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LANGUAGE EDUCATION**



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# **VARIOUS ASPECTS OF LANGUAGE EDUCATION**

Edited by  
Marija Stevkovska and Marijana Klemenchich





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# FOREWORD

Dear Readers,

As educators with over two decades of experience in language education, me and my colleague found the topic *Various Aspects of Language Education* very interesting, relevant and current and that is why we have decided to publish this book. In an era of global communication and cultural exchange, the role of language education has never been more crucial and therefore, we truly hope that this book will be an important source for educators, teachers, researchers, learners and anyone passionate about the transformative power of language. As we navigate the ever-evolving landscape of language education, we hope that this book serves as a timely guide covering various important aspects in Language Education.

This volume brings together a group of esteemed authors, each with their unique perspectives, experiences and expertise in the realm of language education. Hereby, we would like to extend our heartfelt thanks to the distinguished contributors who have generously shared their insights,

thoughts, experience and knowledge and have contributed in the Language Education field. From intercultural communication, panlingual pedagogy, mediation, to innovative teaching, this book explores a wide spectrum of topics.

In the first chapter TOWARD TEACHING EFL FOR INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION, the esteemed professor Paweł Sobkowiak provides a comprehensive and up-to-date insight into the fundamentals of intercultural EFL teaching and advocates ways of implementing its principles into a classroom practice. The tenets of an intercultural orientation to teaching EFL in an intercultural framing are discussed and the differences from a traditional approach to teaching language and culture delineated so that the readers may successfully initiate their own contextual practices in the future.

In the second chapter PANLINGUAL PEDAGOGY AT PRIMARY SCHOOL LEVEL the distinguished professors Sandra Bellet and Simone Naphegyi emphasize that linguistic (and cultural) diversity requires specific content knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, and general pedagogical knowledge in order to best promote plurilingual education for all students at school and develop competencies in future teachers that will enable them to teach English (the first foreign language taught in Austrian schools) together with German (the language of instruction or educational language) in a cross-curricular manner (CLIL), thereby incorporating the entire linguistic repertoire of young learners and they present their research.

In the third chapter ENGLISH AS A LINGUA FRANCA: AN INVESTIGATION ON THE PERCEPTIONS OF TEENAGER

**TURKISH LEARNERS OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE** renowned professor Zübeyde Sinem Genç and esteemed language instructor Ahmet Cihat Yavuz contribute to the scope of ELF by unveiling the perceptions of English-conscious teenagers while exploring the perceptions of ELF phonology and lexicogrammar of Turkish teenagers studying IB at varied years. This chapter presents the results from a study that investigated Turkish high school IB students' perceptions of English as a Lingua Franca, specifically focusing on phonology and lexicogrammar.

The forth chapter **LANGUAGE TEACHING, MEDIATION, TRANSLATION, INTERPRETING AND ERROR ANALYSIS** written by eminent professor Marina Pappa investigates the notion of error in linguistic production, in mediation, and in interpreting in order to present the expectations in different forms, but also states the fact that error analysis concerns all forms of communication and linguistic production. In this chapter it is emphasized that various conditions and constraints of production in relation to themes in specific domains and activation of competences indicate the complexity of the learning process in modern society.

The last chapter **“COACH ME IF YOU CAN”: THE ROLE OF CLINICAL SUPERVISION MODEL (CSM) IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHER TRAINING** written by eminent professor Nurdan Kavakli-Ulutaş and distinguished M.A. candidate Aleyna Üzmez delves into the role of clinical supervision model in the professional development of pre-service English language teachers. Specifically, the contributions of a national educational project funded

by the Scientific and Technological Research Council of Türkiye are scrutinized during which pre-service English language teachers are trained professionally within the reflective triangulation of university supervisors, cooperating teachers, and pre-service teachers themselves and show that CSM has seemingly increased the pre-service English language teachers' professional competencies.

As the editors of this work, we are privileged to offer this foreword as a glimpse into the creative process that shaped its final form.

We wish every reader an enlightening journey through the various aspects of language education explored in this book.

The Editors

# TOWARD TEACHING EFL FOR INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION

Paweł Sobkowiak

## INTRODUCTION

This chapter premises that language use is a culturally embedded practice in and through which an individual's cultural identity is constructed, provides a rationale and argues for the need to adopt widely an intercultural approach in the EFL classroom. This enrichment of students' understanding of difference and allowing for exercising agency framework integrates teaching language and culture, and, except for work on language and the four skills, shifts focus on developing students' intercultural communicative competence (Corbett, 2003; McConachy, 2018; McConachy & Liddicoat, 2022). The article explicates the benefits students can derive from acknowledging complex interrelationships between linguistic and cultural elements deeply intertwined in discourses, while actively engaging with the processes of constructing and interpreting meaning, and negotiating new ways of behaving (Kramsch, 1998; Liddicoat & Scarino, 2013). It will be demonstrated that intercultural teaching implies transcending the cognition of (a) foreign

culture(s) and cultural differences, and entails fostering a set of skills (behaviors), attitudes (affective domains), individual features, such as motivation and empathy, and applying an alternative evaluative lens in judgments (Byram, 2021; Deardorff, 2006; Fantini, 2018). Finally, the author will seek to argue that critical intercultural awareness and understanding can emerge in ethnically homogenous classrooms, provided the five principles are implemented which help engage students in assignments stimulating constant exploration, questioning and interpretation of the encountered products, practices and perspectives.

An increasingly networked world and recent technological advances have opened up new opportunities for individuals to move freely across the world and interact with representatives of diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds. These changes and challenges that learners need to meet have enticed scholars to identify the competencies indispensable for individuals to be effective in cross-cultural interaction, questioning earlier conceptualizations of communicative competence and long-established objectives of EFL teaching. It has been argued that knowledge of a foreign language ipso facto does not translate into an ability to function in a culturally unfamiliar environment, and the lack of awareness of cultural differences can be a source of misunderstandings and impede contacts with diverse others. Hence, the concept of linguistic competence has been extended, encompassing deep intercultural competence.

Researchers have long recognized that language cannot be separated from its social and cultural contexts of use



in a foreign language classroom (Byram, 1991; Kramsch, 1993; Liddicoat, 2005). Byram (1991) emphasized that the separation of language teaching from culture clearly misleads students to believe as if at an early stage of learning language was independent of socio-cultural phenomena. Accordingly, EFL practitioners commenced to develop adequate pedagogical approaches in the classroom. Albeit since the 1970s one of the objectives of teaching foreign languages in Europe had been to familiarize students with the culture of the country whose language they were learning and patterns of practices and values used/ shared by its users, cultural education was merely an auxiliary activity, occurring rarely, in the background of developing the four language skills considered sufficient for effective communication. It was noticed only in the 1990s that culture is not just a minor, occasionally used skill, but the fifth skill. The overarching purpose of the current chapter is to provide a comprehensive and up-to-date insight into the fundamentals of intercultural EFL teaching and advocate ways of implementing its principles into a classroom practice. The tenets of an intercultural orientation to teaching EFL in an intercultural framing will be discussed and the differences from a traditional approach to teaching language and culture delineated so that the readers may successfully initiate their own contextual practices in the future.

## LANGUAGE, CULTURE AND FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING/TEACHING

The prescriptive tradition in linguistics views language as a structural system, an abstract and decontextualized

entity, formed by words encoded by sounds or graphic conventions and assembled by the rules of syntax. However, for the purpose of language learning a more adequate conceptualization of language seems to be the one which conceives it as a communication system - a set of practices deployed by individuals in a particular context to achieve meaning. It has been affirmed that an utterance gains its meaning not only from applying grammatical and lexical rules to construct it, but from the particular context and time in which it is employed and the particular function the speaker attached to it (Firth & Wagner, 1997). Thus, what is considered appropriate in one situation can be perceived as inappropriate in another. It is noteworthy that language is its changeability - as people are constantly developing new things to talk about, signs are added, modified, rejected and replaced. Accordingly, knowledge of this diversity and variability of language, and the contexts in which language is utilized appears to be indispensable since it allows individuals to encode and decode not only linguistic meanings, but also social meanings and speakers'/ authors' identities (Liddicoat et al., 2003).

A broader view of language recognizes its social character, claiming language allows the creation of various communities, and concurrently is realized only in such communities. This is one of the reasons why language can serve as a "guide to social reality" or to culture in the broad sense of the word, the way of life, thinking and feeling typical of a given community included (Sapir, 1985). Language allows to refer not only to the so-called objective world, but it harbors a series of cultural connotations that only members of the same community understand well (Krasner, 1999;

Kramsch, 1998; Norton, 2013). For example, people across cultures address other individuals, express their gratitude, make requests, agree or disagree with others or apologize in a different, culturally-bound way. Similarly, the accent the interlocutor uses reveals his/ her group membership, i.e., his/ her origin in terms of geographical location and social class. Interestingly, language impacts significantly on our thinking habits, although this connection between how we speak and how we think is impossible to test empirically.

Needless to say, focus in EFL education should go beyond the linguistic code alone, i.e., new forms and rules of the language (grammar and vocabulary) and include fostering students' understanding how language is employed in communication to create, exchange and interpret meaning, i.e., the conventions assigned to meanings. Furthermore, since language is an open system which comes from continuing dynamic adaptation to a specific present and ever-changing context, students should become familiar with the rules of variability and appropriateness associated with tapping this complex system for communication with other users of the system (Larsen-Freeman, Liddicoat & Scarino, 2013). If teaching an additional language aims to develop in the learner competencies adequate to communicate in English successfully in an increasingly globalized world, in curricula language should be perceived as social practice, where what is regarded as normative is contingent upon the assumptions about social roles and relationships activated within different situational contexts (Holliday, 2019).

Only such an enlarged view of language as “open, dynamic, energetic, constantly evolving and personal” (Shohamy, 2007, p. 5) will encompass the full complexity of communication with an entire spectrum of affordances language provides.

Albeit language education by definition focuses on language, experts have long deemed students of an additional language need to come to grasp the target culture and its inhabitants’ beliefs and values in order to behave appropriately and communicate successfully with them (Wei, 2005; Liddicoat & Scarino, 2013). Liddicoat et al. (2003, p. 45) defined culture as a complex system incorporating “concepts, attitudes, values, beliefs, conventions, behaviors, practices, rituals, and lifestyles of the people who make up a cultural group, as well as the artifacts they produce and the institutions they create”. As can be seen from this definition, culture comprises both tangible elements (a specific set of artifacts, patterns of social organization), but also a more abstract shared knowledge of members of a social group (the worldviews, value orientations, norms of behavior, customs or preferred styles of thinking and arguing). This paradigm of culture is reflected in a long tradition of teaching at school the high culture, especially literature since it is assumed that culture primarily resides in art, music and literary texts (so called big “C” culture) (Peterson, 2004). However, this essentialist, monolithic view of culture reduces it to recognizable manifestations of national attributes, overtly expressed in common labels and stereotypes, described as “banal nationalism” (Billig, 1995), which, as Matsuo (2012, p. 4) put it, “does not encompass new connections, new patterns of life which

have emerged in the era of rapidly advancing globalization”. Likewise, such operationalization ignores internal diversity of culture which stems from the existence of various social and age groups within it, presenting cultures inevitably as coherent, homogeneous, static, fixed phenomena and finished products (Holliday, 2010; Liddicoat & Scarino, 2013).

An alternative framing of culture at the level of nations and national languages can be seen in area studies where students learn about the history, geography and institutions of the target language country. In this approach learners are supposed to be equipped with a body of knowledge about the country and people, their lives and customs, which is considered to provide the background for understanding language and society. This paradigm equates contact with another culture with mere observation, hence the learner remains external to the country he/ she is exposed to (Liddicoat & Scarino, 2013).

Another conceptualization presents cultures as societal norms, describing them in terms of the practices and values which typify them. Cultures are grouped into “direct” or “indirect” and “high-context” or “low-context” hinging on the favored ways of speaking or organizing texts. EFL students are expected to learn about what representatives of a particular cultural group do in order to comprehend their beliefs and values hidden in certain ways of acting (the little “c” culture). From such perspective the study of culture, conceived as static and homogeneous, includes analyzing a wide range of common topics, such as viewpoints, preferences or tastes, gestures, body language,

use of space, clothing styles, popular music and food (Peterson, 2004). This often leads to stereotyping the target culture, especially in the contexts where learners have limited access to interact with members of this culture (Liddicoat & Scarino, 2013).

Another operationalization of the concept presents cultures as sets of practices, i.e., the lived experience of individuals (Geertz, 1973). Such a wider approach sees cultures as context-bound and negotiable entities, and recognizes that a complex nature of cultures lies in their variability. As Swidler (1986, p. 273) put it, cultures seen as practices are kits of “symbols, stories, rituals, and world-views, which people may use in varying configurations to solve different kinds of problems”. In this understanding cultures are dialogic, thus, boundless, dynamic and created in interactions through the ways individuals employ language. Cultures are resources that individuals tap to construct a particular line of action which is then modified in response to changed circumstances in interaction. Practices themselves do not exist as fixed sets of information and values, but are deployed in dialogue, i.e., emerge from participation in groups of others (are co-constructed). Accordingly, culture in EFL class should be thought of as a blueprint for action from which individuals select a set of conventions valid in their society in order to act appropriately in different social contexts within the same cultural tradition, allowing for a personal, unique expression, i.e., the presentation of self (Jayasuriya, 1990). This idea of selective cultural behavior recognizes that individuals using the language are to a certain extent limited by their native cultural framework, but concomitantly create

their unique, personal expression by making meaningful choices. This means that cultural identities are unstable, fluid and not coherent in terms of national or other affiliations (Liddicoat & Scarino, 2013; Hoff, 2020). Hence, interactions have the potential to reshape the culture (Paige et al., 1999).

In the recent literature, the relationship between language and culture has been recognized and the two entities are described as intertwined, reciprocal, interwoven, inseparable or inextricably connected, though this interrelationship differs in the scope of overtness (Liddicoat et al, 2003). In short, it has been affirmed that language without culture is inconceivable, since language affects and reflects culture and vice-versa, each provides support for the development of the other. Consequently, it has become clear that in order to master a language, an individual has to become familiar with a new world he/ she has entered since life experience can only be expressed and interpreted through language. Understanding and interpretation are not ready-made and available, but are constructed in and through language, always in dialogue (Fantini, 1995; Gadamer, 2004; Mitchell & Myles, 2004). However, such an assumption may lead language teachers to falsely believe that whenever they teach language, they automatically teach culture, hence intercultural competence emerges as a byproduct (Byram & Wagner, 2018).

This renders it prominent to accentuate that to implement teaching languages for intercultural communication a conscious decision is needed to incorporate into language curricula within their aims and objectives, not merely

work on students' language competence, i.e., the linguistic aspects of language, but also the development of their knowledge and understanding of the culture in which the language they are learning is embedded. However, a language curriculum should indicate that culture is complex and individuals' relationships with culture are intricate, presenting culture as a process in which learners engage rather than a fixed body of knowledge to be learned. A solid approach to teaching culture in language education should treat culture holistically, integrating a range of different understandings discussed earlier in this chapter since they are not mutually exclusive.

Risager (2007) proposed a more nuanced understanding of the language-culture nexus. She argues that in times of increased use of English as the lingua franca language and culture are constantly disconnected and reconnected as they spread across different cultural and discourse contexts. Accordingly, a traditional dichotomy "we" - "they" is not valid anymore, and forms and meanings assume new representations which are "neither attributable to any one culture nor are they culturally neutral" (Phipps & Guilherme, 2005). This implies that learners "own imported connotations and linguistic practices do not need to be modified to those of "native speaker" in quite the same way as in the past" (Byram & Wagner, 2018, pp. 143-144), rendering cultural references fluid. Hence, binary oppositions like native/ non-native or exclusion/ inclusion should be overcome (Derivry-Plard, 2013).

Canagarajah (2006, p. 589), in turn, delineates that "contemporary changes in English's demography compel us to



think of English as a plural language that embodies multiple norms and standards”. Non-native users of English frequently challenge rigid native speaker norms in interactions with other speakers of English as L2, thereby their linguistic forms are far from the model, which they adapt flexibly hinging on the context (Seidlhofer, 2011). Advocates of an intercultural orientation challenge native-speakerism as a goal EFL learners should strive to accomplish, arguing that what they need is language which allows for understanding the native language norms to be able to interpret messages adequately. For production, however, it will suffice if students deploy linguistic forms flexibly, not necessarily complying with a strict code, provided that what they are saying is comprehensible to native speakers (Baker, 2011).

In an intercultural framing, it is imperative that culture is viewed broadly and learning focuses directly on the lived experiences of people. Teaching culture is associated with disseminating its symbolic systems and practices in a range of contexts, transcending presenting it as monolithic, limited to unvarying factual information and cultural norms to be learned (Brooks, 1975). Kramsch (2012) proposes the development of a symbolic competence as an integral aspect of intercultural teaching and learning. The author is of the view that learners need the ability “to interpret what is meant by what is said, to understand how people use symbolic systems to construct new meanings, and to imagine how the other languages they know might influence the way they think, speak and write. Similarly, learners should be aware of how individuals intentionally or unwittingly reproduce a particular viewpoint or an

attitude by means of words, and how language can be used as a vehicle to exclude individuals from or include in various communities (Hoff, 2020).

If language education wants to help learners understand and participate in diverse cultures, culture needs to be presented and tackled as an inherently variable framework “in which people live their lives, communicate and interpret shared meanings, and select possible actions to achieve goals” (Liddicoat & Scarino, 2013, p. 22). It is crucial to make students aware that individual members of a particular culture execute the culture differently, conforming fully or to a lesser extent to the cultural norms that operate in their society. Hence, interactions have the potential to reshape the culture, rendering it evolving and difficult to be summarized for teaching (Paige et al., 1999).

Intercultural language learning and teaching emphasizes that language does not function independently from the context in which it is used, focusing on mediating cultures (Kramsch, 1993). This new approach does not intend to deprive language of its primacy in language education, but seeks to ensure that language is integrated with culture at the level of conceptualizing language learning in language curricula. This implies it needs to be recognized that language is not an end in itself, but always a means to an end, i.e., it is used to communicate something, but at the same time is affected by the context in which it is employed (Byram, 1988). Similarly, language use is shaped by participants who share understandings of the meanings created from a set of cultural practices they have access to.

Heath (1986) argues that successful communication is possible because of a shared understanding of context, regardless of how well interlocutors know each other. Accordingly, in a process of developing intercultural understanding learners need to be able to decenter from their own culture where they are always “at home” and “negotiate meanings with others on equal terms departing from their own positionalities” (Porto, Houghton & Byram, 2018, p. 488). This can happen solely by exposing students to another way of viewing the world and developing in them flexibility and independence from a single linguistic and conceptual system through which the world is seen (Byram, 1989; Kramersch, 1993). This means that language learning should involve fostering an intercultural competence and understanding, focusing on constant mediation between language and culture, and the identities that they frame (Liddicoat & Scarino, 2013).

## INTERCULTURAL (COMMUNICATIVE) COMPETENCE

Communicating across cultures is inherently challenging, but it is widely claimed that some people are less uncertain and more effective when faced with culturally dissimilar others (Molinsky, 2013). To be able to engage in intercultural interactions we need competence that would enable us to “think and act critically, and to negotiate the complexities of today’s world” (Byram & Wagner, 2018, p. 141). Albeit there is nearly a widespread concurrence that intercultural competence should be featured in foreign language curricula, it is less clear what this construct

entails due to the plethora of definitions and conceptualizations available (Schauer, 2021). Intercultural competence (IC) is broadly associated with a set of capabilities an individual needs in order to perform appropriately and effectively when communicating with people from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds (Chen & Starosta, 1999; Deardorf, 2006; Fantini, 2009). The use of the adverb “appropriately” in the definition indicates the authors have adapted a reductionist approach to communication, acknowledging that in order to function appropriately in disparate contexts an individual needs to act according to the essentialized standards (norms) of one particular group (others).

Scholars have recognized that IC is multidimensional and involves a combination of three pillars: cognition, behavior and affect, which will buffer the negative effects of encounters with cultural differences. Those three constituents, conceived as intertwined and complementary, construct an integrative framework and should not be isolated in teaching (Ng, Van Dyne & Ang, 2012; Risager, 2007)<sup>1</sup>. Huber and Reynolds (2014, p. 16) argue that a combination of knowledge, understanding, appropriate attitudes and skills will help learners “understand and respect people who are perceived to have different cultural affiliations from oneself; respond appropriately, effectively and

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1 In an extensive literature in a field of intercultural competence one will find an abundance of constructs and models which employ different nomenclature for parallel concepts, but pertain to the same core questions and challenges (Fang, Schei & Selart, 2018). This proves a complex and contested nature of ICC.

respectfully when interacting and communicating with such people; establish positive and constructive relationships with such people; and understand oneself and one's own multiple cultural affiliations through encounters with cultural *difference*".

The cognitive dimension (knowledge, both declarative and procedural) encompasses culture specific knowledge and understanding of cultural practices of both an individual and his/ her state, and culturally diverse others and communities. The behavioral domain (intercultural adroitness) is accountable for successful execution of this knowledge, i.e., appropriate and effective verbal and nonverbal actions. It comprises skills, such as active listening, observing, critical thinking and deferred assessment, allowing individuals to search for implicit messages and values transmitted by cultures, often invisible. The affective (motivational) facet pertains to attitudes - inner drive to learn about and experience cultural diversity, and prompts learners to confront their own biases and prejudices which impede communication with culturally diverse others, and put effort to accept that people from culturally unfamiliar backgrounds behave differently. In Ang's view, the affective perspective is proximal in facilitating an individual's growth in the cognitive and behavioral domains because it triggers attention, strenuous effort to think/ learn about other cultures and control needed while navigating culturally unfamiliar environments (Ang et al, 2007).

A major constraint of the aforementioned model of IC is a lack of explicit reference to language considered

somewhat generically as part of communication. Their authors viewed language as a distinct individual capability, which translated into the invisibility of language in their models. This, in turn, blurred the language-culture nexus and misrecognized a pivotal place of language in any form of communication, rendering it difficult to pinpoint what exactly should be taught in L2 classrooms.

Linguistic issues have been covered in a well-known, influential and widely accepted intercultural communicative competence (ICC) model proposed by Byram (1997). The author distinguished between IC viewed as knowledge, abilities and skills needed for intercultural interactions in individuals' L1 and ICC which he defined as "the ability to interact with people from another country and culture in a foreign language" (Byram, *ibid.*, p. 71). Drawing on Hymes' (1972) model of communicative competence, Byram included in his ICC framework three components: a linguistic, sociolinguistic and discourse competence, all linguistic in nature, and combined them with five intercultural objectives (*savoirs*) which include: 1) knowledge of the self and the other, and how to interpret meaning; 2) positive attitudes, i. e., curiosity and openness, willingness to decenter and reconstruct one' subjective reality according to new norms, and tolerate uncertainty; 3) critical cultural awareness (critical reflection) - an ability to evaluate critically perspectives, practices and products in one's own culture as well as in other cultures; 4) skills of discovery and interaction, and 5) skills of interpreting and relating (Byram, 1997, 2021). Interestingly, in Byram's operationalization of the concept, the intercultural is still separated out from language components, and this

marginalization “obscures the points at which the ability to understand and use language itself necessitates awareness of how culture shapes meaning (McConachy & Liddicoat, 2022, p. 4).

In Byram’s conceptualization, gaining ICC was considered a lifelong process, taking place in the FL classroom and through fieldwork (sojourns abroad). The scholar (1997, 2021) purported that language learners should be perceived as “intercultural speakers” who possess capabilities to interact appropriately and meaningfully in intercultural contexts by seeking recourse in different linguistic, cultural and psychological resources. The concept of the intercultural speaker was associated with a role of a consensus-oriented and supportive intermediary who is furnished with the ability to interact successfully with monolingual and monocultural native speakers of the target language, and his/ her ultimate aim was, as Byram viewed it, to negotiate on equal terms agreement and mutual understanding between interlocutors. In doing so, the intercultural speaker was expected to be able to engage with and reflect on “the ways in which linguistic and cultural diversity is played out in interaction” (Liddicoat & Scarino, 2013, p. 59, seeing problems from multiple perspectives rather than assuming any optimal solution. Scholars warned that albeit such a reflective attitude and critical analysis afford insight to see how others perceive the world and us, it can concurrently be deeply disconcerting since it may often uncover potential unpleasant truths about an individual himself/ herself instantiated by his/ her own biases. However, Byram remarked that such attempts were of utmost prominence since they lay

a sound foundation for authentic, meaningful and potentially transformative learning in the EFL classroom, affecting learners at a profound and personal level and leading to their personal growth and enrichment (Hoff, 2020).

It is noteworthy that the aforementioned models of ICC did not pertain to relational (emotional) aspects of communication and the processes, such as introspection, self-reflection and interpretation individuals go through in developing their ICC, ignoring that communication always implies establishing relationships. Similarly, researchers did not pay attention to how individual agency impacts on the success of intercultural encounters. To address this gap, Spitzberg and Changnon (2009) introduced the notion of “relationality”, i.e., how people manage intercultural interactions and focused in their definition of ICC on management of such interaction. The authors found that monitoring and managing emotions require empathy, sensitivity to the feelings of others and facework, i.e., strategies employed to enact self-face and to uphold, support or challenge another person’s face.

In critiques of Byram’s framework scholars illuminated that successful communication cannot be guaranteed despite the intercultural speakers’ doing his/ her best, i.e., avoiding potential conflict by not entirely being true and making attempts to adjust his/ her own behavior and attitudes in order to satisfy the interlocutor. Furthermore, Byram’s adversaries conceded that his model does not take into account social inequity (racism and discrimination). In their views, ICC cannot be equated with a set of principles like democracy and human rights conceived



as a “universal standard for resolving misunderstanding or conflicts” (Matsuo, 2016, p. 8) - in our pluralistic and highly fragmented societies it seems unrealistic to achieve absolute harmony where everyone can agree with shared values of his/ her interlocutor. Adapting an intercultural position does not mean an individual has to assimilate to the world of his/ her interlocutor. Accordingly, it should be recognized that conflict, diversity and disagreement, as intricately linked with intercultural encounters, can be valuable and facilitate meaningful intercultural engagements in the classroom, contributing to a higher level of honesty and involvement between participants (Hoff, 2020). Tolerance for ambiguity (or even ambivalence), i.e., acknowledgement that any situation or issue can be interpreted in multiple ways, from various perspectives and appreciation for difference need to become a hallmark of an intercultural approach where the ability to negotiate and mediate agency and power is a vital skill students need to develop (Canagarajah, 2013). This does not mean that the classroom should be equated with a “free-for-all” platform and that all viewpoints can be uncritically accepted.

Scholars have recently postulated that the intercultural speaker’s abilities should be extended and the updated model of ICC needs to encompass other than oral communication forms of cultural expression, i.e., the ability to read not only linguistic and non-linguistic texts, but also visual, digital and multimodal since learners’ intercultural encounters are often realized through different semiotic modes. Hence Byram’s “intercultural speaker” was replaced by “the intercultural reader”/ “user” (Chen, 2012; Hoff, 2020). According to Hoff (2020, p. 64), as significant

seems to be the necessity to develop in learners “an ability to discover new connections and layers of meaning in the interface between different forms of intercultural communication” since learners often need to resort to “multiliteracies” in order to interpret different sign systems. In a similar vein, acknowledging that today cultures and languages flow transnationally and recognizing more multifaceted identities of learners, Rose and Sole (2013, p. 336) proposed that the concept of intercultural speaker be replaced by a “cosmopolitan speaker” who „seeks to create a new cultural identity for the individual who dwells in a variety of languages and cultures”.

## INTERCULTURAL EFL TEACHING – PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

An intercultural orientation in teaching EFL transcends a structuralist view of language as word and the linguistic system decontaminated of its cultural complexity, and conceives it as context-specific social practice. Learning language is equated with an intercultural encounter, i.e., communication in the target language which implies active engagement of learners in interpreting the language and culturally diverse others, and learners themselves. In such encounters where culture is intrinsic to language, students persistently and reciprocally negotiate their own meanings and understandings that originate from their linguistic and cultural biographies, manifested in stories, social conventions and etiquette. Accordingly, students become aware that language use occurs solely within a particular community with its specific language and ways

of seeing the world, which foregrounds diversity and variability of people, and that creation and interpretation of meaning is always conditioned and shaped by the linguistic and cultural background of interlocutors.

Intercultural understanding can be achieved only if interlocutors possess an ability to analyze issues and language use from diverse perspectives and respect that (linguistic) behaviors, beliefs and values in different linguistic and cultural communities differ (McConachy & Liddicoat, 2022). Such understanding requires making sense of each other's contribution - a "fusion of horizons", i.e., the horizons manifested in the initial presuppositions of one person and the horizon of the other or text (Gadamer, 2004). In doing so learners realize that in the process of learning an additional language they are both "interpreters and creators of meaning" (Liddicoat & Scarino, 2013, p. 45) who are constantly moving between the two (or more) languages and cultures with their diverse worlds. In this sense learning language per se is always intercultural, allowing infinite affordances for this movement.

A high intake of international students or multiethnicity of student population in educational settings provide the added value to teaching interculturality, allowing for utilizing national diversity in class (Grosch, Boonen & Hoefnagels, 2023). However, research has confirmed that intercultural gains may also be realized in a homogenous class through different means, i.e., utilizing appropriate teaching materials and/ or applying tailor-made pedagogical interventions (Bijsmans, et al., 2022; Zhang & Zhou, 2019). Drawing on the assumption that the development

of intercultural competence demands that students are empowered to make their own decisions about how they want to interact (Ishihara, 2019), Liddicoat, Papademetre, Scarino and Kohler (2003) identified five core tenets, firmly grounded in the framework of constructivist pedagogy, on which language teaching should be founded. Those principles encompass: active construction, making connections, social interaction, reflection and responsibility.

Active construction premises that knowledge is formed within a sociocultural context of language use and requires applying in experiential and involving methods. Accordingly, FL class should be a place where learners through real-world activities such as role-plays, computer simulation games, case studies or virtual multicultural research projects assigned to them actively get engaged in knowledge-building, interacting with others (or texts and technologies) in variable contexts. A range of tasks help triangulate three overarching facets of ICC, i.e., knowledge, skills and attitudes. In such safe environments, students try out behaviors in order to understand old behaviors, and test how other people respond to what they are doing/ have done (Bücker & Korzilius, 2015).

Students are confronted with problems to solve, and every language experience is considered to be culturally embedded and potentially open to interpretation. Accordingly, students approach images of culture critically, i.e., are encouraged to consider why a given issue of culture is presented in a particular way or what alternative presentations would be possible. Concurrently, students are given time for noticing, recognizing, analyzing, formulating

questions, discovering, discussing and experimenting “lived experiences of language and culture” (Liddicoat & Scarino, 2013, p. 60). They are prompted to support the presented judgment with reason and evidence, make sound inferences and analogies, and/or find and analyze connections between the images presented in the classroom and students’ own perceptions and experiences. Such pedagogy is believed to afford opportunities to reconstruct (translate) the logic of the speaker they are listening to or the writer of the text they are reading into the logic of their own thinking and experience (Sobkowiak, 2016).

The principle of making connections between new input and experiences with students’ existing knowledge recognizes that language and culture are not experienced in isolation, and in a process of learning students draw on previous knowledge, build relevant links across texts and contexts, compare languages and cultures, discover similarities and differences between L1 and L2, C1 and C2 (made evident through language), challenging and rethinking their initial conceptions and current assumptions. Teachers provide an incentive for learners to predict, observe, describe, interpret, integrate and inquire. Doing this, students activate critical thinking skills, such as formulating hypotheses, questioning evidence and investigating, comparing and contrasting, conjecturing alternatives, exploring viewpoints, validating assumptions and drawing conclusions, developing greater complexity of thinking. In addition to that, students are enticed to defer judgment and withhold their subjective assessment since only careful observation, followed by comprehensive description (analysis) and avoiding speculations or

value judgments leads to new insights, allowing for appropriate interpretation of the situation. Furthermore, learners develop empathy for reciprocal understanding of disparate values and beliefs.

Social interaction is a principle that gives salience to active use of the target language, acknowledging that learning and communication are fundamentally social and interactive. Accordingly, performing tasks which facilitate students' active and constructive engagements with diversity, learners draw on examples from different contexts and explore more than one culture, conceptual system or sets of values. Interactions afford ample opportunities for moving between languages and cultures, and noticing and comparing languages and cultures - learners come across variable perspectives held by diverse participants as well as reference them back to their own language and culture framings.

In social interaction students create, interpret and negotiate understandings - "new ways of behaving and coming to function within alternative frameworks for conceptualizing social reality and managing social relationships" (McConachy & Liddicoat, 2022, p. 7). This includes accommodating or distancing from understandings presented by others, and agreeing and disagreeing with the understandings of others. Learners negotiate their positioning as users of a new language and establish a sense of legitimacy in their own eyes and the eyes of others (Liddicoat & Scarino, 2013). Importantly, in making decisions about future behavior, learners exercise agency over their own language production, for example whether they will conform to/ approximate or resist native speakers' norms.

Reflection (conscious awareness), considered a pivotal element in developing interculturality, engages thought processes, such as introspection and interpreting, focusing on analyzing experience from numerous, different angles. Teachers need to accord great pertinence to creating in the classroom space for students to activate a metacognitive dimension, i.e., self-regulatory mechanisms that will allow them to monitor and correct the interpretation offered, examine and correct the inference made or review and reformulate earlier explanation of intercultural diversity and responses, as well as transcend cultural bias and ethnocentrism (students' own attitudes, beliefs, values, behaviors). In the act of reflection (both in-action and post-action) the language learner will also think how to enlarge the field of inquiry and test ideas and understandings.

Reflection is both affective and cognitive - intercultural encounters mediate individuals' thinking and feeling about diversity either positively or negatively, and this impact has to be taken into consideration when one attempts to understand his/ her response to a particular intercultural experience. Reflection is cognitive when the attitudes, values and assumptions an individual brings to interaction are analyzed - if they are in disagreement with learners' understanding of the world, students will mitigate engagements with diverse others. To counteract such natural reactions and learn how to handle unfamiliar situations, students need to access the attitudes and presuppositions of their interlocutors in order to be able to investigate and interpret them thoroughly, as well as their own thoughts and emotions evoked by such encounters. Insightful reflection

requires that an individual decenter, step outside his/ her existing linguistic and cultural framing with ethnocentric perspectives, and look beyond his/ her taken-for-granted and unquestioned, culturally-bound assumptions about particular issues and worldviews. Only then is he/ she likely to act in non-judgmental ways and be able to see things from a new perspective, i.e., identify them and recognize the effects thereof and accept multiple possible interpretations, leading to rereading previous experience, discovering new connections and relationships (Byram & Wagner, 2018; Liddicoat & Scarino, 2013).

Responsibility recognizes that learning hinges upon learners' positive attitudes, dispositions and values toward learning and intercultural development. It is premised that it is an individual learner who should strive continuously to better understand himself/ herself and culturally diverse others in the ongoing development of intercultural sensitivity and understanding (Liddicoat & Scarino, 2013, p. 59). This commitment requires personal engagement of each learner with the issue currently discussed/ analyzed/ encountered in class, i.e., active "being in diversity" rather than approaching difference passively, and acting in the capacity of the casual observer. This necessitates a willingness to interact with people from diverse languages and cultures, and the capability to analyze, explain and elaborate on classroom experiences across cultural boundaries in dialogue with self and others (Liddicoat & Scarino, 2013). In short, such pedagogy includes fostering in learners' awareness that there exist multiple perspectives, reflective stance and the habit of self-monitoring. In addition to that, the learner needs to accept that



intercultural learning involves establishing a constructive partnership across cultural differences, leading to the ongoing transformation of his/ her self.

Since a learning process engages the learner with, as Liddicoat and Scarino (*ibid.*, p. 49) put it, “language and culture as elements of meaning-making system that are mutually influencing and influenced”, it implies a transformation of the learner, his/ her existing values, practices, attitudes, beliefs, worldview and identity.

These five principles integrating language, culture and learning seem to be fundamental to enact an intercultural pedagogy in classroom practice. The tenets promote a more complex and enriched perception of language teaching which recognizes the existence of variable points of view to be mediated and accepted. Similarly, it helps students reflect critically on their own perspectives and identity as well as dynamic processes of cross-cultural interactions in which they get engaged (Byram & Wagner, 2018; Liddicoat, Papademetre, Scarino and Kohler, 2003).

## DISCUSSION AND CONCLUDING REMARKS

An important goal of this chapter was to clarify that language is a tool for organizing an individual’s experience and preserving its results, and it is primarily a social, cultural and historical phenomenon (Gadamer & Risser, 1979). Intercultural competence, pivotal for cross-cultural communication, was presented not as an automatically emerging byproduct of language teaching, but as a capability which can be fostered solely by implementing specially designed

pedagogical procedures. It was argued that learning an additional language needs to expand beyond linguistic codes replacement, i.e., recalling grammatical rules and reproducing language according to its rules, rendering creating meaning crucial and viewing learners as meaning-makers. Recognizing the language-culture nexus and that linguistic forms have particular communicative effects in different languages and cultures, an intercultural approach focuses on developing in students an understanding of the interrelationships of language and culture, and providing attentive and reflective learners with affordances to move across cultures, engage with diversity and experiment with integrating and investigating language and culture more explicitly and deliberately in the classroom.

Teaching EFL within an intercultural perspective requires “an understanding of culture as facts, artifacts, information and social practices, as well as an understanding of culture as the lens through which people mutually interpret and communicate meaning” (Liddicoat & Scarino, 2013, p. 46). Students who learn by doing and engaging in diversity, explore new lands and concomitantly develop knowledge, skills and attitudes requisite in order to interact with people of other cultural backgrounds. With this in mind, teachers and material writers need to remember never to trivialize what is communicated and communicable in the classroom. Furthermore, the development of ICC necessitates to activate thought processes in class, such as introspection and self-reflection, and persistently apply critical thinking, an indispensable capability to perform effectively and appropriately in culturally diverse environments (Bennett, 2013; Holmes & O’Neill, 2012).

While this chapter by no means has presented an exhaustive overview of the recent theoretical research contributions to the field of intercultural language education, it has provided insight into some pivotal issues, drawing attention to how IC development can be operationalized within the frame of an intercultural, action-oriented approach to teaching EFL. It has been argued that the implementation of the five principles of active construction, making connections, social interaction, reflection and responsibility allows for activating in class processes which are conducive to sustained, inquiry-based work. If the results of classroom action are to be an effective ICC acquisition, teaching has to focus from the start on infusing language and culture, and adding a sense of richness and depth to student learning by providing them with conceptually challenging tasks which will help them foster tolerance toward diversity. However, further work is needed in order to help students better navigate the complexities of intercultural communication.

The models of IC discussed in the third section seem to be culture-general constructs, not bound to any specific culture. Accordingly, future research should focus on developing culture-specific frameworks, incorporating details about specific cultural contexts, which would help learners perform effectively and efficiently in specific cultural domains. Furthermore, it still remains elusive and seems valuable to disentangle where IC is located, how it develops (linearly or cyclically, recursively, i.e., whether there exists a learning curve or not), how many stages people experience acquiring it and how it changes (how durable the effects of consistent focus on the interculturality in

education are). It is still unclear whether the components which make up ICC, i.e., knowledge, attitudes and skills develop separately or are interdependent, and, if they are intertwined, which facets should be developed first for others to improve (Fang, Schei & Selart, 2018).

In addition to that, future research into the complexity of emotions in ICC development needs to be addressed so that scholarship could advance. Another noteworthy issue is the difference between IC and social competence, which IC is part of. Since social intelligence develops in interaction, it is necessary to justify why there is still a need for specific intercultural competences. Also, relevant to investigate seem to be potential negative effects (the dark side) of IC, which enables individuals with developed IC to capitalize on it in contacts with others. Concomitantly, practitioners should work on novel pedagogical interventions which could help teachers infuse culture into EFL programs and better implement the principles of intercultural teaching canvassed in the current chapter.

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# PANLINGUAL PEDAGOGY AT PRIMARY SCHOOL LEVEL

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## INTRODUCTION

The demands on the teaching profession have changed significantly in recent decades, not least due to a great increase in linguistic diversity. Teacher education needs to respond to these challenges by equipping student teachers with appropriate concepts to meet these challenges in everyday school life. Dealing with linguistic (and cultural) diversity requires specific content knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge<sup>1</sup>, and general pedagogical knowledge in order to best promote plurilingual education for all students at school (Shulman, 1986; Gogolin, 2005). Within the framework of the new concept of the language subject curriculum for teacher education at primary school level, the Pädagogische Hochschule Vorarlberg (University College of Teacher Education, Vorarlberg) is planning a stronger interlocking of the linguistic contents of the subject areas English

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1 Pedagogical content knowledge refers to a specific blend of subject content and pedagogy that is unique to the teaching profession (Shulman, 1987).

and German. The goal is to develop competencies in future teachers that will enable them to teach English (the first foreign language taught in Austrian schools) together with German (the language of instruction or educational language) in a cross-curricular manner (CLIL), thereby incorporating the entire linguistic repertoire of young learners.

In the following, measures of the Austrian education policy and, in connection with this, the state of research on teacher education in the context of multilingualism are briefly outlined in order to legitimize a new conceptualization of the curriculum for the language subjects English and German. After describing the genesis and a first draft of the curriculum, aspects of the expected impact of the new curriculum on teacher education and thus on practice are discussed.

## INITIAL SITUATION IN AUSTRIA

Steady economic growth since the mid-1950s led to labor migration, mainly from the former Yugoslavia and Turkey (Naphegyi, 2022). For example, in 1971, 93 337 Yugoslav citizens were registered in Austria, which had a population of approximately 7.5 million at the time (Österreichischer Integrationsfonds, 2015). In many cases, what was originally intended as a temporary stay for work turned into a permanent change of residence. This demographic development led to an increase in linguistic heterogeneity in classrooms, especially in the industrially developed metropolitan areas. Other migratory movements, caused in part by the armed conflicts in the Balkans in the early 1990s, added to the linguistic diversity of Austrian classrooms. The Austrian

school system as a whole was very slow to respond to these developments, and the responsibility for dealing with the growing challenges of multilingual classrooms often rested solely on the shoulders of individual teachers. Although a few schools offered German as an additional language, as well as heritage languages, these were primarily aimed at enabling learners to understand enough subject matter and develop enough language skills in their heritage language to be able to continue schooling in their country of origin after their (intended) return. It was not until the 1992/93 school year that the two subjects of German as an additional language and heritage languages were included in the curricula of primary and lower secondary schools (Naphegyi, 2022). For a long time, however, teacher education curricula contained only marginal content on dealing with plurilingual learners (Schrammel-Leber et al., 2019). Although there have been repeated efforts by the scientific community to embed this content.

Finally, at the turn of the millennium, special support measures for dealing with multilingualism at school were developed and, since 2014, the framework model “Basic Competencies in Language Education for All Teachers” (ÖSZ, 2014) has been available to all Austrian curriculum developers in higher education. The framework model is part of the “Basic Principles and Materials for the Design of Teacher Education Curricula” (Braunsteiner, Schnider & Zahalka, 2014) and is intended to contribute to supporting student teachers in developing competencies in dealing with multilingualism at school. In terms of content, the model is based on the “Curriculum Multilingualism” (Reich & Krumm, 2013) and aims “*in addition to imparting*

*knowledge and skills [...] above all to reflect on (and, if necessary, change) attitudes that should support teachers in their teaching work in heterogeneous classes often characterized by social, cultural and linguistic diversity”* (ÖSZ, 2014). In doing so, the framework model addresses the three basic dimensions “individual and multilingualism”, “school and multilingualism” as well as “society and multilingualism” and provides specific knowledge related to the mentioned dimensions. It consists of five main themes:

- Theme 1: Language biographical work - one’s own linguistic diversity
- Theme 2: Language learning experience - language acquisition
- Theme 3: Language(s) and identity(ies) in the context of cultural diversity
- Theme 4: Languages in the school institution: diagnosis and support
- Theme 5: Languages in the school institution: general conditions

The framework model was piloted as part of a teacher education course and subsequently evaluated at the University of Vienna in 2013. The results of the evaluation showed that the student teachers were overall very satisfied with the contents of the course and felt more confident in dealing with the plurilingualism of their future students (Vetter, 2014). However, the study does not make any statements about the effectiveness of the framework model on professional competence, and it can be assumed that separate courses dealing with diversity-sensitive topics can change attitudes and self-efficacy beliefs, but that the learning

content, which is separate from the subject-specific pedagogical content knowledge, has little direct influence on methodological competence. For example, a study in Norway showed that primary school teachers who participated in diversity-sensitive workshops positively changed their attitudes toward multilingualism and toward diversity-sensitive teaching approaches. Yet, videos of teaching sequences in classes with high linguistic diversity showed that multilingual teaching strategies were still not being used and the monolingual habitus was being maintained throughout the lessons (Lorenz, Krulatz, Torgersen, 2021). Another model, the model of the “5 Building Blocks of Comprehensive Language Education” (Allgäuer-Hackl et al. 2018), also aims at a conscious approach to multilingualism and comprehensive and sustainable language support. It was commissioned by the provincial government of Vorarlberg and conceptualized by an interdisciplinary team over a period of several years. The model was developed by accompanying and training teachers on the topics of language education and language support, more precisely, German language support. The goal of the model is to create a cross-institutional, common frame of reference for comprehensive language education from primary to lower secondary level in the province of Vorarlberg. In her study conducted in Vorarlberg, Naphegyi (2022, p. 23) was able to show *“that an awareness of the value of multilingualism has arrived among the actors at different levels of the system,”* but that the challenge will still be to *“integrate this awareness into ways of acting for the self-evident inclusion of multilingualism in everyday teaching”*.

These results are comparable to the findings of the studies by Vetter (2014) and Lorenz, Krulatz, and Torgersen (2021).

Like the workshop used in the latter study, the framework model and the model of the 5 building blocks aim to raise awareness of the challenges, but also the opportunities, that can arise from linguistic diversity in the classroom. In all studies, specific learning opportunities in the context of multilingualism have been shown to positively change student teachers' attitudes towards multilingualism and self-efficacy beliefs. However, the question remains whether these changes have an impact on classroom activities. To answer this question, Bellet (2022) linked the above-mentioned content on multilingualism to concrete teaching methods, integrated them into a course and tested the effectiveness of the course. In her intervention study, she modified the framework model "Basic Competencies in Language Education for All Teachers" (ÖSZ, 2014) with a focus on early English language teaching and the promotion of transcultural communicative competence. Also, the topics of language awareness and language learning awareness were added to address the role of English as a bridge language and for creating a community of language learners. The aim is to develop foreign language teaching from a separate, monolingually oriented to a panlingual teaching concept (including all languages) and to anchor it accordingly in language education.

The intervention was delivered as a weekly course (8 units) which is part of the module "Introduction to Multilingualism with English" of the English Primary Education Department.<sup>2</sup> The module links early English language teaching

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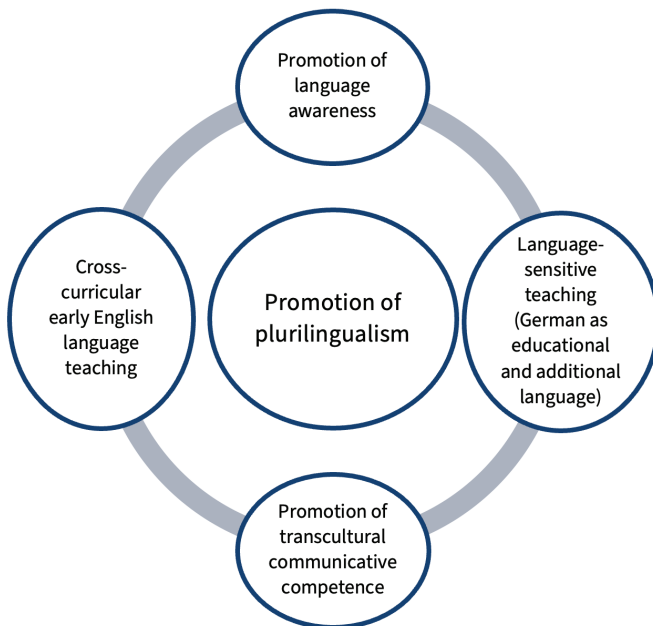
2 In Austria, English language instruction begins in first grade (children from the age of 6) and is required to be taught for one hour per week, in addition to being integrated as a working language in all subjects (Austrian National Curriculum, 2023).



with multilingualism and introduces student teachers to the model “Panlingual Pedagogy for Primary Education” (Figure 1). Panlingual pedagogy – more specifically, panlingual pedagogical content knowledge – combines the different pedagogies of first language and additional languages as well as interdisciplinary fields such as transcultural pedagogy and concepts for the promotion of language awareness (Hufeisen & Lutjeharms, 2005; Le Pape Racine, 2007; Approaches to Multilingualism in Schools in Europe, 2015).

### Figure 1

Panlingual Pedagogy for Primary Education, Bellet (2022)



The intervention was evaluated three times using a text vignette test. The text vignettes describe critical classroom situations related to children's plurilingualism. The first test, at the beginning of the second semester, assessed the student teachers' prior knowledge of multilingualism and panlingual pedagogy; the second test was administered three months later, immediately after the intervention; and the third test two years later, in the sixth semester, to provide information on the sustainability of the knowledge acquired. Here is an example of one of the six text vignettes used in the test:

*Vignette:* Imagine you are a teacher in an Austrian primary school. In your first-grade class, you have a girl who is a refugee from Syria. After four weeks, she still doesn't speak a word. Her parents report that at home she hears and speaks normally. At school she sits uninvolved and does not seem to get anything out of the lessons. Only in English lessons does she seem interested.

*Question:* How do you proceed (action/argument)? How do you justify your action?

While most of the student teachers did not know what to do before the intervention, after the intervention the majority reported that they would link German and English lessons across subjects and use more English overall to create a community of language learners. This would help the student from Syria feel more comfortable and participate better in class.

Overall, the results of the study showed that student teachers develop pedagogical content knowledge in dealing with linguistic diversity through the concept of panlingual

pedagogy and that the acquired knowledge is sustainable. Thus, the introduction of the concept of panlingual pedagogy into teacher education is seen as filling a gap in the provision of qualifications for diversity-sensitive language teaching. Based on the findings of the study, it is believed that student teachers can be better qualified to deal with classes with high levels of linguistic diversity by combining knowledge of their students' plurilingualism with knowledge of language learning and teaching, and specifically with practical panlingual teaching methodology in their studies. Therefore, a new curriculum for the language subjects English and German (including linguistic resources in learners' heritage languages) that interlinks subject-specific content knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge as well as cross-subject and cross-language components has been developed and is presented below.

## NEW CURRICULUM CONCEPT FOR THE LANGUAGE SUBJECTS GERMAN AND ENGLISH

In 2015, a new bachelor's and master's program for school teachers was launched in Austria. Since then, university colleges for teacher education have been responsible for the content of the curricula for the education of primary school teachers. They are largely authorized to determine the content of the curricula autonomously in accordance with the legal framework. The curricula are given legal force by the decisions of the internal university college committees and the approval of the rectorates. Primary school teachers in Austria are trained in all subjects and

teach all subjects as classroom teachers. The bachelor's program for primary school teachers in Austria lasts eight semesters. After that, students can already be taken on in the school service and complete the master's program in one year full-time or in two years part-time. However, beginning in the fifth semester, student teachers choose a specialization worth 60 ECTS credits. Two of these focus areas take advantage of synergies, in that one of the modules in the focus area "German and Multilingualism" (teaching German as an educational and additional language in the context of multilingualism, including aspects of teaching heritage languages) is also taught as part of the focus area "Global Education" (promoting critical awareness of global challenges and advocating for greater justice and equity). One module in the focus area "Global Education" addresses teaching English as a foreign and additional language, with the goal of using English as a bridge language to negotiate global issues. For content-related and organizational reasons, the two focus areas have been merged into one and will be offered under the name "Panlingual Education" starting in the 2023/24 academic year.

Figure 2 shows the focus area with 9 modules, each with 2 courses. In the first and second row, there are modules for German as an educational language and German as an additional language, with the last one in the second row including heritage languages (from left to right); in the third row, there are two modules for English as an additional language, with the last one including multidisciplinary language learning and teaching (from left to right).

For a better understanding of the teaching methods and learning opportunities in the focus areas, a best

practice example of a project carried out in a course of the former focus area “Multilingualism and German” is presented: *“Project Work in the Context of Migration and Multilingualism”*.

First some background information: In Vorarlberg, numerous heritage languages have been taught for more than 50 years under the title “Mother Tongue Instruction”. The lessons, which were originally conceived as an aid to repatriation and initially organized as a school experiment, go back to the era of the labor migration movement from the 1970s onward, as mentioned above. In the meantime, lessons in the heritage languages of plurilingual young learners are offered in an additive form in 13 languages at 129 school locations in Vorarlberg and are held by 33 teachers, mostly in the afternoon when there are no regular classes (figures for the school year 2022/23 on request from the Department of Education Vorarlberg). The lack of integration of heritage language instruction into the mainstream classroom has been noted for years (Schroeder, 2003), and heritage language teachers have also criticized the marginal nature of this kind of language learning (Woerfel et al. 2020). Educational equity requires that educational institutions value and incorporate what learners bring to the table in terms of languages they have already learned, language learning experiences and language exposure (Krumm, 2022). In order to meet this demand, student teachers need to be made aware of the formats, design and content of heritage language teaching, as well as possible future collaborative opportunities (Allgäuer-Hackl & Naphegyi, 2022).

**Figure 2****Focus area Panlingual Education**

German as an Additional Language	Children´s Literature and Family Literacy	Language, Sound, Art and Script
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Literacy: German as an additional Language</li> <li>• Additive and integrative support concepts</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Children´s literature and intermediality</li> <li>• Family literacy</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Songs and rhymes for language development</li> <li>• Drama in early education: scripts, puppets and the stage</li> </ul>
Language Perception and Production	Literacy Monitoring and Support	Multilingualism
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Phonological awareness</li> <li>• Language use</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Dealing with dyslexia</li> <li>• Assessment and diagnosis</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Introduction to a language of migration</li> <li>• Multilingualism at school</li> </ul>
Bridge Language English	Early Language Teaching	Language Across the Curriculum
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Classroom language: English as working language</li> <li>• Multilingual (music) theatre</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Language and culture in a project approach</li> <li>• Bilingual course design</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Coherence in language learning, cognitive concepts</li> <li>• Language-aware subject teaching in maths, social and natural sciences</li> </ul>

These considerations were the guiding principles for a collaborative project between the Department of Education and the Pädagogische Hochschule Vorarlberg. A seminar group of 27 student teachers were asked to develop a project idea that would allow them to gain insight into the teaching

of heritage languages. They had to contact a teacher of a heritage language of their choice. They decided on Albanian, Arabic, Armenian, Italian, Polish, Serbian and Croatian, Spanish and Turkish. The projects included jointly planned, implemented and reflected teaching units, observations according to an observation sheet and interviews with the teachers and the children. The participating heritage teachers and student teachers were interviewed after the project. The heritage teachers were asked about their experiences with the student teachers in a focus group interview with the result, that the project was very well received and found to be enriching. Teachers were particularly pleased with the interest in their teaching and the new pedagogical concepts that the student teachers shared with them. From the qualitatively analyzed feedback of the student teachers, it is clear that through this project they were able to recognize the importance of heritage language teaching and, above all, to see practical networking opportunities in the classroom. For the student teachers who grew up plurilingual, the experiences during the project provided additional opportunities to reflect on their own linguistic behavior, as can be seen in the following two statements.

“Having grown up with the Polish language, it was a very interesting experience for me to attend a Polish language class. I had never had the opportunity to attend such a class before, so I was very excited about this particular assignment. When we attended the class, I was totally happy that I understood everything that the teacher and the children said. It was such a moment of pride that I too could understand and speak another language. I was also surprised that Polish was spoken

all the time. I was also fascinated by how well individual children could speak and read - I couldn't do that at that age, not even now". (Student teacher, 5th semester / heritage language Polish)

"It was a challenge for me to plan and teach a Turkish class. In the beginning, it was hard for me to stand in front of a class and speak only Turkish, even though Turkish is my first language. Because I got used to teaching in German". (Student teacher, 5th semester/ heritage language Turkish)

Based on these positive results, this or similar projects will remain an integral part of the new focus area "Panlingual Education". In the course of linking the two focus areas, "Global Education" and "German and Multilingualism", it became clear that the two pedagogies of English and German complement each other very well and should not only serve as a learning opportunity for some of the students who have chosen the new focus area, but should also become part of the general curriculum. As a next step, the authors (professors of the English and German departments) worked together in a workshop with Britta Hufeisen, an expert in multilingual education (Hufeisen, 2018), to develop a joint curriculum, which is presented here.

## PANLINGUAL CURRICULUM

The starting point for the design of a panlingual curriculum in the context of the bachelor's program was the question "What competences should future teachers acquire with regard to language teaching?" It quickly became clear that the competences to be acquired could be divided into three



main areas: content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge of the school languages English and German and, more importantly, specific knowledge of teaching methods across languages and subjects. In order to comprehensively cover these identified areas of competence, the existing modules in the subject areas of English and German were redesigned during the workshop. The content of the modules was thus developed to enable students to apply panlingual teaching methods in school practice, based on a solid knowledge of each language and of language learning in general, taking into account heritage languages.

The following premises guided the redesign of the curriculum in terms of a panlingual orientation:

Organizational framework:

- A total of 30 ECTS credits are available for the two language subjects. (20 ECTS credits German, 10 ECTS credits English)
- Three courses per module

Content considerations:

- Compressing content from both subjects that previously overlapped (e.g., theories of language acquisition) in order to offer the content only once in the sense of a panlingual education.
- Establishing a lecture series to make the panlingual orientation (language-aware subject teaching) visible in the other subjects.
- Identifying subject-specific and pedagogical content knowledge, as well as cross-language and cross-curriculum components within the courses.

- Matching the existing and the redesigned courses to each competency (Table 1).
- Designing new modules of 5 ECTS credits and mapping the courses from both the German and English faculties in the panlingual curriculum (Figure 2).

After reviewing and adapting existing courses, new courses were designed and mapped according to the competencies (Table 1). It should be noted that it was not possible to clearly assign the individual courses to the respective competencies, since to some extent subject-specific content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge are taught in the same courses.

Based on the above-mentioned premises, organizational framework and content, the draft for the “Panlingual Curriculum” as shown on Figure 3 (6 modules, 3 courses each) has been developed:

In order to ensure coherence in the content of primary teacher education, it is planned to promote the focus area “Panlingual Education” (Fig. 2) as a continuation of the “Panlingual Curriculum” (Fig. 3). The focus area takes up, expands and deepens the curriculum’s content.

**Table 1**

*Competences and corresponding courses*

<b>Subject-specific content knowledge: English</b>
English language competence for student teachers I: listening and speaking
English language competence for student teachers II: reading and writing

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### **Subject-specific content knowledge: German**

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Grammar and spelling for student teachers

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Basics of literary studies and its methodology

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### **Cross-subject content knowledge**

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Basics of language acquisition theory

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Language development and language support

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Language-aware subject teaching (lecture series covering all subjects)

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Multidisciplinary language education

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### **Pedagogical content knowledge: English**

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TEYSOL (Teaching English to Young Speakers of Other Languages) I: Skills development

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TEYSOL II: Transition primary to secondary education

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Pedagogical content knowledge: German

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Grammar and spelling methodology

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Literacy: Listening

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Literacy: Reading

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Literacy: Speaking - working with picture books

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Literacy: Writing

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### **Cross-language pedagogical content knowledge**

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Cross-curricular language teaching (CLIL)

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Translanguaging: Bridge language English

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Language Learning assessment

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**Figure 3****Panlingual Curriculum**

Linguistics and Language Acquisition Theory	Language in Subject and Subject for Language	Language of Instruction German
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Basics of language acquisition theory</li> <li>• Language development and Language support</li> <li>• English language competence for student teachers I - listening and speaking</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Language-aware subject teaching (lecture series covering all subjects)</li> <li>• Cross-curricular language teaching (CLIL)</li> <li>• Multidisciplinary language education</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Grammar and spelling for student teachers</li> <li>• Grammar and spelling methodology</li> <li>• Basics of literary studies and its methodology</li> </ul>
Communication and Discourse	Communication and Text	Language Awareness
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Literacy: Listening</li> <li>• Literacy: Speaking</li> <li>• TEYSOL (Teaching English to Young Speakers of Other Languages) I: Skills development</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Literacy: Writing</li> <li>• English language competence for student teachers II: reading and writing</li> <li>• TEYSOL II: Transition primary to secondary education</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Literacy: Reading</li> <li>• Language learning assessment</li> <li>• Translanguaging: Bridge language English</li> </ul>

## CONCLUSION AND OUTLOOK

As has been shown in the new focus area and curriculum conception for German and English, the content of the German and English language courses is planned and timed together in order to facilitate synergies. In this way, on the one hand, an awareness of the function of English as a bridge language or as a common learning language for all students is developed. On the other hand, the necessity of teaching German as an additional language in all subjects with all its implications for language teaching methodology is recognized. The interweaving of subject-specific content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge, and especially the concrete methodological implementation of the content in learning activities, provides student teachers with patterns for planning, implementing and reflecting on panlingual teaching practice. Elements of self-awareness and perspective taking that are developed in the courses play a key role in this. Both in the “Panlingual Curriculum” and in the focus area “Panlingual Education”, student teachers are exposed to action-oriented teaching formats and learn tools for implementing panlingual pedagogy in everyday teaching.

As an outlook, selected modules of both the curriculum and the focus area will be evaluated by the authors through design-based research (methodological approach and organization) and at the same time students will be surveyed through questionnaires on the acceptance of the curriculum and focus area content. The results of the study will indicate whether content or organizational changes are necessary and whether the

panlingual curriculum should be implemented in teacher education in Vorarlberg.

Where, if not in the training of future teachers, can the course be set for language-aware subject teaching in German and English that focuses on the whole linguistic repertoire of the learner?

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# ENGLISH AS A LINGUA FRANCA: AN INVESTIGATION ON THE PERCEPTIONS OF TEENAGER TURKISH LEARNERS OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE

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## INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the results from a study that investigated Turkish high school IB students' perceptions of English as a Lingua Franca, specifically focusing on phonology and lexicogrammar. Considering that little has been explored about teenagers' perceptions of ELF in Turkish context, this study addressed the void through investigating teenagers' perceptions. The study surveyed a total of 82 Turkish learners of English as a foreign language in Türkiye. The results revealed that although students in both groups were aware that they could not speak English as native speakers did, they still preferred to achieve a native speaker accent. They admitted that they spoke with Turkish accents, but they believed that their accents were intelligible and acceptable. Nevertheless, the students in both groups tended to not maintain their accents in English. Furthermore, the participants deemed some ELF language incorrect, while they were hesitant about others. Yet, they understand and recognize the ELF statements.

The generated results of this study may have various implications for ELF researchers and English language teachers in different educational contexts.

The proliferation of English language across the globe has given rise to unprecedented challenges to orthodox English language teaching and learning, specifically in countries where English is treated as a foreign language. As a consequence of globalization, English is widely used as a lingua franca worldwide among people from diverse cultural backgrounds. Its effects on English learning and teaching result in a shift from monolingual paradigm assuming native speaker (hereinafter NS) form as normative to a multilingual model prioritizing communicative competence in a multicultural context (Baker, 2018). English as a lingua franca (hereinafter ELF), which is employed as a contact language between people from various first language backgrounds including native English speakers (Jenkins, 2014), has become a burgeoning field in applied linguistics and attracted concerted research efforts over the last few decades (Seidlhofer, 2011; Mauranen, 2012). Empirical research on ELF perceptions fall into two major categories: (1) teacher perceptions and (2) student perceptions. Concerning the local context (Turkey) a raft of studies scrutinized the spread of English (Doğançay-Aktuna, 2010), the issue of monolithicity of English (Alptekin, 2010), the status of ELF in Turkey (Bayyurt, 2008) and the perceptions of English as an International language (hereinafter EIL) pronunciation (Coskun, 2011). Nonetheless, only a few studies were carried out to examine English as a foreign language (hereinafter EFL) teachers' perceptions of ELF (Bayyurt, 2008; Coskun, 2011; İnceçay and Akyel,

2014; Bayyurt, Kurt, Öztekin, Guerra, Cavelheiro, Pereira, 2019; Öz, 2019 ).

In an attempt to contribute to the scope of perceptions of ELF, the current study examines the perceptions of ELF among high school students sharing the same mother tongue and learning English not as an end but as a means to be able to communicate on global topics and undertake English medium courses. This study investigates their perceptions of ELF, particularly its phonological and lexico-grammar features.

## LITERATURE REVIEW

Lingua franca is simply defined as a common language or medium of communication between people of different mother tongues (Phillipson, 2008). ELF is, however, not as simply defined since it is a subtle phenomenon that concerns innumerable non-native speakers (hereinafter NNS) of English who come from a diversity of linguistic and cultural backgrounds. The most circulating definitions can be listed (1) English as a contact language (Jenkins, 2009), (2) not only chosen medium of communication among people with dissimilar L1 backgrounds but also the sole option to communicate (Seidlhofer, 2011), (3) a vehicular language between people whose first languages are different (Maurenan, 2018). Given all these definitions, it boils down to a point that English is used among people with various linguistic and cultural backgrounds, which leads us to significant implications of ELF in a variety of multilingual and multicultural contexts as the language

of negotiation and problem solving (Baker, 2018). In other words, ELF does not point to a single, blended variety of English but principally implies a language in contexts where plurilingual people are involved in meaning making (Cogo, 2010).

From the sociolinguistic perspective, ELF is not dependent on the norms entrenched by NSs (Seidlhofer, 2004). Since ELF interactions usually take place in a variety of socio-cultural contexts (e.g. A Japanese and a Russian business person's talk), the standards of ELF are anticipated to come out from the language between NNSs (Baker, 2018). Even in the case of communication between an NS and an NNS, NNSs are not likely to set the norms (Jenkins, 2015), as relatively recently proposed by Jenkins (2017) who claimed the emergence of many kinds of Englishes to be used in translingual and transcultural communication in not so distant future. This raised arguments about the norms during interaction, as what appears to be cherished in ELF communication is the speakers' ability to harness the flexibility of English for efficiency, rather than their capability to accommodate to NS patterns (Seidlhofer, 2011; Baker, 2018). This study has espoused the updated definition deeming ELF as a vehicular language for negotiation of meaning among people with distinct backgrounds rather than the language used for the sake of conforming to NS norms, thus not considering NS form as the yardstick during interaction.

Empirical research on ELF perceptions has predominantly explored teacher perceptions, student perceptions, and teacher and student perceptions together. Since the current study enquires into student perceptions, the findings

of alike studies are reviewed prioritizing teacher and students' perceptions and then student perceptions. To exemplify, Ranta (2010) looked into the perceptions of non-native English teachers' and students' awareness about the global role of English in the upper secondary schools in Finland as measured by questionnaires, and she found that both groups in Finland were conscious about the role of ELF, despite having conflicting results in the school managers and test makers who upheld standard norms. He and Zhang (2010) also investigated the perceptions of tertiary level students and teachers, and they found that NS norms were the prevalent variety in China, in spite of favorable comments about well-codified China English features. Wang (2013) similarly examined the attitudes towards English as a native language (hereinafter ENL) among university lecturers and students in China via questionnaires and interviews. The questionnaire yielded an inconsiderably positive tendency towards non-conformity to Standard English forms, which was motivated by the belief of ENL as the core of English, while the findings of the interview revealed a balance between compliance and noncompliance with ENL norms as was motivated by the reason of effective communication and reflecting cultural identity. These results convey an awareness of ELF despite the emphasis of NS competence. In a different study, Wang (2015) researched the dispositions of Chinese tertiary level students and teachers towards China English, again using questionnaire and interviews. The results suggested that both groups reported their hesitation to accept China English as a teaching model, whereas most of them had no issues comprehending ELF.

A large body of research studied ELF perceptions by students only. Subtirelu (2013) surveyed and interviewed Chinese and Saudi students in an intensive language program in the USA, and he found that students' orientation was not stable, for although in the first place they favored NS forms, but upon their long sojourn in the USA, their preference altered in favor of alternative varieties and forms. Galloway (2013) investigated the perceptions of 52 Japanese tertiary students about Global Englishes through pre- and post- questionnaires and interviews. The participants revealed positive stance towards NS norms, which was stimulated by such factors as future plans, familiarity with NS form and stereotypical beliefs. Similar studies abound in Chinese university context among students, namely Xu, Wang, and Case (2010), Zheng (2013), Zhang and Du (2018), whose findings showed disposition to favoring and looking up to NS norms; on the other hand Sung (2014) found ambivalent attitudes as marked by the findings indicating that almost half of the participants opted for local accent, and held the belief that they would express their linguistic and cultural identity and sound more natural, whilst the other half deemed the local accent flawed and inferior. Similar aspiration to be able to speak like NS was found among Taiwanese (Ke and Cahyani, 2014) and Argentinian (Friedrich, 2003) students of English learners. Nonetheless, slightly converse results began to emerge in similar contexts. For instance, fairly recently Lim and Hwang (2019) investigated 276 Korean university students' perceptions of ELF and its grammatical features. A slightly positive standpoint was harbored toward most of the example ELF statements although a stronger preference for

native varieties was also found in the data analysis. Similarly, Sung (2018) found ambivalent attitudes towards ELF as evidenced by positive orientation to ELF among university students in Hong Kong. In the global context Jenkins (2014) conducted an open-ended survey with the participation of 166 students from 24 countries across the globe. The results, along with the interviewing 34 students, still demonstrated an established preference for NS varieties due to such reasons as future plans, educational opportunities and others.

ELF is not less scrutinized in Turkish context as an expanding circle country. The majority of the conducted studies investigated teacher education and ELF (Inal and Özdemir, 2015; Bayyurt and Sifakis, 2015; Sifakis and Bayyurt, 2015; Kemaloglu and Bayyurt, 2016; Kacar and Bayyurt, 2018), and teacher awareness (Bayyurt, 2008; Coskun, 2011; İnceçay and Akyel, 2014; Deniz, Ozkan and Bayyurt, 2016; Bayyurt et al., 2019). However, in the Turkish context learners' awareness and perceptions is underexplored. The mere study, to the knowledge of the researchers, exploring learners' perception belongs to Griffiths and Soruc (2019), who collected data from 325 Turkish university students and 100 international students in Auckland, New Zealand, which resulted in equivocal perceptions of ELF manifesting both an ambition to reach native-like competence and substantial tolerance of ELF. The difference between the two contexts is not significant, yet surprisingly students in Auckland were found to be considerably more tolerant of EFL than the counterparts in Türkiye. Since little has been explored about learner perceptions of ELF and due to the lack of studies targeting teenagers,

this study aims to address the lack through the following formulated research questions.

1. What are Turkish high school students' perceptions of ELF phonology?
2. What are Turkish high school students' perceptions of ELF lexicogrammar?

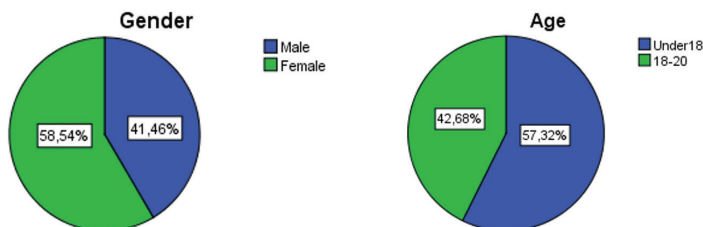
## METHODOLOGY

### Setting and Participants

At the onset of the study, it was intended to reach out to a great number of students for the purpose of which five high schools were able to be contacted and sent the consent letter (Appendix A), yet only two of them confirmed the administration of the survey via online means. A total of eighty-two 9th, 10th, 11th and 12th grade students were sent the survey link along with instructions and 82 students completed the survey (Figure 1).

**Figure 1**

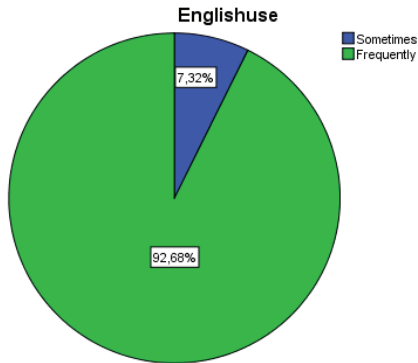
*Demographic information*





## Figure 2

### *The use of English*



Since the participating schools based in Istanbul, Turkey, were accredited IB schools, students undertake English medium instruction (hereinafter EMI) to the extent of 50% of their curriculum including math, biology, physics, chemistry, business and management and literature. Therefore, the status of English is not a customarily delineated as EFL instruction, but English as a means to learn about math, science and social sciences, which potentially make the participants English-conscious individuals, thus impacting the validity of the survey (Figure 2).

As can evidently be inferred from Figure 2, the role of English in the participants' life is pivotal, which can be attributed to IB curriculum in which students are engaged in English in every aspect of the curriculum, such as instruction, assignment, and assessment of the aforementioned courses.

## The Instrument

An online survey adapted from Ren, Chen and Lin (2016) in accordance with Turkish context was administered. In the survey, there are eight items designed to examine the respondents' evaluation or expectation of (1) NS competence (statements 1 and 2), (2) accented intelligibility or acceptability (statements 3 through 5), and (3) identity in relation to a local accent (statements 6 to 8). Each item is responded on a 5-point Likert-type scale, from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

As regards ELF lexicogrammar, the participants were be asked to rate ten sentences, each having one deviation from Standard English, in terms of correctness, intelligibility, and acceptability on a 5-point scale. The sentences consisted of common deviations in ELF corpora or non-standard English (Seidlhofer, 2004).

## Data Analysis

The study aimed to explore teenagers' perceptions of ELF phonological and lexicogrammar features, to which end a 5-point Likert-type scale consisting of three sections (1) demographic information (2) phonology and (3) lexicogrammar was administered. Responses of the participants were processed through SPSS Version 22 in order to make a descriptive analysis by extracting the frequencies of the responses and making required interpretations.

## FINDINGS

In this section, the findings about the students' perceptions of ELF phonology are presented, followed by those of ELF lexicogrammar.

### Perceptions of ELF phonology

The second part of the questionnaire comprised eight items aiming to unravel insights into the participants' perceptions of their English language speaking ability as compared with that of NS through statements evaluating their accents and expectations with regard to perpetuating their current accents.

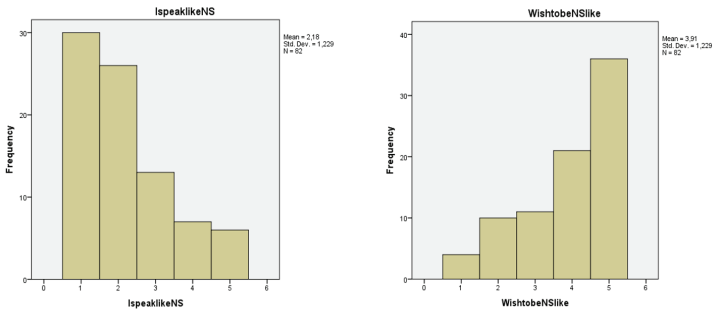
- Native speaker competence

The part two initially enquired the students' perception of their ability and expectation of speaking like NSs (Figure 3).

As demonstrated in Figure 3, the overwhelming majority of the participants reported that they were nowhere close to NS ability, as evidenced by the low mean score ( $M=2.18$ ), whilst the vast majority aspires to reach native competence as indicated by relatively high mean score ( $M=3.91$ ). Further enquiry into their evaluation of their accents and expectation to look up to native accent competence was measured in the remaining statements.

### Figure 3

#### *Native speaker competence*

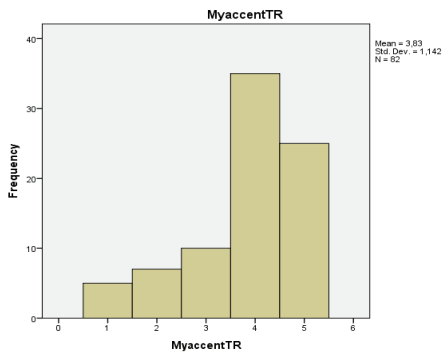


- Accent evaluation

The third statement aimed to enquire students' perceptions of their own accent (Figure 4).

### Figure 4

#### *Evaluation of accent*

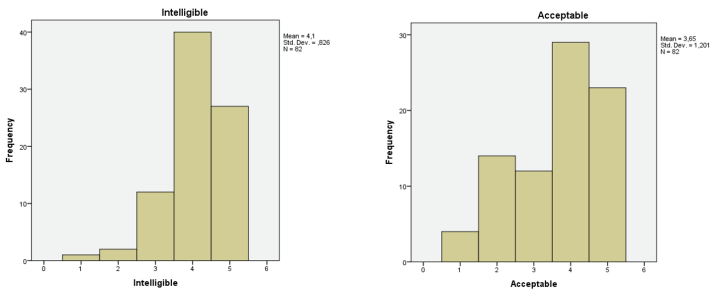


The analysis of the responses revealed that they deem their own accents as Turkish accent as substantiated by

the mean rate ( $M=3.83$ ). This result corresponds with the findings of the former statements, where participants reported that they could not speak like NSs. The evaluation of accent was further examined through self-evaluation of the intelligibility and acceptability of the participants' accents (Figure 5).

**Figure 5**

*Accent intelligibility and acceptability*



As vividly illustrated in the Figure 5, the bulk of the participants agreed to the intelligibility ( $M=4.1$ ) and acceptability ( $M=3.65$ ) of their ELF accents.

- Accent expectations

The current paper also sought insight into the participants' expectations with regard to their ELF accents. Specifically, the final three statements evaluated their wish to retain ELF accents due to the local identity, as long as it is intelligible and acceptable (Figure 6).

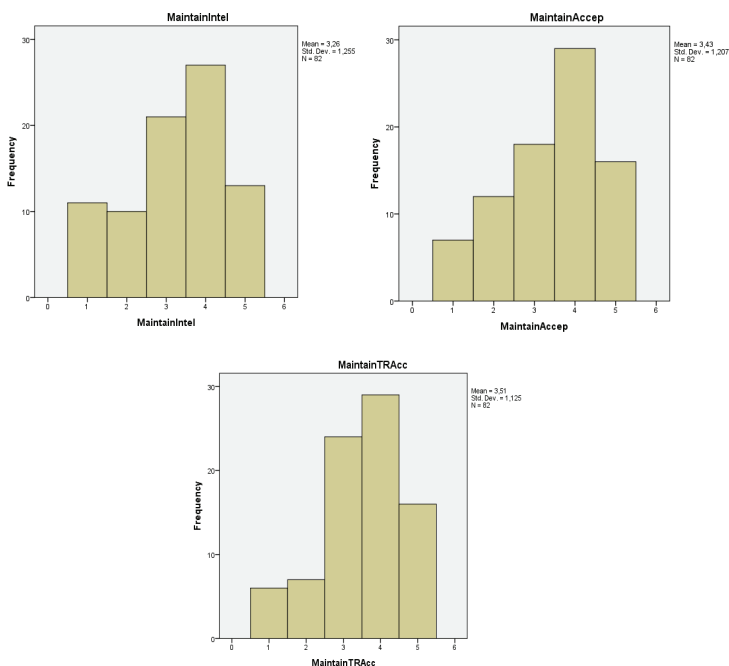
**Figure 6***Expectations about accent*

Figure 6 evidently displays that the participants do not harbor firm beliefs about the expected accents as understood by the surge in neutral responses. In other words, some participants reported ambivalent feelings, unlike their irrevocable stance towards the evaluation of their accent, about maintaining the local accents as long as it is intelligible (25.6%), acceptable (22%) and because of their local identity (29.3%) although around half of the respondents agreed to retain ELF accent as long as it is intelligible (50%), acceptable (55%) and because they are Turkish (55%).

## Perceptions of ELF lexicogrammar

The third part of the questionnaire investigated perceptions of the ten most common lexicogrammatical features of ELF concerning their correctness, intelligibility, and acceptability (Table 1).

As illustrated in Table 1, the most conspicuous result is the score of intelligibility and correctness. While the majority of the respondents found the statements intelligible ( $M=38.6$ ), they did not similarly find them correct ( $M= 29.6$ ). In the following sections findings are presented based on each aspect of the ELF statements.

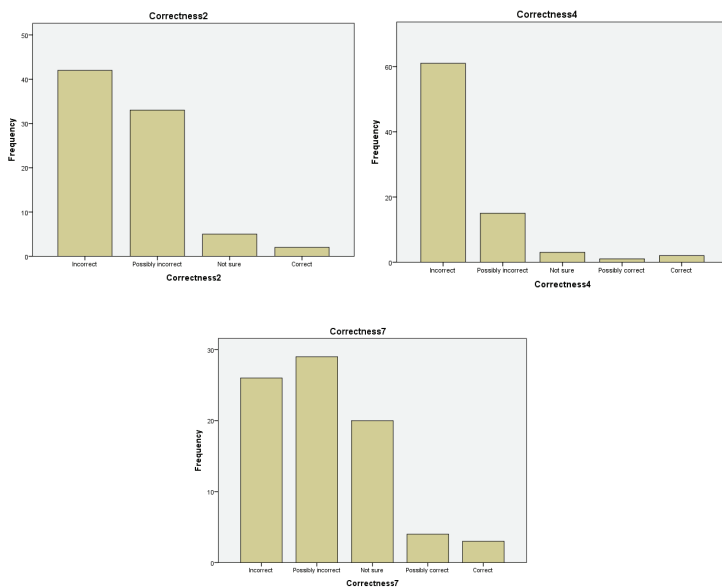
**Table 1**

*Mean scores of ELF evaluation*

	N	Mean
Total Correctness	82	29,6220
Total Intelligibility	82	38,6707
Total Acceptability	82	31,5610

- Correctness

Correctness is the least approved aspect of ELF statements as understood by the lowest mean score ( $M=29.6$ ). However, item-by-item analysis indicated highly varied perceptions of correctness, in other words some items were reported as correct by the majority, whereas some were mostly denied as correct (Figure 7 and Figure 8).

**Figure 7.***Incorrect items*

As observed in Figure 7, statements (2) “*Last week I go to my friends’ house. It’s fun*”, (4) “*Could you borrow me your English textbook?*” and (7) “*Although fast food is not healthy, but it is my favorite*” were overwhelmingly judged as incorrect. In a similar vein, some statements were regarded correct by the majority (Figure 8).

As demonstrated in Figure 8, statement (8) *My doctor told me to eat medicine twice a day*. (10) *Black color is my favorite color* were deemed correct by the vast majority of the participants. Concerning the other statements, participants reported ambivalent evaluations rather than holding strong beliefs.



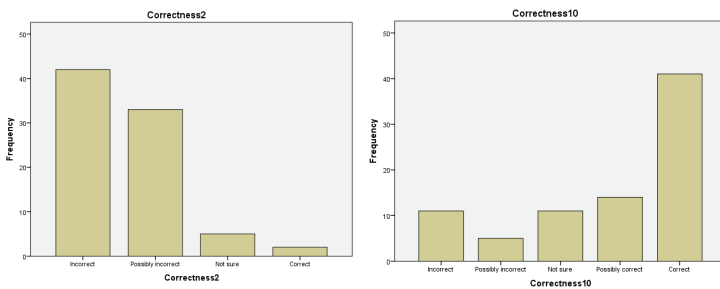
- Intelligibility

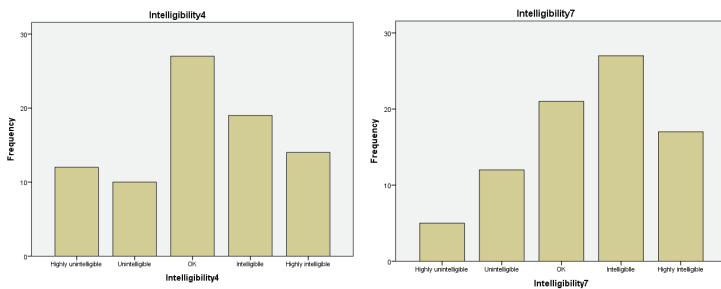
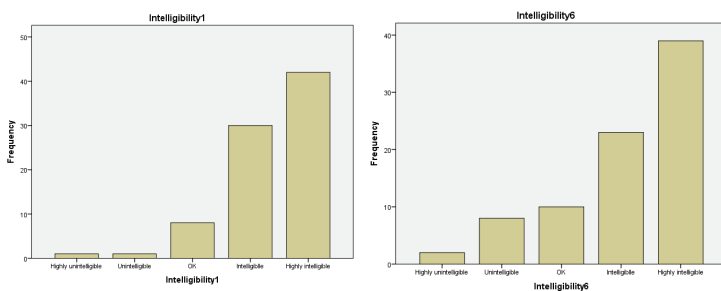
Intelligibility is the most approved aspect of ELF as substantiated by the highest mean score ( $M=38.6$ ). However, item-by-item analysis showed somewhat varied perceptions of intelligibility, albeit mostly found intelligible (Figure 9 and Figure 10).

Figure 9 displays statements that were found relatively unintelligible as compared with the other statements. Specifically, item (4) *Could you borrow me your English textbook?*, (7) *Although fast food is not healthy, but it is my favorite* were regarded unintelligible by some of the participants (26.8% - 20.7%). These items, as stated in the previous section, were also the mostly reported incorrect statements. In the same vein, some items were overwhelmingly reported intelligible (Figure 10).

## Figure 8

### *Correct items*



**Figure 9***Unintelligible items***Figure 10***Intelligible items*

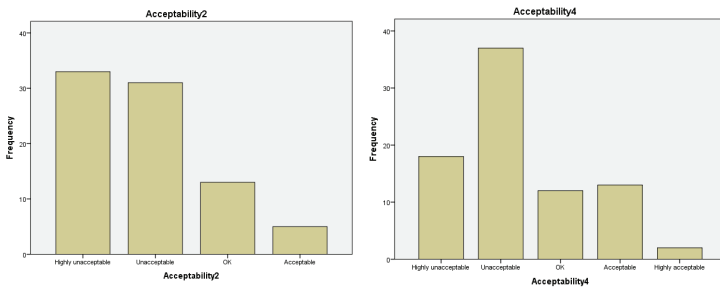
As indicated in Figure 10, the item (1) *In my free time, I very like to play computer games*, (6) *You will graduate next year, isn't it?* were regarded intelligible by the majority (87.8% - 75.6) although these statements were not noticeably reported as correct (43% - 59%).

- Acceptability

The respondents were asked to evaluate each item in terms of acceptability besides correctness and intelligibility. It is seemingly in accordance with correctness as understood by the mean score ( $M=31.5$ ) Nonetheless, item-wise analysis might as well pose discrepancies, which is displayed in Figure 11 and Figure 12.

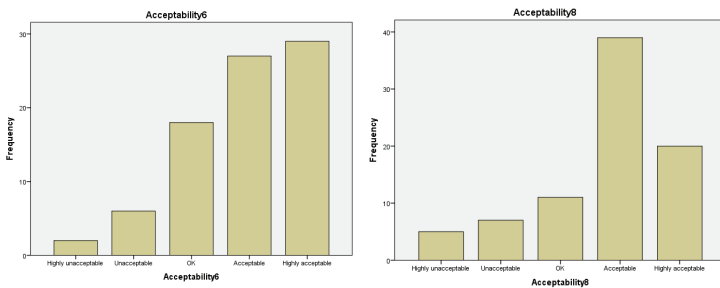
**Figure 11**

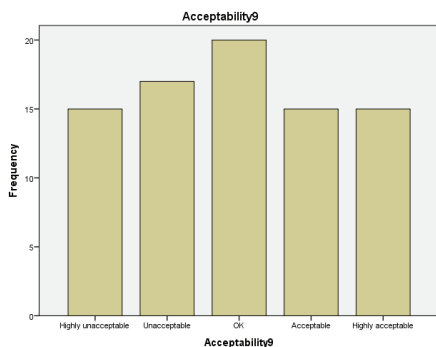
*Unacceptable items*



**Figure 12**

*Acceptable items*



**Figure 13***The equivocal item*

The respondents reported items (2) *Last week I go to my friend's house. It's fun*, (4) *Could you borrow me your English textbook?* as the unacceptable statements, which echo their judgment for the same items as the mostly reported incorrect (2 and 4) and unintelligible (4) items. On the other hand, some items were reported as acceptable by the majority of the respondents (Figure 12).

Figure 12 shows that most of the participants evaluated item (6) *You will graduate next year, isn't it?*, and (8) *My doctor told me to eat medicine twice a day* as acceptable, which coheres with the judgment of the same items as correct (8) and intelligible (6). Additionally, with regard to acceptability, item (9) *I want that we go* seems to be the most equivocal item as understood from the similar distribution of its judgment (Figure 13).

The item (9) *I want that we go* was mostly judged as “OK” and the agreement on its acceptability remains to be hazy as shown in Figure 13.

## DISCUSSION

**RQ1:** What are Turkish high school students' perceptions of ELF phonology?

In the present study it was aimed to explore teenagers' perceptions of ELF features, phonology and lexicogrammar in particular. To this end the first research question looked into the perceptions of Turkish accent and NS accent. The results revealed that Turkish teenagers reported the disparity between ELF accent and NS accent, and acknowledgement of their own ELF accent as long as they are intelligible, whereas they also reported an aspiration to speak like NSs, which corresponds with the previous research (He & Zhang, 2010; Ranta, 2010; Xu et al., 2010; Galloway, 2013; Zheng, 2013; Ke and Cahyani, 2014; Zhang and Du, 2018; Griffiths and Soruc, 2019). This particular finding manifests that a group of English-conscious students who use English highly frequently consider NS English as the core, whilst they also indicated an awareness of ELF accent as they acknowledged and reported to maintain ELF during communication. Although NS accent is esteemed, it does not necessarily mean that students isolate themselves from native culture and linguistic identities (Wang, 2013).

**RQ2:** What are Turkish high school students' perceptions of ELF lexicogrammar?

The study also investigated the evaluation of ELF lexicogrammar containing 10 statements each having one deviation from Standard English. The findings revealed that although the participants recognized the anomaly in some

ELF lexicogrammatical features, they could not notice the ELF features in the others, as understood from their ratings for correctness and acceptability. The more prominent result is that the participants predominantly rated the statements as intelligible, which suggests that they would comprehend them during a discourse. This finding shows that regardless of the difficulty level of the deviations it did not lead to unintelligibility, which resonates with Lim and Hwang (2019). These findings thus demonstrate that even though correctness and intelligibility are connected, they somehow refer to various dimensions in a discourse. In other words, a statement that is rated incorrect can still be comprehended by the same person, which also suggests a disposition towards conforming strictly to Standard English varieties which is also in line with Wang (2015), who similarly found that the vast majority of the university level participants and instructors had no difficulty understanding China English. The findings of this study hence contribute to the existing literature with EMI experiencing teenagers.

The increasing ELF interaction across the globe gave rise to the questioning of NS ownership of English (Seidlhofer, 2011). The monolithicity of English has started to receive criticism seeing the surging multiplicity of ELF interaction in the global world. It goes without doubt that when we communicate using English we also convey our identities (Baker, 2018). However, pedagogical practices have not sufficiently benefitted from the spread of ELF, thus this study, with the participation of IB students who frequently use English, wanted to unearth how students perceive ELF. The analysis yielded such results that ELF

is already privy to English-aware teenagers who, however, still believe in the supremacy of NS accents as well as the draconian boundaries with regard to the correctness of English language.

## CONCLUSION

This study explored the perceptions of ELF phonology and lexicogrammar of Turkish teenagers studying IB at varied years. Despite having reported the difference in their accents from that of NSs, they still preferred to attain NS accent. Moreover, the teenagers, who acknowledged their ELF accents, believed that it was intelligible and acceptable. Nonetheless, they are inclined to not retain their ELF accents, even if their accents are reportedly intelligible to others. Furthermore, the participants regarded some ELF features incorrect although most ELF features were reported understandable.

With this study, it was attempted to contribute to the scope of ELF by unveiling the perceptions of English-conscious teenagers. For the sake of broadening the scope, future scrutiny is needed to involve ELF speakers from a diversity of backgrounds. Additionally, since this study only used quantitative data collection instrument, mixed-method studies are recommended in order to develop better and further insights into the matter.

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## APPENDIX

### A. Consent Letter

Dear Sir/Madam:

Warmest Greetings!

I would like to ask for your permission to allow me to conduct a survey among 9th, 10th, 11th and 12th grade students in your school. This is a requirement for a research study about the teenager Turkish students' perceptions of ELF. The survey lasts 5-10 minutes and can be arranged at a time convenient to the school's schedule. Participation is entirely voluntary and all information provided will be kept confidential and will be used only for academic purposes. The respondents will not put their name on the survey and the name of the school will not be mentioned anywhere including this study.

If you agree, kindly sign below your acknowledgement of consent to conduct this survey at your school.

Your approval is highly appreciated. Thank you in advance for your interest and assistance with this study.

Sincerely,

## B. SCALE

Dear participant,

Thank you for taking part in this questionnaire. It will take around 10 minutes to complete this questionnaire. The purpose of this questionnaire is to measure your perceptions of English language. There are thus no right or wrong answers. Please do not write your name on the questionnaire. Data will only be used for this study.

Thank you.

## PART-I

Demographic Information

### 1. Gender

- a. Female                      b. Male

### 2. How old are you?

- a. Under 18              b. 18-20      c. 21-25

### 3. Use of English currently:

- a. Rarely              b. Sometimes      c. Frequently

## PART-II

### Some explanations

Intelligible: able to be understood

Acceptable: able to be accepted.

Correct: does not have a mistake

About your English Speaking, to what extend do you agree or disagree with the following questions?

	1	2	3	4	5
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
1. I can speak English like a native speaker now	1	2	3	4	5
2. I expect myself to sound like a native speaker of English	1	2	3	4	5
3. I have the accent of my country when I speak English	1	2	3	4	5
4. I think my accent is intelligible to others when I speak English	1	2	3	4	5
5. I think my accent is acceptable to others when I speak English	1	2	3	4	5
6. I expect myself to maintain Turkish accent to some extent when I speak English as long as it is intelligible to others.	1	2	3	4	5

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7. I expect myself to maintain Turkish accent to some extent when I speak English as long as it is acceptable to others.	1	2	3	4	5
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8. I expect myself to maintain Turkish accent to some extent because I am a Turkish.	1	2	3	4	5
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### PART-III

About English Use: Please evaluate each sentence below in terms of level of correctness, acceptability, and intelligibility.

1. In my free time, I very like to play computer games.
2. Last week I go to my friend's house. It's fun.
3. We have to study about math tonight because there will be a test tomorrow.
4. Could you borrow me your English textbook?
5. Baseball I don't usually play because I have too much work to do.
6. You will graduate next year, isn't it?
7. Although fast food is not healthy, but it is my favorite.
8. My doctor told me to eat medicine twice a day.
9. I want that we go.
10. Black color is my favorite color.

## (1) Correctness

1	2	3	4	5
Incorrect	Possibly incorrect	Not sure	Possibly correct	Correct

## (2) Intelligibility

1	2	3	4	5
Highly unintelligible	Unintelligible	OK	Intelligible	Highly intelligible

## (3) Acceptability

1	2	3	4	5
Highly unacceptable	Unacceptable	OK	Acceptable	Highly acceptable



# LANGUAGE TEACHING, MEDIATION, TRANSLATION, INTERPRETING AND ERROR ANALYSIS

Marina Pappa

## INTRODUCTION

The question of error analysis has long been one of the key issues in language teaching. We investigate the notion of error in linguistic production, in mediation, and in interpreting in order to present the expectations in different forms, but also to state the fact that error analysis concerns all forms of communication and linguistic production.

*The Common European Framework for Language Teaching Learning and Assessment* (CEFR) describes the learners' activities and the dimension of performance in the following way:

“The language learner/user’s communicative language competence is activated in the performance of the various language activities, involving reception, production, interaction, or mediation (in particular interpreting or translating). Each of these types of activity is possible in relation to texts in oral or written form, or both. As processes, reception and production (oral and/or written) are obviously primary, since both are required for interaction.” (2001:14)

The complexity of language teaching and learning is summarized in the CEFR:

“Language use, embracing language learning, comprises the actions performed by persons who as individuals and as social agents develop a range of competences, both general and in particular communicative language competences. They draw on the competences at their disposal in various contexts under various conditions and under various constraints to engage in language activities involving language processes to produce and/or receive texts in relation to themes in specific domains, activating those strategies which seem most appropriate for carrying out the tasks to be accomplished. The monitoring of these actions by the participants leads to the reinforcement or modification of their competences. (CEFR 2001 Section 2.1)”

The activities of reception, production, interaction or mediation, in written or oral form and the various contexts indicate the multiple elements that have to be taken into consideration in the reinforcement and modification process. In modern society, various conditions and constraints of production in relation to themes in specific domains and activation of competences indicate the complexity of the learning process. The overall language proficiency is broken down into general competences (*savoir, savoir-faire, savoir-être; savoir apprendre*) communicative language competences (linguistic, sociolinguistic, pragmatic), and communicative language activities (reception, production, interaction, mediation). It is not possible to investigate competences without exploring the question of the norm and the “acceptable and expected” output.

## NORM AND ERROR ANALYSIS

Norm is a key concept in the description of standard and acceptable practice. The question of norm is described in the *Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics*:

“norm (n.) The general sense of this term is used in linguistics to refer to a standard practice in speech or writing. The ‘norm’ in question may apply to groups of varying size within a speech community, or to the community as a whole. For example, several kinds of scientific English make use of impersonal constructions much more frequently than is the case in conversational English, which may be seen as the norm for purposes of stylistic comparison. Often, the norms of different groups conflict, and normative rules may be imposed by one group on another (e.g. stating the ‘correct’ use of whom, shall or will; insisting that prepositions should not be used at the end of sentences). [...] In contrast with this prescriptive concern to maintain an imagined set of linguistic standards, linguistics emphasizes the description of actual usage in the community, and sociolinguistics emphasizes the need to consider the relative appropriateness of different varieties of language in different situations.”

The notion of norm and normative rules has been linked to the perception of linguistic standards in contrast to the appropriateness of different varieties that are extensively studied by sociolinguistics.

In the same dictionary there is the concept of error:

error (n.) (1) An application in linguistics of the general use of this term, referring to mistakes in spontaneous speaking or writing. Several types of psycholinguistic errors have been recognized. 'Speaker's errors', involving difficulties with the timing or sequence of commands, will lead to the addition, deletion or substitution of sounds and morphemes – and are most noticeable in the phenomenon labelled 'slips of the tongue' (relabelled by some psycholinguists 'slips of the brain'), and in the false starts, pauses, and other non-fluencies of everyday speech. 'Hearer's errors' are particularly noticeable in language acquisition, as when a child misanalyses an adult sentence (e.g. A: He's got his hat on. C: Where's his hat on?), and in the history of language, where new forms have come from a reanalysis (or 'metanalysis') of older ones (e.g. a napron – an apron). The distinction between 'errors' of production and perception is sometimes hard to draw, however – especially as often the only evidence for the latter is the former – and, generally, the term 'error' should be used with caution, especially in language acquisition studies, where it can be easily confused with the pedagogical notion of 'error' (in the context of essay-marking, etc.).

The concept of error analysis is more explicitly evident in production activities rather than receptive activities, since receptive activities may include silent reading and media reading. The productive activities are linked to everyday communication, academic and professional environment, presentations and reports. In the framework of our approach, we will examine the expression of error

analysis in linguistic production as expressed in spontaneous linguistic production but also through mediation and specific forms of translation and interpreting.

Error analysis concerns also the dimensions of written expression, regardless of the thematic area and the most frequent failures in written expression. The *Handbook for Curriculum Development and Teacher Training: The Language Dimension in All Subjects* (Beacco, 2016) presents the key elements of what need to be improved in writing and speaking skills. Current research investigated the language dimension in all subjects and not strictly in language, history and literature courses, but also in geography, chemistry and a vast range of other subjects.

## ERROR ANALYSIS IN MOTHER TONGUE AND FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING

The approach of error analysis concerns mother tongue but also foreign language. Language learning is carried out and perceived in different educational concepts and frameworks throughout the globe. This is essentially a complex question which concerns elements that are not thoroughly investigated, including elements such as teacher-learner interaction during lessons through verbal communication. The learning framework and teaching approach differ, as do the subjects covered. It would be particularly interesting, in countries with the same official language, the same language but in different educational and cultural contexts, to study the instructions presented during lessons, as well as the way instructions

and statements are presented in textbooks and during exams. The oral and written production errors may be linked to the elements presented as input when tutors introduce courses and provide guidance, but also in the way tasks are introduced in textbooks. When analysing errors, we focus on the output, but this output is closely linked to language produced during teacher-learner interaction and language presented in textbooks for all subjects. Even if we do not realise it, all form of teaching is mediation, and mediation output illustrates difficulties that learners may face. Therefore, the notion of mediation needs to be presented.

## NOTION OF MEDIATION

The notion of mediation has been recently described thoroughly. It is closely linked to intercultural dialogue and communication. Even if it is not fully understood, mediation is the activity that is mostly practiced in social framework. Mediation forms are constantly present.

Beacco's approach summarizes the key role:

“By calling learners to distance themselves from their own cultural benchmarks, the inclusion of mediation in the curriculum of the teaching of modern languages takes on a special meaning. The preparation of each learner for the effective exercise of democratic citizenship, education in intercultural dialogue, the development of critical thinking are, as well as employability, major objectives of the education systems in Europe. From this perspective, learning about the social activ-

ity of communication and intercultural mediation is called to play an increasingly central role.” (Beacco, 2016: 77-80)

Intercultural dialogue and effective communication depend on effective mediation and the appropriate carrying out of communication. As a complex activity, errors may affect the final result of communication and by breaking down the cognitive steps of mediation, we may guide learners to effective mediation and avoid final outcome errors, since mediation is not simple reformulation. The notion of mediation is linked to the series of activities and has multiple facets. In the *Common European Framework of Reference*, it is evident that all activities and competences are linked to social interaction. Mediation is extremely crucial for communication between persons who cannot communicate directly. The question of reformulation carries all the dimensions of oral and written expression. This notion includes paraphrase, summary, and a multi-dimensional elaboration of an existing text in an oral or written form.

According to the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment companion volume with new descriptors* the user/learner is a social agent constructing bridges in order to convey meaning within the same language or from one language to another in the framework of cross-linguistic mediation. Mediation is placed in social, pedagogic, cultural, linguistic or professional framework in the process of constructing new meaning, focusing mainly on passing new information in the appropriate form (2018: 103). Especially the

presentation of information in the appropriate form could be considered as a skill that might be analysed in minor components in order to communicate effectively.

The key element in analysing, teaching and error analysis of mediation activities is the fact that mediation activities include different languages, or varieties of the same language, two registers of the same variety or a combination of the above. Descriptors indicate in the most eloquent way the complexity of the mediation and the multiple facets that have to be taken into consideration when integrating mediation activities in the language teaching process. The adoption of the appropriate register is of crucial importance and quite frequently learners are not fully aware of the nuances between styles and registers. Types of discourse, genres and register vary and acquiring reception and production competences is susceptible to errors carried out by the learner in the journey towards effective communication.

Another form of mediation is relational mediation, which involves the creation of a multicultural space, the facilitation of interaction, and the resolution of difficult situations and disputes. Additionally, cognitive mediation involves cooperation in the construction of the message, the production of speech, the content of specific information, the explanation of the data (graphs, diagrams, etc.), the elaboration (processing), interpretation, and translation to oral and written language. Mediation strategies involve activating background knowledge, amplifying text, analyzing complicated elements, and making necessary adjustments.



In the mediation activities, planning and execution include linking to previous knowledge, adapting language, breaking down complicated information, amplifying a dense text, and streamlining. (Companion volume to the CEFR: 35). In order to avoid and to handle learners' errors, the teaching process may focus on handling complicated information breakdown, or the analysis of a dense text. Thus, errors are handled, or rather avoided in the production stage and student guidance by tutors offers useful tools that may be transferable in all linguistic production independently of register, context and languages.

In the C2 level, the learner: "Can mediate effectively and naturally, taking on different roles according to the needs of the people and situation involved, identifying nuances and undercurrents, and guiding a sensitive or delicate discussion. Can explain in clear, fluent, well-structured language the way facts and arguments are presented, conveying evaluative aspects and most nuances precisely, and pointing out sociocultural implications (e.g. use of register, understatement, irony and sarcasm). (ibid. p. 91)"

The notions of "mediated effectively and naturally", "taking on different roles", "clear, fluent, well - structured language", "most nuances precisely" indicate that the C2 learner is called to combine a series of tasks in an effective way. Effective guidance to complete the task of mediation involves different languages. Given the complexity of the tasks, the notion of "most nuances precisely" indicates that since communication is not impeded, minor elements that are not perfectly presented, are not an obstacle.

The concepts of translanguaging and mediation have recently emerged, as language learning was focused on teaching the language isolated from other languages or mediation and translation activities in the 1990s. Especially in the 1980's, the focus on target language use as best practice placed the emphasis on maximal target language use with not even implicit reference to mediation and translation-based activities, as a whole. In addition, the concept of cognitive mediation allows access to new knowledge. According to Beacco (2016), mediation is in most cases the main form of interaction in teaching and learning of all subjects, in the interaction between teacher and learner, among learners themselves or between the teaching material and learners. One may identify forms of mediation when explaining orally or in writing the content of a written text, recording or visual document, giving an account, in the target language of content in another language, explaining and commenting on the actions of characters in the cultural context associated with the language being taught; group discussions, in the foreign language, group projects with partners speaking other languages and from other cultures, and the like. "The learner experiences and practises a form of mediation that is all at once cognitive, communicative and intercultural." (Beacco, 2016: 57). Mediation is present, implicitly or explicitly in most forms of communication through the cognitive and intercultural aspect, calling for an effective analysis of the task to be carried out.

The three dimensions, i.e., cognitive, communicational and intercultural mediation indicate the complexity of competence that is necessary in our societies of several

languages and cultures. The parameters of mediation concern the people involved, the situation of communication, the understanding of ideas. The social use of language and especially the reception and understanding of the message influence the end result of mediation through specific strategies involving linguistic know-how and attitudes. It would also be interesting to see how translation assessment criteria are presented as specialised forms of linguistic production.

## TRANSLATION AND ASSESSMENT CRITERIA

Linguistic production is also manifested through translation and even without realizing it, most of the texts we handle are the outcome of the translation process. It is also important to investigate the notion of translation and how translation activities are handled.

According to the International Federation of Translators, translation is:

translation<sup>1</sup> n. the process and the product of all forms of transfer of written, spoken or signed texts originating in one language (the source language) into texts that resemble them in some way or another (the target language). For many authorities, equivalence between source and target texts embraces both semantic and pragmatic meaning, and style. The nature and degree of the resemblance may vary widely with the purpose of the translation and the intended audience. Indeed, for the Israeli translation theorist Gideon Toury (1942-2016), writing in 1982, translations are ‘any target lan-

guage text, which is presented or regarded as such within the target system itself'. Translated texts may be created by humans alone -- human translation (HT); or by machine alone -- machine translation or mechanical translation (MT); or by one assisting the other -- human-aided/assisted translation (HAT), machine aided/assisted human translation (MAHT) or computer-aided/assisted translation. (Mason & Laver, Dictionary of translation and interpreting)

The question of translation error is widely used in terms of incorrect meaning, addition, omission, or deviation. Translators and interpreters have a good command of language, and the notion of error is linked to the transfer of content in another form.

translation errors n. choices made by translators that are seen as unacceptable, either in terms of representation of the source text, or of fitness for target-text purpose. Traditional categories used in translation teaching are largely source-text oriented: incorrect meaning, inversion of meaning, addition, omission, deviation. Use of these terms, however, implies a focus on translation at word level in a relatively context-free environment. In order to address this shortcoming, Juliane House distinguished between dimensional mismatches (pragmatic errors that have to do with language users and language use) and nondimensional mismatches (errors of denotative meaning and breaches of target-language norms). Further, the Australian-born Spain-based translation theorist Anthony Pym distinguishes between binary errors (selection of the 'incorrect' option instead

of the 'correct' one) and non-binary errors (selection of an option that can be compared and graded within a range of more or less acceptable options). For Pym, true translation errors are of the latter kind. (Mason & Laver, Dictionary of Translation and Interpreting)

The question of proficient language user, in terms of pragmatics encompasses well-structured discourse and communicative functions. The same approach is needed in the reconstruction of meaning and discourse in the target language through flexibility. Reformulation, vast range of linguistic forms in order to transfer utterances according to different situations and interlocutor, flexible variations in style, advance vocabulary, appropriate handling of levels of formality and effective recombination of elements are a few of the traits necessary.

In all forms of communication, the conventions of the text type have to be met by a new author of the target language text. Any translation is a smoothly flowing text, having well-structured language, coherence and cohesion with its organizational pattern, function of the original, and conveying the same ideas in another language.

The construction of a translation is structured around effective structuring, coherence and cohesion according to the respective type in the target language. Awkward phrasing or inadequate options in terms of semantic precision, register options, vocabulary, rhetorical means affect the overall production.

Differentiation and rendering of fine shades of meaning, connectors and smooth flowing style, as well as structures

produced in the target language equivalent have the same effect as the ones in the source language.

Assessing translation is a widely discussed issue. The *Common European Framework of Reference for languages: Learning, teaching, assessment -Companion* is a useful handbook for language teaching, focused on learning and teaching. It is however interesting to see the approach to translation from the language teaching standpoint. Translation practitioners have their perception and analysis from the academic and professional point of view. The practice of translation is presented in a dense and insightful way in the *Companion*. The *Companion* (p. 218) assesses up to level C2 the translation of texts orally or in written form. The learner “Can provide fluent oral translation (into Language B) of abstract texts (written in Language A) on a wide range of subjects of personal, academic and professional interest, successfully conveying evaluative aspects and arguments including the nuances and implications associated to them (Companion, p. 216).

In a similar manner, in written translation an advanced C2 learner can translate (into Language B) technical material outside field of specialization (written in Language A), provided that subject matter accuracy is checked by a specialist in the field concerned. (Companion, p. 217). Interpreting activities require further competencies in an oral form of translation.

## INTERPRETING AND ASSESSMENT CRITERIA

Interpreting is focused on the oral form requiring different approaches to translation. However significant, the amount of linguistic production is a result of the interpreting process. According to the FIT Dictionary (Mason & Laver, Dictionary of translation and interpreting), interpreting is:

“interpretation<sup>1</sup> n. the sense that is derived from some source text by any receiver (translator, interpreter) and thus forms the basis for their translation.

Interpretation<sup>2</sup> n. another term for interpreting. Once the preferred term, especially for conference interpreting, in the US, Canada and the UK, ‘interpretation’ is now less used than ‘interpreting’. In continental Europe, perhaps under the influence of French, ‘interpretation’ has been quite commonly used. Sometimes, a distinction is made between ‘interpreting’ as the process and ‘interpretation’ as the product”.

The focus on the process of interpreting is presented in the FIT Dictionary, also as a process: “interpreting n. the oral translation by an interpreter of utterances spoken in one language into another, for the benefit of one or more listeners unable or only partly able to understand the original language.”

The role of the interpreter involves interaction in a multilingual context, in specialized topics, through flexibility. It is required to have a comprehensive and wide range of

language to formulate thoughts and forms of analysis, using emphasis when needed.

Interpreting concerns not only the accuracy, but a series of reflections on production phonology, including the question of articulation, such as the pronunciation of sounds/ phonemes, prosody, intonation, rhythm and stress, word and sentence stress, speech rate and chunking without mentioning the question of accent and deviation from a «norm».

When interpreting, intelligibility and control of sounds influence the overall perception of the message. Control of stress, intonation, and rhythm often render interpreting ear to follow. Usually, interpreters transfer in the target audience the highlights of a particular message.

The summary of overall phonological control is also presented in the *Common European Framework of Reference for languages: Learning, teaching, assessment -Companion* where the learner: “Can employ the full range of phonological features in the target language with a high level of control- including prosodic features such as word and sentence stress, rhythm and intonation- so that the finer points of their message are clear and precise. Intelligibility and effectivity conveyance and enhancement of meaning are not affected in any way by the features of accent that may be retained from other languages.” (Companion, p.134)

The specific features of interpreting in all its forms and the performance depend on a series of factors “Performance in interpreting depends on the distribution of new information, type of information (concrete/abstract), degree of specialisation, sociolinguistic characteristics (political discourse), and cultural specificity. The main observations



concerning mock conference and actual conferences in interpreting training indicate that mock conferences have enhanced performance. Actual conference training according to observation have helped enhancement of self-confidence and overall fluidity and performance.” (7th International Language, Culture and Literature Symposium 7. Uluslararası Dil, Kültür ve Edebiyat Sempozyumu: 62).

The sociolinguistic appropriateness is closely linked to connotative level of meaning, taking into account socio-cultural and sociolinguistic differences. The interpreter is called on to make the appropriate choices and react accordingly. Idiomatic expressions, colloquialisms, register, humor, irony, implicit and explicit features have to be rendered in an effective way, even if allusion is presented.

One of the frequent errors concerns adjustments in the level of formality and consistency in the choices made. It is not always easy to adopt effectively and promptly the appropriate register and to avoid errors of formulation.

G. Garzone (2000:108) notes that there is no consensus on the definition of quality in interpretation. The approaches cover either one or two aspects or multidimensional models. The levels of analysis proposed are multidimensional at the intertextual level (by comparing the text in the source language and the rendering in the target language), at the intratextual level (acoustic, and logical consequence of interpretation as autonomous speech production), and at instrumental level (in terms of understanding and usefulness for the recipient).

G. Garzone's finding highlights the complexity of interpretation involving language factors, encyclopedic

knowledge, ability to work in a group, preparation of a meeting, the speaker's prosody, the technical character of the speeches, the parameters of the communicative circumstance, the technical arrangements of the equipment, the working hours, the duration of communication, and the availability of documents.

## FROM ERROR ANALYSIS TO TRANSLANGUAGING

According to *A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics* «In language teaching and learning, error analysis is a technique for identifying, classifying and systematically interpreting the unacceptable forms produced by someone learning a foreign language, using any of the principles and procedures provided by linguistics. Errors are assumed to reflect, in a systematic way, the level of competence achieved by a learner; they are contrasted with 'mistakes', which are performance limitations that a learner would be able to correct. A distinction is often drawn between errors which are noticed and corrected by the speaker, errors which the speaker can correct if prompted to do so, and errors which the speaker cannot correct because of a lack of linguistic knowledge. »

Closely linked to error analysis is the concept of translanguaging: "The translanguaging theory, in relying on a conceptualization of bilingualism as dynamic, argues that there are not two interdependent language systems that bilinguals shuttle between, but rather one semiotic system integrating various lexical, morphological, and grammatical linguistic features in addition to social practices and

features individuals “embody (e.g., their gestures, their posture), as well as those outside of themselves which through use become part of their bodily memory (e.g., computer technology)” (García, 2016).

The notion of translanguaging derives from the notion of interference, referring to the errors a speaker introduces into one language as a result of contact with another language. A common source of error is present in the process of learning a foreign language, where the native tongue interferes; but interference may occur in other contact situations (as in multilingualism) (Crystal, 2008).

## ASSESSING COMPETENCIES BEYOND LINGUISTIC

While in the past, competences were investigated through focus on the norm, nowadays there is analysis and assessment with integration of CEFR levels and focus on the communicative effect. One of the first foreign language examinations to integrate CEFR levels was the Greek State Certificate of language proficiency (KPG). According to the research team, candidates are asked to make suitable choices in terms of language use, genre, style and register. One of the common mistakes concerns the style and the formality dimension or, as they mention, the difference of a summary to be published in a newspaper and to be presented verbally to friends.

There is also the cultural awareness as expressed through appropriate linguistic choices that require knowledge of the sociocultural context, as language mirrors the culture.

It is evident that this form of awareness depends on the language examined and the age and level of proficiency of candidates.

The approach in language test design refers to the direct and indirect approach to competences. The use of the target language is an indication of cultural awareness. Intercultural awareness is depicted in the language choice in communicative situations, but also through mediation tasks and relaying information from Greek into English.

The approach of the KPG certification indicates in an eloquent way the transposition of effective communication from micro level to macro level, placing the emphasis on communication, register, and sociocultural context. By describing the expectations and the descriptors, there is explicit presentation of the satisfactory carrying out of tasks and explicit presentation of errors to be avoided.

## THE IMPACT OF THE COMPANION VOLUME

The Companion volume of CEFR sets in detail high standards concerning the scales, mainly in

- Vocabulary: The learner has a good command of a very broad lexical repertoire including expressions and colloquialisms, shows awareness of connotative levels of meaning;
- Grammatical accuracy: The learner maintains consistent grammatical control of complex language, even while attention is otherwise engaged (e.g. in forward planning, in monitoring other's reactions)

The requirement for consistent and appropriate use of vocabulary imposes a continuous process towards effective use and understanding of nuances. The main innovation of the Companion volume consists in the detailed presentation of the mediation of a text, mediation of concepts and mediation of communication. Usually, the focus is on mediating a text. The mediation of concepts and communication are not fully exploited. In mediation there is “explanation in fluent well-structured language the way the facts and arguments are presented, conveying evaluative aspects and most nuances precisely, and pointing out sociocultural implications (e.g. use of register, understatement, irony, and sarcasm (Companion, p. 180). The *Companion volume* analyses the notion of relaying in other language specific information.

Strategies are of extreme importance: The investigation of mediation strategies is described as an overall process that involves a series of strategies. Coste and Cavalli insist on the individual, collective, or institutional strategies in mediation. These strategies involve, amongst other, argumentation, exposition, and narration by learners and students. Whatever its methods, agents and goals, the mediation process is based on strategies, which may be individual, collective or institutional; strategies by professional mediators; strategies by each of the parties involved; strategies by teachers and learners; strategies of argumentation, exposition and narration, etc. They indicate the central role of verbalization, while noting the language mixes and adjustments inherent in mediation. (Coste: Cavalli: 2015: 29). The efficient application of these strategies defines the effectiveness of mediation and communication.

On the other hand, there are also observations of the learners' performance in blended and face-to-face learning. Observation covers frequent errors in oral and written production in face-to-face and blended learning in interpreting. Observation of performance in interpreting depends on the distribution of new information, type of information (concrete/abstract), degree of specialisation, sociolinguistic characteristics (political discourse), and cultural specificity. (The 7th International Language, Culture and Literature Symposium p. 68). It is obvious that the distribution of error and specificity level changes in overall language teaching, in secondary education and university.

Once error analysis has been carried out by the tutor at a course delivery level, blended learning may contribute to performance enhancement at an individual level. The overall aim is to allow learners to examine their learning process, to take responsibility for their learning, to see gaps in their learning, to support their own learning, and to prepare for their future career.

## THE ROLE OF THE TUTOR IN MEDIATION

Whenever a learner is called to act as a mediator, in oral or written form, s/he is called to take into account the overall reorganization of the text, the paraphrase, the application of grammatical learning, and to realize that the text is not an accumulation of juxtaposed sentences. The instructions by the teacher-facilitator may act as a guide to the appropriate sociolinguistic choices, depending on the type or type of text. The teacher may propose a wide

range of activities that focus on changing the point of view or the register. The role of the facilitator is to break down the mediation process and select the specific information, explain data in speech form, choose the discourse genre, and vary the forms.

One of the main gaps to consider in oral and written expression is the remarks by Beacco (2016). One such crucial element is the dimensions of oral and written expression, regardless of the thematic area and the most frequent failures in written expression. *The Handbook for Curriculum Development and Teacher Training: The Language Dimension in All Subjects* (Beacco, 2016) summarizes the key elements of what needs to be improved in writing and speaking skills. Especially when it comes to writing, “in many classrooms, written expression requirements are limited in order to help students achieve minimum required performance, e.g., filling in gaps in text and copying marks. This practice of goodwill helps students achieve the minimum required. However, if largely applied, it can limit students’ ability to express themselves in the form and style required for complex thinking and subtle meanings. (Beacco, 2016)

This approach in teaching leads to elements missing complex thinking and subtle meanings. The complex character of mediation activities leads to a multi-dimensional role of the teacher, guiding the students to take into consideration not only the linguistic but also the sociolinguistic aspect and primarily the specific traits of each culture.

Grammatical structures and the acquisition of grammatical forms serve as an incentive for the development of the

activity, and they are not limited to the successful usage of the grammatical form. The multiple dimensions of mediation call for a step-by-step analysis of the process like guided writing in interconnection to real-life situations.

Error analysis in mediation may be divided into various steps and competences. Mediation activities integrate all prior knowledge and skills starting even from visual prompts, with no verbal elements. Textbooks do not include step by step analysis of a standard process that may lead the student to construct his/her oral or written mediation task. Given that the aim is to help students become effective social agents, who communicate in a globalised world, special emphasis seems necessary in teacher training, on the construction of textbooks and on actual classroom practice where students are placed in the centre of the mediation process.

The gradual integration of mediation activities in the teaching process helps the learner, in a procedural way, to scan the source text for the necessary information, select the appropriate elements and relay to the recipient in the appropriate form.

## CONCLUSION

In contemporary language teaching, learning and assessment, modern communication calls for a detailed approach to language teaching and enhancement of communicative performance. Error analysis concerns learners' performance, language teaching, and mediation activities in the learning process, in translation and in interpreting.



Advances in linguistics are linked to the introduction of translanguaging in the learning process. As levels from beginner to native speaker are studied, error analysis is linked to the teaching process. Error analysis is linked to enhancement of the performance of the students and to further fine-tuning of the teaching process.

At a theoretical level, studies have been carried out to identify the frequency of errors that appear. In daily teaching practice and differentiated pedagogy, teachers may focus on specific observations of error analysis to help learners progress from A1 to C2 level, to facilitate the mediation activities for daily life, and in translation and interpreting studies.

Language learning, mediation, translation, and interpreting are different steps and processes, but the effective use of error analysis reveals the causes, the frequency, and the learners' needs. Thus, through individualized approach, learners' performance is improved by effective communication.

The complexity of translation and interpreting influences the perception of the notion of error analysis, adding elements beyond linguistic and sociolinguistic competence. Beyond the frequency and causes of errors, in daily teaching practice, error analysis leads to fine-tuning of the approach.

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# “COACH ME IF YOU CAN” THE ROLE OF CLINICAL SUPERVISION MODEL (CSM) IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHER TRAINING

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## INTRODUCTION

*“You learn something new every day. Make a note of that, Marchy, it might come in useful.”*

*(Hatter, Alice’s Adventures in Wonderland)*

This chapter delves into the role of clinical supervision model in the professional development of pre-service English language teachers. Specifically, the contributions of a national educational project funded by the Scientific and Technological Research Council of Türkiye are scrutinized during which pre-service English language teachers are trained professionally within the reflective triangulation of university supervisors, cooperating teachers, and pre-service teachers themselves. Pedagogical implications for professional growth as future teachers together with the substantial gains for teacher’s professional identity development are noted from a self-focused perspective.

Leveraging the quality of education is of utmost importance by policymakers to define, promote, and maintain parameters and principles that can contribute to the improvement of educational efficacy. In this vein, supervision can be regarded as a helpful vehicle to nurture positive attitudes towards the teaching profession together with teacher growth (Nolan & Hoover, 2008). Thus, supervision is pointed out “as the process of helping, guiding, advising and stimulating growth in teachers in order to improve the quality of teaching” (Okorji & Ogbo, 2013, p. 902). Since teachers play a pivotal role in the enhancement of quality of teaching and learning, supervision can also be marked as a continuous process of teacher education during which the focus is on improved instruction.

What is more, as a part of continuous professional development through reflective practice in education, supervision takes a different perception to a wider situation. This is the ‘clinical’ supervision, which is guided through reflection to lead to a change in perspectives in teaching and learning. Thus, the word ‘clinical’ is used in supervision within the realm of the teaching profession to investigate critical incidents in the classroom through a robustly reflective lens. Thus, considerable attention is established by means of reflective practice, which has a rather longer history than clinical supervision that is also known as professional supervision.

Diachronically, clinical supervision was developed by Goldhammer in 1969 (Hopkins & Moore, 1993), underpinning data collection process during observations (Gürsoy et.al., 2016). Cogan (1973) helped develop the concept by

taking it one step further, making it a more professional development-focused model (hereafter, CSM). The aim of the CSM, thus, is “to help teachers develop and improve through cooperative planning, observation, and feedback” (Acheson & Gall, 2003, p.85). Providing a strong strand of reflective practice, CSM helps pre-service teachers to professionally develop, and encourage them to ask the following questions during the implementation process; “*Why did I do it this way? What motivated me to act in this way? What values did I define what I did? What is my role, responsibility and duty as a teacher and how can I improve myself? What would I change if I taught this lesson one more time?*”.

Beyond question, teacher education is an essential concern since well-trained and committed teachers are the key elements of successful conductors of the programs (Fixsen et al., 2005), which then paves the way for the improvement of student performance and learning outcomes (Guskey, 2002). However, using this model to train pre-service teachers has not been in top-research-topic-list for a long time, especially in Turkish context (Bulunuz et al., 2014); yet, with the several positive outcomes for pre-service teachers, it is of utmost importance to introduce the model to the audience in teacher education research, and to encourage scholars to take a closer look at the topic. Its benefits can be listed as:

- a. *Improving Teacher Competencies*: CSM helps strengthen the pedagogical characteristics of pre-service teachers, and contributes to the development of their teaching skills, such as classroom management, organization of student learning and teaching method thanks to the feedback provided by the stakeholders.

- b. *Developing Practical Teaching Skills*: CSM allows pre-service teachers to develop practical teaching skills through field experiences. It allows them to gain hands-on experience, such as classroom communication, student-centered instruction, and differentiated instruction with the help of the stakeholders' experiences in the field throughout the years.
- c. *Offering Reflective Teaching Practices*: CSM encourages pre-service teachers to transfer their own teaching. By analyzing strong and weak tendencies, it helps form a teacher identity that is open to continuous improvement.
- d. *Monitoring Developments in the Field*: Communicating with experienced teachers provides pre-service teachers with the opportunity to follow innovations in education and the latest developments in the field. This helps them keep their teaching skills up-to-date.
- e. *Expanding the Professional Network*: CSM enables pre-service teachers to expand their professional networks by allowing them to interact with colleagues.
- f. *Promoting Self-paced Learning*: The characteristics of each pre-service teacher may be different. CSM provides personalized support by focusing on individual learning, helping pre-service teachers develop their own teaching style and strong reporting.
- g. *Strengthening Effective Communication and Collaboration Skills*: CSM helps pre-service teachers improve their communication skills and collaboration skills. This contributes to a more effective communication and collaboration environment within the classroom and throughout the school.

h. *Enhancing Pedagogical Knowledge*: CSM provides pre-service teachers with opportunities to learn from experienced teachers' pedagogical knowledge and expertise.

At this point, the implementation of the CSM nestles five core steps for TP beginning with the first step called the *Preliminary Interview* and ending with *Reflection*.

**Figure 1**

*CSM Cycle*



Note: From Gürsoy et al., 2016

Accordingly, in the first step of *Preliminary Interview*, pre-service teachers prepare a lesson plan for the course that they will be teaching and share this draft with their university supervisors (US). They check the lesson plan before the lesson and give feedback. Based on the feedback they give, pre-service teachers determine the objectives and outcomes of the lesson, the teaching methods to be used, classroom management rules, and assessment methods. In the second step of *Observation and Data Collection*, the pre-service teachers are observed and recorded during the lesson by the US together with CTs. This recording can be facilitated through video camera, audio recording, and/or notes. In this way, every action of the pre-service teachers to be evaluated can be examined in detail right after the lesson. In the third step of *Data Analysis*, these recordings are examined, and the pre-service teachers' strengths and weaknesses are determined. Actions that can be taken to improve identified weaknesses are decided. In the fourth and fifth steps of *Final Interview* and *Reflection*, the three stakeholders come together to hear the pre-service teachers' views on the process. At the same time, the US also gives feedback on the pre-service teachers' performances. Recordings are reviewed again, and an action plan is developed for the pre-service teachers' next practices. This process is repeated until the pre-service teachers conduct their final practices.

In the light of these steps, CSM can generate meaningful and sustainable changes for the teaching practice (Berger & Thomas, 2011), which can be regarded as an obstacle in pre-service teacher education. For effective teacher education, on the other hand, teaching practice (TP) is assumed



as a significant component of professional career development (Oosterheert & Vermunt, 2002). As a stepping stone, TP provides an environment where pre-service teachers can experience the teaching and learning process in an actual working place (Perry, 2004). Integrating both theory and practice, pre-service teachers can get the opportunity to work in collaboration with their experienced colleagues, on-the-job peers, cooperating teachers (CT), fellow students, and academic counsellors appointed as university supervisors (Musingafi & Mafumbate, 2014). That is to say, a planned intervention and induction for effective TP is essential; and thus, established methods and programs of teacher education have been questioned on the demand that an effective way of training is needed to cater for teachers' needs and to improve the quality of education (Oancea & Orchard, 2012), with the role attributed to universities to engage future teachers in both theory and practice. However, there is the rising question that "too little teacher training takes place on the job" (DfE, 2010, p. 19).

That said, the relevance of a theoretical component that takes place in the classroom may not reflect reality, and the quality of provision at universities may not meet this demand. However, pre-service teachers do need two kinds of preparation: (1) adequate academic grounding in their subject-matter knowledge to showcase the *raison d'être* of the teacher education programs at universities; and (2) on-the-job training to practice teaching to furnish theory with practice so as not to be disbanded forthwith (Lawlor, 1990, p. 8) in that "it is pivotal for teachers to see the relationship between what they do in practice and the reasons for it, in

order to become increasingly aware of their own theories and be able to judge alternatives in a way which makes both rejection of them as well as revision of them possible” (Dorovolomo, 2004, p. 10).

## THE LAY OF THE LAND

If the lay of the land has not been established, it is apparent that the sense of belonging to the class is not strengthened (Boz & Boz, 2006; Seferoğlu, 2006), that academic advisors do not take sufficient responsibility for the importance of the process (Eraslan, 2008), and the connection between theoretical knowledge acquired in the courses at the Faculty of Education and the practical applications has not been fully established by pre-service teachers (Seferoğlu, 2006). Due to such reasons, pre-service teachers may develop negative attitudes towards both TP and the classroom teacher (Bulunuz & Bulunuz, 2015).

In Türkiye, relevant research is carried out to develop the TP (I-II) course, which is jointly conducted by the Turkish Ministry of National Education (MoNE) and the Turkish Council of Higher Education (CoE), and regulations and improvements are being made in the context of content, quality, and operation to make it more effective. In addition to these improvements, it is anticipated that the integration of the CSM into the TP is an important step. CSM guides pre-service teachers to put the theoretical knowledge they have received in their 4-year undergraduate education into practice in a real classroom environment. Besides, within the scope of this process, it facilitates the efforts of the practicum student (pre-service

teacher), the university supervisor (US), and the cooperating teacher (CT) as common stakeholders who are supporting the overall development at both micro and macro levels (Acheson, & Gall, 2003; Gürsoy et al., 2016; Xavier et al., 2007) as well as the professional development of the pre-service teacher.

Therefore, the purpose of this study is to explore the possible contributions of the CSM to the professional development of pre-service teachers, particularly English language teachers, as a response to the question of “*Can the professional development of pre-service English language teachers be improved via the utilization of CSM?*” and to contribute to the understanding and introduction of the CSM to pre-service teachers, become familiarized with the model, and observe its contribution to their TPs. In doing so, the results of a national project supported by the Turkish Scientific and Technological Research Council under the funding program numbered 2209-A University Students Research Projects Support Program are elaborated in detail to scrutinize pre-service English language teachers’ professional development through CSM in an evidence-based approach.

## THE CONTEXT OF THE PROJECT

To provide meaningful teaching experiences in a real classroom setting, the CSM was introduced by means of a TÜBİTAK-funded project on the development of pre-service English language teachers’ professional development, and refinement of their teaching philosophies before they step into real classrooms. The project was funded under the

program of 2209-A, specifically designed for undergraduate students under the supervision of a university lecturer (academic counsellor), who was responsible for conducting the scientific project and developing a timesheet to utilize the research. The project budget was defined as lump sum by TUBITAK, and it covered the research tools, equipment, and software (if needed). Lastly, a final closure report was submitted to TUBITAK, upon the completion of the project.

## Research Design

The study investigated the impact of CSM on the professional development of pre-service English language teachers and adopted a mixed-method research design comprising of both qualitative and quantitative components. The qualitative aspect aimed to explore the professional growth of pre-service English language teachers, while the quantitative facet involved the statistical analysis of the Likert-type questionnaires via the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS, Version 26.0) software, presenting the findings with numerical data. With the employment of focus-group interviews, the Likert-type questionnaires were administered to the participants as *priori* and *posteriori* interventions. The dependent variables observed during the introduction and implementation of the model included pre-service English language teachers' attitudes, their self-perceived conceptions of professional development, and their self-perceived levels of familiarity with the model. The results were also reported to TUBITAK upon completion as a requirement of the funding, and for the dissemination of the project outcomes.

## Participants

The participants in the study were two pre-service English language teachers, who were selected on a voluntary basis among the seniors at the department of English Language Teaching, taking the TP-II course in the spring semester of the 2021-2022 academic year at a state university in Izmir. The first participant was a 23-year-old male senior, and the second participant was a 21-year-old female senior. At the very beginning, the first participant had 6 months of teaching experience and 3 months of TP experience. Similarly, the second participant had 2 years of teaching experience and 3 months of TP experience. Both participants were assigned to teach English as a foreign language to the same practicum (primary) school and the same level of fifth-grade students. For convenience purposes, both participants were appointed to the same US and CT to benefit more from the mentoring practices, and to maintain the reliability and validity of the study, as accessibility and suitability were the main concerns for the feasibility of the project.

## Instruments

Prior to initiating the implementation of the model by the participants, a comprehensive introduction to the CSM was delivered at the department of English Language Teaching to the 14 seniors participating in the introductory session to select the voluntary participants of the study. The purpose, herein, was twofold: first, to acquaint participants with the procedure, and second, to facilitate the identification of the participants' willingness to participate in the study by showcasing voluntary endeavor to professionally

develop at the end of the process. In doing so, prior to the participants selection process, a survey entitled '*Exploring Pre-service English Language Teachers' Teaching Experiences during TP*' was administered to a cohort of 14 seniors attending the introductory session. The aim was to depict their perceptions regarding their current experiences of supervision during TP.

Upon the completion of the participant selection process and to ensure procedural formalities, the '*English Teacher Productive Feedback Inventory (ETPFI)*' was employed with the voluntary participation of the selected two pre-service English language teachers, who were integral to the project. This inventory was utilized to document their professional advancements, thereby seeking to comprehend the potential impacts of the model being employed, i.e. the CSM. The '*Feedback Form on the Implementation of the CSM within the TP Course*', which consisted of three open-ended questions, was administered to the participants as part of the qualitative part of this study. The objective, herein, was to gauge their perspectives concerning the implementation of the model in lieu of the research process.

## Procedure

The implementation of the model commenced with the "*Pre-Interview*" step. During this preliminary interview, participants formulated their lesson plans within the scope of their upcoming sessions and shared their drafts with their respective CTs, responsible for supervising the pre-service teachers' TP experiences at the practicum schools. These CTs reviewed the lesson plans beforehand, contributing to the investigation of the course objectives,

teaching methodologies, classroom management strategies, and assessment and evaluation methods, aligning them with the feedback provided.

During the “*Observation and Data Collection*” step, participants were observed and recorded by the US and the CTs throughout the course using video cameras. Legal permissions were obtained from the Turkish MoNE to conduct these recordings. Besides, although elaborated in detail below in the part of ethical considerations, since the students in the class were composed of 5<sup>th</sup> graders, parental permissions were also collected from the families prior to the onset of the project. Subsequently, every action performed by the pre-service teachers was thoroughly scrutinized at the post-lesson.

In the “*Data Analysis*” step, the recorded sessions were analyzed, enabling the identification of the strengths and weaknesses of the pre-service teachers. Plans for enhancing identified weaknesses were devised accordingly. The final steps were the “*Final Interview*” and “*Reflection*”, when stakeholders convened to gather the perspectives of the pre-service teachers regarding the overall process. Simultaneously, USs provided feedback on the pre-service teachers’ performances in the classroom environment. Recorded sessions were re-evaluated, and action plans were formulated to guide the pre-service teachers in their future practices, and to form teaching philosophies for their own professional identity development. This cyclic process continued until the conclusion of the pre-service teacher’s final practice, when the focus group discussions of the CSM cycle were finalized.

## Data Analysis

The study was comprised of both quantitative and qualitative data to be analyzed. For data analysis, SPSS (Version 26.0) was used to report descriptive statistics of the first part, whereas open-content analysis, in which initial categories were transformed into major categories through elimination by significance units (Shkedy, 2003), was employed for the latter.

## Ethical considerations

The study was based on the voluntary participation of the participants. For this reason, first, the pre-service English language teachers completed a “*Consent Form*”, which was necessary prior to collecting data within the scope of the scientific project. Additionally, to conduct the project at the department of English Language Teaching, the *Ethics Committee Approval* was obtained from the university where the project was carried out. This was one of the requirements of the project application process so that the project would be funded. In addition, the necessary permissions from the *Provincial Directorate of MoNE* were also obtained for the in-class observations, recordings, and applications. Therefore, as noted previously, since the pre-service English language teachers would employ their TPs in a class composed of 5<sup>th</sup> graders, the parents were informed about the project by the CT, and a “*Consent Form*” was distributed to all parents involved. The parental approval was obtained so that their children could participate in the research process.



## FINDINGS AND RESULTS

The results of the quantitative analysis, which was performed at the beginning of the process by the 14 pre-service English language teachers who attended the first introductory meeting, showed that the items with the highest mean scores ( $M = 4,29$ ) were detected respectively: “An open and trusting relationship encourages me throughout my teaching practices (e.g. *Teachers and students take time to improve teaching by working collaboratively*).”, and “My supervisory process helps me develop a positive attitude about continuing professional development (e.g. *The teacher’s approach to supervision helps me understand that self-development and skills training is a career-long endeavor*).”. These items were followed by “My teacher’s lesson feedback includes plans for future teaching (e.g. *Ideas for future teaching were suggested in some post-observational activity/procedures*).” with a mean score of 4,21 in the third place. On the other hand, this item confirmed that the procedures used by the classroom teacher to collect data during the lesson and during the observed lesson were inconsistent and not systematic with the mean score of 1,64, while the mean score of 1,71 supported the fact that the CT valued the inputs in the supervision process. Similarly, with a mean score of 2,71, the CT’s observations focused on how well the pre-service English language teachers developed their personal teaching skills rather than how well they contributed to achieving school and/or regional goals. Further explanations could be reached based on the table below:

**Table 1***Descriptive Statistics Results*

Item	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
1. I am encouraged by an open and trusting relationship throughout my teaching practices.	14	4,286	,795	,633
2. I am given sufficient time for the supervisory process.	14	3,643	,718	,515
3. I am informed by what went well and what didn't go well in a lesson without showing data.	14	3,429	1,237	1,531
4. My supervisory process helps me develop a positive attitude about continuous professional development.	14	4,286	,881	,776
5. The data my teacher collects during an observed lesson are a valid representation of what happens in the classroom.	14	4,071	,884	,781

Item	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
6. My teacher does not value my input in the supervisory process.	14	1,643	,610	,372
7. My teacher's methods for providing lesson feedback allow for lesson analysis.	14	3,857	,915	,837
8. My teacher's supervision practices help me to become more self-analytical with respect to my teaching skills and approaches.	14	4,000	,756	,571
9. My teacher's observations focus on how well I contribute to the attainment of school/district goals, rather than how well I improve my personal teaching skills.	14	2,714	1,332	1,776
10. The data my teacher compiles during an observed lesson are useful for improving my teaching performance.	14	4,143	,833	,694

Item	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
11. My teacher's supervision practices encourage interaction and communication between me and the teacher.	14	4,143	,833	,694
12. Standards for defining good instruction are determined by my teacher.	14	3,786	,860	,740
13. My teacher's lesson feedback includes plans for future instruction.	14	4,214	1,013	1,026
14. My teacher focuses upon important aspects of the teaching/learning process during an observation.	14	4,000	,756	,571
15. The procedures my principal uses for collecting data during an observed lesson are inconsistent and non-systematic.	14	1,714	,795	,633
Valid N (listwise)	14			
Std. Deviation and Variance use N rather than N-1 in denominators.				

During the CSM cycle, feedback was given to 2 pre-service English language teachers who voluntarily participated in the research, and the importance of feedback and reflective learning was explained. The “*English Teacher Productive Feedback Inventory (ETPFI)*” was applied to the pre-service English language teachers upon the completion of the process. Their opinions on the feedback they gave to their students in the class as they practiced during the TP were also recorder, and the results are as follows:

**Table 2**

*Descriptive Statistics Results (ETPFI)*

Item	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
1. I give on-going feedback to students based on observation.	2	4,000	,000	,000
2. I require students to use my feedback to redo assignments that they did not master the first time.	2	4,000	,000	,000
3. I don't give on-going feedback because it is time consuming.	2	2,500	1,500	2,250
4. In my feedback, I engage my students in a discussion on mistakes made on previous learning content.	2	3,500	,500	,250

Item	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
5. My feedback links to the learners' diverse competence levels.	2	4,500	,500	,250
6. I ask my colleagues to randomly cross assess some of my students' written work to check the consistency of my feedback.	2	3,000	1,000	1,000
7. I use technology such as WhatsApp, email, etc. to provide timely feedback.	2	1,000	,000	,000
8. I set clear assessment criteria to ensure consistent feedback to my students.	2	4,000	,000	,000
9. I make use of feedback that guides students to self-evaluate the correctness of a response.	2	4,500	,500	,250
10. I measure students' progress by test scores.	2	3,000	,000	,000
11. I give on-going feedback to students to stimulate conversation.	2	4,500	,500	,250
12. I align my feedback with assessment criteria of the program.	2	3,000	1,000	1,000

Item	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
13. I build in opportunities for students to use feedback in different settings after they have received it.	2	4,500	,500	,250
14. I circulate amongst the students in the class to monitor individual work and give them feedback.	2	4,500	,500	,250
15. I remind my students about the goal of every task.	2	3,000	1,000	1,000
16. I give feedback on students' work when the learning content is still fresh in their minds.	2	4,500	,500	,250
17. I check whether my feedback to individual students is consistent with their competency levels.	2	4,500	,500	,250
18. I give detailed task specific feedback to students.	2	2,000	,000	,000
19. I encourage my students to learn together in small groups.	2	4,500	,500	,250
20. I use observable feedback such as role play, video, etc.	2	5,000	,000	,000

Item	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
21. I ask my students to provide a summary of their assignments when they hand them in.	2	2,000	,000	,000
22. I keep feedback limited and focused.	2	4,000	,000	,000
23. I engage my students in goal setting.	2	3,500	,500	,250
24. I explain assessment criteria used in a rubric to the students before using the rubric.	2	4,000	1,000	1,000
25. When students show interest, I see this as a valuable opportunity for feedback.	2	4,000	,000	,000
26. In my feedback, I compare students' progress to identified standards of performance issued by the institute.	2	2,000	1,000	1,000
27. I give feedback to the students when they are paying attention.	2	4,500	,500	,250
28. I ask my students to select an area of their work in which they seek feedback.	2	2,500	,500	,250



Item	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
29. My feedback strengthens students' ability to monitor their own progress.	2	5,000	,000	,000
30. I ask my students to mark each other's work, based on set criteria.	2	3,000	1,000	1,000
31. I give clear feedback focused on current content so that students know what to do next.	2	4,000	,000	,000
32. I continuously interact with my students about their progress.	2	4,000	1,000	1,000
33. I give students time to think about and then respond to feedback.	2	4,500	,500	,250
34. I emphasize what actions are needed for students to accomplish their learning goals.	2	4,000	,000	,000
35. I ask a student to restate the feedback I have given to the whole class.	2	2,500	1,500	2,250
Valid N (listwise)	2			
Std. Deviation and Variance use N rather than N-1 in denominators.				

According to Table 2, the item with the lowest mean score (1,00) was observed with the item *“I use technologies such as WhatsApp and e-mail to give timely feedback to my students.”*. Considering this, we could conclude that pre-service English language teachers did not use technology sufficiently to give feedback. Similarly, the items with a mean score of 2,00 were reported with the item *“I give detailed feedback to the students regarding the task.”*, *“When the students submit their assignments, I ask them to provide the summaries of their assignments..”*, and *“In the feedback I give, I compare students’ progress against institution performance criteria.”* respectively. From this, we could deduce that the frequency of use of standard performance values by pre-service English language teachers while giving feedback was low; the task-based approach was not considered much; and student assignments were not examined in detail. On the other hand, the items with a mean score of 5,00 according to the responses received by both pre-service English language teachers were noted with the items *“I give observable feedback such as role playing and video.”*, and *“The feedback I give allows my students to monitor their own learning.”*. Accordingly, it was obvious that pre-service English language teachers involved students in active learning processes with the aim to support them to manage their own learning processes as independent learners through alternative methods and humanistic approaches.

In relation to the qualitative part, on the other hand, three open-ended questions were asked to the pre-service English language teachers in the form entitled *“Feedback Form on the Implementation of CSM for TP Course”*, which was applied to collect qualitative data at the end of the

project. These questions aimed to obtain the opinions of the pre-service English language teachers when the Clinical Supervision Model was first presented to them, to compare the TPs before and after the application of the CSM, and finally, to detect the possible contributions of the model to their professional development.

As a result, the participants highlighted two main concerns in their feedback: (1) their positive thoughts when CSM was first introduced to them, and (2) the possibility of the video recordings distracting their students. It was understood from the project participants' conceptions that CSM enabled them to receive more positive and more productive feedback at the end of their sessions. Video recordings, on the other hand, had the potential to distract students' attention regardless of their ability to adapt quickly.

What's more, the comparative analysis delineated several distinct facets of TPs before and after the incorporation of the model: (a) prior to the adoption of the model, feedback for pre-service English language teachers predominantly centered on teaching materials, online applications, and classroom performances. However, after the implementation, a diversification emerged through the examination of course recordings, encompassing nuanced aspects such as teacher-student communication, facial expressions, tone of voice, and eye contact; (b) pre-service English language teachers, previously receiving feedback solely from the CTs, experienced a shift to the post-model adoption, gaining insights from all the stakeholders. This transition offered diverse feedback and suggestions from varied perspectives.

When evaluating the CSM's possible contribution to the professional development of pre-service English language teachers, it was observed that: (a) the CSM was substantially correlated with positive transformations to offer professional development features for the project participants; (b) there were enhancements in teacher-student relationships; (c) improvements and diversification in course materials transpired due to the feedback received; (d) noteworthy enhancement in self-criticism skills was acknowledged, and (e) progress in time management skills was noted.

## DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

“At the basis of the present, bad system of teacher training, there lies a confusion between what can best be learnt by academic study and what can be learnt only through practice. Whereas the individual subjects which teachers will teach require academic study, the skills of teaching are essentially practical ones. They can be acquired only through experience, trial and error and careful, individual supervision”. (Lawlor, 1990, p. 8)

The results of this study reinforced the affirmative influences of the model on the professional trajectory of teacher candidates enrolled in the TP. Concrete instances could substantiate that aspiring educators were envisaging their forthcoming professional journeys with optimism and a bolstered sense of self-assurance, which confirmed the possible contributions of the model to their professional

development. Indeed, CSM is being exploited by the MoNE as a nascent practice to train pre-service teachers through reflective practice, yet it should be comprehended as more than a prescription of what to do in the class to be an effective teacher, albeit to develop one's own teaching philosophy (Gursoy & Eken, 2019); thus, CSM can be noted to enrich the professional development of pre-service teachers.

As firstly noted in this study, CSM has seemingly increased the pre-service English language teachers' professional competencies. For instance, improvements in student-teacher interaction have reported to be more effective and instructive through teachers' classroom interactions. The feedback received has guided them to improve course content and create more effective learning environments for their students. Teachers seem to be putting more efforts in engaging the students in active learning processes through alternative learning methods and humanistic approaches.

Secondly, significant improvements in teacher-student rapport have been observed with the implementation of CSM. Pre-service English language teachers have increased their ability to communicate more meaningfully with their students. This has also helped the classroom environment to become more participatory. Thanks to the feedback provided, they have improved and changed their methods of communication with their students, and increased their students' participation in classes.

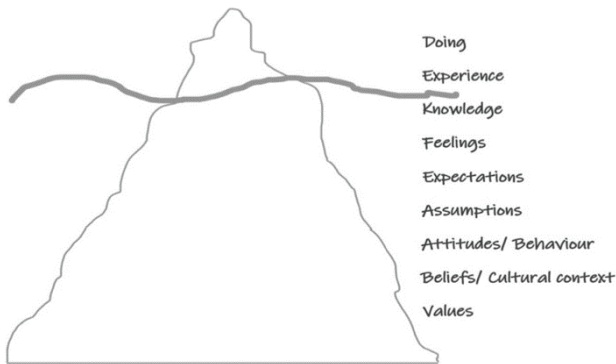
Thirdly, the feedback provided by CSM has allowed pre-service English language teachers to improve and diversify their course materials. In line with the feedback

they have received, teachers have reported elimination of deficiencies in the course content while developing new materials to support learning processes and adapting their courses to students' needs in a better way.

Fourthly, CSM has contributed to the development of pre-service English language teachers' self-evaluation and critical thinking skills. They have become more conscious of analyzing the feedback they receive, identifying their deficiencies, and eliminating thereof. This process has been an important step for the personal and professional development of pre-service English language teachers. Additionally, thanks to CSM, pre-service English language teachers have made progress in their time management skills. They have learned to use their time more effectively for course preparation, monitoring students, evaluation processes and personal development. In this regard, before reflecting on an action by doing, pre-service teachers are first given the opportunity to develop their values, beliefs, attitudes, expectations, feelings, knowledge, and skills; and thus, they can put these into practice through experience to make informed decisions. When compared to an iceberg, this can be observed as the figure given below:

## Figure 2

### *Decision-making process as an iceberg*



Note: From Fish & Coles, 2005

Building upon the discussions presented, we can conclude that the supervision process focusing on teaching practices positively contributes to the professional development of pre-service English language teachers in general. It is understood that the open and trusting relationship that students may potentially establish with their teachers can encourage them during TP. However, this nurturing process is insufficient if not promoted on a lifelong learning continuum. Our findings have also indicated that quality feedback together with the supervision process have improved their teaching skills since “the prerequisite for success is the efforts made in the field of educational improvement, professional development, and increasing the knowledge and skills of teachers.” (Mehrabian et al., 2023, p. 73).

Notably, researchers have long emphasized the crucial role of professional development in the field of education, particularly in enhancing teachers' knowledge and skills. Considering the escalating challenges encountered by teachers and the demands for quality education, the professional development of teachers plays a pivotal role. Herein, CSM is reported to promote teachers' professional growth, consistently affirming its efficacy in augmenting teaching performance (Glickmann et al., 1995; Mohd, 2002; Thomas, 2008). Taking this into consideration, this study delves into understanding the effects of the CSM on the professional development of pre-service English language teachers.

Our findings echo the broader research consensus, revealing notable contributions of the CSM to the enhancement of teachers' professional development. However, it is crucial to acknowledge certain limitations that could offer avenues for future research. As part of this small-scale undergraduate-level project, a small sample of participants was preferred due to time constraints and efficiency of the undergraduate student to finalize a research project where s/he was expected to develop research literacy, which could be noted as a limitation of this study. Thus, to cascade knowledge of the pre-service teachers on CSM, and to develop their professional teaching skills and philosophies for their future teaching practices, a larger sample of participants is recommended considering the research gap in literature to train future English language teachers with the utilization of CSM cycle efficiently, and to provide reflective practice.



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