital competence, while also gaining knowledge about the literary text in question.

Keywords: digital portfolio (e-portfolio), teaching and learning a foreign language, language diary, language biography, self-assessment, digital competence.

> *Literature has the tremendous quality of allowing us to*
> *engage imaginatively in the lives of others.*
> *It enables us to move beyond ourselves and our own experiences.*
> *If we allow ourselves to respond to it fully, it can be a great educator.*
> *For those of us brought up monoculturally, literature which springs*
> *from outside our own boundaries can be a life line* (Naidoo 1992).

## 1. INTRODUCTION

In present-day society, our lives are increasingly dominated by screens and images, and whereas it is still absolutely necessary to preserve a space for the enjoyment of reading, this is increasingly difficult to achieve, especially for young people. The question of how teenagers can be encouraged to engage in the practice of reading is one that institutions and governments have been trying to resolve in recent times by means of diverse programs and even regulations. Indeed, the Eu-

ropean Union has implemented "EURead", a consortium of organisations for the promotion of reading. As the consortium observes, "Reading is a prerequisite for full participation in today's media-led and culturally diverse society" (n.p.no.[1]). National governments have also addressed the issue. The Spanish government, for instance, recently passed an education law which specified that all secondary education subjects should encompass a period of time devoted to reading as a means of promoting this activity among teenagers (Organic Law 3/2020). In the same line of initiatives, in this article the resource of a digital portfolio (or e-portfolio) is proposed, in that its holistic and flexible nature as a didactic tool allows for reading to be established as the main purpose of working with the portfolio, albeit accompanied by other extra didactic resources and activities, this in order to promote the remaining language skills, as well as to develop other competences and to encourage engagement with cross-curricular topics and values. Indeed, digital competence will be at the centre of this proposal, an issue also highlighted by the European Council through its *Digital Education Plan (2021–2027)*, which encompasses two main priorities: "Fostering the development of a high-performing digital ecosystem" and "Enhancing digital skills and competences for the digital transformation" (n.p.no.). Similarly, the Spanish government in the previously-mentioned educational law defines digital competence as being at the very core of the educational system, given that it has become a requirement for any citizen in present-day society (Organic Law 3/2020).

Furthermore, the portfolio as described here is a didactic resource which perfectly connects the teaching and learning process with that of assessment, and its specific characteristics, described below, allow for the type of assessment set out in the current legal framework for secondary education in Spain: continuous, formative and integrative (Organic Law 3/2020). On the other hand, the portfolio proposed here, plus the various components therein, serve to address the diversity of students in the modern classroom by means of a varied set of assessment instruments which can be adapted to different learning styles and hence can be used to achieve the objective evaluation of all students (Royal Decree 984/2021). Finally, work on the portfolio is of an interdisciplinary nature, and in the present proposal students develop content from other subjects on their curriculum, specifically geography, by means of the component of literary landscapes[2].

The text used as an example in what follows will be Mary Shelley's *Frankenstein, or the Modern Prometheus* (1818). It was chosen because, in both its original

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[1] n.p.no. – no page number.

[2] In this regard, cross-curricular values, including ecological issues, might be addressed during the development of the portfolio. As Rojas Encalada (2021) has shown, by including a topic like this, students can improve their language skills while also practicing critical thinking in the EFL classroom.

version and in adaptations for young readers, the work has figured recurrently in reading programs for students of secondary education, where in their mother tongue or in English[3]. Thus, there are usually a variety of editions of the text in different languages available for the students. Due to this, the section of the e-portfolio that focuses on literary landscapes clearly becomes one of its most attractive parts, as will be observed below, but work here also involves the inclusion of knowledge from the subject of history, given that the story is set in the first decades of the nineteenth century, as well as scientific issues, in that the novel mentions several scientific theories of the time[4].

## 2. LITERARY TEXTS IN THE EFL CLASSROOM

Literary texts have traditionally been a frequent educational resource in the language classrooms, in general teaching and in the foreign language classrooms in particular. However, in recent years, due to the expansion of communicative approaches, they are being used less often, in favour of texts dealing with academic and work environments (Ur 2012). However, many authors still consider the use of literary texts to be an enriching practice, in that they introduce variety into teaching programs and constitute an endless supply of authentic texts (Jáimez & Pérez 2005; Alonso Belmonte & Fernández Agüero 2003). Furthermore, numerous studies have argued that students of all ages are able to appreciate literary texts and that such texts should be included as reading materials in the classroom, so that children and teens are encouraged to develop adult skills and thus be equipped with the necessary abilities to fully understand and enjoy them (Herz & Gallo 2005; Navarro Durán 2006; Núñez 2007; Rodríguez-Chaparro 2017, among others). However, students' interests and age should be taken into consideration, and this typically implies updating and adapting texts by means of summaries or adaptations, in order to make them more accessible (Rodríguez-Chaparro 2017; Cerrillo 2013).

Some of the advantages of using literary texts in the language classroom have been identified by Lazar (1993), who considers aspects such as their motivating nature, their contribution to the language acquisition and the development of interpretative abilities, creativity, critical thinking and emotional skills, while they also offer a means of gaining access to the culture in which they were created.

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[3] For more information on adaptations and translations of Mary Shelley's *Frankenstein* for young readers, see Lasa-Álvarez (2022).

[4] Relevant values related to the field, such as the ethical dimensions of scientific research, or the use of certain stereotypes, such as that of the mad scientist, might also be incorporated into the proposal (Cambra Badil, Guardiola Pereira & Baños Díez 2021).

Jáimez and Pérez (2005), in turn, offer more specific reasons for using literary texts in the classroom, grouping these into three areas. As for linguistic benefits, literary texts improve reading skills, foster good reading habits, develop the three other language skills (listening, writing and speaking), enrich the appreciation of language content and the use of grammar and vocabulary, enhance discursive competence, address the importance of the linguistic register and that of stylistic and linguistic variety, among others. Regarding educational benefits, Jáimez and Pérez (2005) note that literary texts allow students to connect with other people's experiences and to learn from them, to promote personal growth, improve social relations, develop human values, address cross-curricular topics, explore emotions, promote intellectual and aesthetic development, and contribute to student autonomy, among others. Finally, they also mention intercultural advantages, including gaining experiences and information about the target language, helping students to appreciate other cultures, facilitating the knowledge and understanding of students' own cultures, and promoting intercultural reflection, awareness and tolerance of other ways of living and thinking, among others.

Ghosn (2002: 173) also offers four substantial reasons for using literature in the EFL classroom: first, authentic literature provides a motivating and meaningful context for language learning, since children are naturally drawn to stories; second, literature presents not only natural language but language at its finest, and can thus promote vocabulary development in context; third, it can lead to the development of academic literacy and thinking skills; and fourth, literature deals with central aspects of the human condition, and can thus contribute to students' emotional development, fostering positive interpersonal and intercultural attitudes.

Finally, it is interesting to note in this context the *Companion volume of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* of 2018, a revised version of the earlier, original document (2001) includes, among various other changes, "Literature" as a new content area. Specifically, three new scales are introduced in relation to the descriptors for this new area (2018: 50). The first one refers to reading as a leisure activity, that is, the purely receptive process, the second one to the expression of personals responses to creative texts, which implies certain intellectual abilities, but of lower levels, and thirdly, a scale about analysing and criticising of creative texts, which requires higher level intellectual skills.

## 3. THE DIGITAL PORTFOLIO

The didactic resource of the portfolio has its origins in the professional world, in that many professionals, including artists, architects and designers, have traditionally used portfolios or folders as a means of collecting their best work in order

to present to potential employers or clients. Given the effectiveness of this way of showing one's endeavours in the best possible light, the practice started to be used for educational and didactic purposes, first in the 1970s in the Anglophone world, subsequently to be adopted as a teaching practice around the world in all the areas and levels of education (Cassany 2007: 2). The portfolio is used mainly to collect students' learning experiences and to allow for reflection on these; hence, it is a useful instrument for assessment, particularly in terms of what is known as alternative assessment. This in turn arises as a consequence of a new culture of assessment, one which does not concentrate exclusively on tests or exams, but rather seeks alternative tools to evaluate students in a more global, efficient and fair way.

Alternative assessment has been developed along with new active methodologies, which focus primarily on the students themselves. Thus, when assessing students, similar techniques and procedures to those used during the teaching and learning process are used. Also, assessment tasks can be authentic and real, in that they are activities which can be done as part of a learner's daily life. However, Brown and Hudson (1998) prefer to use the expression "alternatives in assessment", arguing that tools defined as alternative, in the sense that they are innovative, such as portfolios, journals, contracts, conferences, self-assessment and peer-assessment, are nevertheless instruments of assessment just like traditional exams, and teachers can use any of them in the most effective and efficient way, as they always have. The same authors go on to offer a series of innovations of these alternatives in assessment, as they use authentic contexts and situations, they are meaningful for the students, they promote the development of higher-level thinking and problem-solving skills and provide information on students' strengths and weaknesses, so that they can improve their performance, and most importantly, alternative assessment tools usually require students to create, produce or do something.

Portfolios, then, form part of those assessment tools which have been established in education to make the teaching practice more holistic, while engaging students more directly in the whole teaching and learning process, as well as in assessment. Indeed, with the purpose of determining the main features of portfolios, Gottlieb (1995) used the acronym CRADLE (Brown 2003):

– collecting: students have to choose what to include in the portfolio according to their experiences, ideas, personality, etc., and in this way the portfolios will reflect students' personalities and the diversity of the classroom (Cassany 2007),
– reflecting: on the part of both students and teachers,
– assessing: both the process and the product,
– documenting: portfolios reflect the results obtained by students,
– linking: they establish a stronger bond between students and teachers, family, classmates, and the wider community,

– evaluating: involving the whole process, this requiring time and responsibility.

Additionally, Cassany (2007) provides some more distinctive features of portfolios:

– the tasks and activities to be included in a portfolio are chosen chiefly by the students, while the worst are discarded,
– portfolios connect what the students have judged to be valid in light of their future academic and professional demands,
– students are at the centre of the activity, which enhances their autonomy,
– portfolios can be interdisciplinary,
– they are flexible, in that they are compatible with diverse methodologies and can lead to the development of multiple skills and include other types of assessment,
– they can also adapt to diverse contexts and purposes.

Focusing now specifically on the digital portfolio or e-portfolio, in a very simple way, it can be defined as a folder created and developed electronically. Hence, there are substantial differences with respect to a traditional portfolio. In Rey Sánchez and Escalera Gámiz (2011) or Cuesta García and González Argüello (2020) the differences with respect to the e-portfolio are summarised as follows:

– it allows the inclusion of multimedia documents and materials, which are much more manageable,
– it is interactive, meaning that its materials can be mixed and other extra elements can be added,
– its content can be updated and managed easily,
– it permits for a greater degree of personalization,
– the website or platform on which students develop their digital portfolios provides them new ways of communication, such as interaction with other users by means of comments on their work.

## 4. DESIGNING THE DIGITAL PORTFOLIO: COMPONENTS AND STRUCTURE

### 4.1. Methodological approach and main objectives

This study showcases a teaching and learning resource in the form of a digital portfolio, which has been designed to address the problematic issue of engaging young people in reading, particularly classic literary texts, such as *Frankenstein*, by Mary Shelley, which has been proposed here as an example. Moreover, the results of the most recent survey in the PISA program (2018) have shown that

Spanish Secondary Education students' scores in reading comprehension are lower than in the previous survey (2015), as well as being lower than the average for students in the rest of the European Union (Spanish Ministry of Education and Professional Training, 2020). Thus, fostering this language skill is also an essential aim of the current digital portfolio.

## 4.2. Context: Students' exit profile in Spanish compulsory secondary education

Secondary education in Spain is divided into two stages, the compulsory one in four years (12–16) and the upper-secondary education or baccalaureate in two (16–18). This portfolio has been designed for the first of the two stages and for the subject English as a foreign language, as part of its reading program. At the end of the Compulsory secondary education (Educación Secundaria Obligatoria, ESO, in Spanish) students should develop the key competences expected in order to achieve an exit profile, which is directly connected to the challenges of the 21st century, as exposed in the "Key Drivers of Curricula Change in the 21st Century" (UNESCO, 2017), to the *Key Competences for lifelong learning* recommended by the European Union (2019) and to the *Sustainable development goals* adopted by the United Nations. The exit profile is described in the Spanish Curriculum for Compulsory Secondary Education in the form of eight key competences: 1) in linguistic communication, 2) plurilingual, 3) mathematical and science and technology (STEM), 4) digital, 5) personal, social and learn to learn, 6) citizenship, 7) entrepreneurial and 8) cultural awareness and expression (Royal Decree 217/2022). For each of the key competences, several operative descriptors have been defined, so that the level of achievement of them can be evaluated. All the subjects have to address and develop the eight competences, which, along with the stage aims, constitute the referential framework for the specific components of the curriculum. In a subject about learning languages, the first two competences, in linguistic communication and plurilingual are obviously present; however, due to the nature of the portfolio here showcased, the digital competence, the personal, social and learn to learn competence and the cultural one are of relevance too. In any case, being the portfolio a flexible resource the rest might be easily incorporated in it.

## 4.3. Procedure

The present portfolio has been designed to last for one term (although it could also be planned for the whole academic year) and for students of any year of

secondary education, with the corresponding adaptations to students' level. The proposal is based on a classic work of English literature, one that students have to read. However, instead of simply reading it and responding to questions at the end, as habitually occurs in the EFL classroom, they will read the book while doing activities related to the text. These will take the form of a digital portfolio, with the main goal here being a thorough and deeper understanding of the text itself. As noted in the introduction, Mary Shelley's *Frankenstein, or the Modern Prometheus* has been selected to exemplify the proposal, and will be read by the students in English, in an adapted version. For the creation and development of the digital portfolio, we propose the use of Google Sites, since, as Barceló Martínez (2020) has observed, this resource offers notable educational opportunities, while students can also develop their digital skills in a secure environment and in many cases can establish their own digital identity through this kind of tool. Its advantages are clear: Google Sites is free, easy to use, and allows users to gather together different types of materials very quickly. Besides, using Google Sites and other Google applications for the inclusion of materials in the digital portfolio is a simple and efficient way for students to share their tasks with the teacher – and with other Google users, if necessary or desired – in that we all tend to have a Google account these days.

The present digital portfolio features three parts which are addressed simultaneously by the students as they are reading the proposed literary text: a language journal or diary, a language biography and a third section about literary landscapes.

## 4.4. Language journal or diary

In the field of educational, a journal is a didactic resource in which first-person reflections about teaching or learning are gathered, and can be used both by teachers and students (Bailey 1990). In both cases, emotional experiences can be expressed, but teaching and learning content, various considerations, strategies, techniques, etc. can also be included. Journals are very useful for obtaining information about what really happens in the classroom, which would be impossible to get by other means, like simple observation (Bailey 1990; Numrich 1996). As Curtis and Bailey (2009) note, once the decision to keep a diary in the classroom has been taken, it should incorporate both subjective and objective content. Hence, there should be entries describing the emotions and feelings experienced at a given moment in the classroom, as well as the recording of objective facts, so that the information provided in the entry is supported by objective facts.

Curtis and Bailey (2009) suggest considering some basic guidelines when keeping a diary:

- chronological order of the entries,
- date and hour of each entry,
- inclusion of a summary of the daily activities,
- incorporation of documents used both in and out of the classroom,
- integration of a list with ideas and questions to be considered in the future.

Additionally, Brown (2004) provides several useful ideas for the successful implementation of diaries as a didactic resource in the classroom. First, the teacher should "sensitively introduce students to the concept of journal writing" (2004: 262) and to what keeping a diary means, in that for many of the students it will be something new and perhaps difficult. It is also necessary to assure them that this task does not involve scrutinizing their personal lives, and that its aims revolve around teaching and learning. The objectives of the classroom diary should be clearly explained, as well as the possible topics to be dealt with and the assessment criteria to be used. During the whole process the teacher should provide feedback and help the students with their diary entries, and this should be done according to specific time schedules. Although diaries are predominantly a source of formative assessment, at the end of the process the teacher should offer comments and remarks in order to provide positive washback.

In the current proposal, while students are reading Mary Shelley's *Frankenstein*, they will write the new vocabulary and elements of grammar that they have found using the format of journal entries, which should also include a brief definition and explanation of each of these new elements. Besides, they will select any aspect of the book, such as characters or events that they have found interesting and try to justify these choices. To do so, a brief questionnaire created using Google Forms will be used for the weekly entries, and students will share these with their teacher. Given that in this task dates are fundamental, students will organise their submissions using Google Calendar.

## 4.5. Language biography

Similarly to Dr. Frankenstein, who in Shelley's text narrates his life in the first person, the students will be asked to write a text in the first person about certain personal experiences. However, there will be some differences here, in that they will be asked to focus on their linguistic and cultural identity. Autobiographical texts are usually motivating for learners, as the topic and form is familiar to them, not least because of our present-day society's obsession with self-exposure and for giving first-person accounts, both in the media and on social network. The

emotional content of this type of text is also engaging for the students, and can sometimes provoke empathic responses (Lasa-Álvarez 2017). For the development of the language biography, the European Language Portfolio model, as designed by the European Council, will be used. However, just one of its three parts has been chosen, with students completing only the biography section[5].

Needless to say, the Language Portfolio is a particularly useful document in the EFL classroom, in that it aims at the promotion of linguistic and cultural diversity and intercultural learning, the improvement of plurilingual learning, and the development of student autonomy. By means of the language biography in particular, students can reflect on and self-assess their own use of language and about how they learn them, an aspect which is considered to be crucial for the current proposal. In this section of the portfolio students will have to specify the following issues: which languages they use to communicate and with whom; what things they are able to do in the languages they use; what languages are spoken around them; how they have learnt languages in the past and how they are learning them at the moment; and their learning plans for their future. In order to make this assignment easier, students will be given an outline with the steps they have to follow when creating the text in Google Docs. However, for the final version, they can use other editing options, such as the applications Typorama and PicLab, in order to create more attractive texts. These applications make it possible to provide more varied and interesting typography with the use of a diverse range of fonts in different colours and sizes, as well as to include images, filters, ornaments etc. Students will also be able to combine the biographical text with an interactive timeline to mark any outstanding events of their lives, this by means of applications such as Time Toast and Rememble.

## 4.6. Literary landscapes

The third part of the digital portfolio is based on a program of the Education and Cultural Department of the Galician Government, which was chosen to be developed in all school libraries and reading projects of the Autonomous Community of Galicia. The origin of the proposal is related to the difficulty that we can face when we want to move around and travel physically to different locations, particularly to distant regions or countries. In recent times, the Covid-19 pandemic has made this even more problematic. Hence, reading offers the possibility of travelling using the imagination. As pointed out by Lores Pérez (2021),

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[5] The European Language Portfolio, as conceived by the European Council, has three components: the Language Passport, the Language Biography and the Dossier.

the coordinator of the library team and the reading club of San Paio Secondary School in Tui (Pontevedra, Spain), reading and geography are mutually enriching in any circumstance, and thanks to both of these we are able to circumnavigate the globe while we design our particular world map and trace our personal reading journey. Accordingly, Gundín and Pousa (2021), school library advisers of the Galician government, suggest various possibilities for mapping students' reading through various reading proposals which:

– invite us to travel, allowing us to reach to faraway places without moving from the school (or our home),
– lead us to engage in exploration and investigation,
– help to promote nonconformism, the need to experience other worlds, thus expanding our vision through reading the world,
– help us to know the other,
– serve to build our reading identity and our literary geography,
– promote comfort and healing through an approach to the reading practice from the perspective of our own body,
– connect literature and cartography, creating both real and imaginary maps.

Indeed, most of the aforementioned possibilities are viable thanks to the text selected for the present e-portfolio. Just because it is from a different culture, *Frankenstein* connects readers with this new and specific cultural context; but more than that, the text also offers a journey through diverse European countries in which the action takes place, given that some passages of the book resemble a travel narrative. Finally, if students prefer to study the author of the text, Mary Shelley's life itself provides an interesting European itinerary, with an obligatory stop at Villa Diodati in Geneva, where *Frankenstein* was created. For this section the students will use Google Maps and will create interactive maps.

## 4.7. Designing the digital portfolio: Structure and steps

The central task in this teaching and learning proposal is reading Shelley's text, but the students will do so following some assignments that are planned beforehand, for which the unifying thread will be the digital portfolio. As for the structure of the portfolio, two main parts can be distinguished, depending on when they are produced: the process and the product. According to Barrett (2010), process refers to the students' work during a period of time in which they collect and add materials to their portfolios; the second step takes place at the end of the period, when the time stipulated to finish the portfolio is approaching and students select and arrange the materials as a final product. However, for designing the specific e-portfolio for this study, the model formulated by

Coromina, Sabaté, Romeu and Ruiz (2011) will be followed because, while it distinguishes these two general steps, it also provides a more detailed version, including some secondary steps or sections which are integrative and not necessarily successive.

**Table 1.** Structure and steps of the digital portfolio

| FIRST STEP – CONTEXTUALIZATION | |
|---|---|
| To be carried out at the beginning of the process, although it can be revised later on. At this time objectives and assessment criteria are established. According to Barberá et al. (2006), this step might include: | |
| 1.1. Presentation | • Students introduce themselves by giving some personal details, so that they can be identified properly. |
| 1.2. Table of contents | • All the content and structure of the e-portfolio is specified, after the students have reached agreement here with the teacher. The content and structure might be modified during the process, and indeed typically they are. The table of contents will also serve to guide the development of the e-portfolio.<br>• In our own case, the three components of the e-portfolio will be mentioned: the language diary, the language biography, and the literary landscapes. |
| **SECOND STEP – CREATING THE E-PORTFOLIO AS A PROCESS** | |
| To be completed during the established period for producing the portfolio, with the aim of gathering all the material relevant to the student's learning process. It includes various subsections: | |
| 2.1. Collecting information | • Students have to demonstrate that they are progressing in their learning process. The type of information they have to collect depends on the specific aim of the e-portfolio.<br>• Given the nature of the three components of the digital portfolio proposed here, the procedure is as follows:<br>• Language diary: the students will receive a form to be filled out as a weekly entry in a journal. They have to describe the content that they have acquired, relating to both grammar and vocabulary, together with the corresponding explanation of each of the elements therein. Additionally, students will give their personal opinions on any issues in the book that they find interesting or appealing.<br>• Language biography: students will receive an outline or worksheet with the steps to produce a text (adapted from Glazer et al. 2017):<br>• Create an outline or draft using Google Docs and share it with the teacher for editing and comments.<br>• Use an online program or application so that the text looks like a professional publication. This might involve enhanced typography, different fonts, filters, decorations, etc. or an attractive background.<br>• Resubmit the text to the teacher for further editing and corrections.<br>• Each of the steps in this section will last two or three weeks.<br>• Literary landscapes: the students will take notes of the different places mentioned in the text and will then select information about these in the form of words and images. They will also have the opportunity to collect information on places associated with the life of the author of the text. |

| 2.2. Immediate reflection | • Students will be asked to justify why they have selected or discarded certain material. In addition, they will have to establish the connection between the evidence provided and what they have achieved in terms of learning. For instance, they will reflect immediately after writing a journal entry, correcting the outline of the biography, or indicating a place. |
|---|---|
| 2.3. Feedback | • The teacher intervenes to assess both the collected materials and the subsequent reflection on these by the students. In that the main strategy at this point of the process is formative assessment, the teacher can also participate by providing help and guidance to students (Barberá et al. 2006). Instructional dialogue might be employed to this end, and the students can use the teacher's advice and indications to correct what they have produced thus far. <br>• Dates will be established so that the teacher knows to offer feedback to all students at prescribed times. Additionally, once a week there will be a specific session devoted to develop the digital portfolio in the classroom, and it might be used this time to promote the instructional dialogue as a technique to provide feedback. |
| 2.4. Publication | • The e-portfolio will be published at the end of this step, when the student and the teacher consider that all the objectives proposed for this step have been achieved. However, the online publication of the portfolio for a wider audience depends on what they have agreed in the previous stage. |
| **THIRD STEP – CREATING THE E-PORTFOLIO AS A PRODUCT** ||
| Students will select the content that they want to highlight in order to demonstrate what they have learned. Various secondary steps can be distinguished: ||
| 3.1. Selecting evidence | • Students chose evidence to prove that certain contents and skills have been acquired. The outcome of this section will depend on the general objectives of the portfolio, on how it is going to be assessed, on the audience to be addressed, etc. <br>• A student can select: <br>• Diary entries to show what grammar or vocabulary they have acquired. <br>• Drafts and texts to illustrate how the composition of the biography has developed. <br>• Information about the places they are going to concentrate on. |
| 3.2. Retrospective reflection | • Students reflect on what they have acquired in a holistic way so that they become aware of the learning process: they examine their strengths and weaknesses and how they can improve their performance in the future. |
| 3.3. Receiving summative assessment from the teacher | • The teacher assesses the students according to the criteria established at the beginning of the process. The criteria might be proposed solely by the teacher, but students' opinions can also be also taken into account. A student will receive not only a mark, but also feedback about their general performance, which can be useful for similar projects in the future. |
| 3.4. New retrospective reflection | • Students reflect on their work, this time including the teacher's assessment. The student's self-assessment will be also taken into consideration at the end of this stage. |
| **FOURTH STAGE – PRESENTATION OF THE DIGITAL PORTFOLIO (OPTIONAL)** ||
| There is normally a presentation of the portfolio at the end of the process. However, partial presentations can also be given on certain specific dates. ||

| 4.1. Presenting to the audience | • The students decide which parts of the portfolio to show and how to present them to the audience. For instance:<br>• For the diary: a calendar with links to the entries that they want to show.<br>• For the biography: those parts that feature enhanced presentational devices such as typography, together with an interactive timeline.<br>• For the literary landscapes: an interactive map with links to the most attractive places (images and text).<br>• A short oral presentation can be added with a summary of the process and the product.<br>• The e-portfolio allows us to promote peer-assessment very easily by means of an online questionnaire, in which the students have to evaluate their classmates' portfolios using various criteria previously established in the classroom. |

Source: author's own design, based on Coromina et al. (2011).

As previously noted, a continuous and formative assessment will be carried out during the process, together with a final assessment which will consider the final version of the portfolio. Some specific criteria will be defined for each of these assessments, and the students will know these beforehand. While the students are creating their e-portfolios the teacher will take into consideration the completion of their weekly assignments, the selection of materials, the revision of the tasks, and the reflections on all the work done. As for the final assessment, the criteria might be the following:

– the final selection of the materials in every step and in general, and the possible interconnection between all of these;
– the organization of content and ideas;
– the capacity for synthesis;
– the ability for reflection and analysis;
– creativity and originality.
– linguistic clarity and accuracy.

Finally, as set out in the above table, a joint evaluation will be performed during the process, this obviously taking into account issues such as the age and level of students, since as a function of these factors their participation might be more of less extensive. Students will also contribute to the assessment of their own and their classmates' work, this representing a previously-established percentage of the final mark. For this assessment, online questionnaires will be used.

## 4.8. Challenges and limitations

All the aspects about portfolios mentioned above can be seen as benefits. However, Brown and Hudson (1998) consider at least four difficulties which can arise when using them: problematic decisions (e.g. who will be in charge of

establishing the assessment criteria and how these will be implemented); logistic issues (e.g. the time and resources needed, teachers' training and skills); challenging assessment criteria (e.g. fairness, clarity, transparency); validity as an assessment tool (e.g. for taking decisions regarding students' achievement, for identifying and controlling any variables which might affect students' performance and results). Moreover, Brown (2004) highlights a further problem, one which affects not only portfolios but also other more recent alternative models of assessment. He argues that they are neither very practical nor reliable, as they take a long time to implement and the subjective component when scoring is very high. Nevertheless, it can be argued that such shortcomings can be balanced against the high percentage of authenticity provided by such tools and also the positive feedback that they typically generate.

Indeed, the abovementioned difficulties can be overcome by following Brown's own recommendations (2004: 257):

1. State objectives clearly.
2. Give guidelines on what materials are to be included.
3. Communicate assessment criteria to students.
4. Designate time within the curriculum for portfolio development.
5. Establish periodic schedules for reviewing and conferencing.
6. Designate an accessible place to keep portfolios.
7. Provide positive feedback in providing final assessment.

## 5. CONCLUDING REMARKS

When we open a book, first and foremost we have the opportunity to read and enjoy it. However, it is also an opportunity to engage our imagination and extend the horizons of our knowledge. Hence, the selection of reading materials here is crucially important, particularly for adolescent students. Classic literature provides us with an endless legacy, full of timeless topics, and these can contribute to a broader and richer education at the secondary school level. The text selected for our teaching and learning proposal here, an adaptation of Mary Shelley's *Frankenstein*, already exists in our collective imagination, thanks to the long and fruitful life that the work has enjoyed since its initial publication. This in turn means that the text is closer to young readers and thus is somewhat easier to understand, even if a version in the original language is used. Furthermore, the digital portfolio that the students have to develop here has been designed to be motivating and interesting, in that it involves, apart from reading the text itself, an ample use of online searches and the collection of information, plus the use of other digital tools. Similarly, active participation

in the whole process by students is usually much more attractive for younger learners. Even though the development of the digital portfolio implies hard work and greater dedication, because the process of teaching and learning is combined with the assessment, a percentage of the students' final mark can be obtained through this resource. It can also be combined with more practical and simple assessment tools. Finally, in terms of language skills, there is no doubt that the skill of reading is promoted with this proposal; however, throughout the creation and development of the digital portfolio, the diverse tasks also allow students to practice the other language skills, as well as to draw on wider curricular content and thus to expand their digital competence and develop their multicultural awareness, which are crucial elements on any student's educational journey.

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**Projektowanie cyfrowego portfolio jako narzędzia do pracy z tekstami literackimi na zajęciach z języka angielskiego jako obcego**

Abstrakt. W niniejszym opracowaniu omówiono wykorzystanie cyfrowego portfolio jako sposobu na włączenie tekstów literackich jako zasobów dydaktycznych na zajęciach z języka angielskiego jako obcego. Jego struktura jest następująca: (i) wprowadzenie; (ii) zalety korzystania z tekstów literackich w klasach EFL; (iii) analiza portfolio ogólnie i portfolio cyfrowego w szczególności; (iv) opis propozycji dydaktycznej obejmującej e-portfolio, które koncentruje się na książce *Frankenstein* autorstwa Mary Shelley; (v) wnioski końcowe. Korzystając z takich zasobów cyfrowych, uczniowie nie tylko przeczytają daną książkę, ale będą także wypełniać trzy składowe portfolio – dziennik językowy, biografię językową i sekcję dotyczącą krajobrazów literackich na różnych etapach procesu uczenia się. Korzyści dla uczniów obejmują pozytywny wpływ na ich ogólne

opanowanie języka obcego wraz z rozwojem innych umiejętności i kompetencji, w szczególności samooceny i kompetencji cyfrowych, przy jednoczesnym zdobywaniu wiedzy na temat danego tekstu literackiego.

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# Teaching L2 Galician through the traditional songbooks: The case of the direct object [+human] with the preposition *a*

ABSTRACT. Explaining the grammatical structures that characterize the Galician language system to university students of L2 Galician involves certain difficulties, both in terms of contact with Spanish and due to its nature as an L2 language. It must be noted that such learners' L1 is mostly Spanish, French, English or Italian. We propose in this paper an activity in which students engage in a process of practical reflection on real examples of the language. The activity will focus in particular on the absence of the preposition *a* with the direct object (DO), i.e., *Nós saudamos o teu amigo* ("We greet your friend"), using for this purpose a corpus of traditional Galician popular songs, and following the recommendations of the Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) model. Within this theoretical and practical approach students will also acquire knowledge of Galician culture and history, through information found in the anonymous poetry of the songbook itself.

KEYWORDS: learning Galician as a second language, traditional songbooks, Galician culture, Galician language.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

The European Higher Education Area (EHEA) has encouraged student mobility across Europe, resulting in a reciprocal exchange of students from Spanish universities and those enrolled in comparable institutions across the continent. As part of this opening up of the European higher education space, university education has focused on new teaching methodologies, with the aim of improving results for both home and visiting students: the use of Information and Communication Technology (ICT), the use of oral and written texts in teaching, the organization of course material in various theoretical and practical combinations, the use of small teaching groups for expository, interactive and tutored learning, the importance of strategies drawn from the framework of CLIL with foreign language teaching not focusing exclusively on linguistic content: CLIL model (Content and Language Integrated Learning) is often used to teach students

new topics in a language foreign to them. CLIL helps students to internalize that foreign language and also to assimilate other foreign topics and knowledge. Therefore, cultural, historical, musical, social or economic aspects of the country of L2 can be addressed here, which positively affects the overall learning by students (cf. Coyle 2002; Llinares et al. 2012; Llinares & Morton 2017).

As regards the language in focus, Galician is the Romanesque language of Galicia, an old independent kingdom of the Iberian Peninsula currently integrated in Spain. Its oldest literary documents date back to the 13th century and among them stands out especially the medieval troubadour poetry. At this time, there is no difference between the spoken language north of the Minho River (present-day Galicia) and south of the river (Portugal). Both varieties have been differentiated over time, particularly since the 15th century, but still today they have a great structural proximity; this proximity is so notorious that, for many Romanists and researchers, Galician and Portuguese, despite having different standards, are the same language.

Galician is currently the official language in Galicia, along with Spanish, imposed progressively since the 15th century by officials and nobles sent by the Castilian kings. It is the official language of the Galician Government and the Galician Parliament, of the Galician institutions and of the public universities, but the reality is that it is less and less spoken, especially among the youth. Contact with Spanish during these centuries has had some consequences in Galician grammar and lexicon. The case of direct complement (DO) is an example in this regard: Spanish makes the presence of preposition *a* with DO [+human] mandatory, but the most genuine Galician grammar does not admit it, similarly to Portuguese and most of the Romanesque languages in their standard codifications (Catalan, French).

A notable literature exists on the teaching of the Galician language and its grammatical features, and much current work in the area of Galician-Portuguese (cf. Álvarez & Xove 2002; Freixeiro Mato 2006; Azeredo 2008; Raposo et al. 2013–2020) includes rigorous descriptions of how the language functions. Contrary to previous works and approaches (cf. Lugrís Freire 1931; Carballo Calero 1979) – and this not only for Galician-Portuguese: cf. the classic study by Voloshinov 2014: 184–185) –, morphocentrism, i.e., priority attention devoted to morphology rather than syntax, has ceased to be one of the fundamental characteristics, and the syntactic component is no longer addressed in the greatest depth. At the same time, in the case of modern Galician grammars, epistemological reflection has effectively abandoned the previous diglossic discourse, in which preferential treatment was reserved only for those grammatical phenomena without equivalent ones in Spanish, and granted syntax a predominant role, including both what is common to this and other Romance languages and also that which is considered

idiosyncratic to Galician. Sometimes, recent studies (cf. Cunha & Cintra 1993; Freixeiro Mato 2006) illustrate course content with literary examples, which is indeed a powerful means of confirming grammatical constructions in different linguistic registers and in making clear how the (literary) text can contribute to the process of learning the language.

In such resources, describing the way that the grammar of an L2 works necessarily implies detailed reflection. Neves (2001), in his book on the history, theory and teaching of grammar, has described a number of problems that arise though this process. Several of the conclusions that she describes, although with other academic levels and contexts in mind, are of interest for our present purposes:

(a) the teaching of the behavior of certain units (words, constructions) only makes sense in the context of the text or discourse itself (whatever type this might be, from the many existing textual typologies and modalities),

(b) the teaching of L2 grammar should not focus on the single goal of speaking and writing within a framework of what is academically and socially considered the best, but – and this especially at university – it has to be oriented towards a global understanding of how language works,

(c) the teaching of a L2 involves not only this in itself, but also other linguistic-humanistic disciplines which can contribute to an understanding of how language works, and thus, as Givón (1995) has noted, grammar should not be conceived of as an autonomous system, especially in the case of a L2,

(d) the internalization of L2 grammar is achieved through the compensation between internal and external forces of the system, for example between the trends of evolution common to all linguistic systems and factors of variation (of the choices which students of L2 are capable of making), between the latent substrate of the L1 and the functioning of the L2, etc.

In the present paper, this functional concept is explored in the teaching of L2 Galician grammar, relating it to a very specific corpus, that of the traditional popular songbook of Galician. In this sense, as will be noted below (Section 5), these popular songs provide, more usefully than current texts, examples of many of those grammatical structures which are today seen as Galician-Portuguese language traits. Although the songs constitute a relatively dated body of work, modern editions are easily available. Finally, we should not overlook the value of these songs in interactive terms as a means of forging an appreciation of the language within a broader range of issues (i.e., historical, cultural); these are very profitable for students of Galician as L2 (cf. Sánchez Rei 2019). For all these reasons, we believe that traditional popular poetry, as a tool for transmitting both linguistic and other kinds of information, can very effectively fulfil the requirements of the CLIL model, an issue to which we will return below.

## 2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

In terms of theoretical issues, the study is based on the following principles. We take as a starting point a functionalist approach to the explanation of how grammar works (cf. Dik 1989; Halliday 1994), which considers pragmatics to be the framework best suited here, in that it embraces both syntactic and semantic description. However, on the view that morphology and syntax are part of a single discipline conventionally known as morphosyntax, we agree with the broad position taken by many European linguistic schools of thought that certain grammatical phenomena are, in fact, most easily available to syntactic description. Secondly, in adopting the aforementioned broad functionalist approach (cf. Givón 1995; Neves 2001), according to which grammar cannot be described as a system separate or autonomous from other components of linguistic reflection or from any relation to the social and cultural context in which a language is used (be it L1 or L2), we will focus on text or discourse – and in particular a text type with profound cultural roots for the Galician people – for the specific aims of this study: the preposition *a* with the personal DO. Thirdly, as already noted, we will base our approach on the CLIL framework in order to make it possible to combine the teaching of linguistic elements with content related to other areas of humanistic knowledge.

## 3. SELECTION OF THE CORPUS

Traditional Galician poetry began to be collected in the 18th century. Martín Sarmiento (1695–1772) and Juan Sobreira (1746–1805) were the pioneers in this task. The work continued during the 19th century thanks to the dedication of Juan Antonio Saco Arce (1835–1881), Marcial Valladares (1822–1903), José Pérez Ballesteros (1833–1918) and José Casal Lois (1845–1912), among others. Currently, the number of poems of traditional origin is around the number of 30,000, which provides Galician popular literature with an outstanding number of texts. These cover all the Galician-speaking territories, including Galicia itself and the western-most regions of Oviedo, Leon and Zamora, which itself illustrates the phenomena of dialectal variation here (cf. Sánchez Rei 2016). Most of them were documented without altering the original popular language, and this makes these poems a very important source of linguistic information about genuine syntactic structures. It should be noted that, from a modern perspective, these materials are not all equally valid for the present objectives, since the more recent songs tend to show to a greater extent those tendencies which are presumably a product of contact with Spanish. For this reason, we decided to work with

poetry collected at the end of the 18th and throughout the 19th centuries from the following songbooks, for which current and facsimile editions are available (cf. References below):

   a) *A poesía popular en Galicia* ("Popular poetry in Galicia") (hereafter PPG), a modern edition of about 4,000 texts collected by Domingo Blanco which includes eighteenth-century songs and all those published in the 19th century until 1885.
   b) *Cancionero popular gallego* (CPG) ("The Galician popular songbook"), collected by José Pérez Ballesteros in the second half of the nineteenth century and published in 1885–1886, containing around 2,600 songs.

Working in groups in the second part of the first session, students will select a corpus based on the PPG and the CPG, which contains all the texts with examples of interest to us here, that is, those which include the various DO phenomena, and these within songs on a variety of themes dealing with questions of a cultural, historical or sociological nature. Selection criteria for these examples can be adapted, depending on the characteristics of the group, on the themes of songs, on their territorial characteristics, etc. It should be noted that the texts were compiled and published at the time with a conscious and notable proximity to the oral language, and with collectors purposefully avoiding interventions to modify the songs, as they themselves explicitly indicated.[1]

# 4. ANALYSIS

## 4.1. Starting point

The type of language employed by the anonymous authors of traditional songs shares an evident connection with the broader tradition of Galician-Portuguese, registering as it does many defining grammatical phenomena of this linguistic system. However, it also shows clear signs of shifting to a colloquial variety, one very close to orality. The social groupings that produced and generated such anonymous texts were fundamentally popular in nature, far removed from the academic world, and were characterized as being overwhelming from the socially and economically less favored classes, which thus suggests that the language can be considered a diastratic variety. Taken as a whole, traditional songs can be said to be good examples of certain linguistic traits that are cur-

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[1] Pérez Ballesteros, for example, said on various occasions that he did not alter the linguistic characteristics of the collected poems: "El colector ha respetado algunas incorrecciones" (The collector has respected certain inaccuracies) (CPG, II: 5, n. 1); "el colector copió fielmente lo que ha oído (the collector faithfully copied what he heard) (CPG, II: 307, n. 4) (cf. Sánchez Rei 2016).

rently considered to be recommendable due to its authenticity (cf. Freixeiro Mato 2006), and it is by no means the first time that the linguistic characteristics of the anonymous songwriters have been considered in terms of their possible value as a source of grammatical and lexical information[2]. Our current focus, though, is on making students aware of one of the grammatical particularities of the Galician-Portuguese language system, that is, the DO with the trait [+ human] without case marking, which is present in the texts along with other singularities detected more frequently than in current orality: we mention the future of the subjunctive (cf. *Onde **vires** moito fume / non te vayas á quentar*, CPG, I: 78, "Where you see a lot of smoke / don't go to get warmer"), of the inflected infinitive (cf. *Disme que non tes cruz / para **rezares** o rosario*, PPG, II: 178, "You tell me you have no cross / to pray the rosary"), of the gerundial infinitive used autonomously (cf. ***A tocar** a pandereta / gañei unha saia nova*, PPG, II: 189, "Playing the tambourine / I got a new skirt"), of the mandatory modal periphrasis *ter de* + infinitive (cf. ***Teño d'ir** a Santa Emilia, / a Santa Emilia do Monte*, PPG, II: 326, "I must go to the sanctuary of Saint Emilia, / Saint Emilia of the Mountain"), of pronominal interpolation (cf. *meniña, se has de ser miña, / inda ch'**o tempo non pasa***, PPG, II: 111, "darling, if you're going to be mine, / time passes very slowly"), of the presence of a NP to function as an indirect object (IO) without being duplicated by a clitic (cf. *Unha vella dixo **a outra** / polo burato da porta*, PPG, II: 105, "An old woman said to another / through the hole in the door"). Moreover, as well as strengthening the acquisition of linguistic features, we will look at historical and socio-cultural aspects as reflected in many verses of the traditional songbook.

In this sense, when issues relating to syntax are presented to students, several approaches are possible. Despite the general consensus as to their meaning, the objectives here are oriented towards three fundamental lines, as Alonso-Cortés (2015: 362) points out: (i) the study of the categories or classes of words, (ii) the study of the functions that they perform in the clause, (iii) the study of the structures that make up words. In adopting this triple perspective here, the study of syntax also includes several formulas that derive directly from it:

    a) The study of the relations between the elements that form syntactic constructions in the linear discourse, that is, accounting for links of (inter) dependence, subordination, coordination or juxtaposition, and their representation in abstract schemes capable of reflecting such grammatical relationships. Syntactic constructions are hierarchical (cf. Eliseu 2008:

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[2] In Sánchez Rei (2014), for example, its great productivity as a source of colloquial, idiomatic registers is pointed out; in Sánchez Rei (2016) the value of traditional verses is emphasized, when these can be located geographically and chronologically, in illustrating the dialectal state of the language at the time they were collected.

31–37) and these models of representation must account for the degrees of such hierarchies.

b) An analysis of the ordering of constituents in syntactic units, as well as of shifts in meaning in the pragmatic sphere that altering such orders might cause. Words are organized linearly in combinations of a higher order, and altering this organization is not without significance, because the order of elements forms the most instinctive procedure to indicate the relationships between them. Through such means, variation in linearity[3] can involve important changes in the assignment of functions (syntactic, semantic and informative), which does not happen with other linguistic disciplines.

c) An analysis of what are conventionally known as syntactic functions in the phrasal field and of the nomenclature used therein (nucleus and adjacent ~ modifier), or in the clausal field, as well as of the relations that such functions have relative to the VP and in respect of semantic and informative functions. This implies that the existence of an inventory of syntactic functions for a language within the two major models of "participation", transience and ergativity (Halliday 1973), should be accepted[4].

d) An approach, within the framework of prescriptive or normative grammar, to these doubtful syntactic constructions in terms of their adaptation to what is considered to be "normal" and / or standardized language (for Portuguese, cf. Peres & Móia 1995; for Spanish, cf. Martínez 2005).

Of these four perspectives, we will be interested here in the third, the study of the syntactic functions and their formal characterizations, and the fourth, the analysis of those constructions that are considered invalid from the perspective of prescriptive grammar.

## 4.2. Absence and presence of the preposition *a* with DO [+ human] in the traditionals songbooks

The issue of preposition *a* to introduce the DO function in the clause has generated a relatively large and broad amount of work in the linguistic literature

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[3] For example, the different pronunciation of /e/ in *pedir* or the fricative consonant of *facer* /θ/ ~ /s/ (*i.e.*, [peˈðiɾ], [pe̝ˈðiɾ], [piˈðiɾ]; [faˈs̺eɾ], [faˈs̺eɾ], [faˈθeɾ]), subject to variables of a contextual, local, idiolectal, etc. kind, do not modify the lexico-semantic traits of these verbs. However, the alteration of the order of clauses in *As alumnas fixeron o traballo de gramática antes do verán* implies different patterns of the presentation of information which are not equivalent (cf. *Antes do verán as alumnas fixeron o traballo de gramática*, *O traballo de gramática fixérono as alumnas antes do verán*).

[4] And subsequently also the existence of two distinct syntactic systems, the transitive and the ergative.

relating to the Romance languages, as Zamboni (1993: 787) observes. In these works, the complexity of the behaviour of the DO [+human] (with or without preposition *a*) and also the existence of dialectal, contextual and historical variants that do not coincide with current standards is noted. In some cases, there are even differences in meaning, according to this autor (Zambani 1993: 790) standard Spanish *El director busca un empleado* / *El director busca a un empleado*, "The director looks for an employee" / "The director looks for a particular employee". The historical evolution of this marker appears in Galician syntax in other prepositions (*en*, *con*, *de*) capable of preceding elements of the argument required by the verb with a sort of semantic nuance (action completed / action not necessarily concluded, -intentionality / +intentionality etc.) that cannot be fully incorporated into the DO (*i.e.*, *Comía **o pan** con ansiedade ≠ Comía **no pan** con ansiedade*, *Tirou **os libros** e foise ≠ Tirou **cos libros** e foise*) and phonetic-syntactic conditions which cannot be integrated with the verb (*i.e.*, *Comía **o pan** > Comía**o***, *Comía **no pan** > Comía **nel***, *Tirou **os libros** > Tirou**nos***, *Tirou **cos libros** > Tirou **con eles***; cf. Sánchez Rei 2010). In the case of the preposition *a*, the origins proposed for its use as a DO marker are various: while some studies suggest a relatively modern analogue extension from the indirect object – which in the Galician--Portuguese or Spanish language systems is always accompanied by relational particle *a* (i.e., *Cómpre falares **a**o teu irmán dese problema*, *Es necesario que le hables **a** tu hermano de ese problema*) –, in other studies it is argued, from a historical point of view, that it reflects a phenomenon of vulgar Latin. Meanwhile, with regard to its geographic origins, some locate this in central Ibero-Romance, whereas there is no lack of opinions which trace it geographically to the Italian peninsula.

In the case of Galician, according to the rules, the DO corresponds to a NP that does not carry the preposition *a* and only in certain specific cases admits it or demands it, this in order to disambiguate syntactically or semantically certain clauses in cases of alterations in the order of the most common elements SVO (*i.e.*, SVO → VOS: *O pai adormeceu o fillo → Adormeceu **a**o fillo o pai*), with the oblique tonic forms of the personal pronoun (*i.e.*, *Véxote **a** ti, mais non **a** ela*). Yet the advance of this prepositional element in the contemporary state of the language is very notable. This is partly the result of contact with Spanish, which unlike Galician-Portuguese enjoys a productive use of this nexus to mark the argument[5].

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[5] For a study of the evolution of DO with the preposition *a* in Galician, cf. López Martínez (1993), who, after analyzing a corpus of literary works from Medieval, Middle and Contemporary Galician, arrives at some interesting reflections about proper nouns, anthroponyms and toponyms "in the first of these, the use of *a* wavers in the Middle Ages; however, the frequencies found in texts from this period are notable and, above all, their presence is not due to factors of syntactic ambiguity. In spite of this, unlike personal pronouns, in the following centuries the use of the preposition is not generalized. Thus, in the 19th century texts we find examples of proper nouns that do not

And it seems that Galician is not the only language to experience this influence. Posner (1998: 163–164) cites cases of certain varieties of Catalan in which "there is the suspicion of the use of the PA [prepositional accusative] as a Spanishism", in that "it is very frequent, not only in the 'language of the street', but also, for example, in the most traditional speech of Mallorca".

Using our corpus allows us to observe canonical uses in accordance with the general tonic of modern grammars, in which the DO [+ human] is referred to without *a* as the normal structure. In the current sociolinguistic situation, students with Galician L1 can see in these constructions from traditional poetry clear examples, and this helps or encourages them not to use the prepositional particle, while students of L2 Galician (with L1s such as English, French, etc.) seem to assimilate these examples more easily. Whatever the case, anonymous poetry illustrates to a greater or lesser extent three situations: (i) constructions that are now considered valid in the standard variety (these are better conserved in the Portuguese variety than in Galician, the latter maintaining a closer relation to linguistic tradition); (ii) structures considered acceptable although not always recommended; and (iii) constructions considered to be unacceptable. To avoid reiterating all relevant information provided by standard reference works here, we will mention, among others, a few cases of (i)–(iii), using data collected by Freixeiro Mato (2006, II: 630–639):

a)  The object is not marked for case with the NP (nucleus and adjacent material): *si me levan **meu hirmán** / lévanme a vista d'os ollos* (CPG, I: 205); *Miña nai casád'**as fillas** / mentras tèn bon parecer* (CPG, III: 64); *Mala morte mate **os homes** / eu por todos no-n-o digo* (CPG, III: 159); *Vou ver **miña devota** / e si a cama me tèn feita* (CPG, III: 228); *Non digas que non atopas / **unha nena** que ch'agrade* (CPG, III: 240); *Agora que vén a leva / de levar **os homes todos**, / lévanm'**o meu queridiño*** (PPG, II: 31).

b)  The object is not marked for case with the NP (proper noun): *Algún día quixen **Pepa** / agora quero **Marica*** (CPG, I: 160); *estimaba de levar / **Marica** de par de min* (CPG, I: 82); *Agora quero **Marica**, / algún tempo quixen **Pepa*** (CPG, I: 214); *aló fun, aló cheguei / **tres Marías** encontréi* (CPG, III: 251).

c)  The object carries optional case marking with the NP (proper noun): *O crego cando vai fóra / leva **á Marica** n-a mula* (CPG, II: 254); *Se deixo por Pedro **á Xan** / non me rifes, miña nai* (CPG, III: 172); *Ana, pariu **a Santa Ana**; / Santa Ana pariu **á** Virxen, / Señora Santa Isabel, / pariu **a San Xuán Bautista*** (PPG, I: 188). This is more frequently found than b) above.

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carry prepositions. The generalization in the current texts can be interpreted as an evolution of the language itself, but it also seems feasible to consider a possible influence of Castilian" (López Martínez 1993: 257).

d) The object is obligatorily marked for case when an oblique tonic pronoun: *o que m'**a min** amolare / ha de salir amolado* (CPG, III: 124); *De tres irmás qu'éramos **/ a min** me levou* (PPG, I: 212); *Campana, o morto non oi; / ti estásm'**a min** avisando* (PPG, I: 251); *o galán que **a ti** te quere / pola porta che pasea* (PPG, I: 389); *todos se casan e velan, / miña nai, casam'**a min*** (PPG, II: 21).

e) The object is obligatorily marked for case with verbs that express affect or love (*i.e.*, *amar*, *querer*); *Eu, non sei cál será meu… / ¡Será ben amar **á todos**!* (CPG, II: 17); *O mesmo lle pasa á un home / cando quer **á unha** muller* (CPG, II: 21); *Quero **a un home** hai moito tempo / sin saber si el me quer* (PPG, I: 327); *Amar **a moitos** a un tempo / é mala lei, é mal trato* (PPG, I: 230). Where *querer* does not carry a meaning close to *amar*, it is normal that it does not carry a preposition: *máis quèro **un pobre** con honra / que, sin honra, **un home rico*** (CPG, III: 188).

f) The object obligatorily carries a case marker with the word *Deus*: *Puxen a **Dios** por testigo / e mai-lo divindo santo* (CPG, II: 191); *Con dispensa non me caso, / porque, sin **qu'á Dios** ofenda* (CPG, III: 61).

g) The object carries case making unnecessarily: *Chamácheme cachorriño; / mais eu non mordo **á ninguén*** (CPG, III: 14); *¡picarán **á meu hirmán** / qu'anda por terras alleas* (CPG, III: 37); *o donaire d'unha nena / tres días mantén **á un home*** (CPG, III: 82); *n-a miña vida temín **á home** / que teña o mundo* (CPG, III: 124); *pensan d'engañar **ás nenas** / coas cintas dos sombreiros* (PPG, II: 31); *meteno **a meu** irmán / debaixo da borralleira* (PPG, II: 35). The fourth approach noted above, that of prescriptive grammar, would situate these constructions outside the syntactic structure of Galician.


## 5. PROPOSED ACTIVITIES

At this point, since the corpus provides a good number of examples of DO [+ human], as well as information for reflection on historical and socio-cultural themes, it is now up to students to work with the corpus, following the explanations and comments provided by the teacher. Students should also consider information from old and influential grammars (Saco Arce 1868) and relate this to what is found in the most relevant current ones (Álvarez & Xove 2002; Freixeiro Mato 2006), in order to stimulate a well-argued debate. Within the CLIL framework, students will indicate sociological and cultural issues and information that can be traced in the songbook while they attend to grammatical issues. Thus, in addition to the internalization of the linguistic particularities found, this will foster an active knowledge of a significant aspect of Galician culture, that is, song and its association with specific traditional popular celebrations.

## 5.1. Objectives

The primary goal is that students assimilate knowledge in a practical way, specifically regarding the case of the direct object [+human] with the preposition *a*. Other aims include the following: (i) to understand grammar not as remote from other spheres of linguistic thought, but as existing within cultural, contextual and social variables that influence its characterization and use; (ii) to carry out an analysis of the cultural aspects that come to the fore in the traditional songbooks; (iii) to present the traditional songbooks to students with the aim of raising awareness of linguistic and cultural features; and (iv) to familiarize students with the process of working with relevant Galician grammar books.

## 5.2. Academic level of students

The activity, based on our experience of teaching at different levels of higher education (undergraduate, graduate, postgraduate), is designed for courses in which grammar is taught as a part of L2 Galician. Hence it fits most naturally into the second year of the degree course of Galician and / or Portuguese Studies, in which students have already studied a range of disciplines related to the area of linguistics. However, it can also be developed within postgraduate courses, through adapting the development of the teaching approach (teacher explanations, preparation and organization) to incorporate a higher level of detail and difficulty.

## 5.3. Planning

The objectives and the theoretical elements involved will now be described. Students will follow a teaching methodology based on guided practice with examples from the selected corpora, considering grammatical explanations provided along with real examples from these sources. Verification of the linguistic phenomena under study will be made through work with reference grammars. Likewise, subject matter of a historical and cultural nature will be indicated and commented on as a part of this process.

## 5.4. Organization

For practical work, students will be divided into groups. Each group will be assigned a specific part of the corpus and will outline the results of its research

here. Following this phase, a debate will be held with the following topics: (i) the function and productivity of the specific linguistic phenomenon under study in these anonymous texts; (ii) a comparison between the language of the present time and that which appears in the traditional songbook, again, in terms of the particular phenomenon selected for study; (iii) the possible causes of any differences arising here; and (iv) the value of traditional popular literature for a broader understanding of other linguistic issues and of other areas (cultural, historical…).

## 5.5. Timing

The activity is designed to be carried out over three hours of contact time with the teacher, structured in modules of approximately one and a half hours each; these are to be enhanced through individual work by students, estimated at 4–5 hours:

**Table 1.** Teaching schedule

| Organization | Development | Type of teaching | Approx. duration |
|---|---|---|---|
| First session | | | |
| First part | General theoretical exposition | Exposition | 45m |
| Second part | Group work by students for corpus selection | Case studies | 45m |
| Second session | | | |
| First part | Explanation of group work | Presentation / Exposition | 45m |
| Second part | Debate directed by the teacher | Directed debate | 30m |
| Third part | General conclusions | Presentation / Exposition | 15m |

Source: own study.

## 5.6. Assessment

The activity developed by the students aims to get them to acquire grammatical and cultural knowledge. At this point, the assimilation of these contents must be evaluated. We think that the assessment has to be based on the following aspects: (a) on the participation of the students and on the argumentation used in the debate; (b) on individual work and comments (2–3 pages, these to be submitted); (c) and on the conclusions that were drawn at the end of the activity.

## 6. CONCLUSION

This paper has sought to show how a theoretical-practical language session can be developed based on the analysis of examples drawn from corpus of the traditional Galician songbook. It is aimed fundamentally at students of L2 Galician and focuses on a functional vision of language and on the CLIL model, developing a theme (absence / presence of the preposition *a* with personal DO), which is undoubtedly a defining point in terms of the idiosyncrasies of Galician grammar. On occasions, however, it is difficult to explain this with authentic examples because the attestation of this form in the oral language in Galicia has diminished through contact with Spanish, in which syntactic behavior here is different. Traditional popular literature, which comes very close to orality, can serve as a valuable reference, in that it provides, with a remarkable number of comparable examples, those constructions which today can be seen as models: in the first place, we start from the position that language teaching cannot be detached from other spheres of humanistic knowledge, hence we consider that texts, and in particular literary texts of a traditional and popular origin, are an effective tool for the assimilation of syntactic information, and also that from other humanistic and communicative kinds.

By collecting examples from the corpus, a synthesis can be made that provides, in the context of transitivity, most of the possibilities of the structuring of DO [+human] in the contemporary language, that is: (i) the senses which are acceptable in terms of the standard variety; (ii) those that are tolerated due to their widespread current use; and (iii) those considered to be clearly on the margins of Galician syntax. This activity also serves to highlight cultural information, necessary for any effective deep learning of an L2.

Finally, in line with what has been noted, traditional songbooks are also useful as a means of working with economic, cultural, historical or social themes in future studies. The following examples illustrate some such issues: a) the phenomenon of emigration in Galician society (with the stanzas featuring place names of towns and cities which were typical destinations for emigrants from Galicia: *Cais* or *Cádiz*, *Brazil*, *Lisbon*, *Havana*); b) the importance of agriculture and fisheries to the Galician economy (cf. references to crops and marine life: *agra* and *agrela*, *leira* and *leiriña*, *viña*, *robaliza*, *xeito*); c) the lexical presence of everyday clothing (cf. *chambra*, *chapeu*, *faixa*, *pano*, *saia*) and how this echoes the fashion industry in contemporary Galicia; d) the different types of buildings and public spaces (cf. *aira* and *eira*, *pazo*, *rueiro*, *quinta*) and their relation to current urban planning; d) the secular importance of music and song in Galician society and its relationship to the music of our time (cf. lexicon such as *gaita*, *regueifa*, *violín* and *violino*, *zanfona*).

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**Nauczanie języka galicyjskiego jako drugiego za pomocą śpiewników ludowych na przykładzie dopełnienia bliższego [+ osoba] w złożeniu z przyimkiem *a***

ABSTRAKT. Wyjaśnienie struktur gramatycznych charakteryzujących system języka galicyjskiego osobom uczących się tego języka jako drugiego (J2) wiąże się z pewnymi trudnościami, zarówno w zakresie kontaktu z językiem hiszpańskim, jak i ze względu na jego charakter jako J2. Musimy wziąć pod uwagę, że większość uczniów galicyjskiego to osoby, dla których język pierwszy to z reguły hiszpański, francuski, angielski lub włoski. W tej publikacji proponujemy ćwiczenie, w którym uczniowie angażują się w proces praktycznej refleksji nad prawdziwymi przykładami użycia języka. Ćwiczenie koncentruje się w szczególności na braku przyimka *a* z dopełnieniem bliższym, na przykład *Nós saudamos o teu amigo* ("Pozdrawiamy Twojego przyjaciela"), wykorzystując w tym celu korpus tradycyjnych popularnych pieśni galicyjskich i kierując się zaleceniami modelu zintegrowanego nauczania treściowo-językowego (CLIL). W ramach tego teoretycznego i praktycznego podejścia studenci poznają także kulturę i historię Galicji dzięki informacjom zawartym w anonimowej poezji zebranej w śpiewniku.

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# Glottokodematische Prozesse unter kybernetischem Aspekt (Ausgewählte Fragen)

## Cybernetic Aspects of Glottodidactic Processes (Selected Issues)

Abstract. A significant contribution to broadening and deepening the field of glottodidactics is made, *inter alia*, by the results of codematic and cybernetic research. Within the glottodidactic system, the following processes can be identified: 1) the encoding of information by the primary sender (the instructor), 2) the sending of information and its linguistic and extralinguistic monitoring to the primary receivers (learners), 3) the reception and decoding of information by the primary receivers, and the construction of matrices of new lexical and grammatical structures, 4) the encoding of information by the secondary sender (the learner), 5) the sending of information to the secondary receiver (the instructor) within a feedback system, 6) the reception of information by the secondary receiver, its checking and correction, the regulation and syntactic ordering and renewal of the glottodidactic process.

Keywords: the concept of information, the glottodicactic system and its subprocesses, the instructor as primary sender and secondary receiver, sending foreign-language information within a feedback system, the learner as primary receiver and secondary sender.

Schlüsselwörter: begriffliche Auffassung der Information, das glottodidaktische Gefüge und seine Subprozesse, Lehrender als Primärsender und Sekundärempfänger, Übertragung der fremdsprachlichen Informationen im Rückkoppelungsgefüge, Lernender als Primärempfänger und Sekundärsender.

## 1. EINLEITUNG

Die fremdsprachlichen Lehr-Lern-Prozesse werden in diesem Artikel vom multi- und interdisziplinären Standpunkt aus umrissen und behandelt. Einen bedeutenden Beitrag zur Verbreiterung und zur Vertiefung des glottodidak-

tischen Bereiches liefern die Untersuchungsergebnisse, die unter anderem in solchen Wissenschaftsdisziplinen wie Kodematik und Kybernetik erzielt werden. Unsere Aufmerksamkeit richten wir besonders auf die Relevanz der erwähnten Disziplinen bezüglich der Informationsübertragungs-, Steuerungs- und Kommunikationsprozesse, die sich sowohl in als auch zwischen den fremdsprachlichen Lehr- und Lernprozessen vollziehen. Weiterhin befassen wir uns mit dem Wesen und dem Inventar des fremdsprachlichen Systems von Zeichen und Regeln (Kode), auf Grund deren sich die Unterrichtsteilnehmer verständigen können. Mithilfe des fremdsprachlichen Kodes werden vom Primärsender / Lehrenden bestimmte Informationen kodiert und den Primär- empfängern / Lernenden vermittelt, wonach diese dann von den Letzteren dekodiert werden und so neue Strukturen in Form von fremdsprachlichen Matrizen entstehen. Im Rückkoppelungsgefüge figuriert einer der Lernenden als Sekundärsender und präsentiert dem Lehrenden / Sekundärempfänger die Informationen, in denen die neu konstruierte Strukturmatrize vorhanden ist. Der Lehrende agiert in diesem Fall als Kontrolleur der vom Lernenden kodierten Informationen.

## 2. INFORMATION UND IHRE BEGRIFFLICHE AUFFASSUNG

Da die begriffliche Auffassung der Information mit dem Begriff des Wortes in enger semantischer Verbindung steht, ist es um so mehr vonnöten, deren Wesen und Funktionen in den sprachlichen Kommunikationsvorgängen zu erörtern. Beide Begriffe bilden wichtige Fundamente für die sprachliche Anth- ropokommunikation.

Die Wörter werden als grundlegende Spracheinheiten aufgefasst, die aus einer Folge zusammengesetzter phonetisch-phonologischer oder graphisch- graphematischer Strukturen bestehen und bestimmte lexikalisch-grammatische Strukturen bilden. Den Wörtern werden Bedeutungen zugeordnet, die als ge- dankliche Abbilder der außersprachlichen (objektiven, subjektiven, fiktiven) Wirklichkeit zu betrachten sind. Sie umfassen die Relationen zwischen Bezeich- nung und geistigem Gehalt des Außersprachlichen, d. h. des Gegenstandes, der Erscheinung und deren Eigenschaften. Anders formuliert, die Bedeutungen weisen auf die Beziehungen zwischen Zeichen und Begriff hin. Festzuhalten ist hier Folgendes: Die Wörter sind selbstständige Spracheinheiten, die eigene Bedeutungen und Funktionen haben und größere Einheiten wie Syntagmen (Wortgruppen) und Sätze konstruieren.

Die Basis für die glottodidaktischen Prozesse bilden die aufbereiteten fremdsprachlichen Materialien, welche zum einen aus den autosemantischen

sowie den synsemantischen Wörtern bestehen, deren grundlegende Bausteine die graphisch-graphematischen Strukturen sind, und zum anderen aus den grammatischen Strukturen, auf Grund deren bestimmte Sätze, Texte, Äußerungen, Übungen und Paradigmen für die einzelnen Unterrichtsstunden gestaltet werden. Alle diese Strukturen werden in verschiedenen lexikalisch-grammatischen Konstruktionen besonders phonetisch, aber auch graphisch von den Teilnehmern der glottodidaktischen und der Kommunikationsprozesse angewandt.

In den bereits erwähnten Prozessen übernimmt die leitende Rolle der Lehrende / Sender. Seine intraindividuellen Tätigkeiten sind komplex: Erstens wählt er die zu lernende lexikalische oder grammatische Struktur, zweitens bringt er sie mit den bekannten lexikalisch-grammatischen Strukturen in eine syntagmatisch-syntaktische Ordnung, drittens trägt er dazu bei, dass deren Produktion in den Effektoren stattfindet. Der weitere Kommunikationsprozess vollzieht sich auf der interpersonalen Ebene, wo die Sprachstrukturen in Form von Informationssignalen den Lernenden / Empfängern übertragen werden. Die intraindividuelle Ebene jedes Lernenden / Empfängers beginnt in den Rezeptoren, wo sich die Dekodierung der aufgenommenen phonetisch-phonologischen oder graphisch-graphematischen Strukturen vollzieht, und endet im Speicher-Mechanismus, wo die semantisch-grammatische Entschlüsselung der Spracheinheiten zustande kommt.

Aus den geschilderten Prozessen wird deutlich, dass sich die intraindividuellen Sprachtätigkeiten des Senders auf die Wörter und deren grammatische Verbindungen beziehen, die auf der interindividuellen Übertragungsebene als Informationen erscheinen und des Weiteren in den intraindividuellen Sprachtätigkeiten des Empfängers wieder als Wörter entschlüsselt werden. Über die vorgelegte Konzeption bezüglich der semantischen Relationen zwischen Informationen und Wörtern äußert sich auch Haseloff (1964: 20), der betont, dass Informationen als Wörter fungieren, d. h. als konventionelle bedeutungshaltige Zeichenfolgen von phonetisch-phonologischen oder graphisch-graphematischen Strukturen, beziehungsweise als Superzeichen, welche aus bestimmten elementaren Informationen (Zeichen) bestehen.

Zusammenfassend kann man zu folgenden Schlüssen gelangen: Die Wörter werden im linguistischen Sinne als Träger der lexikalischen Bedeutungen definiert, d. h. sie sind Sprachstrukturen und bilden das Inventar des Sprachbenutzers, die Informationen dagegen lassen sich als semantisch transponierte Wörter betrachten, die auf der intrapersonalen Kommunikationsebene des Empfängers in seinem Speicher-Mechanismus ganzheitlich entschlüsselt werden.

Aus dem Informationsbegriff ergeben sich mehrere (verschiedene) (Wort-) Bezeichnungen, die sich – so beispielsweise Schröder (1975: 75 f.) – im täglichen

Umgang auf den Bedeutungsgehalt von Nachricht, Auskunft, Mitteilung, Unterrichtung, Belehrung beziehen.

Um den semantischen Gehalt der angeführten Wörter näher zu beleuchten, sollte man versuchen, deren gemeinsame Bestimmungseigenschaften beim Vergleich mit der Information aufzuzeigen. Die Nachricht definiert Schröder als eine Abfolge von Zeichen, die Bedeutungsträger sind, und er konkludiert, dass im Kommunikationsprozess Nachrichten, nicht Informationen, vermittelt werden. Jedoch führt die Nachricht zur Information, wenn sie sowohl zur Wissensvermehrung beiträgt als auch den Abbau des Nicht-Gewussten hervorhebt. Und so wird die Information nicht als Prozess, sondern als Ergebnis des Prozesses betrachtet. Mit der Auskunft ist meistens die Antwort verbunden, die eine aufklärende Angabe über einen bestimmten Zustand, in dem sich jemand / etwas befindet, liefert. Einen ähnlichen Sinn trägt die Mitteilung, die mit der Zunahme des Wissens eng verbunden ist, weil sie zur Klärung oder zur Feststellung bestimmter Fragen beiträgt. Die Unterrichtung versteht sich besonders als Tätigkeit, in der das Fachwissen auf einem speziellen Gebiet oder über den neuesten Stand der wissenschaftlichen Erkenntnisse dargeboten wird. In direktem Bezug zur Unterrichtung steht die Belehrung, welche deren semantische Verlängerung, oder besser deren Vervollkommnung beinhaltet, weil sie – so kann man allenfalls vermuten – die Wirklichkeit des Zustandes oder dessen Verhaltens genauer schildert. Von den drei Arten der Informationsbildung, die Klix (1980: 291 ff.) näher erörtert, ist vor allem die dritte Art beachtenswert, weil sie als die perfektionierteste Form der Kommunikation den Menschen betrifft. Mit der Informationsbildung sind stets die Zustandsänderungen und die Signalzustände verbunden.

Bewertet man den Bedeutungsgehalt der aufgezählten Wörter mit dem Informationsbegriff, so lässt sich erkennen, dass deren semantische Strukturen auf der syntaktischen Ebene different entschlüsselt werden (können), d. h. andere Aspekte deren Inhalts hervorgehoben werden. Deshalb kann man mit großer Wahrscheinlichkeit annehmen, dass die Information als Superbegriff zu betrachten ist, unter dem die Begriffe wie Nachricht, Auskunft usw. subsumiert werden. Alle diese Wörter fungieren in den Kommunikationsvorgängen als spezifische Bedeutungsträger des Informationsbegriffes. Kurz gesagt: Über den Bedeutungsgehalt der Information sind mehrere semantische Deutungen möglich, darunter auch eine solche, dass Information als ein Begriff der Kommunikation aufzufassen ist, wo sie sich sowohl auf den Sender (Informationsquelle) als auch auf den Empfänger (Informationsverarbeiter) bezieht (Flechtner 1966: 23). Auf diese Weise wird die Information in einem breiteren Begriffszusammenhang betrachtet und dargestellt.

## 3. KOMMUNIKATION UND IHRE TEILBEREICHE

Aus dem allgemeinen Bereich der Kommunikation wählen und betrachten wir sowohl die Fragen der sprachlichen als auch der glottodidaktischen Vorgänge. Auf diese Weise wird die Kommunikation einerseits als muttersprachliche Verständigung behandelt, die sich unter den Mitgliedern einer Sprachgemeinschaft vollzieht, und andererseits als fremdsprachliche Lehr-Lern-Prozesse, in denen die Fremdsprache nicht nur als Kommunikationsmittel benutzt, sondern auch unterrichtet wird. Die fremdsprachlichen Prozesse werden wissenschaftlich in vielen Disziplinen untersucht und infolgedessen entwickeln sich zahlreiche Theorien über deren Prozesskomplexität. Die kodematischen Gesetzmäßigkeiten der fremdsprachlichen Prozesse hat Zabrocki (1961, 1966) analytisch ausgearbeitet und dargestellt. Der Kodematik zugrunde liegt der Kodebegriff, der als eine Interaktion der Zeichenvorräte verstanden wird. (vgl. dazu Szczodrowski 2021: 96 f., 2022: 278 ff.). Die Zeichen sind bekanntlich Bausteine, auf Grund deren nach bestimmten Regeln entsprechende Sprachstrukturen – so beispielsweise Wörter, Syntagmen, Sätze – zusammengesetzt werden (s. auch Flechtner 1966: 55 f.). Auf ausgewählte fremdsprachliche Informations- und Kommunikationsfragen, die in der Kodematik und Kybernetik aufgeworfen werden, soll in diesem Artikel näher eingegangen werden (s. auch Szeluga 2019: 219 f.) Die Begriffe Information und Kommunikation schließen sich nicht gegenseitig aus, sie bilden in den sprachlichen Prozessen ein unzertrennbares Ganzes.

Die fremdsprachlichen Informations- und Kommunikationsvorgänge lassen sich in sechs Teilbereiche gliedern, die ebenfalls eingehender Erörterungen bedürfen.

### 3.1. Lehrender als Primärsender

Bevor der Lehrende als Primärsender zu agieren beginnt, wird er überlegen müssen, welches fremdsprachliche Material schon gelernt / angeeignet worden ist und welche neuen Sprachstrukturen im Unterricht präsentiert werden. Solche Überlegungen sind für die prälinguale Phase kennzeichnend und bilden das Vorhaben, das in der fremdsprachlichen Kodierung realisiert wird.

In unserem Fall geht es um die glottokodematischen Prozesse, in denen sich die Kommunikationspartner des deutschen Sprachkodes (Sprachsystems) bedienen. Wichtig ist hier Folgendes: Der Lehrende berücksichtigt in der Kommunikation das gemeinsame fremdsprachliche Inventar, damit die Verständigung zwischen den Unterrichtspartnern zustande kommt. Solch ein Prozess ist ein typischer Kommu-

nikationsprozess. Aber im fremdsprachlichen Prozess werden immer neue Sprach-
strukturen unterrichtet. Das bedeutet nichts anderes als die ständige Erlernung /
Aneignung des für den Unterricht aufbereiteten Materials, also der neuen lexika-
lischen und grammatischen Strukturen. Und so werden in die schon bekannten
Strukturen neue zu lernende lexikalische oder grammatische Strukturen eingefügt.

Als spezifische Arten der Kodierung der fremdsprachlichen Informationen
kann man deren Generierung und Produktion betrachten.

Während der Generierung werden vom Lehrenden als Primärsender die
für die Äußerung oder den Text benötigen einzelnen Wortstrukturen und die
grammatischen Strukturen abgerufen, die 1. dem glottodidaktischen Vorhaben
entsprechen, über die 2. die Lernenden verfügen und die 3. als neue Strukturen
präsentiert werden. Die abgerufenen Spracheinheiten werden – den lexikalisch-
grammatischen Gesetzmäßigkeiten gemäß – in der entsprechenden syntagma-
tisch-syntaktischen Ganzheit angeordnet, des Weiteren den Effektoren zuge-
leitet und dienen als Grundlage deren Produktion. In den Effektoren findet die
substantielle Produktion der generierten Strukturen statt. Handelt der Sender
als Sprecher, dann werden die Strukturen artikulatorisch realisiert, handelt er
als Schreiber, so werden sie motorisch ausgeführt.

Die kodierten Strukturen bestehen – was unterstrichen werden muss – aus
den den Lernenden schon bekannten und auch aus den ganz neuen lexikalisch-
grammatischen Strukturen, die in den glottodidaktischen Prozessen gelehrt und
gelernt werden. Man kann mit großer Wahrscheinlichkeit annehmen, dass den
Lernenden die bekannten Strukturen während deren Dekodierung keine großen
Schwierigkeiten bereiten, wobei die neu dargebotene Struktur sicherlich eine
besonders bewusste Konzentration seitens der Lernenden verlangt, um sie gut
entschlüsseln und richtig verstehen zu können.

Die generierten Strukturen werden auf der intraindividuellen Ebene vom
Speicher-Mechanismus zu den Effektoren transportiert, wo deren lautliche
oder graphische Produktion stattfindet. Wie daraus ersichtlich sein dürfte, be-
steht die Kodierung der Sprachstrukturen aus zwei Subprozessen, und zwar
der Generierung und der artikulatorischen oder motorischen Produktion, die
in den Effektoren zustande kommt, womit die Kommunikation des Senders /
Lehrenden auf der individuellen Ebene abgeschlossen ist.

## 3.2. Übertragungsprozesse der fremdsprachlichen Informationssignale

Die in den Effektoren produzierten artikulatorischen oder motorischen
Sprachstrukturen werden auf der interindividuellen Ebene in akustische oder
optische Signale umgewandelt und durch den akustisch-auditiven oder den

optisch-visuellen Kanal an die Empfänger / Lernenden weitergeleitet. In diesem Fall hat man es mit den interindividuellen fremdsprachlichem Übertragungsprozessen zu tun. In der fremdsprachenunterrichtlichen Kommunikation bedient man sich oft der nichtsprachlichen (visuellen) Mittel, um die völlige Dekodierung der neu dargebotenen Struktur zu sichern und zu erzielen (s. Schnabl 1972: 30). Die Übertragung der Informationssignale vom Sender an die Empfänger ist als zielgerichteter Prozess zu verstehen, aber während dessen Ablaufs treten häufig verschiedene Störungen auf, die einen nachteiligen Einfluss auf deren erfolgreiche Vermittlung haben und (manchmal auch) die Informationen verändern können. Um die Störungen zu beseitigen, werden die Informationssignale durch entsprechende Steuerungsmaßnahmen verstärkt. Und so finden zwei parallel ablaufende Prozesse auf der interindividuellen Ebene statt, nämlich der Übertragungs- und der Steuerungsprozess der Informationssignale, die als Ganzes eine Einheit bilden. Diese Konstatierung wird im kybernetischen Kommunikationsmodell hervorgehoben, wo den Steuerungsprozessen bezüglich der störungsfreien Übertragung und der effektiven Aufnahme von Informationssignalen durch die Empfänger eine außerordentliche Bedeutung beigemessen wird. In den Übertragungsprozessen werden die Informationssignale mit bestimmten sprachlichen (suprasegmentalen) und außersprachlichen (visuellen) Steuerungsmitteln unterstützt und gefestigt. Vor allem – aber nicht nur – unterliegen die neu kodierten und vermittelten Sprachstrukturen einer Steuerung, damit sie von den Empfängern ganzheitlich dekodiert, d. h. gut aufgenommen, richtig verstanden und nach entsprechender Verarbeitung in Form von Matrizen im Speicher-Mechanismus konstruiert werden können.

Auf diese Weise ist die Steuerung in den glottodidaktischen Vorgängen wesentlicher Bestandteil und erfolgreiche Verstärkung der Informationsvermittlung (vgl. dazu Christ 1993: 5; Bausch 1993: 8). Die Probleme der Steuerung und Steuerbarkeit im Bereich des Lernvorgangs sind auch von Wode (1993: 23 f.) aufgegriffen und weiterentwickelt worden. Seine besondere Beachtung schenkt er folgenden Fragen: Wie wird der Vorgang im Sprachlernen gesteuert? Wie vollzieht er sich bei jedem einzelnen Lernenden? Er unterscheidet im Lernvorgang die exogene und die endogene Steuerung. Die exogene Steuerung betrifft die durch den Lehrenden kodierten und auf der interindividuellen Ebene an die Lernenden übertragenen fremdsprachlichen Strukturen. Sie bezieht sich also darauf, WAS und WIE gelernt wird, d. h. auf die beobachtbaren Spracheinheiten und die angewandten Lernmethoden. Auf den intraindividuellen Ebenen der Lernenden laufen die Lernprozesse sowie parallel dazu die endogenen Steuerungsprozesse ab, deren direkte Beobachtung unmöglich ist. Nur auf Grund der durch jeden Lernenden kodierten Informationsstrukturen besteht die Gelegenheit / Hoffnung, die endogenen Steuerungsergebnisse kennen zu lernen.

An den Lernvorgängen nehmen bekanntlich die Empfänger teil, die eine Lerngruppe bilden, in der jeder Teilnehmer als Individuum zu betrachten ist. Bei näherer Beobachtung der Lernerfolge erweist sich, dass individuelle Besonderheiten des Lernenden bezüglich der Erlernung und der Aneignung des fremdsprachlichen Materials eine wichtige Rolle spielen. Und gerade deshalb sollte die fremdsprachliche Lernbegabung und Leistung jedes Unterrichtsteilnehmers möglicherweise individuell berücksichtigt werden (s. auch Bleyhl 1993: 28; Solmecke 1993: 156). Wenn man den gesamten intraindividuellen Dekodierungsprozess der fremdsprachlichen Informationen beim Lernenden analysiert, dann kann man auf dessen einzelne Subprozesse hinweisen, in denen aufgenommene Informationsstrukturen nicht korrekt entschlüsselt werden. Und so können beispielsweise die Unkorrektheiten der Strukturen im Subprozess des Rezipierens, des Perzipierens und des Transponierens vorkommen, woraus sich letzten Endes bedeutende Konsequenzen im Subprozess des Konstruierens neuer Strukturmatrize sowie deren Aufbewahrung / Speicherung ergeben.

### 3.3. Lernende als Primärempfänger

Den dritten Abschnitt des einseitigen fremdsprachlichen Kommunikations- und des Lehr-Lern-Prozesses bildet der Dekodierungsprozess, während dessen die aufgenommenen Informationssignale in den auditiven oder den visuellen Rezeptoren der Empfänger / Lernenden zunächst als kleinste bedeutungsunterscheidende phonetisch-phonologische oder graphisch-graphematische Sprachstrukturen unterschieden und erkannt sowie des Weiteren im Speicher-Mechanismus als semantische oder grammatische Sprachstrukturen ganzheitlich dekodiert, d. h. kennengelernt und verstanden werden. Ganz besondere Aufmerksamkeit muss auf die neu kodierte, übertragene, dargebotene und dekodierte lexikalische oder grammatische Struktur gerichtet werden, die nach der Verarbeitung in Form von Hör-Sprech-Sprachmatrize oder Lese-Schreib-Sprachmatrize im Speicher-Mechanismus jedes Lernenden konstruiert wird (s. dazu Zabrocki 1975: 42 ff.). Ein solcher Prozess ist kennzeichnend für dessen zweite Dekodierungsstufe, d. h. für die semantische oder grammatische Dekodierung der Sprachstruktur. Die den Lernenden bekannten lexikalischen und grammatischen Strukturen werden den gespeicherten Sprachstrukturmatrizen zugeordnet, die gerade kennengelernte Struktur wird als neue Sprachstrukturmatrize konstruiert. Der erfolgreiche Aufbau dieser neuen Sprachstrukturmatrize ist zeitlich eng mit der semantischen Dekodierung und Verarbeitung der

empfangenen Struktur verbunden, woraus sich auch eine weitere Konsequenz für das zeitliche und räumliche Behalten der Strukturmatrize im Gedächtnis des Lernenden ergibt (s. auch Szczodrowski 2020b: 158 ff.). Die neu konstruierte Sprachstruktur-Matrize wird bekanntlich für eine gewisse Zeit im Speicher-Mechanismus des Lernenden aufbewahrt oder gespeichert. Um sie länger und stabiler zu behalten, bedarf sie häufiger reproduktiver, oder besser noch produktiver Dynamisierungen in fremdsprachlichen Handlungen. Jede neu gelernte lexikalische oder grammatische Sprachstruktur verlangt sowohl die sorgfältige Entschlüsselung als auch die stabile Konstruktion in Form einer bestimmten Sprachmatrize. Es scheint aber noch eine weitere Bemerkung angebracht zu sein: Werden den Empfängern / Lernenden fremdsprachliche Informationen vermittelt, die aus bekannten und neuen Strukturen bestehen, so hat man es einerseits mit dem Kommunikationsprozess zu tun, weil die lexikalisch-grammatischen Strukturen den Empfängern nicht fremd sind, aber anderseits findet auch der Lehr-Lern-Prozess bezüglich der zum ersten Mal dargebotenen und dekodierten Sprachstruktur statt.

Wenn man den gesamten einseitigen unterrichtlichen Kommunikationskreis betrachtet, dann kommt man zu dem Schluss, dass es sich hier im Allgemeinen um die Erlernung des fremdsprachlichen Materials, im Einzelnen aber um die Konstruktion der neu dargebotenen lexikalischen oder grammatischen Strukturen in Form von Matrizen im Speicher-Mechanismus der Lernenden handelt. Es geht also um eine fremdsprachenunterrichtliche Kommunikation, während deren die empfangenen Strukturen gelehrt, gelernt, verarbeitet, konstruiert und gefestigt werden. Alle diese Prozesse tragen zur tieferen Speicherung der fremdsprachlichen Strukturmatrizen bei, wodurch sie länger erhalten bleiben und das Niveau der rezeptiv-produktiven Kommunikationsfähigkeiten der Lernenden sicherlich gehoben wird.

Im Fremdsprachenunterricht treten die Lernenden als rezeptive und produktive Kommunikationsteilnehmer auf. Es sind also zwei wesentliche Vorgänge, die sich jedoch deutlich voneinander unterscheiden. Der rezeptive Lernende empfängt vom Sender lautliche oder schriftliche Informationen, die er phonetisch-phonologisch oder graphisch-graphematisch und semantisch-grammatisch dekodiert. Solch eine Dekodierung bezieht sich nicht nur auf die gelernten / angeeigneten Strukturen, sondern auch auf die zu lernenden, d. h. die neu aufgenommen Strukturen. Präziser ausgedrückt bedeutet dies, dass die neu dekodierten Strukturen nicht nur kennengelernt werden, sondern auch als Strukturmatrizen im Speicher-Mechanismus des Lernenden konstruiert und für eine gewisse Zeit aufbewahrt werden.

Wie schon weiter oben angedeutet, berücksichtigt die Dekodierung der fremdsprachlichen Strukturen auch deren Verarbeitung, die sich insbesondere auf die lexikalisch-grammatischen Einheiten, aber auch auf deren Verknüpfungen im Bereich der Syntagmen und des ganzen Satzes bezieht. Unter den Bestandteilen (den Wörtern) des Satzes sind sowohl die mittelbaren als auch die unmittelbaren Verknüpfungen zu unterscheiden. Und so bilden beispielsweise die Perfekt- oder die Passivformen im Deutschen ein semantisch-grammatisches Ganzes, obwohl sie im Satzfeld getrennt stehen.

Daraus lassen sich praktisch-kodematische Schlussfolgerungen ziehen, und zwar dass die Dekodierungs- und Verarbeitungsprozesse nicht nur die einzelnen Spracheinheiten (Wörter) im Satzfeld betreffen, sondern ihre direkten und indirekten Verbindungen in den syntagmatischen und syntaktischen Strukturen einschließen.

Abschließend sei noch auf die Eigentümlichkeit der sprachlichen Informationen, genauer auf deren Formen während der Kodierungs-, Übertragungs- und Dekodierungsprozesse in der zwischenmenschlichen Kommunikation hingewiesen. Hier sind zwei grundlegende Fragestellungen zu unterscheiden. Zabrocki (1961: 65 f. und 1966: 6 ff.) hebt deutlich die Regeln des Sprachkodes hervor, auf Grund deren die Umwandlungen von bestimmten Spracheinheiten oder von bestimmten Informationsträgern in andere Formen umgesetzt werden. Die Leistungskraft der Umwandlungen der Informationsformen steckt im Transponierungskode.

Zu den Besonderheiten der Signalformen im Kommunikationsprozess haben auch Klaus und Liebscher (1974: 162 ff.) ihren Standpunkt dargelegt. Sie nehmen an, dass man es im Informationsübertragungsprozess mit einem funktionierenden Koder zu tun hat. Den Koder bezeichnen sie als aktives Element, das fähig ist, bestimmte Signalformen in andere Signalformen zu verwandeln.

Gemäß den oben angedeuteten Konzeptionen bezüglich der verschiedenen Formen von kodierten Spracheinheiten lassen sich in der lautsprachlichen Kommunikationskette deren drei Ebenen unterscheiden. Auf der ersten Ebene des Senders / Sprechers werden die generierten Informationsstrukturen in neuronale Substanz umgewandelt, weiter zu den Artikulationseffektoren transportiert und dort als Lautstrukturen produziert. Im Übertragungskanal (die zweite interindividuelle Ebene) werden die artikulierten Strukturen in akustische Signale transponiert und den Rezeptoren des Empfängers / Hörers übermittelt. Die auf der dritten Ebene durch den Empfänger aufgenommenen akustischen Signale werden in auditive Signale transponiert, weiter in neuronale Substanz umgewandelt und seinem Speicher-Mechanismus zugeleitet, wo die (bekannten) Sprachstrukturen den schon existierenden zugeordnet und die neuen konstruiert werden. Auf diese Weise vollzieht sich die ganzheitliche Dekodierung der aufgenommenen Informationen.

Mit den bereits geschilderten glottokodematischen Vorgängen ist die von Robra (1996: 81 ff.) fundierte Konzeption der Begriffe Syncodierung und Transcodierung eng verbunden, die den Eigenwert der sprachlichen Strukturen, beispielsweise der Wörter, Syntagmen und Sätze beleuchten. Die Syncodierung bedeutet, dass Inhalt und Ausdruck sowohl in wechselseitiger Umcodierung vorkommen als auch zu Bedeutungseinheiten zusammengefügt werden können. In der Konzeption wird die Transcodierung begrifflich mit der Umcodierung gleichgesetzt, die nicht nur durch Umsetzung, sondern auch durch Mehrfachcodierung, Übertragung und Speicherung von Informationen verwirklicht wird.

## 3.4. Lernender als Sekundärsender

In den direkten mündlichen fremdsprachenunterrichtlichen Kontakten zwischen dem Lernenden / Sekundärsender und dem Lehrenden / Sekundärempfänger lassen sich zwei Äußerungsarten unterscheiden: Erstens die unmittelbare Antwort des Lernenden auf die Nachricht des Lehrenden, zweitens die Frage des Lernenden, mit der er sich an den Lehrenden wendet. Die Äußerungen des Lernenden müssen die Bedingung erfüllen, dass darin die neu gelernte lexikalische oder grammatische Struktur vorkommt. Eine der wichtigsten Aufgaben des Sekundärempfängers ist es, die fremdsprachliche Richtigkeit der Äußerungen jedes einzelnen Sekundärsenders zu prüfen, weil die Lernprozesse nicht immer zu korrekten und den gleichen Ergebnissen führen.

Die fremdsprachlichen Lernprozesse betreffen nicht nur die intraindividuelle Aufnahme und Dekodierung der Sprachstrukturen durch die Lernenden, sondern auch deren tiefere Speicherung und der Konstruktion der neu empfangenen Spracheinheiten in Form von Strukturmatrizen sowie im Weiteren deren rezeptive oder produktive Dynamisierung in der Kommunikation. Aus solchen Sprachtätigkeiten ergeben sich sowohl die Haltbarkeit der gerade aufgebauten Strukturmatrize als auch die Dauerhaftigkeit des vom Fremdsprachenlernenden bereits angeeigneten Materials.

Dabei taucht die Frage auf, wie die Lernenden als Kommunikationsteilnehmer in solchen Unterrichtssituationen figurieren. Im Allgemeinen geht man davon aus, dass der Lehrende zunächst als Primärsender und die Lernenden als Primärempfänger handeln, dann aber ein Rollenwechsel stattfindet, d. h. einige von den Lernenden einzeln als Sekundärsender agieren, der Lehrende dagegen als Sekundärempfänger tätig ist. In diesem Fall figuriert der Lernende / Sekundärsender mit dem Lehrenden / Sekundärempfänger in einem rückgekoppelten interpersonalen Kommunikationsvorgang.

## 3.5. Übertragung der fremdsprachlichen Informationen im Rückkoppelungsvorgang

In der kybernetischen Betrachtung der glottokodematischen Kommunikation wird der Rückkoppelung eine besondere Wichtigkeit beigemessen, weil in diesem Vorgang die Kodierungserfolge der gelernten Fremdsprachenstrukturen und vor allem der gerade neu konstruierten Struktur durch den Lernenden / Sekundärsender dem Lehrenden / Sekundärempfänger gemeldet werden. Im Allgemeinen geht es sowohl um die Übertragung als auch um den Austausch von Informationen zwischen dem Lehrenden und dem Lernenden, im Besonderen aber um die Erfolgskontrolle der durch den Lernenden kodierten Informationsstrukturen (s. auch Burkart 1983: 46). Dabei hat der Lehrende eine verantwortungsvolle Aufgabe zu erfüllen, und zwar auf Grund des Rückmeldevorgangs die unkorrekten Kodierungserfolge des Lernenden zu kontrollieren, zu bewerten und zu verbessern. Daraus ergibt sich schließlich auch eine praktisch-glottodidaktische Konsequenz, nämlich dass das Fremdsprachenlernen durch die Rückkoppelung realisiert wird.

## 3.6. Lehrender als Sekundärempfänger

Das Rückkoppelungsgefüge verbindet die durch den Sekundärsender / Lernenden kodierten fremdsprachlichen Informationen mit denen durch den Sekundärempfänger / Lehrenden dekodierten fremdsprachlichen Informationen. Zu den Kernaufgaben des Lehrenden in der Rückkoppelung gehören seine glottokodematischen Reaktionen und deren Rückwirkung auf die sich wiederholende richtige Kodierung der Informationsstrukturen durch den Lernenden. Gerade die Wiederholung ist eine sichere und lernverstärkende Maßnahme zur Verbesserung von Unkorrektheiten. Auf diese Weise wird im kybernetischen Sinne die Grundlage für die Kontrolle des vermittelten IST-Wertes gelegt, aber im Besonderen geht es um die Beurteilung der Lern- und Kodierungsleistungen des Sekundärsenders sowie um die richtige Anwendung der neu kennengelernten und konstruierten fremdsprachlichen Sprachstruktur und deren Verbindung(en) mit den schon bekannten Strukturen im ganzen Satz (vgl. dazu Birjukov & Geller 1987: 265). Dass der Lehrende die direkte Rückkoppelungsverbindung mit einem der Lernenden aufnimmt, bedeutet nicht, dass die Lern- und Kodierungsergebnisse der anderen Lernenden nicht geprüft werden. In den von den Sekundärsendern kodierten Informationen spiegeln sich alle Sprachstrukturen wider, darunter auch die fehler- und mangelhaften, welche einer Berichtigung und der Regelung bedürfen. Die entscheidende Aufgabe der Regelung beruht darin,

dass die während der Kontrolle und der Bewertung festgestellten unkorrekten Spracheinheiten korrigiert werden und als SOLL-Wert erneut in bestimmten syntaktischen Konstruktionen dargeboten und an die Lernenden übertragen werden. Der Lehrende tritt in diesem Fall als glottodidaktischer Regler der unkorrekten Strukturen auf, d. h. er erklärt die Fehler und empfiehlt den Lernenden, die verbesserten Strukturen in der erneuten Vermittlung zu berücksichtigen.

Mitunter benötigen die Lernenden eine eingehende Erklärung der fremdsprachlichen Unrichtigkeiten, es kommt aber auch vor, dass sie sich der wiederholten Informationskodierung bewusster Überlegung(en) bedienen. Das Ziel dieser Regelung besteht also darin, diesen SOLL-Wert zu erreichen. Das Rückkoppelungsgefüge sowie die Regelung spielen beim Lernen und Übertragen von fremdsprachlichen Informationen eine äußerst wichtige Rolle. Sicherlich wird die Übertragung der Informationen noch verstärkt gesteuert werden müssen, um die Dekodierungs- und Speicherungsprozesse der Lernenden zu verbessern. Die Regelung und die Steuerung der zu übertragenen Informationen sind voneinander abhängige und eng miteinander gekoppelte Prozesse (vgl. dazu Ashby 1974: 308, auch Szczodrowski 2020a: 190 ff).

Auf Grund des Rückkoppelungsgefüges kann der Lehrende die Lern-, Kodierungs- und Kommunikationsleistungen der Lernenden kontrollieren und bewerten. Vom glottodidaktischen Standpunkt aus verlangen jedoch die Lernerfolge nicht nur eine ständige Kontrolle und Bewertung, sondern gleichzeitig auch die Korrektur der fehlerhaften und mangelhaften Strukturen, die im Unterricht nicht zu akzeptieren sind. Deshalb ist es unumgänglich, dass der Lehrende sowohl dem Sekundärsender als auch allen anderen Lernenden die Notwendigkeit vor Augen führt, die verbesserten Strukturen in syntaktischen (anderen) Konstruktionen zu repetieren, damit sie tiefer im Gedächtnis haften bleiben. Zu ergänzen wäre noch eine Überlegung: Nicht nur die durch den / die Lernenden kodierten und im Rückkoppelungsgefüge vorkommenden unkorrekten Strukturen müssen verbessert werden, sondern auch diejenigen, welche in allen glottokodematischen Handlungen als mangelhafte Strukturen auftauchen.

Betrachtet man den gesamten fremdsprachlichen Kommunikationskreis, so ergeben sich enge Zusammenhänge zwischen den kybernetischen Theorien und den glottodidaktischen Methoden, welche die Lehr- und Lernprozesse untersuchen und deren Ergebnisse in die Praxis umgesetzt werden können. Was die fremdsprachlichen Lernprozesse anbelangt, so sind in deren Bereich mehrere komplexe Akte zu berücksichtigen (vgl. dazu Cube 1968: 14 ff. und 87 ff.). Mit den durch den Lehrenden geregelten Strukturen und deren syntaktischer Konstruktion ist seine Steuerungstätigkeit eng gekoppelt, die mit bestimmten sprachlichen (suprasegmentalen) und / oder nichtsprachlichen (visuellen) Mitteln die

zu übertragenden Informationen deutlich verstärkt und deren Rezeption sowie Dekodierung seitens der Lernenden erleichtert.

Im Bereich des fremdsprachlichen Unterrichts werden einerseits speziell die Erlernung und die Aneignung der dargestellten Strukturen, aber andererseits auch die Herausbildung der Fähigkeiten und der Fertigkeiten in den Kommunikationssituationen hervorgehoben.

## 4. ZUSAMMENFASSUNG UND AUSBLICK

Um die in den sechs Teilbereichen dargelegten Probleme der fremdsprachenunterrichtlichen Kommunikationsvorgänge kurz zusammenzufassen, konstatieren wir Folgendes:

1. Im Bereich der Glottokodematik sind nachstehende grundlegende Prozesse zu nennen: Die Kodierung (Verschlüsselung) der Informationen mithilfe des fremdsprachlichen Kodes durch den Sender, deren interindividuelle Übertragung und die Dekodierung (Entschlüsselung) der aufgenommenen Informationssignale mithilfe des fremdsprachlichen Kodes durch den / die Empfänger. Diese Prozesse finden zwischen den fremdsprachlichen Unterrichts- und Kommunikationsmitgliedern sowohl im Einrichtungsgefüge als auch im Rückkoppelungsgefüge statt.

2. Im Mittelpunkt der kybernetischen Betrachtungsweise befinden sich die auf der interindividuellen Ebene ablaufenden Übertragungsprozesse der fremdsprachlichen Informationssignale unter Berücksichtigung der Gesetzmäßigkeiten der Steuerungsprozesse seitens des Primärsenders / Lehrenden, die Dekodierung der aufgenommenen Strukturen und die Konstruktion der neu kennengelernten Sprachstrukturmatrizen, des Weiteren die Kodierung der Informationen durch den Sekundärsender / Lernenden und deren Kontrolle seitens des Primärsenders. Die Kontrolle betrifft alle kodierten Strukturen, d. h. die bereits gelernten / angeeigneten, aber insbesondere die neu dargebotenen und konstruierten Strukturmatrizen. Im Falle der unkorrekten und fehlerhaften Strukturen findet deren Korrektur, Regelung sowie erneute Übertragung und Steuerung an die Lernenden statt, um das glottodidaktische Ziel erreichen zu können.

Mit diesen fremdsprachenunterrichtlichen Fragen beschäftigt sich auch die Kybernetik, in der die Informations-, Steuerungs-, Kommunikations-, Rückkoppelungs- und Regelungsbegriffe interpretiert und auch zum Optimieren der glottokodematischen Vorgänge angewandt werden.

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**Cybernetyczne aspekty procesów glottodydaktycznych (wybrane zagadnienia)**

Abstrakt. Istotny wkład w poszerzenie i pogłębienie dziedziny glottodydaktyki wnoszą m.in. wyniki badań kodematycznych i cybernetycznych. W obrębie systemu glottodydaktycznego można wyróżnić następujące procesy: 1) kodowanie informacji przez głównego nadawcę (instruktora); 2) wysyłanie informacji oraz jej językowe i pozajęzykowe monitorowanie do głównych odbiorców (uczniów); 3) odbiór i dekodowanie informacji przez głównych odbiorców oraz konstruowanie matryc nowych struktur leksykalnych i gramatycznych; 4) kodowanie informacji przez nadawcę wtórnego (uczącego się); 5) wysyłanie informacji do odbiorcy wtórnego (instruktora) w ramach systemu sprzężenia zwrotnego; 6) odbiór informacji przez odbiorcę wtórnego, jej sprawdzanie i korekta, regulacja i porządkowanie składniowe oraz odnowienie procesu glottodydaktycznego.

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# II. BOOK REVIEWS

**Karmelka Barić / Günther Tutschke.** *Deutsch-serbisches Wörterbuch: Verben mit Präfixen und Beispielsätzen.* Beograd: AGM Knijga. 2021. S. 622

Gegenstand dieser Rezension ist das, nach der Kenntnis der Autorin, erste derart umfangreiche und aktuelle deutsch-serbische Wörterbuch, das auf der Grundlage der aktuellsten Sprachkorpora unter Verwendung und Diskussion des aktuellen Sprachgebrauchs des Deutschen und Serbischen erstellt wurde. Die Autoren des Wörterbuchs stellen fest, dass das Buch für alle geschrieben wurde, die Deutsch lernen oder ihr Deutsch verbessern wollen, was entscheidende die Gruppe der potenziellen Interessenten erweitert. Gleichzeitig, sollte erwähnt werden, dass das Werk das Ergebnis einer langjährigen Zusammenarbeit vom deutschen Slawisten und von einer serbischen Germanistin ist, was schon für die potenziellen Nutzer vielversprechend ist, weil beide Perspektiven sehr gut repräsentiert. Das Hauptziel des Lexikons ist es, die Leser mit aktuellen Verbformen vertraut zu machen, die in Texten aus unterschiedlichen sehr häufig fachspezifischen Bereichen vorkommen, wie z.B. Technik, Recht, Medizin, Verwaltung, IT oder Sport.

Das Wörterbuch umfasst 170 000 Wörter und 5276 Stichwörter und beginnt mit den einleitenden Worten der Autoren (S. 6–7) in serbischer und deutscher Sprache, gefolgt von einem Beitrag über die Bedeutung und die Stellung der Vorsilben im Deutschen (S. 8–10). Es folgt eine Liste der im Wörterbuch verwendeten Abkürzungen (S. 11) und das deutsche Alphabet (S. 12). Des Folgen werden die gesammelten Verben, ihre Konjugation (S. 12–610) besprochen. Das Buch endet eine Tabelle, die die deutschen Präfixen zusammenfasst (S. 611–620), gefolgt von dem Verzeichnis der aktuellsten Literatur. Im Anschluss an die Einleitung stellen die Autoren eine Klassifizierung der Präfixtypen dar, um das Verständnis für das Thema trennbaren und nicht trennbaren Verben zu fördern und das Erlernen des Bereiches zu erleichtern. Zu den unterschiedenen Kriterien gehören: ein phonologisches Kriterium (das die Rolle der Betonnung), ein semantisches Kriterium (zur Unterscheidung zwischen der konkreten und der abstrakten Bedeutung des betreffenden Verbs), ein syntaktisches Kriterium (die Rekursion des Verbs und dem (Nicht-)Vorhandensein eines Komplements im Akkusativ beruht) und die Häufigkeit der Verwendung des Präfixes als trennbar oder untrennbar.

Die Autoren verweisen zwar auf die oben genannte Klassifizierung, betonen jedoch sehr deutlich die Bedeutung des Kontextes als letztendliche Determinante für die Bedeutung eines bestimmten Verbs. Die von den Autoren des Wörterbuchs aufgegriffenen Themen (Klassifizierung und Verwendung von trennbaren und untrennbaren Präfixen und die Unterscheidung

ihrer Bedeutungen) sind sowohl für Sprachwissenschaftler und -lehrer als auch für Lernende mit nur geringen Deutschkenntnissen von Interesse.

Bei der Beschreibung von Verbenbedeutungen haben die Autoren auf sprachliche Mittel wie Beschreibungen oder Wörter zurückgegriffen, die mit dieser Bedeutung verglichen werden können, z. B. Synonyme, Umschreibungen, eine Form von Kommentar oder eine Kombination dieser Möglichkeiten, wodurch die Präzision des Vergleichs und Verwendung von beschriebenen Verben erreicht wird. Das besprochene Wörterbuch ist ein interessantes und wertvolles Beispiel für eine kontrastive Herangehensweise an die sprachlichen Probleme an der Grenze zwischen dem Serbischen und dem Deutschen, wobei nicht nur bestimmte lexikalische Lösungen aufgezeigt werden, sondern auch die beobachteten Phänomene im Kontext diskutiert werden. Der große Vorteil dieses Wörterbuchs ist, dass es auf dem neuesten Stand ist; die Autoren haben die neuesten sprachlichen Ausdrücke mit ihrem authentischen Gebrauch im Kontext aufgenommen.

Jeder Eintrag im Wörterbuch hat eine bestimmte grafische und textuelle Struktur. Jedes Bestimmungswort ist deutlich in weißer Farbe vom vorhergehenden getrennt und fett gedruckt. Unterhalb des beschriebenen Wortes sind die Formen des Verbs angegeben, gefolgt von der Übersetzung in kursiver Schrift in Klammern darunter, gefolgt werden die gegebenen Erklärungen von einem Satzbeispiel, das die Verwendung des Verbes im Kontext illustriert. Im Wörterbuch werden auch die Rechtschreibungslösungen diskutiert und mit Verweisen auf Duden- Wörterbuch.

Das Wörterbuch kann sowohl in Alltags- als auch Berufssituationen verwendet werden, es ist innovativ und durch vielseitige Verwendungsmöglichkeiten (Lernen, Lehrmaterialienerstellung, Übersetzungsbasis) leistet einen wichtigen Beitrag zu den lexikografischen Veröffentlichungen auf dem internationalen Markt.

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# III. REPORTS

**Bericht über die I. Internationale Konferenz „Internationale Bildungskooperation im Bereich Deutsch als Fremdsprache. State of the Art & Perspektiven". Poznań, 16.–17. Juni 2023**

Die Konferenz „Internationale Bildungskooperation im Bereich Deutsch als Fremdsprache. State of the Art & Perspektiven" war eine wissenschaftliche Veranstaltung im Rahmen der vom DAAD geförderten Germanistischen Institutspartnerschaft (GIP) in Kooperation mit der Arbeitsgruppe Deutsch als Fremdsprache des Instituts für Germanistische Sprachwissenschaft der Philipps-Universität Marburg, der Abteilung Deutsche Sprache und Kultur / Niederlande-Deutschland-Studien der Radboud Universität in Nijmegen sowie dem Institut für Angewandte Linguistik der Adam-Mickiewicz-Universität Poznań. In diesem Jahr fand die Konferenz in dem letztgenannten Institut am 16.–17. Juni 2023 statt und stand unter wissenschaftlicher Leitung von Prof. Dr. Sylwia Adamczak-Krysztofowicz (Poznań), Prof. Dr. Kathrin Siebold (Marburg) und Dr. Sabine Jentges (Nijmegen). Die Schirmherrschaft übernahm Prof. Dr. Katarzyna Dziubalska-Kołaczyk – stellvertretende Rektorin der Adam-Mickiewicz-Universität Poznań. Das Ziel der Konferenz war es, den wissenschaftlichen Austausch über die aktuellen Fragestellungen im Bereich der internationalen Bildungskooperation und Begegnungsdidaktik zu ermöglichen sowie Zukunftsperspektiven in der Forschung weiter zu vertiefen.

Die Konferenz wurde in vier Sektionen eingeteilt: Evaluation von Kooperationsprojekten, Professionalisierung von Lehrkräften, Modellierung spezifischer Konzepte des Forschungsfelds sowie Projektentwicklung und zukünftige Perspektiven. Darüber hinaus konnte man an beiden Konferenztagen Plenarvorträge von eingeladenen Referentinnen und Referenten hören. Die Moderation übernahmen nicht nur die Mitarbeiterinnen des Gastgeberinstituts, sondern auch die Forscherinnen und Forscher aus den Partneruniversitäten. Von der Radboud Universität waren das: Dr. Sabine Jentges, Prof. Dr. Paul Sars und René Gerritsen M.A. Von der Philipps-Universität hatte dagegen Prof. Dr. Kathrin Siebold die Gelegenheit, eine Sektion zu moderieren.

Die Konferenz fing mit den Begrüßungsworten von Prof. Dr. Katarzyna Dziubalska-Kołaczyk, Prof. Dr. Krzysztof Stroński (Dekan der Neuphilologischen Fakultät) und Prof. Dr. Danuta Wiśniewska (Direktorin des Instituts für Angewandte Linguistik) an. Das Wort ergriffen auch die Konferenzleiterinnen: Prof. Dr. Sylwia Adamczak-Krysztofowicz, Prof. Dr. Kathrin Siebold und Dr. Sabine Jentges. Alle äußerten die Hoffnung, dass die Konferenz einen weiteren bedeutenden Beitrag für die Bildungskooperation leisten wird. Nach den Begrüßungsworten hielt Prof. Dr. Almut Hille von der Freien Universität Berlin den ersten

Plenarvortrag der Konferenz, welcher den Titel *Internationale Kooperationen in der Aus- und Fortbildung von Lehrkräften für Deutsch als Fremdsprache. Der Kontext des kulturellen Lernens* trug. In dem zweiten Plenarvortrag stellte Prof. Dr. Dietmar Rösler aus der Justus-Liebig-Universität Gießen die Probleme und Vorzüge der grenzüberschreitenden Tandemkooperation vor. Anschließend stellten die Konferenzleiterinnen in ihrem Vortrag die Sektionsthemen vor. Ein wichtiger Punkt war hierbei der Austausch zwischen den Konferenzteilnehmerinnen und Konferenzteilnehmern, der durch Gruppenarbeit erfolgte. Die beiden Beiträge bewegten das Publikum zur lebhaften und angeregten Diskussion.

Nach der Pause fanden zwei Parallelsektionen zu den Themen Evaluation von Kooperationsprojekten und Professionalisierung von Lehrkräften statt. Beide Sektionen wurden in zwei Blöcken durchgeführt. Die Sektion zu Evaluation von Kooperationsprojekten leitete Dr. Tamara Zeyer (Justus-Liebig-Universität Gießen) mit ihrem Beitrag zu Potenzialen des virtuellen Austauschprojekts in der Entwicklung interkultureller Kompetenz ein. Als nächstes präsentierten Dr. Sabine Jentges und Prof. Dr. Paul Sars (Radboud Universität Nijmegen) Voraussetzungen für eine erfolgreiche Kooperation im grenzüberschreitenden Schulaustausch. Die Präsentierenden stützten sich dabei auf ihre Erfahrung aus dem deutsch-niederländischen Schulaustauschprojekt *Nachbarsprache & buurcultuur*. Auch Henning Meredig M.A. (Radboud Universität Nijmegen) stellte hingegen ein Beispiel einer deutsch-niederländischen Kooperation vor und verwies dabei auf ihre Potenziale und Hindernisse. Im nächsten Block dieser Sektion thematisierten Stefan Baumbach M.A. und Alice Friedland M.A. von der Friedrich-Schiller-Universität Jena und Annika Herrmann M.A. (Deutsche Schule, Albrecht Dürer' in Sevilla) die Probleme und den Nutzen der internationalen Unterrichtskooperation am Beispiel der Zusammenarbeit der FSU Jena und der DS Sevilla. Anschließend gab Prof. Dr. Agnieszka Pawłowska-Balcerska (Adam-Mickiewicz-Universität Poznań) ein Beispiel des deutsch-polnischen Kooperationsprojekts „Schreiben(üben) im e-Tandem / e-Tridem" an. Die Sektion schloss Prof. Dr. Aldona Sopata (Adam-Mickiewicz-Universität Poznań) mit dem Vortag zur Mehrsprachigkeitsforschung in dem von ihr geführten deutsch-polnisch-portugiesischen Projekt ab.

Die Sektion zum Thema „Professionalisierung von Lehrkräften" umkreiste die Lehrerkompetenzen in der internationalen Bildung. Dr. Bernd Helmbold und Katharina McGrath M.A. von der Friedrich-Schiller-Universität Jena wiesen auf die Notwendigkeit hin, internationale Netzwerke aufzubauen und sie ständig aufrechtzuerhalten. Im nächsten Referat stellte Prof. Dr. Peter Ecke wiederum vor, wie die grenzüberschreitenden Sprachseminare zur Entwicklung der Reflexions- und Forschungskompetenz der Studierenden beitragen kann. Nachfolgend berichteten Dr. Luiza Ciepielewska-Kaczmarek (Adam-Mickiewicz-Universität Poznań) und Prof. Dr. Kathrin Siebold über die Möglichkeit, die Kompetenzen angehender Lehrkräfte zu entwickeln, was am Beispiel des deutsch-polnischen GIP-Projekts gezeigt wurde. Nach der Pause hielten Prof. Dr. Anna Jaroszewska und Katarzyna Posiadała M.A. von der Universität Warschau ihren Vortrag zu einem ähnlichen Thema. Sie berichteten hierbei über das Erasmus-Projekt, an dem DaF-Studierende beteiligt waren. Anschließend stellte Dr. Cüneyt Dinçer (Friedrich-Schiller-Universität Jena) die erforderlichen Kompetenzen von Betreuungslehrerinnen und -lehrern anhand der durchgeführten Studie vor. Die Sektion wurde von Prof. Dr. Magdalena Jurewicz und Dr. Hanka Błaszkowska (Adam-Mickiewicz-Universität

Poznań) mit dem Vortrag zu Potenzialen und Schwierigkeiten der Lehrkooperation in Bezug auf Translationsdidaktik beendet.

Der zweite Konferenztag begann mit dem Plenarvortrag von Prof. Dr. Michael Schart von der Friedrich-Schiller-Universität Jena, in dem Überlegungen zu den Auswirkungen der fremdsprachendidaktischen Praxis auf die Theorie zusammengefasst wurden. Auch dieser Rede folgte eine anregende Diskussion mit vielen wichtigen Punkten. Nach der Vorlesung wurden die zwei Parallelsektionen eröffnet, in denen auf die Themen „Theoretische Modellierung des Forschungsfelds" und „Projektentwicklung und Perspektiven" eingegangen wurde.

Die erste von diesen Sektionen leiteten Prof. Dr. Mergenfel A. Vaz Ferreira und Dr. Paul Voerkel (Friedrich-Schiller-Universität Jena) mit dem Vortrag „Internationalization at home: Chancen und Herausforderungen am Beispiel einer institutionell geförderten Gastprofessur für Deutsch als Fremdsprache" ein. Die Vortragenden wiesen darauf hin, welche Maßnahmen für eine gelungene Zusammenarbeit zwischen den Universitäten und Forscherinnen und Forscher ergriffen werden sollten. Anschließend stellte Prof. Dr. Stephan Wolting von der Adam-Mickiewicz-Universität Poznań in seinem Online-Vortrag Zukunftsperspektiven und kommunikative Handlungsmöglichkeiten in Bezug auf Zukunftsvorstellung vor. Nach der kurzen Pause wurde die Sektion mit den Vorträgen von Katrine Fleckner Gravholt M.A. (UC SYD Haderslev), Prof. Dr. Agnieszka Błażek (Adam-Mickiewicz-Universität Poznań) und Dr. Dorothea Spaniel-Weise (Friedrich-Schiller-Universität Jena) fortgesetzt. Kathrine Fleckner Gravholt M.A. verwies auf die Interaktionen zwischen Schülerinnen und Schülern in grenzüberschreitenden Kooperationsprojekten und deutete insbesondere die Rolle der Ähnlichkeitsperzeption an. Im Anschluss zum vorigen Referat besprach Prof. Dr. Agnieszka Błażek den fachkommunikativen Ansatz in der Modellierung von internationalen Kooperationen. Die Sektion schloss der Vortrag von Dr. Dorothea Spaniel-Weise ab, in dem die Notwendigkeit, internationale Kooperation zu dokumentieren und für sie zu werben, thematisiert wurde.

Im Mittelpunkt der zweiten Sektion, die an diesem Tag stattfand, standen Entwicklung und Perspektiven von internationalen DaF-Projekten. In dem ersten Vortrag thematisierte Julia Feike M.A. (Friedrich-Schiller-Universität Jena) Chancen und Herausforderungen von Open Access Publishing und OER für die internationale Zusammenarbeit im Rahmen von DaF. Anschließend stellte Prof. Dr. Paul Sars (Radboud-Universität Nijmegen) vor, zu welchen Vorteilen die Verwendung von transnationalen Texten in grenzüberschreitenden Projekten beitragen können. Mit den Beispielen von authentischen Geschichten wurde eine wichtige Inspiration für Lehrer multikultureller Gruppen angeboten. Prof. Dr. Sylwia Adamczak-Krysztofowicz (Adam-Mickiewicz-Universität Poznań) und Prof. Dr. Krystyna Mihułka (Universität Rzeszów) thematisierten hingegen die Anwendung von Ethnomemes in internationalen Austauschprojekten und ihre Vorteile. Die Sektion wurden mit dem Vortrag von Prof. Dr. Małgorzata Bielicka (Adam-Mickiewicz-Universität Poznań) beendet, die auf die Rolle des Deutschen als Kommunikationssprache in internationalen Austauschprojekten hinwies.

Nach der Beendung der beiden Parallelsektionen wurde die Konferenz offiziell mit den Schlussworten der Konferenzleiterinnen und Dankworten für Konferenzteilnehmerinnen und -teilnehmer sowie das Organisationsteam abgeschlossen. Es wurde ebenfalls ein Ausblick auf das Jahr 2024 gegeben. Im Rahmen der Germanistischen Institutspartnerschaft werden verschiedene Aktivitäten organisiert, unter denen die elfte internationale Nachwuchskonfe-

renz im Frühling 2024 in Marburg zu erwähnen ist. Die zweite internationale Konferenz zur internationalen Bildungskooperation wird nächstes Jahr an der Philipps-Universität Marburg im Juni stattfinden. Alle interessierten Forscherinnen und Forscher werden schon heute zur Anmeldung ihrer Vorträge eingeladen.

Die I. Internationale Konferenz *Internationale Bildungskooperation im Bereich Deutsch als Fremdsprache. State of the Art & Perspektiven* ergab sich mit ihren zahlreichen anregenden Vorträgen als äußerst fruchtbar. Sie ermöglichte nicht nur den grenzüberschreitenden Erfahrungsaustausch und den Aufbau der laufenden Projekte, sondern gab auch einen wichtigen Impuls zu neuen Kooperationsmöglichkeiten. Diese sind, wie während der Konferenz wiederholt angedeutet, notwendig, um die sprachliche und interkulturelle Kompetenz der Lehrenden zu entwickeln. Die kritisch-konstruktive und offene Atmosphäre gab die perfekten Bedingungen zur Bereicherung der vorgestellten Projekte sowie zur Erweiterung der Forschungsperspektiven.

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**Conference report: International conference "Language, Culture and Law – Semiotic Perspectives on Forestry & Hunting «Cultural Value of Hunting». 18th Conference on Translation, Interpreting, LSPs and Cultural Studies". Obrzycko, 15th–17th June 2023**

Held in Obrzycko, in close proximity to the Noteć Forest and the Warta river valley, the event was a great occasion to appreciate nature and discuss the importance of hunting in various cultures around the world. The conference was also an opportunity to explore the semiotic aspects of language, culture and law, with special emphasis placed on hunting, not only from the cultural perspective, but also from a linguistic one. The event allowed the participants to meticulously analyse and discuss a plethora of aspects concerning hunting LSPs, law and culture and to present their research findings on those subject matters. Following a warm welcome to the participants by the conference committee, a hunting horn concert took place and, after a short break, the first lecture began. Prof. Dariusz Gwiazdowicz from the University of Life Sciences in Poznań stressed the importance of the hunting culture and its centuries-old heritage, often criticised by the opponents of hunting. Prof. Gwiazdowicz also acknowledged the necessity to preserve the culture of hunting, at the same time defining the biggest threats to its development. The second part of the keynote speech was devoted to the history of the Polish hunting language. Prof. Aleksandra Matulewska, affiliated with Adam Mickiewicz University, Poznań, highlighted the problem of the changing language of hunters over the centuries. Prof. Matulewska stressed the cultural value of the Polish hunting language, which has penetrated into Polish literature. After the keynote speeches, the conference was divided into two parallel sessions – one held in Polish, the other one held in English. The English lecture was given online by Mrs Xiuli Liu from Zhejiang University. She described the conceptual attributes and contextual transmutations of wildlife protection in China since the introduction of an amendment on protecting wild animals. She also described the ways in which legal discourse both mirrors and changes social attitudes and values in China. Lastly, Mrs Liu defined the term "wildlife", depending on the contexts and discourse systems. Dr hab. Tomasz Samojlik (the Polish Academy of Sciences) and Dr hab. Piotr Daszkiewicz (the National Academy of Sciences) discussed the importance of the Polish Hunting Association in the bison reintroduction process. They listed a multitude of Polish figures that were involved in the process of finding the last representatives of the bison species, such as Jan Sztolcman, Herman Knothe or Janusz Domaniewski. Lastly, the lecture emphasised the engagement of Polish hunters in the process of reintroducing bison in Poland. The English lecture, delivered by Mrs Patrizia Giampieri representing Aston University, focused on the translation of system-specific documents such as the Italian procura alle liti. What is more, Mrs Giampieri addressed the importance of using reference documents in order to perceive discrepancies between source and target legal systems and terminology. Mrs Giampieri came to the conclusion that functional translations should maintain the right balance when it comes to word-for-word renditions extracted from parallel texts.

Krzysztof Kadlec, representing the musical group "Babrzysko" gave a lecture on unknown hunting songs written by Franciszek Ksawery Zaremba. The lecturer described Zaremba as a man of many talents, since he was a composer, organist, conductor and publisher. Zaremba also endeared himself to Polish hunting culture by writing 12 hunting songs, and no one

before him managed to compose so many. The dissemination of Zaremba's achievements was connected with the 100th anniversary of his death. Concurrently, Mr Oliver Nowak from Adam Mickiewicz University gave a speech on educational series for children and the presence of translation mistakes in such audio-visual content. The last lecture of the first conference day was delivered by Dr Emilia Wojtasik-Dziekan of Adam Mickiewicz University, Poznań. Dr Wojtasik-Dziekan focused on presenting the linguistic and cultural image of the fox in Korea. The presentation was divided into two parts – the first one describing the lexical image, and the second one focusing on the visual image of the fox. The lecture also revealed that the image of the fox was widespread in South Korean popular culture especially in movies. The first conference day ended with a walk in the park at Obrzycko Palace and was followed by a bonfire. The participants were able to admire the beauty of the nature around the Palace and discover some interesting information on its history. The bonfire was a great opportunity to gather and discuss the lectures in detail, and make acquaintances. The second conference day started with a keynote speech presented by Prof. Onorina Botezat of Dimitri Cantemir Cristian University in Romania. Prof. Botezat presented the audience a picture of modern hunting traditions in Romania, as well as with the depiction of hunting in Romanian literature. Romanian literature abounds in information on the language, culture and the heritage of hunters. Furthermore, Professor Botezat emphasised the importance of hunting as a common context for brotherhood, and the disastrous consequences of communist hunting policies on the environment. Unfortunately, due to technical problems the presentation of Professor Guanghua Liu from the Lanzhou University titled "The Image of Hunting and Hunters in Chinese Law" could not be delivered in full. The participants had only the opportunity to listen to a summary of the speech. Dr Andrzej Stróżczyński from "The State Forests" gave a speech on the significance of deer antlers in prehistory and modern times. The audience was presented with numerous instances of the use of deer antlers as a material for tools, furniture, jewellery or even medicine. Finally, Dr Stróżczyński discussed the symbolism of antlers in literature. The lecture was followed by the speech of Mr Mateusz Moszczyński from the Polish Hunting Association who presented the history of falconry in the times of the first Piast Dynasty. Mr Moszczyński analysed the prestige of falconry, as well as the techniques used to train raptors. Interestingly, the utensils used to train falcons mostly remain unchanged, which is why Mr Moszczyński was able to present some of the utensils during his lecture. Thanks to the development of science, modern falconers are better at caring for the proper welfare of those majestic raptors. The English session, on the other hand, started with a speech by Prof. Le Cheng and Hui Li affiliated with Zhejiang University. They discussed the legal regulations on invasive species in China from the semiotic perspective. The aforementioned regulations were used as a research corpus for the analysis of word frequency and keywords. The results revealed that the majority of the legal expressions on that matter were of a prohibitive and declarative nature. The second speech of the English session was given by Mr Przemysław Kusik from the Polish Association of Sworn and Specialised Translators TEPIS. Mr Kusik provided the audience with his insights on the use of comparative law in legal translations as well as with translation problems. After the lunch break, the first speech of the Polish session was delivered by Doctor Joanna Smoła representing the University of Rzeszów. Dr Smoła analysed the terminology used in Polish and Russian hunting cynology in the areas of training, handling and

schooling. The results show that the terminology is inconsistent in both Polish and Russian sources, and those discrepancies lead to erroneous uses of lexemes. The second lecture was held by Dr Beata Malczewska from the University of the National Education Commission in Kraków. Dr Malczewska juxtaposed Italian and Polish hunting culture terminology. There are numerous Italian lexemes which do not have precise Polish equivalents. Those absences are particularly visible in the names of hunters, hunting places and equipment. The Polish session continued after a brief break with a lecture given by Dr hab. Joanna Kic-Drgas, representing Adam Mickiewicz University, Poznań. Dr Kic-Drgas compared the conceptualisation of forest animals in five languages (Polish, German, English, Spanish and Portuguese). She presented a comparison indicating discrepancies in the perception and linguistic depiction of these animals in the languages analysed. The penultimate lecture of the day was delivered by Doctor Izabela Kamińska, affiliated with the Catholic University of Lublin. Dr Kamińska's speech focused on the role of hunting in modern education, and the presence of hunting in children's literature. The last lecture was held by Prof. Kyong-geun Oh representing Adam Mickiewicz University and Prof. Jong-seong Park from the Korea National Open University. The speakers presented myths and legends concerning tigers and also described the hunting and symbolism of the animal in Korean culture. The conference participants also had an opportunity to listen to speeches in the French session. Professors Ramdane Boukherrouf and Noura Tigziri, (both from Laboratoire d'Aménagement et d'Enseignement de la Langue Amazighe Université Mouloud Mammeri de Tizi-Ouzou in Algeria) discussed the language and culture of hunting in Algeria from the perspective of Algerian law. Two young scholars, Magister Kahina Kaci Ouali and Zakia Daid (from Université Mouloud Mammeri de Tizi-Ouzou in Algeria) discussed semiotic aspects of the language of hunters from Kabul. Doctor Rabah Tabti, also from the same university, talked about the protection of the environment in the Algerian Constitution. Doctor Piotr Pieprzyca (From the Pedagocial University in Kraków) presented the linguistic image of animals in the Polish and French legal systems. Finally, Doctor Paulina Nowak-Korcz (University of Łódź) delivered a speech on the linguistic aspects of hunting district contracts in the Polish and French legal systems. During the last day of the conference, the attendees were able to participate in a session on the cultural value of hunting, or a session devoted to hunting music. The first speech of the cultural value session was given by Dr Hiromasa Igota. Dr Igota gave a speech on the history and current status of game management in Japan. The lecture emphasised the importance of sustainable and responsible hunting, as well as the application of reasonable hunting laws.

Our Lithuanian guests, Doctor Rasa Vaitkevičiūtė and Doctor Gerda Šilingienė from the Vytautas Magnus University delivered a speech on the public image of hunters in Lithuania, and addressed the importance of hunting and the current trends of criticising hunters. They also conducted a broad survey on people's attitudes towards hunting. The results were presented during the lecture, showing that the stereotypes concerning this subject matter could be harmful for the hunting community and hunting itself. Surprisingly, the results of the survey also showed that hunting was no longer perceived as a sport that was reserved only for men.

The last speech of the session was delivered by Doctor Magdalena Stefaniak affiliated with Adam Mickiewicz University, Poznań. Dr Stefaniak analysed the French terminology concerning the behaviour of game during hunting with dogs. The analysis mainly focused

on the currently used terminology frequently referring to the tactics used by hunters. The concurrent music session was devoted to Slovakian and Czech hunting music. The first speech of the session was given by Mr Edmund Hatiar and Dr Lucia Blšáková and was devoted to Slovakian hunting music and its origin. The presentation described the most important figures of Slovakian hunting music as well as the instruments used. The following presentation was given by Mr Petr Šeplavý who gave a speech on the life and cultural heritage of Prof. Antonín Dyk, who composed Czech hunting calls in 1936. Those calls form the basis of modern hunting calls. Mr Šeplavý also gave an insight into the system of trumpet training and competitions. The last lecture of the section was given by Dr Petr Vacek who provided some background information on the history of hunting horn playing in the Czech Republic. The conference closing speech delivered by Prof. Matulewska and Prof. Gwiazdowicz officially ended the conference, and after a short discussion the attendees departed Obrzycko. The conference was a very successful international event gathering scholars from three continents. The organisers plan to publish the papers on the cultural value of hunting in a thematic book, and the papers devoted to legal issues in the journal titled Comparative Legilinguistics. The next conference will be held from 27 till 29 June 2024. The event is titled the 19th Conference on Translation, Interpreting, LSPs and Cultural Studies and 4th East European Consortium of Korean Studies (Eecks) and the International Conference On East Asian and Korean Studies "Spaces for Change in Law, Language, Literature, History and Cultural Imagination of Asia, Africa and Europe".

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