From Trends to Plans

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From the President

It is a great privilege to read this compilation of papers given at the 23rd IATEFL-Hungary conference in Budapest in October 2013. Throughout the long history of our association, we have always aimed at offering various opportunities for professional development for our members. In the past year only, we have met regularly at the Creative Café afternoons; at the incredibly popular Országh competition; at professional literary workshops dedicated to Shakespeare or St Patrick's Day; we have offered training for teachers of language learners with dyslexia; and invited all our members and friends to sing with us in our choir, resulting in an extraordinary Christmas performance at the Gödöllő Castle. This publication is yet another opportunity for all of us to think, share, discuss, and change.

We strongly believe that members of our association are dedicated teachers of English, who love their profession and are ready to step out of their every-day routine for self-development. With the 24th annual conference approaching, we are proud to offer the possibility for speakers to publish their work again, and for those who cannot be with us in Veszprém, to follow the events online during the conference, and hopefully read the next volume next year.

I am very grateful to everyone who made the publication of a selection of papers from the 23rd annual IATEFL-Hungary conference possible. In particular, Éva Illés and Jasmina Sazdovska made all the efforts to produce a highly professional compilation of articles that we hope to be relevant and useful not only for educational researchers but also for practising language teachers. Thanks are due to all the contributors as well for their hard work to share their presentations in this journal.

I wish you all a very pleasant read.

Nóra Németh

Introduction

This is the first of what we hope will become a regular publication of IATEFL-Hungary. For a quarter of a century, IATEFL-Hungary has been organising various events and annual conferences with the aim of providing teachers with support and opportunities for professional development. The conferences have served as an important venue for teachers to exchange ideas, participate in practical workshops and learn about recent developments in English language teaching.

Due to their heavy teaching load as well as other pressures, few teachers have the time or opportunity to engage in educational research. On the other hand, since educational researchers view the teaching process from their own perspective, the findings of their research do not necessarily always feed back directly into the classroom. It would, however, be mutually beneficial if both parties worked more closely together. This would enable the practice and research of language teaching to progress more rapidly.

The present compilation aims to bridge the gap between the two groups of professionals through providing a forum for researchers who teach and teachers who do research to share their work. We hope that the prospect of this publication opportunity will motivate ELT professionals who engage in both the practice and research of the teaching of English to come forward and participate more actively in the IATEFL-Hungary conferences. We also hope that a union of research and practice will put IATEFL-Hungary on the cutting edge of the professional development of English language teachers.

We would like to thank Frank Prescott, who meticulously proofread the manuscript and spotted typos that escaped our attention. We are also grateful to our colleagues Kata Csizér, Karolina Kalocsai, Kinga Kaludy, Edit Kontra, Krisztina Károly, Péter Medgyes, Marianne Nikolov and Uwe Pohl for reviewing the articles and providing much needed and much appreciated feedback to the authors.

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Éva Illés and Jasmina Sazdovska

English as a lingua franca in the practice of ELT

Éva Illés

1. Introduction

Explorations into English as a lingua franca (ELF) were prompted by pedagogical concerns, by the contradiction between the fact that whereas the majority of English speakers are non-native (Graddol, 1997), in ELT English is seen as the property of native speakers who have exclusive authority to decide what is correct and appropriate in the language (Seidlhofer, 1999). Seidlhofer (2001) summed up this paradox as follows: "it is highly problematic to discuss aspects of global English, however critically, while at the same time passing native speaker judgements as to what is appropriate usage in ELF contexts" (p. 137). This lack of interest in non-native speakers created a gap in English language research as well. While native and regional varieties in Asia and Africa were studied extensively (see, for example, the British National Corpus (BNC, 2007) or the International Corpus of English (ICE, 2013)), what the largest group of speakers who have learnt English as a foreign language and use it as a lingua franca with other non-native speakers do with the language did not seem to concern researchers until the end of the last century.

The turning point came at the start of the new millennium, and since then there has been a surge of studies, including corpora such as the Vienna Oxford Corpus of International English (VOICE, 2013) and English as a Lingua Franca in Academic Settings (ELFA, 2008) investigating the dominant use of English, mostly in European contexts. Each of the two ELF corpora contains about 1 million words of spoken data (ELFA, 2008; VOICE, 2013). The pedagogical impetus and the resulting wealth of research (Jenkins, 2006; Jenkins, Cogo & Dewey, 2011) led to pedagogic recommendations which focused on form initially. One such suggestion was that non-standard language forms that usually receive much attention in ELT but do not hinder understanding in ELF contexts, for example, omitting the third person *–s* in present tense verbs (Seidlhofer, 2001; Seidlhofer, 2004) should not "constitute a focus for production teaching for those learners who intend to use English mainly in international settings. Acting on these insights can free up valuable teaching time for more general language awareness and communication strategies"

(Seidlhofer, 2005, p. 340). However, recent developments in the research of ELF, which go beyond the surface level, have highlighted the complexity of the issue at hand and, as a consequence, applied linguists have become more cautious and attempt to present the pedagogical implications of ELF research in more general terms, leaving decisions regarding particular teaching contexts with those who have first-hand experience of teaching the language (Jenkins et al., 2011; Seidlhofer, 2011).

It seems that changes necessary for an ELF-oriented teaching approach relate to two major issues. One such question is the reconsideration of the objectives of ELT, that is, that the unattainable goal of native-speaker competence should be replaced with a more realistic goal, such as the ability to use English effectively in international contexts of communication. Secondly, the focus should be shifted from the product (native-speaker norms) to the process of learning:

> What really matters is that the language should engage learners' reality and activate the learning process. Any kind of language that is taught in order to achieve this effect is appropriate, and this will always be a matter of local decision. So what is crucial is not so much what language is presented as input but what learners make of it, and how they make use of it to develop the capability for languaging. (Seidlhofer, 2011, p.198)

The concern of this paper therefore is not the particular kind of English that teachers should choose and teach but, rather, the methods and techniques that make it possible to achieve the goals outlined above. In what follows, possible ways of implementing an ELF-oriented approach to the teaching of English are offered.

2. Theoretical background

2.1 English as a lingua franca

The first findings of the VOICE corpus (2013) suggested that there may be features which are specific to ELF use. Since the majority of speakers in the project were from Europe, the existence of Euro-English, a possible variety in its own right, was hypothesised (Jenkins, Modiano & Seidlhofer, 2001). Apart from the omission of *–s* in the third person singular of present tense verbs, the grammatical features of Euro-English seemed to include using who and which interchangeably, *isn't it?* or *right?* as universal question tags as well as deviating from Standard English rules in the use of definite and indefinite articles (Jenkins

et al., 2001; Seidlhofer, 2001). In phonology, features which are necessary for international intelligibility have been identified in the Lingua Franca Core (LFC) (Jenkins, 2000; Jenkins et al., 2001). It was proposed that the teaching of pronunciation in ELT should focus on what has been included in the LFC, rather than forcing the accent of an idealised native-speaker on the students. et al., 2001; Seidlhofer, 2001). In phonology, features which are necessary for international intelligibility have been identified in the Lingua Franca Core (LFC) (Jenkins, 2000; Jenkins et al., 2001). It was proposed that the teaching of pronunciation in ELT should focus on what has been included in the LFC, rather than forcing the accent of an idealised native-speaker on the students.

However, further research has revealed that what were seen as typical ELF forms can, in fact, be found in both native and post-colonial varieties of English (Jenkins, 2012; Sewell, 2013). This finding and the high "'online' variability" as well as the contextual, hybrid and emergent nature of ELF communication (Sewell, 2013) have led to the suggestion that "ELF cannot be conceptualised as a language variety" (Jenkins, 2012, p. 490). In the study of ELF this has resulted in a shift of attention from form to function and the definition of ELF in terms of language use and not as a particular language variety (Canagarajah, 2007; Sewell, 2013). As a consequence, ELF is seen as a "specific communication context" where English is used as "the common language of choice, among speakers who come from different linguacultural backgrounds" (Jenkins, 2009a, p. 200). In a similar vein, Seidlhofer (2011) relates ELF to its speakers when she defines it "as any use of English among speakers of different first languages for whom English is the communicative medium of choice, and often the only option" (p. 7).

Despite this new take on ELF, the debate about ELF as a (potential) variety has not abated. Interestingly, sometimes it is the use of terms by leading ELF researchers that sparks a lively discussion. The fact that the opening page of the VOICE project refers to ELF as "an additional language" which serves as a means of communication between speakers of different mother tongues (VOICE, 2013) was picked up by Berns (2009), who commented on the inconsistency of the use of terminology in ELF research. The reference made by Cogo (2012), an otherwise ardent advocate of a function-oriented approach, to ELF as "a natural language" was quickly noted (fairly critically) by Sewell (2013). This led to a harsh tit for tat response by Dewey (2013), another prominent ELF figure, who defended Cogo. He lambasted Sewell for misrepresenting Cogo's conceptualisation of ELF in an argument which was based on partial quoting rather than the context of the article.

In addition, in spite of the mainstream function-oriented perception of ELF, some ELF researchers still claim that with an evolving European identity, a distinguishable variety of English is emerging as a result of English functioning as a second language in mainland Europe (Modiano, 2009). Others put the emergence of an ELF variety in a wider context and view "usage events in ELF as the conduit for an evolving variety of English in the long run" (Cem Alptekin, email communication). They argue that "given sufficient time, it may be possible for ELF to gradually become a language variety with a linguistic identity on its own" (Alptekin, 2013, p. 201). Despite dominant functional definitions of ELF, "the hope of codification has not been completely abandoned" (Jenkins, et al. 2011, p. 304) by well-known representatives of the ELF movement either.

How ELF unfolds will remain the subject of inquiry in the foreseeable future. For the time being and for the purposes of this paper, however, the definition of ELF as a particular communication context where English is used as the common language in the interaction of speakers with different linguacultural backgrounds provides a suitable starting point. Since participants in ELF communication often draw on a very different knowledge of language and the world when they engage in communication with other speakers of English, ELF contexts are characterised by diversity and fluidity, and represent "continuously negotiated, hybrid ways of speaking" (Seidlhofer, 2011, p. 4). It should be noted, however, that any language use can be described in similar terms as "situated, variable, and subject to hybridizing influences" (Sewell, 2013, p. 6). The difference between native-speaker and ELF language use therefore is not a matter of nature but of degree, the extent to which a particular type of language use displays the above features.

2.2 Pragmatics

The definition of ELF as context implies the adoption of a pragmatic rather than a linguistic approach. The concern of pragmatics – and of many ELF researchers – is language use in context, that is, how language obtains and conveys meaning in actual instances of communication.

As the following example illustrates, knowledge of the language is not enough to understand what words mean in a particular context:

> Virginia: Do you like my new hat?
> Mary: It's pink!
>
> (Stillwell Peccei, 1999, p. 25)

Even though it is relatively easy to understand the meaning of the sentences in the above exchange, outsiders to this dialogue cannot say for certain whether Mary likes Virginia's hat or not. In order to be able to establish this fact, the witness to this conversation needs to know more about Mary and her relationship with Virginia, whether Mary likes pink or detests it, whether she thinks the colour suits the occasion or not, and so on. In addition, the participants in this exchange draw on their knowledge of the conventions of the community in which they use the language. This knowledge may include what hats are for, when they are worn or what associations are triggered by the colour pink. In other words, to identify what words mean in a particular situation, language users have to activate not only their linguistic knowledge but their knowledge of the world, that is, their schematic knowledge, as well (Widdowson, 2007). The more schematic knowledge participants in an exchange share, the less need there is for language; in fact, in some cases a glance or a gesture will do.

What seems to distinguish ELF situations from interactions where the participants are native speakers of the same language and come from the same speech community is that the area of shared knowledge is smaller in ELF contexts where speakers of English often come from very different linguacultural backgrounds. The difference may be illustrated as follows.

Native speaker – native speaker communication:

ELF speaker – ELF speaker communication:

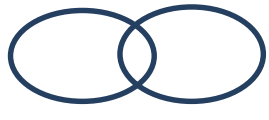

Figure 1. Area of shared knowledge (based on Widdowson, 2007, p. 54).

It is because of the smaller amount of shared linguistic and schematic knowledge that in ELF contexts the co-construction of meaning and the exploitation of communication strategies as well as any available linguistic resources are more important for the success of communication than in situations where the participants have more in common. If, therefore, teachers wish to prepare their learners to function in ELF contexts, which are more diverse and less predictable than communication with an idealised native speaker, they have to create classroom conditions where students can experience the kind of language processing and negotiation of meaning which characterises interactions with other non-native speakers.

There are at least two implications in this regard. Firstly, learners have to engage both linguistically and schematically when they use the target language. Secondly, in so doing, learners should not adopt an idealised native speaker's language and worldview, but should aim to develop their own ELF speaker schemata and their own idiolect (which will necessarily bring to bear the influence of their first language). The language classroom should not, therefore, be the venue of rehearsing future exchanges with native speakers but, rather, the place where students engage on their own terms. To use Widdowson's (1978) terminology, there should be a shift from the practice of teaching language *for* communication to teaching language *as* communication. In fact, the latter approach seems to provide more suitable conditions for second language acquisition (SLA): "[i]t is not that you learn something and then you use it; neither is it that you use something and learn it. Instead, it is in using that you learn – they are inseparable" (Larsen-Freeman, 2007, p. 783).

Since mainstream Communicative Language Teaching prepares learners of English for communication with native-speakers, it is not particularly suitable for an ELF-oriented approach to the teaching of the language (Illés, 2011). For the kind of process-orientedness that Seidlhofer (2011) refers to in the quote above, a shift in the pragmatics of ELT is needed. Thus, in an ELF-oriented approach, the learning process rather than predicted future contexts of use should take precedence and English should be learnt through use, as suggested by Widdowson (1978) and Larsen-Freeman (2007).

In what follows, I will recommend ways in which learners of English can be prepared for ELF communication in the language classroom. In so doing, I will not propose anything radically new. In fact, quite the opposite. I will, rather, highlight how discarded old ideas, such as the teaching of literature and translation as well as using the classroom as a venue of genuine communication, can promote a process-oriented teaching of English when re-introduced with

some changes. In other words, I will draw on and link up notions and methods which have been around for a long time – Widdowson's (1978) model of teaching language as communication is one example – in order to offer solutions to a new problem, the implications of the widespread lingua franca use of English for language pedagogy.

3. ELF in the language classroom

3.1 Varieties of English

What often transpires from English language coursebooks is that there exists a correct and proper variety of English used by the majority of native speakers. The only distinction that appears to be made in the classroom is the explication of the difference between British and American English. A study investigating authentic real texts in advanced ELT coursebooks has found that the dominant variety in these ELT materials is still British English. Even texts originally written by American authors have often been modified to resemble the British variety (Clavel-Arroitia & Fuster-Márquez, 2014).

However, this perception of the English language could not be further from the truth. The kind of English that is usually taught in most EFL classrooms is Standard English (SE) and Received Pronunciation (RP). And there's the rub. Neither SE, nor RP represent the most widely used variety or accent. "In Britain Standard English is spoken by 12-15 per cent of the population, of whom 9-12 per cent speak it with a regional accent" (Jenkins, 2009b, p. 36). RP, the most prestigious accent, is spoken by only 3 per cent of the population in England (Wardhaugh, 2002).

These statistics do not necessitate a change in the variety chosen for language teaching purposes; they should merely serve to debunk the myth of English as a monolithic variety best represented by SE and RP. In the classroom a more realistic view of the English language can be developed if students are made aware of the fact that what is called English is no more than an umbrella term for the many varieties that are used in different parts of the world. Although these varieties can be quite different from SE, they are equally effective in serving the communicative purposes of their speakers. They have been shaped to accommodate their users' particular reality. As the African writer, Chinua Achebe put it:

> I feel that the English language will be able to carry the weight of my African experience [...] But it will have to be a new English, still in communion with its ancestral home but altered to suit its new African surroundings. (Achebe as cited in Widdowson, 2003, p. 42)

Through exposure to different native and non-native varieties as well as being shown how speakers of English, native or non-native, shape and mould the language, students can learn how to appropriate English and develop their own idiolect which can then enable them not only to effectively communicate but to express their identity as well (Jenkins, 2007; Quifang, 2012).

3.2 ELF and the teaching of literature

Moving from language into the realm of pragmatics, there is a long-forgotten outcast in ELT which, by its very nature, generates communication that requires individual engagement through the involvement of the readers'/learners' schematic and linguistic reality. In literature, using Seidlhofer's terms (2011), what matters is what the students make of the linguistic input rather than the unconditional acceptance of prescribed meanings and interpretations:

> What is distinctive about literary texts […], is that they provoke diversity by their very generic design in that they do not directly refer to social and institutionalized versions of reality but represent an alternative order that can only be individually apprehended. They focus […] not on the social contours but on personal meanings. (Widdowson, 2003, p. 135)

By projecting an alternative, unexpected and often out-of-the-ordinary view of the world, as well as by presenting creative language use, literature provides situations which bear a close resemblance to the diversity and unpredictability of ELF interactions. Because of its unconventional nature, literature poses challenges, problems which often require the exploitation of many of the resources that are available to the reader. As a result, when trying to make sense of literary texts, students, too, are often forced to make more effort and activate not only their linguistic and schematic knowledge but various meaning-making strategies as well.

Fortunately for teachers, literary texts do not have to be long and complex, and can be manageable by less proficient speakers of the target language as well. Often a few words, an unusual combination of ordinary things and places can produce the puzzle that makes the reader move beyond the usual constraints of everyday communication, as can be seen in the case of the following poem:

Last night in London Airport
I saw a wooden bin
Labelled UNWANTED LITERATURE
IS TO BE PLACED HEREIN.
So I wrote a poem
And popped it in.

(Christopher Logue, "London Airport")

In order to make sense of the poem, the reader has to activate and combine two schemata that do not usually mix: writing a poem and dropping litter in a bin. Even if the language does not pose much of a problem, the poem – similarly to communication in international contexts of use – presents something other and different from the reader's everyday experiences.

Apart from literary pieces, coursebooks containing well-written texts which resemble works of art can also be used to prepare learners for the kind of language processing that characterises ELF communication. One such series, *Access to English*, which was published in the 1970s, is still used in some schools in Hungary (Illés, 2009). The main advantage of this old coursebook series lies in the fact that it is like a soap opera (a genre to which students can easily relate these days) with an excellent storyline and well-written and engaging texts. It makes use of literary devices such as suspense, sudden twists and humour, and creates a three-dimensional antihero-turned-hero – features which make *Access to English* a captivating book that students remember fondly even many years later (Illés, 2009).

3.3 Translation

Another outcast of communicative language teaching, translation can also be used in an ELF-oriented classroom for several reasons. First, there are considerable similarities between ELF and translation. Both serve as bridges between different languages and cultures, and both are concerned with "what works for actual speakers in specific circumstances" (Cook, 2012, p. 247). Like ELF use, translation is carried out with the needs of a particular audience in mind who not only speak a different language but often hold very differing cultural assumptions as well. Therefore, in both ELF and translation what should be said or written and how requires "an enhanced awareness of the contextual and interactional dimensions of language use" (Canagarajah, 2007, p. 924). Thus, translation, unless it is to practise vocabulary and/or grammatical structures, necessarily goes beyond the conversion of words from one language into another and functions at the pragmatic level as well.

Secondly, as in the research of ELF use, in the study of translation there has been a shift of focus from the product to the process. In contrast to translation theory which focuses on the text and the extent to which a translation is equivalent to the original, translation studies have moved towards "the process of translation in its social and political context. […] from a preoccupation with what a text means to what is meant by its speaker/writer, and what it might mean to its listener/reader" (Cook, 2012, p. 245).

Third, the move away from static products to the process of meaning making implies choice and decisions ELF users and translators have to make in order to communicate their meanings successfully. Since there are no pre-determined correct answers formulated in absolute terms in either context, the success of communication is always relative to the requirements of a particular situation which are not given but have to be assessed by the participants of ELF interactions or the translators (Cook, 2012).

In ELT, applying translation as a process can reveal what contextual factors need to be taken into consideration in order to make intercultural communication appropriate and effective for a particular audience. The discussion of relatively simple texts, such as public notices or tourist brochures can highlight the problems translators may have and the decisions they have to make. The comparison of the original and the translation of the information provided in taxis in Budapest below is a case in point.

Figure 2. Fares displayed in taxis in Budapest (Fővárosi Közgyűlés, 2013).

While the English equivalent of *alapdíj* (translated as *base fare*) may make sense to visitors, the translation of *percdíj* and *kilométerdíj* as *time-based fare unit* and *distance-based fare unit* may pose problems of intelligibility for native or non-native English speakers unfamiliar with the system of charging for taxi services in Budapest. What is missing in the English translation is the explication of the difference between the two charges. In other words, in what circumstances do they apply? The sign next to *percdíj* showing the number 15 in a circle is again understandable for only those who know that when the speed at which the taxi travels goes below 15km per hour, the fare changes and the passenger is charged depending on how many minutes have been spent in the car rather than the distance that has been covered. In fact, this background knowledge is necessary even if speakers of Hungarian try to make sense of what *percdíj* or *kilométerdíj* mean. Therefore, regardless of the language, understanding the meaning these words obtain in the particular context of licensed Budapest cabs will always be a matter of possessing the necessary schematic knowledge. If the translator correctly assumes that foreign visitors do not know how taxis charge for their services in the Hungarian capital, they may have to opt for other than a word-for-word translation and include additional information that enables the target group of native and non-native speakers of English to work out the amount they have to pay.

The text also raises issues of politeness and the rendering of intentions. While the Hungarian version is worded as you may file a complaint, the English translation uses the less polite imperative and therefore turns a request into an order or instruction – hardly the original intent of the writer of the text.

3.4 Classroom communication

As with literature and translation, I suggest that the role of classroom interaction should be reconsidered.

The perception of classroom communication as not real or genuine still holds strongly in ELT. The main reason for this is the fact that classroom communication is seen as very different from the kind of language use that prevails outside the school walls. First of all, the purpose of communication differs in the two contexts: while interactions outside the classroom have some real-life objective (e.g., conveying information or establishing rapport), the main aim of classroom communication is pedagogical. Secondly, classroom interaction seems to lack features such as open-endedness or being jointly negotiated, and typically displays patterns of the IRF cycle, that is, teacher initiation–learner response–teacher follow-up (Seedhouse, 1996).

When highlighting the limitations of these arguments, Seedhouse (1996) points out that the genuineness of classroom interaction is usually measured against the notion of conversation or everyday talk, which represents only one particular type among the many other kinds of discourse in language use. Seedhouse (1996) also claims that the IRF cycle can be found in parent-child interaction, the goal of which, apart from being pedagogical, is often communicative as well. However, despite its obvious similarities with classroom talk, parent-child interaction is not seen as 'non-natural'.

As a consequence, classroom interaction should be seen as "a variety of institutional discourse" (Seedhouse, 1996, p. 22) which has its own constraints and interactional features. Widdowson professes a similar view when he argues as follows: "It seems to me that we need to recognize that the classroom is a social construct and as such, like any other, has its contexts and purposes, its own legitimate reality" (Widdowson 2003, p. 113). Classroom communication, therefore, is as real and genuine as other types of interaction within and outside the school walls.

Taking this argument further, it can be suggested that the context of the classroom can, in fact, provide a venue for interaction that closely resembles language use outside the classroom. In the lesson, too, participants have to handle both symmetrical (student-student) and asymmetrical (teacher-student) relationships and often have to engage on their own terms both schematically and linguistically. Such pragmatic involvement can then create opportunities for learning through use, or teaching language as communication (Widdowson, 1978). As a consequence, what is generally called real-life or genuine communication can, in fact, be replicated in the classroom if teachers allow for off-topic conversations, asides, cheeky repartees and comments as well as puns that are often seen as a waste of time when pressed to cover the planned material. These acts of communication are similar to ELF interactions in that they are instantaneous and unpredictable, and require online meaning making. They are contextually bound and may not necessarily conform to native speaker norms of correctness. In addition, interactions with individual engagement often bear testimony to creative language use, reflecting highly effective exploitation of target language resources.

The following examples were recorded as part of a project which involved prospective teachers during their teaching practice (Illés & Szatzker, 2013). They are exchanges from the lessons of one of the future teachers who encouraged humour and repartee in her classes.

1. T: No test today?
   S: Yes test.

2. T: Is he ill?
   S: Yes, he's got test fever.

3. T (eliciting meaning): What do people do when they suffocate?
   S: Suffer.

The novel language forms 'yes test' and 'test fever' in the student replies in exchanges 1. and 2. have been generated by the particular Hungarian school setting and are therefore appropriate as well as highly effective even if they may not exist in native speaker varieties. They provide evidence of successful exploitation of the potential of the language – a feature of the "dynamics of ELF usage" (Seidlhofer, 2011, p. 98). In exchange 3, on the other hand, the student uses a word which alliterates with 'suffocate', and which indicates indirectly that the meaning of the English word is clear. Such instances of creative language supply counterevidence to Medgyes's claim (1992) that "non-native speakers can never be as creative and original as those whom they have learnt to copy" (p. 343).

A second implication of viewing the classroom as a legitimate context with its own reality is the recognition of the fact that the target language is not the only language that needs to be taken into account in the foreign language classroom. Learners' first languages are also present, whether teachers or other ELT professionals approve of it or not. When students start learning a foreign language, they are already fluent in at least one other language and have developed communication skills as well (Budai, 2013). Since learning takes place when new knowledge is connected to something familiar (Budai, 2013; Widdowson, 2003), and in language teaching this means relating the new language to the learners' mother tongue, being able to draw on their L1 provides a powerful learning source and tool for students.

Features of classroom communication such as the ability to exploit all available linguistic resources including the L1, and the use of repetition, paraphrasing or code-switching facilitate mutual intelligibility not only in the language class but in ELF contexts of use as well (Seidlhofer, 2011). Allowing languages other than English into the classroom and letting students code-switch for various communicative and pedagogical purposes may help them prepare for the demands of ELF communication in the outside world.

According to Carless (2008), the three main reasons why students use their L1 in the foreign language class are "to express meaning, identity or humour" (p. 333). The following exchange taken from one of the lessons of the above mentioned prospective teacher illustrates how the understanding and admission of the student's own mistake is communicated with a touch of humour in the L1.

S: I have a cold.
T: You don't look sick to me.
S (after a short pause): Na jó, akkor fázom. [All right then, I am cold.]

The teacher watched one of the students getting up and changing seats. She looked at the student questioningly, to which the student responded in English, not realising that his message did not convey the intended meaning. The teacher's reaction made the misunderstanding created by using the wrong phrase obvious and led to the correction of the mistake in the L1. Apart from the humorous effect, the student's Hungarian reply is more revealing than a correction in English would have been since it shows the thinking behind the choice of expressions. As in ELF communication, in this exchange too, there is an increased need for negotiation of meaning so that the misunderstanding can be clarified.

4. Conclusion

The prevalence of ELF communication in interactions conducted in the English language necessitates a reconsideration of the objectives and focus of ELT. Rather than preparing learners to use English with idealised native speakers, the teaching of English should set effective participation in ELF contexts as its aim. This requires a shift in focus from the product of language learning, that is, native speaker correctness and appropriateness, to the process of online negotiation of meaning in situations where the contextual parameters are less predictable and stable. Such an approach entails engaging learners on their own terms both linguistically and schematically, which can be achieved if English is taught *as* communication (Widdowson,1978) where language learning and language use take place simultaneously (Larsen-Freeman, 2007).

It has been suggested that some of the outcasts of communicative language teaching can create favourable conditions for genuine language use within the classroom. Contrary to popular belief, the teaching of literature and translation as well as the reconsideration of the role of classroom communication can cater for the students' current learning needs and promote an ELF-oriented approach

to ELT. The question of whether recycling old techniques for new purposes works can only be answered by those at the chalkface. This paper has only attempted to provide some food for thought for the endeavour.

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What interpreter trainees were never taught in the language classroom

Esther Gutiérrez Eugenio

1. Introduction

During my training as a conference interpreter, I always had the impression that the intertwinedness of the processes involved in language learning and in translation and interpreting were to some extent misunderstood and underestimated by professionals and academics in both fields. Later on, when I started collaborating as an interpreter trainer, I had the chance to observe again the struggle of the interpreter trainees to cope with the specialised terminology and the development of the relevant interpreting skills, while trying to upgrade their language knowledge and skills to the level required to become successful professional interpreters. This observation confirmed my own personal experience and motivated the launching of this study to explore in more depth the linguistic difficulties faced by interpreter trainees. Considering that English has become the language in which most international communication takes place (Holliday, 2005, 2009; Seidlhofer, 2001, 2005, 2011; Widdowson, 1994, 1997), it is logical to think that it will also be the most common language from and into which translation and interpreting happens. The results from this study may, therefore, be of considerable relevance to inform the design of future English courses and linguistic curricula both in everyday contexts and as part of translation and interpreting courses.

Despite the recent renewed interest in including translation in language learning (Carreres, 2006; G. Cook, 2007, 2010; Duff, 1989; Malmkjaer, 1997; Popovic, 2001; Stoddart, 2000), there still seems to exist an important gap in the literature concerning the role of language learning before, during and after translator and interpreter training. This study aims to contribute to the understanding of this common ground between language learning, translation and, particularly, interpreting, by exploring the language learning processes that take place during professional interpreting courses, with a focus on the specific language deficiencies that trainees identify as hindering their development as confident and efficient professional interpreters.

In the paragraphs that follow, the aim will be to present the theoretical and research framework within which this study articulates itself. First, I will offer

definitions for the activities of *translating* and *interpreting*, as well as for some related terms such as *conference interpreting*, *interpreter trainee* or *interpreter training programmes*. Second, I will review previous literature and research studies that aim to bridge to some extent the existing gap between the fields of second language pedagogy and translation studies, with a focus on language learning and interpreter training. This discussion will lead to the main aim of this study: an exploration of the language difficulties that interpreter trainees identify during their interpreter training and that could have been addressed during their general language education.

2. Literature review

2.1 Translation and interpreting: definition of main terms

In this paper, a number of terms are used that come from Translation Studies (the field that studies the processes involved in both translation and interpreting) and whose meaning needs to be defined. In the context of this paper, translation and interpreting are defined as activities that can occur both in a professional and an academic context, either as part of specialised translator and interpreter training programmes or as simple elements in language learning courses. Translation is the activity of reproducing a text in a different language in written form, while interpreting refers to the same activity but with both the original and the final texts (more commonly referred to as speeches) expressed in oral form. In both cases, the message, style, register and function of the original text must generally be maintained in the target text (Gile, 2009; Hurtado Albir, 1988, 1996; Klaudy, 2003; Malmkjaer, 1997). Despite the fact that both the activities of translating and interpreting involve a significant amount of intrinsically similar processes (message and context analysis, linguistic decoding and recoding), they have long been considered as separate activities on the basis of the very different abilities and skills that they require from the individual (Gile, 2004, 2009).

There exist several modes of interpreting (consecutive, simultaneous, liaison, chuchotage, etc.), which differ from each other mainly according to the type of work and effort that they require from the interpreter (e.g., taking notes, whispering, summarising) and on the context where they are generally used (e.g., social services, private meetings, international conferences). This study particularly focuses on conference interpreting, used as an overarching term to include modes of interpretation that aim at "rendering a message from one language into another, naturally and fluently, adopting the delivery, tone and

convictions of the speaker and speaking in the first person" (Directorate General for Interpretation, SCIC, online).

In interpreting, as well as in translation sometimes, it is common to talk about the *A, B* and *C languages* of each individual. As defined by the International Association of Conference Interpreters (AIIC,1982) and by the European Commission's Directorate General for Interpretation (SCIC, online), an *A language* is the mother tongue of the individual, a *B language* is a language mastered well enough for the individual to provide an acceptable interpretation both from and into this language, and a *C language* is a language that the individual only has a passive knowledge of and therefore can only interpret from but not into. The working languages or language combination of an interpreter refers to the languages they can interpret from and into. While this classification is strictly adhered in conference interpreting, it becomes somewhat more flexible when the interpreters work in other contexts, such as private meetings or the social services.

In contrast with the situation a few decades ago, when interpreters had to train themselves and, very often, learn by doing, nowadays there exists a large number of interpreting programmes all around the world where thousands of students are trained every year (AIIC, online). These programmes cover a large number of interpreting modes, and usually specialise in one particular type of interpreting (conference, court, medical, liaison, etc.). Students enrolled for these programmes are commonly referred to as interpreter trainees, and they constitute the main focus of attention for this study.

2.2 The role of translation and interpreting in second language learning

Translation is a common point of debate amongst teachers and experts in second language pedagogy, and has long been excluded from the language classroom on the basis of its allegedly detrimental effects for the development of the learners' communicative competence in the target language. However, in the last few years there has been an important number of academics both in the field of translation studies (e.g., Hurtado Albir, 1988; Malmkjaer, 1997; Vermes, 2010) and in the field of second language pedagogy (e.g., G. Cook, 2007, 2010; Duff, 1989; Popovic, 2001) who have strongly argued for the reincorporation of translation into language courses. Following this trend, some have even conducted some small-scale studies to evaluate the students' attitudes towards translation activities (e.g., Carreres, 2006; Sánchez Cuadrado, 2011; Takimoto & Hashimoto, 2010) and suggested different ways in which these activities can be incorporated into communicative teaching approaches (e.g., G. Cook, 2010; Duff, 1989; Illés, 2011b; Stoddart, 2000; Vázquez Mariño, 2012).

Considerably less has been written about the potential of interpreting in the foreign language classroom, although some authors in second language pedagogy tend to include interpreting activities under the heading of translation (see, for example, the pedagogical suggestions in G. Cook, 2010). A search for studies that incorporate interpreting activities into language teaching yields very limited results. Amongst these scarce examples, it is worth mentioning La Sala (2008), who describes how her optional module on liaison interpreting (a simplified mode of consecutive interpreting) in the last year of Italian studies at a UK university helped students become more confident and accurate users of the language. Prieto Arranz (2002) explains his experience using liaison interpreting as a teaching technique with a 4th-year group of English Philology students at a university in Spain, and argues for the inclusion of these kinds of activities in the foreign language classroom. Takimoto and Hashimoto (2010) also conducted a study about students' attitudes towards translation and interpreting activities as part of language courses, and concluded by arguing for the inclusion of these activities to promote a greater understanding of the target language.

2.3 The role of second language learning in translation and interpreting

Advanced proficiency in at least one foreign language is a logical and indispensable pre-requisite for translator and interpreter training. Yet, linguistic deficiencies are the most important reason why students fail their final professional examinations (Keiser, 1978). Gile (2009) explains how, for a number of reasons, institutions are sometimes forced to accept students without the required mastery of their languages. In order to help these weaker students, some of the training programmes include language enhancement courses (Ilg, 1978, 1980). However, other institutions, such as the one where the present study was conducted, consider that language learning should take place before starting interpreter training, and that students are responsible for addressing any linguistic deficiencies intuitively and autonomously along their interpreter training. Trainers working in these programmes do provide feedback to the trainees on linguistic aspects, but it is left entirely to the trainees' judgement to decide how to tackle these problems.

Apart from the basic linguistic comments given to the students as part of the feedback on their performance, interpreter training courses do not tend to assume any responsibility in helping students improve their language skills. Certainly, there exist a number of publications focused on how language courses can help students develop the skills necessary for later training in translation

(Beeby, 2004; Berenguer, 1996, 1999; Bowen, 1989; Brehm Cripps & Hurtado Albir, 1999; Malmkjaer, 1998). However, Zannirato (2008) has been the only researcher to date who has looked at including second language pedagogy principles into interpreter training in an effort to better support the trainees' linguistic and overall development. This lack of literature is evidence of the interpreter trainers' lack of knowledge of trainees' linguistic difficulties, and encourages the conducting of exploratory research studies such as this one.

3. Aims of the study and research questions

As stated above, this study was motivated mainly by my own personal interest in exploring the language learning processes that take place in interpreter training courses. My collaboration as an interpreter trainer at a postgraduate conference interpreting programme provided an excellent opportunity to observe and investigate in detail the language learning processes that I was so curious about. In the framework of a broader case study, this paper focuses on discovering and identifying which aspects of the trainee's previous language learning could have been improved and developed in order to prepare them more efficiently for their interpreter training and work. The study only aimed to answer the following research question:

What language difficulties do interpreter trainees identify during interpreter training that could have been ideally addressed during the previous stages of language learning?

4. Research methods

The exploratory nature of this study fits within the qualitative paradigm of research. Within this paradigm, a case study research design seemed the most appropriate way to explore specific issues that occur within a small sample in a determinate context (Creswell, 1998).

4.1 Participants

The participants in this research study were ten interpreter trainees at a renowned interpreter training institution in Budapest enrolled in a 10-month full-time conference interpreting course. At the end of this course, the trainees have to sit a professional examination organised by an EU institution where their interpreting ability is tested against professional benchmarks. The participants'

mother tongue was Hungarian in all cases, and they had a mixture of language combinations, as shown in Table 1. Participation in this study was voluntary. In exchange for their participation, the trainees were only offered a snack during the group interviews and the enjoyable possibility to discuss and share the language learning issues they were encountering during their training.

All the interpreter trainees had an advanced command of English, despite their different B languages. Five of the participants had attended bilingual English-Hungarian secondary schools, three of them had participated in school schemes that involved an increased number of English language lessons across their years at secondary school, and the remaining two attended mainstream secondary schools with an average of 4-5 English language lessons per week. All the interpreter trainees majored in their B languages from different Hungarian universities, and some of them had completed a two-year master's level degree in translation and interpreting prior to enrolment in this specialised conference interpreting course. Their C languages had been learnt through a combination of formal instruction at school and at university, and through stays in the foreign country and professional or personal contact with the language.

Table 1. *Language combination of each participant.*

Participant	A Language	B Language	C Languages
Participant 1	Hungarian	English	French, Spanish
Participant 2	Hungarian	English	French, Spanish
Participant 3	Hungarian	English	Italian
Participant 4	Hungarian	English	Spanish
Participant 5	Hungarian	English	French, German
Participant 6	Hungarian	English	French
Participant 7	Hungarian	English	French
Participant 8	Hungarian	English	German
Participant 9	Hungarian	French	English, Italian
Participant 10	Hungarian	Spanish	English

4.2 Data collection: instruments

4.2.1 Observation

Thanks to my involvement as an interpreter trainer in the Spanish section of this interpreting programme, I had the chance to act as a participant-observer. I participated in about 8 hours of practice sessions per week for 25 weeks, during which I had the chance to interact with the participants, listen to their performances and offer both linguistic and technical feedback. Although I was primarily working with the Spanish B trainees (only one of whom felt comfortable enough in English to participate in this study), in the practice sessions speeches were rendered in all the trainees' working languages and each booth could decide into which language they wanted to interpret. This allowed me to acquire a good understanding of each trainee's difficulties, as well as to develop a friendly rapport with them that would prove very positive at the interview stage.

4.2.2 Feedback notes on trainees' interpreting performance

The feedback notes were a valuable research instrument in this study. They consisted of all the notes and annotations I had taken while listening to the trainees' renditions of the speeches. The notes served as the basis for the oral feedback that the trainees' received after each training session, and included all kinds of signs, remarks and annotations about both the interpreting technique and the linguistic quality of the trainees' performance. These notes were stored over the whole academic year, and their analysis helped identify specific linguistic issues that could later be discussed with the participants during the group interviews, especially in the case of the Spanish B trainee but also with the English and French B participants.

4.2.3 Semi-structured focus group interviews

The most important part of the data was obtained through two semi-structured focus group interviews. As Dörnyei (2007) explains, this method allows collecting a considerable amount of data while yielding a rich, insightful discussion between the participants around the explored issue. I acted as a moderator by introducing the research study and the questions, making sure that every participant had the chance to express their viewpoint and encouraging discussion of each other's contributions. Participants were asked to discuss the following main questions, which constituted the interview guide:

• *What linguistic difficulties have you encountered in your working languages since you started your training?*
• *What aspects of your language learning should have been different and in which ways in order to prepare you better for interpreter training and work?*

4.3 Data collection: procedures

The feedback notes were collected during the whole academic year and used to guide the questions during the focus group interviews. Observation also played an important role as continuous contact with the participants contributed to a relaxed, cooperative atmosphere during the interviews. Both the feedback notes and the observation helped me gain a deeper understanding of each participant's stage of linguistic development, which in turn was very valuable to trigger insightful answers from the trainees at the interviews and to later make sense of the data collected.

The group interviews took place during the Easter holidays in 2013. For practical reasons, I decided to organise two parallel sessions of about one hour each: the first session with only four trainees (participants 3, 5, 8 and 9), the second session with six (participants 1, 2, 4, 6, 7 and 10). The sessions were video-recorded with the participants' permission to facilitate later verbatim transcription.

The sessions were conducted in English as this was the only language I had in common with the trainees. All the participants understood the importance of feeling comfortable expressing their views in English, and were offered the possibility to switch to Spanish, French or Hungarian if necessary at any point during the interviews, although eventually this was not necessary.

4.4 Methods of data analysis

Qualitative data analysis methods were used in this study. Before the interviews, I analysed the feedback notes to identify linguistic difficulties in each participant. These notes were taken to the interviews and used as probes for further discussion among the participants. After the interviews, I personally transcribed the recordings, assigned a code to each participant and, after several readings, started to identify recurring themes and to establish the categories presented in the next section (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996; Maykut & Morehouse, 1994).

5. Findings and discussion

The aim of this paper was to identify the language difficulties that interpreter trainees identified during their interpreter training and that could have been addressed throughout their previous language education. The analysis of the data uncovered a number of interesting issues that led to the creation of the categories listed below. Despite the reduced number of participants, and therefore maybe the incompleteness of these results, the findings do offer some thought-provoking insights into the deficiencies of current language courses as well as suggestions to overcome these deficiencies in the future.

5.1 Gaps in language knowledge

Participants expressed several times how their training had helped them gain a more realistic perception of their language knowledge. Most of them arrived at this programme with the belief that their mastery of their languages was exceptional, only to realise that in some cases they had very basic gaps in all or some of their languages. For example, the parts of the body, colours, and large figures or percentages seemed to be recurrent problematic areas for all the participants throughout the training course.

Participants also agreed on the difficulty of avoiding communication and language learning strategies commonly used in the language classroom, such as paraphrasing or the use of a general term (Chesterman, 1997; Oxford, 1990). Instead, precision and contextual accuracy were necessary to maintain the level of linguistic sophistication required by the speeches. As one of the participants explains in the quote below, using the language for one's personal communicative purposes allows greater linguistic freedom, letting the speaker decide what exactly they want to say and what linguistic resources they will use to transmit this message. In contrast, using the language for interpreting means, first of all, that the language production occurs under very constraining conditions of time and pressure, which significantly limit the interpreter's possibilities to apply communication strategies such as asking for clarification, restarting the sentence or rephrasing an idea. Furthermore, the focus when using the language in interpreting is not only on transmitting the message faithfully, but also on other linguistic and non-linguistic factors, such as the style, register, context or the relationship between the original speaker and the intended audience.

> In real life you want to express your feelings and you find the way to do it, in a (sic) way or another… If you can't think of the right expression, well, maybe you use a similar word or explain with a sentence, but in the [interpreting] booth you can't afford that. Plus you always need to sound sophisticated, which means that you can't just use any word!
> (Participant 6)

5.2 Pedagogical vs. real-life language and materials

According to the participants, one of the main differences between their interpreter training and their previous language learning courses was the kind of materials used and the nature of the language exposure. In language learning, the participants acknowledged that materials seemed too pedagogical, with a focus on literary texts and listening activities recorded by native speakers at a manageable speed for the students. In real life, and particularly in conference interpreting, the focus is on current affairs and therefore a sound knowledge of specialised terminology in a broad number of topics is necessary. As the participant below explains, there seems to be a mismatch between the use of these literary texts and graded materials in the classroom, and the kinds of texts and topics that students are most likely to encounter on a daily basis in real life, and particularly also in interpreting:

> I remember at university we had to study a lot of literature, very difficult texts, learn all those fancy poetic words, but I don't think they are very useful really… because people in normal life don't talk about metaphors and all that, they talk about politics, about the crisis, about the environment. I think learning about this would have been more productive even if I didn't want to be an interpreter because that's what you hear when you put the TV on. (Participant 1)

Furthermore, real speeches in the international community are rarely given by perfect native speakers, and trainees have to get used to an infinite number of foreign and dialectical accents, especially in the case of English and its current status as an international lingua franca (Holliday, 2005, 2009; Seidlhofer, 2001, 2005, 2011; Widdowson, 1994, 1997, 2003). As two of the participants explain below, nowadays, most of the speakers at international conferences around the world are non-native speakers with sometimes very marked accents and a noticeably deficient knowledge of English, which only makes the interpreter's task even more difficult and challenging, particularly if the interpreter has been mainly exposed to English native speakers.

> In the books everything is beautiful and perfect, but in real life… well, how often do we hear speeches given by native speakers at the EU? (Participant 5).

> It's funny, we spend years at school listening to these tapes and CDs and fighting to have native teachers at university, and then you come here and have to interpret that Italian guy with a horrible English pronunciation and even more horrible grammar, and that's when you realise that all that doesn't really matter so much, the only thing that matters here is understanding what this guy is actually trying to say with his poor English. (Participant 2)

5.3 Importance of details and nuances

While in the language classroom there is always a margin for error and misunderstanding, in interpreting every small nuance and detail may have an immeasurable importance for the hearer. It is therefore extremely important to understand the message in all its detail and complexity and to be able to express it in the other language with the same level of precision. As the participant below illustrates, mishearing, misunderstanding or simply not understanding a word or an expression constitutes one of interpreters' most feared situations, particularly if this word or expression is key to understanding and reconstructing the message of the speech:

> Before if there was a word I didn't understand I would just think "who cares, I understand the whole message and that's what matters!" and now if this happens I am more like "oh, oh, I'm in trouble!" (Participant 3)

5.4 Code-switching

Participants recognised as one of the main challenges in interpreting the fact that they needed to build bridges that allowed them to continuously jump from one language to another, including their mother tongue. This is in contrast with their previous language learning experiences, where the emphasis was on thinking and communicating solely in the target language, and where learning strategies such as discussing the best translation for a term were discouraged (G. Cook, 2007, 2010; Widdowson, 2003). The ability to code-switch quickly and efficiently from one language to another and to retrieve the most appropriate equivalent for each term seemed one of the most demanding linguistic skills

that trainees had to develop during their training. As explained in the quote below, interpreting trainees are required to constantly move across their languages to find adequate translations for terms and expressions, a task that so far had been almost forbidden in their previous language education and that suddenly becomes a sort of yardstick by which their linguistic and interpreting skills are judged and evaluated.

> [Language] teachers always tell you "don't translate, you have to think in the language!" and when you get here suddenly it seems like a race to see who is the first one to come up with the best translation for every word and every expression, and you have to do it in seconds because if not, you are not good enough to be here. (Participant 10)

6. Implications for English language teaching

Although the results presented in this study have some limitations, such as the small sample or the special circumstances of the participants as interpreter trainees, there are nonetheless a number of implications for language teaching that may be drawn from them. These implications are particularly important in the case of English language teaching, considering the position that English occupies nowadays as the most studied foreign language all around the world thanks to its status as the new lingua franca for international communication (Holliday, 2005, 2009; Seidlhofer, 2001, 2005, 2011; Widdowson, 1994, 1997, 2003).

In the first instance, it seems that the selection of materials used for language teaching do not prepare students adequately for real-life interactions in the target language. The exposure to the language that the majority of textbooks offer differs in many aspects from the language input that students will face in real life: most texts will relate to everyday topics, such as those on the radio or the news, will be delivered at a natural speed, and will present a vast diversity of accents and language varieties, including non-native speakers. If these real-life materials were introduced in the language classroom, they could lead to a fruitful discussion about the difficulties that they present and possible techniques to overcome these difficulties. Students would therefore develop a set of strategies that would allow them to communicate better and more

effectively when faced with similar situations in real life. In the case of English, it could also help students to reflect about the peculiarities of learning and using a lingua franca (Illés, 2011a; Seidlhofer, 2001, 2005, 2011), particularly the way non-native users bend grammatical and lexical rules to enhance their communicative purpose, and the importance of early exposure to both native and non-native accents (V. Cook, 1999; Holliday, 2005, 2009; Llurda, 2004; Medgyes, 1994; Seidlhofer, 1996; Widdowson, 1994, 1997, 2003).

From the accounts of the interpreter trainees, it is also evident that current language instruction may be underestimating the importance of very basic language knowledge in everyday communication, such as numbers, colours or parts of the body. Although they are usually included in textbooks for beginner learners, it may be useful for more advanced students to regularly review and practise these elements within more complex linguistic contexts. For example, reading and understanding dates, times, figures and percentages may be of extreme usefulness not only for future interpreters but also for students who want to understand the news on television, attend conferences in their professional fields or work in international companies where they have to use foreign languages.

Finally, it seems that the target-language-only policies in language teaching may have to be reconsidered, as some experts have already argued (G. Cook, 2007, 2010; Widdowson, 2003, among others). Although not all language students will have to engage in such intense code-switching processes as interpreters do, changing quickly and efficiently from one language to another has become a crucial ability for most people involved in international communication. Therefore, (pseudo-)translation and (pseudo-)interpreting tasks that focus on communication and real-life situations (such as the examples presented by G. Cook, 2010; Duff, 1989; Illés in this compilation; La Sala, 2008; Prieto Arranz, 2002; Stoddart, 2000; Takimoto & Hashimoto, 2010; Vázquez Mariño, 2012) could help students develop the code-switching skills that will eventually make them become more effective communicators in an increasingly globalised and multilingual world.

7. Conclusion

The aim of this study was to explore the language difficulties that interpreter trainees identified during their interpreter training and that could have been tackled earlier on throughout their language education. The results from the focus group interviews with a number of interpreter trainees showed several important deficiencies in the trainees' linguistic knowledge and abilities: an insufficient command of basic language elements such as numbers and colours, struggles with code-switching effectively and swiftly between all their languages, difficulty understanding all the nuances in the original message and re-expressing them quickly and faithfully in the target language, and a lack of familiarity with recurrent topics in daily international communication as well as with different native and non-native accents.

These findings have allowed me to point at a number of ways in which language courses could potentially be improved, both those aimed specifically at future interpreters and those intended for regular language learners. Among the suggestions put forward, two issues have emerged as key for a more effective approach to language teaching, and particularly for the teaching of English as a lingua franca.

The first issue regards the traditionally neglected importance of code-switching as part of language learning. Despite code-switching being an essential ability in multilingual settings, foreign language learning seems to still defend a monolingual approach where the use of other languages in the classroom is discouraged (G. Cook, 2007, 2010; Widdowson, 2003). However, the findings from this study support the claim that this approach may be to the detriment of the learners who, at some point in their lives as bi-/multilingual individuals, will need to make use of this ability to act as mediators between speakers of their different languages. This leads inevitably to the polemic and current debate of whether translation activities should be included in language teaching. Emerging from this debate, and based on the results of studies such as this one, many academics and teachers are arguing for a reintroduction of these activities in the classroom and have explored new ways to incorporate translation into communicative language teaching (Carreres, 2006; G. Cook, 2007, 2010; Duff, 1989; Illés, 2011a, 2011b and in this compilation; La Sala, 2008; Malmkjaer, 1997; Popovic, 2001; Prieto Arranz, 2002; Stoddart, 2000; Vázquez Mariño, 2012). Further similar studies with successful language learners and users are encouraged to identify the specific translation and interpreting activities that would best prepare students' for real-life communication in international settings.

The second issue concerns the need to increase students' exposure to a wider range of accents and language varieties that realistically reflects the use of English in the current globalised world (Illés in this compilation). By definition, recognising that English has become the new lingua franca of international communication (Holliday, 2005, 2009; Seidlhofer, 2001, 2005, 2011; Widdowson, 1994, 1997, 2003) implies that non-native speakers of English largely outnumber native speakers. Therefore, it is logical to argue that nowadays the majority of the texts and speeches at an international level will be produced by non-native speakers of English. Inevitably, this shift in the nature of English language use will need to have implications in the way English is learnt and taught. If classroom materials are to offer a realistic reflection of the different varieties of English currently used around the world, they will necessarily and legitimately need to include both native and non-native varieties. As a result, students will be exposed from the early stages of language learning to the wide range of English accents and varieties that exist in the world, and will consequently be better prepared to engage in effective communication at an international level with other (native or non-native) speakers of English.

This study has focused on a group of interpreter trainees and has therefore represented a very small and particular portion of the English language learners around the world. Despite this fact, the findings yield some interesting insights into the linguistic needs and difficulties encountered by international English learners and users, and highlight a number of ways in which current language courses and teaching approaches could be improved to effectively tackle these issues. Further studies with larger groups of participants would be necessary to uncover other potential deficiencies in language courses and to assess whether similar results emerge from other groups of students with different language learning and using profiles.

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Language skills for international employment

Jasmina Sazdovska, Ildikó Polyák and Györgyi Dudás

1. Introduction

This study into the language skills required for international employment has been triggered by the need of a business college in Budapest, the International Business School (IBS), to keep up with the changing requirements of the increasingly internationalised world of work. The emergence of global business organisations implies that companies have similar expectations of candidates who seek employment with them. While suitable qualifications have remained of primary importance, so-called soft skills have come to the fore. In contrast with knowledge, technical or hard skills, soft skills are personal qualities, traits, attitudes and behaviours, which "determine one's strengths as a leader, facilitator, mediator, and negotiator" (Robles, 2012, p. 457). This umbrella term also includes effective oral and written communication skills coupled with the knowledge of foreign languages, especially in a European context.

IBS is a relatively small, UK accredited business college. All instruction at the school is conducted in English and upon graduation the students are awarded a degree from the University of Buckingham, or in the case of the older programmes Oxford Brookes University. Students at the college can specialise in different business related fields such as marketing, finance, or tourism management. On the Bachelor's programmes, students spend their third, penultimate year on work placement, where they are exposed to the expectations of a real-life work setting and where they first need to apply the acquired knowledge and skills in a realistic situation. For the purposes of this study, these students who are on work placement in their third year of studies are called interns, while the ones who have completed the Bachelor's programme and have started full-time employment are called graduates.

In addition to being exposed to the employment environment in their third year, students at IBS are also required to use English as a lingua franca on a daily basis as all the classes are taught in English and over half the cohort consists of international students from over 60 countries. In this sense IBS represents a

lingua franca context (Jenkins, 2009). Therefore, apart from the work placement, the international nature of the IBS context itself also helps students to acquire the English communicative competencies required for their future employment in multinational companies that use English as a lingua franca.

The prime incentive for this research was to compare the requirements employers have of IBS graduates and interns to the content and design of our courses and syllabi. This study is part of a large research project at IBS which is aimed at assessing the future needs of students in communication, soft skills and language skills required by employers. In this article, we present the findings of only one of the main research aspects, namely, the language skills that employers seek in interns and graduates. This goal is accomplished by identifying the typical language-related tasks that IBS interns and graduates are required to perform at work. In addition, we aim to highlight the possible implications the findings might have for our course and syllabus design. The results of the study may also have wider implications for the teaching of English for Specific Purposes (ESP), English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English Language Teaching (ELT) in general. Figure 1. below shows the areas in which it is hoped the study may be able to make contributions. In order to illustrate how the results of the study will be incorporated into the IBS programme, the current course design and language syllabi are described at the end of the study. Appendix A shows the content of the English language modules taught at IBS, while Appendix B includes the content of other foreign languages taught at the college.

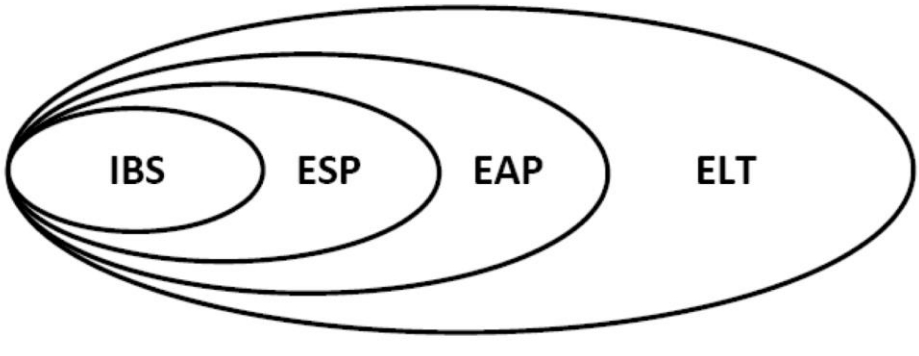

Figure 1. Areas of possible contribution.

2. Employability and language skills

This section will describe the use of English in global employment, the language and communication skills required for the workplace, internationalisation and the multilingual skills as well as language skills required for various fields of business.

The internationalisation of businesses has turned English into the world's principal lingua franca (ELF), which has raised interest in how this fact influences business communication (Charles, 2007; Kankaanranta & Planken, 2010), English for specific purposes (Kankaanranta & Louhiala-Salminen, 2010; Nickerson, 2005), and business discourse (Bargiela-Chiappini, 2009; Koester, 2010).

Speaking English seems to be not only an advantage in finding employment, but very often it is a basic requirement. Many international companies that do not originate from English-speaking countries use English as their corporate language. Therefore, being fluent both in written and spoken English is a prerequisite for a job even for interns and fresh graduates, at most global, international companies like Siemens (Siemens, 2013) for example. Similarly, English is the stipulated language requirement for middle- or senior-level positions at another global company, the U.S. based Coca-Cola Company, regardless of the actual location of the company in the world (Coca-Cola, 2013). There is even some indication that English as a lingua franca used, for example, by Hungarian employees in Germany or France, might actually be decoupled from native speaker norms by requiring international intelligibility for practical, business purposes rather than reflecting the cultural or social identity of the speaker (Seidlhofer, Breiteneder & Pitzl, 2006). While English is a basic requirement, speaking additional foreign languages can further enhance employability, particularly in Europe, and can "provide a competitive edge" to successful businesses (European Commission, 2008, p. 5).

Besides effective communication skills, which incorporate different aspects of communicating such as listening, oral and written skills of a given language, English language skills are seen as essential in the international workplace and they are considered to be "basic skills more than a foreign language" (European Commission, 2008, p. 8). In a survey carried out at a German multinational corporation, English language skills were regarded as equal to basic literacy skills, which are essential skills for employees all across the board in the company (Ehrenreich, 2010).

Although English seems to hold its leading position as a lingua franca of international business, other foreign languages have gained a prominent role in international communication. The ELAN (2006) survey suggests that Russian, French and Spanish are used extensively as a lingua franca in place of English in many European businesses to communicate with their Eastern-European, African, or Latin American counterparts. In the same vein, it claims that foreign language skills appear to be an important additional qualification that small and medium sized enterprises (SMEs) should seek in graduates, especially in the multilingual EU, if they want to ensure that they can exploit their business potential to the full, as language skills can translate to economic gains.

European policy documents also emphasise the significance of speaking languages (Council of Europe, 2007) and stress the importance of improving one's employability potential by being multilingual (Bologna Declaration, 1999; European Commission, 2008). This viewpoint is further supported by the findings of a recent survey carried out at the request of the European Commission, which suggests that the majority of the surveyed sample in 26 EU member states agreed that "everyone in the EU should be able to speak at least two languages in addition to their mother tongue" (European Commission, 2012, p. 4). A very similar idea is fostered by the Council of Europe in its language policy, which, among many other competences, promotes the need of becoming "plurilingual" (Council of Europe, 2001).

In the past few decades, considerable efforts have been made internationally by stakeholders of education, including governmental and educational institutions as well as corporations involving students and student supervisors at companies, to identify the necessary skills graduates will need once they enter employment and to help them improve these skills (Andrews & Higson, 2008; Grugulis & Vincent, 2009; Scheele & Harich, 2010). Investigation into the topic in Europe and America has found that besides the necessary core or hard business knowledge, excellent communication skills are essential in the workplace to be able to communicate such knowledge both for entry-level or for more senior employees (Andrews & Higson, 2008; Scheele & Harich, 2010). A study which investigated the relationship between technical knowledge and soft skills and their effect on productivity at international IT companies highlighted, however, that only those persons who have the required technical skills can benefit from soft skills, so communication skills cannot be seen as an alternative to core competences (Grugulis & Vincent, 2009).

Apart from the global research of employability in general, numerous universities and business colleges have been conducting studies of the courses they provide in various professions such as accountancy, marketing, public relations, or IT, for example, (Cole, Hembroff & Corner, 2009; Gray, 2010; Sodhi & Son, 2008). Such studies tend to be highly focused and aim to examine the essential employment skills required in the colleges' or universities' specific fields. Such educational research projects have been conducted both in Europe (Andrews & Higson, 2008; Grugulis & Vincent, 2009; Lehtonen & Karjalainen, 2009;) and in the US, Australia and New Zealand (Cole et al., 2009; Gray, 2010; Sap & Zhang, 2009; Schlee & Harich, 2010). These studies aim to identify the most sought after skills by employers so that they can design courses to develop and enhance the soft skills of their graduates. One such research project carried out among accountancy graduates in New Zealand identified communication skills and "speaking correct and comprehensible English" as important (Gray, 2010, p. 51), and a similar study in the US promoted the development of writing skills as essential for future public relation graduates (Cole et al., 2009). Another research project carried out in the UK aimed to identify the most essential employment skills required of applicants for operations research positions. By examining online job advertisements for these vacancies, the study revealed that communication skills are at the top of the list among the identified essential soft skills (Sodhi & Son, 2008).

Even though the findings of such localised research give relevant and valuable feedback to the institutions on the success of their curriculum, it is arguable whether the individual nature of the surveyed fields at a few higher education institutions are representative enough to make generalisations for all institutions (Teichler, 2007). This opinion seems to oppose the conclusion of a study conducted in four European countries (UK, Austria, Slovenia and Romania) to identify the key skills and competencies required by employers of business graduates, which found that these [expectations] "were remarkably homogeneous" despite the socio-economic and cultural differences of the four surveyed counties (Andrews & Higson, 2008, p. 420).

In any event, in order to best equip graduates with the necessary communication and language skills for the global workplace, educational institutions need to take the lead to map these changing needs from time to time, so that they can offer improvements to their current course design. Research projects like that of the University of Helsinki Language Centre are some of the many intended to better understand such requirements as knowing

the language and communication needs of a workplace, which can be helpful in planning the curriculum and degree requirements for a university (Lehtonen & Karjalainen, 2009). The role of educational professionals in gauging the actual needs of graduates and employers, indeed, seems to be a responsible approach to tailoring courses that can respond to the demands of a modern workplace and can best prepare students for the challenges of successful employment.

The majority of the empirical research in the area focuses on a particular field of specialisation. For example, there have been studies researching the soft skills and communication skills that hospitality managers would need for employment (Melvin et al). Others have focused on accounting (Gray, 2010), PR (Cole et al., 2009) and cover letter design, which is used in all fields of entry-level employment (West, 2006). Another area of specialisation that has been researched, especially in the area of language learning, is the re-emerging need for translation skills (Carreres, 2006; Cook, 2010). Other research has been conducted not according to a field of specialisation, but rather according to the genres that students would need to master for employment, which might be linked to developments in technology, such as file sharing (Pappas, 2010), microblogging (Pophal, 2009) and social media (Hanna, 2009). These research projects provide useful results on the need for including emerging genres in teaching curricula which is particularly relevant for IBS, as well. In this study, however, the focus had to be broadened to encompass business students and graduates in general without specifying the field since the school where the research was conducted is a relatively small business college, so splitting the results according to specialisation would not yield useful results.

3. Methods

The main research instrument for this study was a questionnaire completed by employers of interns and graduates of IBS. The questionnaire was based on the biannual Employer Satisfaction Survey (ESS) of the IBS Business Network Centre and Career Office. The ESS asks employers to provide feedback on general aspects of the graduate and intern performance in the workplace (e.g., how easily they fit into the workplace; what their performance is like compared to graduates and interns from other colleges or universities). It also requires employers to evaluate the graduate and intern performance in IT skills, management, finance, marketing, language, reading, writing, presentations, negotiations and several other aspects. In addition to assessing interns' and graduates' performance on the job, employers were asked to list the IBS employees' strengths and weaknesses, as well as describe the most frequent tasks that graduates and interns are required to perform in their workplace.

For the purposes of the study the ESS was modified to focus more specifically on language, communication and interpersonal skills. As mentioned previously, the present paper focuses only on the language results of the study. The original ESS had only Likert scale (1-5) rating questions. The updated version also provided an opportunity for open answers and employer comments to each of the questions. This was necessary in order to provide a greater amount of qualitative data which could be used for a more in-depth analysis in case of a low number of respondents which would make statistical analysis problematic. The questionnaire was transformed from a paper-based to an online survey and it was administered in English and Hungarian. The new version of the ESS was piloted with three employers who were asked to think aloud while completing the questionnaire and comment on the wording, structure and content. Based on their feedback the survey was updated and administered in two rounds (December 2012 and January 2013) to 100 employers of IBS graduates and interns on work placement. The responses rate for both rounds and both languages combined was 32%, i.e., there were 32 respondents (23 English and 9 Hungarian). The updated version of the questionnaire which has been adopted by IBS and which was used for this study can be found in Appendix C.

The companies that the graduates and interns worked in were mostly international businesses based in Hungary and central Europe. The positions and job descriptions of the students and graduates were varied. This is mostly due to the fact that IBS is a relatively small college with the following programmes: BA in Business Studies, BA in Finance and Accounting, BA in International Business Relations, BA in Travel and Tourism Management and BA in Arts Management. Since there were a total of 32 respondents, attempting to separate them by the job description, business specialisation or BA programme would have resulted in very small amounts of data for very narrow fields. Instead, the results were combined and refer to business students and graduates in general. In addition, the responses of the employers of the interns were combined with the responses of employers of students who have already graduated from the school because sometimes, particularly when interns fit in well in the workplace, they continue to work part-time during their fourth year of studies. Due to this, the line between interns and graduates is at times blurred. Finally, the survey was anonymous; hence there was no way of telling whether the employers were talking about a graduate or an intern on work placement. Preserving respondent anonymity also caused difficulties in distinguishing the size, field and working language of the company in question, as well as the exact position that the interns or graduates held in that company. Since the school and the cohort are

relatively small, asking about the company and position of the employee would have revealed the identity of both the respondent and the student in question. As participant anonymity is a priority for the researchers, the loss of some highly specific data had to be accepted.

The data was processed in two ways: the Likert scale responses were examined for frequency counts, while the open answers and comments were coded to identify emergent labels and categories through "a mixture of data reduction and complication" (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996, p. 30). The emerging concepts were also compared to the topic grouping of the questions, for example: language, reading or writing skills.

4. Results

The results of the survey will be presented according to the area they relate to, that is, overall performance, reading skills and writing skills in the company's working language and foreign language skills. Due to the low number of respondents, statistical analyses would not have yielded meaningful results. Therefore, the averages of the Likert scale responses are presented together with support and quotations from the open comments for a more qualitative analysis.

In terms of the overall performance, when IBS interns and graduates were compared to those of other business colleges and universities, their rating by the employers was 4.25 out of 5.

The first question of the survey asked employers for their opinion of how IBS interns and graduates could adapt to and be integrated into the new workplace. Of the 32 respondents, 26 claimed that their IBS employees had adapted and integrated smoothly and rapidly. A further 6 respondents said that they had adapted with initial difficulties and with reasonable assistance. There were no employers who thought that IBS interns and graduates experienced major difficulties or had failed to adapt to the workplace. These encouraging results may be linked to the school's practice-based approach and relevant assignment tasks. The findings are also relevant to the current study as they indicate that the students' strong language and communication skills might be one of the key factors contributing to their successful integration into the workplace.

We can see in Table 1 that the major strengths of IBS interns and graduates are their English and foreign language proficiency as well as their communication skills. On the other hand, among the weaknesses the only mention which is somehow linked to language and communication is conflict resolution. However, only 3 of the 32 respondents mentioned this, compared to 27 who were satisfied with the graduates' and interns' language and communication skills jointly.

The top five strengths and weaknesses of IBS interns and graduates that employers listed included:

Table 1. *Strengths and weaknesses of IBS students and graduates.*

Strength	No of Mentions	Weakness	No of Mentions
Language/English	17	Lack of professional knowledge	6
Communication	10	Overconfidence	6
Motivation/Commitment/ Enthusiasm	7	Lack of (work) experience	4
Presentation	5	Concentration/Attention/Attentive	3
Adaptability	5	Handling Conflicts	3

4.1 Reading skills

All the readings skills for various texts in the company's working language (23 English and 9 Hungarian) were rated highly, but it is interesting to note that none of the employers thought that understanding corporate literature such as the company's web pages and brochures was irrelevant. This seems to be an important requirement for the workplace because corporate literature is the basic internal and external information source for the company. By contrast, three of the employers thought that it is not relevant for interns and graduates to be able to understand and interpret data in the form of graphs and charts. The highest rated reading skill was collecting information online for specific projects. This is hardly surprising in view of the fact that this generation of students has grown up surrounded not only with internet access on computers, but also on mobile devices such as their smart phones and pads. Additionally, IBS students are almost constantly required to research projects not just in the library, but from electronic sources too.

The following table shows the employers' rating of IBS interns' and graduates' reading skills:

Table 2. *Reading skills rating.*

Reading Skill	Excellent	Good	Average	Poor	Not Relevant
Understanding corporate literature	14	15	2	1	0
Understanding & interpreting data (charts, graphs)	10	16	3	0	3
Reading critically	8	19	3	0	2
Collecting information on-line for specific projects	15	15	1	0	1

4.2 Writing skills

Similarly to the skills already mentioned, the intern and graduate writing skills in the company's working language (23 English and 9 Hungarian) were highly praised, but 6 respondents claimed that writing reports is not relevant. This is interesting in relation to the fact that many employers reported asking interns and graduates to read annual and interim reports frequently. Two other written genres that were considered not to be relevant by 4 employers included CVs and memos. A further indication of this trend could be the fact that no employers thought that writing emails is irrelevant to the workplace.

The types of writing tasks that IBS interns and graduates are frequently required to perform include: translation, foreign correspondence, formal executive correspondence, email, press releases, website texts, and management plans like budgets and schedules. As opposed to the reading tasks, no respondents mentioned that they require interns or graduates to write reports. There were also two surprising findings: translation and website texts. These are skills and genres that are not practised or taught at IBS, but are frequently used in the modern international work environment.

The table below shows the results for the IBS intern and graduate writing skills:

Table 3. *Writing skills rating*.

Writing Skill	Excellent	Good	Average	Poor	Not Relevant
Memos	8	18	2	0	4
Emails	11	19	2	0	0
Reports	10	12	4	0	6
Formal correspondence	7	20	3	1	1
CV	10	16	2	0	4

4.3 Foreign language skills

According to the results in Table 4 below, a major requirement of interns and graduates entering the workplace in Central Europe is speaking a foreign language. Many of the employers stated that they require a third language, apart from English and the employees' native language. Interestingly, several employers noted that the native Hungarian language skills of the interns and graduates were considerably weaker than their English skills. This might be due to the explicit teaching of communication skills and specific communication genres in English, but not in the native language.

Table 4. *Foreign language skills rating*.

	Excellent	Good	Average	Poor	Not Relevant
Communicating in a foreign language	20	11	1	0	0

The table below shows the results for the IBS intern and graduate writing skills:

Table 3. *Writing skills rating*.

Writing Skill	Excellent	Good	Average	Poor	Not Relevant
Memos	8	18	2	0	4
Emails	11	19	2	0	0
Reports	10	12	4	0	6
Formal Correspondence	7	20	3	1	1
CV	10	16	2	0	4

4.3 Foreign language skills

According to the results in Table 4 below, a major requirement of interns and graduates entering the workplace in Central Europe is speaking a foreign language. Many of the employers stated that they require a third language, apart from English and the employees' native language. Interestingly, several employers noted that the native Hungarian language skills of the interns and graduates were considerably weaker than their English skills. This might be due to the explicit teaching of communication skills and specific communication genres in English, but not in the native language.

Table 4. *Foreign language skills rating.*

	Excellent	Good	Average	Poor	Not Relevant
Communicating in a foreign Language	20	11	1	0	0

5. Discussion

These findings seem to highlight the pivotal position of the English language in business, which in view of globalisation is perhaps unsurprising. No respondent claimed that a high level of English was not or not so important, though the companies participating in the study may have included more international companies than a representative sample, because the interns and graduates might have deliberately selected to work at international companies as they allow them to practise their language skills. IBS students have the advantage that they study all courses in English, so they can easily satisfy this basic requirement.

The emerging need of plurilingualism (European Commission, 2008) was also confirmed in our research, which is particularly important in a Hungarian or Central European context where mother tongues are not "world languages" so two foreign languages must be learnt in order to satisfy this demand of employers.

Overall, the survey ranked communication skills as the most important, both in terms of expectation and satisfaction, which corresponds to Sodhi and Son's (2008) finding that communication skills are at the top of the identified essential soft skills list. With reference to the claim by Andrews and Higson (2008) that communication skills are essential in the workplace, it seems that IBS students have a competitive advantage as they are equipped with good or excellent communication skills; however, these skills are not always combined with technical knowledge. While it is beyond the scope of this paper to evaluate how IBS performs in teaching business and management knowledge compared to other business schools, it should be clear that a high level of employability requires both knowledge and skills.

Concerning the range of tasks and behaviours that students are expected to perform at work, we have lessons to learn in our teaching programmes and course contents. We see the results as evidence to propose changes in our syllabi in preferred forms, channels and media of business communication. Memos and minutes may have blended under the general heading of email messages, losing some of the traditional formality, while reports are very often automatically generated in large companies, with only the particular details added manually. However, it is also possible that the interns are in such junior positions that they are not given these types of tasks.

On the other hand, respondents mentioned writing online contents and being involved in web-based communications as expectations. We must explore the specific features of these genres, and identify the sub-skills that they involve so that they could be included in the course content. There has been extensive research exploring the specifications of these genres linked to technological advancements, for example, microblogging (Pophal, 2009), social media posts (Hanna, 2009), business emails (Munter, Rogers & Rymer, 2003) and file sharing (Pappas, 2010). Although the present research does not focus specifically on language, this aspect of these newly emergent genres may need further investigation to feed into the language classroom. These new genres are currently rarely included in business English language textbooks like Market Leader Advanced (Rogers, 2011) or Business Communication Strategies in the International Business World (Smith, 2010) but they are common in business communication textbooks like Bovée and Thill's (2012) Business Communication Essentials. It might be the case that language textbooks need to keep up with the times more and follow the progress reflected in the field specialised course books.

As previously mentioned, while many studies deal with the skills and competences required in particular business specialisations, our research did not separate the results according to specialisation or IBS programme, as that would have generated too small sub-samples. However, the responses to open questions allow us to draw some tentative conclusions as to the requirements of certain professions such as marketing, IT, logistics or finance. In addition, Andrews and Higson's (2008) claim that employment requirements "were remarkably homogeneous" (p. 420) regardless of geographic, cultural, social or economic differences, could imply that the findings of this study, though small and localised could have wider implications for other business-oriented degree courses in Hungary.

An interesting finding was the expectation to do translation jobs, which may arise from the combination of the interns' multilingualism and their easy availability. At present no course at IBS addresses this skill, but it may be worth including translation as a free option in the new Business and Languages degree course, perhaps not only in Hungarian-English but also in English-other language. This idea could be supported by recent discussions about reintroducing translation into language learning (Carreres, 2006; Cook, 2007, 2010; Gutierrez, in this compilation; Illés, in this compilation; Popovic, 2001; Stoddart, 2000). The issue is particularly well argued by Cook (2007), who claims

that translation needs to be included as an essential language skill along with reading, writing, speaking and listening in ELT. Along with other pedagogical benefits of reintroducing translation into the language classroom, such as cognitive development and as a motivational tool, he points out that translation skills are often required of language learners outside the classroom in their everyday lives, and in particular, "in the world of work where bilingual employees are called upon – or indeed specifically employed to – mediate between monolinguals" (Cook, 2007, p. 398).

6. Conclusions

The conclusions of the study will be presented in reference to IBS and the wider ESP, EAP and ELT contexts illustrated in Figure 1.

The International Business School defines itself as a practice-oriented organisation which keeps close contact with the world of work by inviting guest speakers from the industry, incorporating case studies into syllabi, using life-like forms of assessment, and in general, following a hands-on approach. A survey like ours essentially serves this purpose: our primary aim of teaching is to satisfy the needs of employers and to train students who will find jobs easily and who are able to perform their tasks using the knowledge and the skills they have acquired at IBS, and are thus appreciated by their employers.

To summarise, we have found that the range of language modules and their contents are mostly in line with what employers expect. The minor deviations are mostly attributable to the emergence of modern information technology and the related changes in internal and external business communication. Though a sample of 32 companies allows limited generalisability, the results correspond to Andrews and Higson's (2008) findings relating to the increasingly homogeneous employer expectations due to globalisation. Additional limitations and problems with the generalisability of the study stem from the anonymous nature of the questionnaire. In order not to reveal the respondents' identities, it was not possible to ask specific questions relating to the nature of the company, its language of operation or the positions held by the interns and graduates. Therefore, some of the conclusions of the study may have a limited scope of application; however, the open comments and qualitative findings may be transferable to colleges and universities similar to IBS.

In terms of implications which go beyond our college, based on the research there are some practical recommendations for the language classroom in general that can be drawn from the findings. These include the following points:

1. Placing even greater emphasis on communication skills at tertiary level education, so that graduates are capable of conveying the knowledge and skills they have acquired in the field specialised subjects. For this to be achieved, the teaching of communication skills may need to be viewed as more interdisciplinary and not necessarily as belonging solely in the domain of language teaching. Apart from language skills, communication skills also require other soft skills like teamwork, interpersonal skills and emotional intelligence;

2. Teaching a second foreign language in addition to English and the students' native language are essential, especially in the increasingly integrated European context and particularly in this part of Europe where students do not always study two foreign languages in secondary school;

3. Written genres that are rarely used in the workplace, like memos for example, need to be replaced with more useful writing skills needed for online communication, including microblogging, corporate website postings, social media messaging and file sharing;

4. Other newly emergent genres like video conferencing and online presentations need to be incorporated more promptly into the language classroom to follow technological changes and content in the subject course books (e.g., Bovée & Thill, 2012);

5. Reading reports might need more practice than actually writing them, especially for undergraduates who will be applying for junior positions;

6. Translation needs to be brought back into the foreign language syllabus to foster the development of an essential skill for employment, which has unfortunately been side-lined or completely neglected in language teaching.

Though the study is small-scale it is hoped that these recommendations might prove to be useful for other business education institutions as well as teaching languages for specific purposes and language courses in general.

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Appendix A

INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS SCHOOL, BUDAPEST
ENGLISH LANGUAGE MODULES

First Year English Modules for All BA Programmes

<table>
<tr><th colspan="4">Modules</th><th>Number of hours of English per week</th><th>English Placement Test Score</th></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4">Exempt from all English modules</td><td>0</td><td>Very high</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="3">English for Business Studies (1 & 2)</td><td rowspan="3">Oral English for Business (1) Written English for Business (2)</td><td colspan="2">Exempt from 2 modules</td><td>4</td><td>High</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">English Language Development (1 & 2)</td><td>Exempt from 1 module</td><td>6</td><td>Average</td></tr>
<tr><td>English Fluency (1 & 2)</td><td>8</td><td>Low</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="5">Applicants not eligible for BA programmes in English</td><td>Very low</td></tr>
</table>

Content of English Modules

English for Business Studies (semester 1): business vocabulary on socialising in international contexts, energy, employment trends and business ethics; (semester 2): business vocabulary on finance and banking, online business, entrepreneurship and project management.

Oral English for Business (semester 1): networking, telephoning, meetings and negotiations.

Written English for Business (semester 2): assessment, survey and feasibility reports, business correspondence and CVs.

Language Development (semester 1): revision of English tenses, conditional sentences, modal verbs and passive voice; (semester 2): indirect speech, relative clauses, inversion, articles and text coherence.

Appendix B

INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS SCHOOL, BUDAPEST
FOREIGN LANGUAGE MODULES

Foreign Language Modules on
BA in International Business Relations and
BA in Travel and Tourism Management:

A choice of Spanish, French or German for 8 hours a week in semesters 2, 4, 7 and 8.

Foreign Language Modules on
BA in Business Studies
BA in Finance and Accounting and
BA in Arts Management:

A choice of Chinese, Japanese, Russian or Arabic Language and Culture for 2 hours a week in semesters 2 and 3.

Appendix C

INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS SCHOOL, BUDAPEST
EMPLOYER SATISFACTION SURVEY

As part of our quality enhancement efforts, we would again like to evaluate the effectiveness of our programmes as regards the preparation of students for the world of work. We are most interested in the level of satisfaction with the skills, knowledge and behaviours demonstrated by our students or graduates. We want to know whether the International Business School fulfils its mission of providing the best possible education for its students.

This year an IBS research team is investigating students' employability and will analyse the responses to this questionnaire in order to formulate recommendations as to the amendment of the teaching content. **Your answers will be handled anonymously and with utmost confidentiality.** *Your prompt response will be appreciated and is of critical importance to the continued success of our work.*

Thank you.

IBS Employer Satisfaction Survey

When completing the questionnaire please provide answers that most closely describe IBS interns and graduates. The red asterisk as shown below indicated the questions which must be answered in order to complete the survey.

*Required

Thank you for your time!

1. How could IBS students adapt to and be integrated into your work processes?*

a. smoothly and rapidly
b. with initial difficulties and reasonable assistance
c. with major difficulties and disproportionate assistance
d. not at all

2.a. When evaluating your employees in the following aspects, how would you rate IBS graduates?*

	Relevant for the workplace (Yes/No)	Excellent	Good	Average	Poor
Knowledge/skills specific to the employment position					
Related work experience					
Quantitative skills					

2.b. When evaluating your employees in the following areas, how would you rate IBS graduates?*

	Relevant for the workplace (Yes/No)	Excellent	Good	Average	Poor
Performance at job interview					
Decision-making skills					
Leadership potential					
Character (reliability, judgment, maturity, etc.)					
Attitudes (initiative, loyalty, attendance, personal appearance, etc.)					
Ability to learn					
Honesty and integrity					
Emotional intelligence					
Quality of work					
Productivity					

Reading Skills

3. When evaluating your employees' reading skills, how would you rate IBS interns and graduates?*

	Relevant for the workplace (Yes/No)	Excellent	Good	Average	Poor
Understanding corporate literature					
Understanding and interpreting data (graphs, charts)					
Reading critically					
Collecting information online for specific projects					

3.a. Please provide an example of a situation when an IBS intern or graduate demonstrated excellent or poor reading skills.

Language Skills

4. When evaluating your employees' language skills, how would you rate IBS interns or graduates?*

	Relevant for the workplace (Yes/No)	Excellent	Good	Average	Poor
Communicating in a foreign language					

4.a. Please provide an example of a situation when an IBS intern or graduate demonstrated excellent or poor language skills.

4.b. Please list the most typical situations when an IBS intern or graduate needs to use a foreign language.

Writing Skills

5. When evaluating your employees' writing skills, how would you rate IBS interns or graduates?*

	Relevant for the workplace (Yes/No)	Excellent	Good	Average	Poor
Memos					
Emails					
Reports					
Formal correspondence					
CV					

5a. Please provide an example of a situation when an IBS intern or graduate demonstrated excellent or poor writing skills.

5.b. Please list the most typical writing tasks that IBS interns or graduates are asked to perform.

Communication Skills

6. When evaluating your employees' communication skills, how would you rate IBS interns or graduates?*

	Relevant for the workplace (Yes/No)	Excellent	Good	Average	Poor
Presentations					
Negotiations					
Team work					
Active listening					

6.a. Please provide an example of a situation when an IBS intern or graduate demonstrated excellent or poor communication skills.

6.b. Please list the most typical situations when an IBS intern or graduate needs to use communication skills.

Interpersonal Skills

7. When evaluating your employees' interpersonal skills, how would you rate IBS interns or graduates?*

	Relevant for the workplace (Yes/No)	Excellent	Good	Average	Poor
Socialising/networking					
Politeness					
Conflict resolution					
Cooperation					
Cultural sensitivity					

7.a. Please provide an example of a situation when an IBS intern or graduate demonstrated excellent or poor interpersonal skills.

7.b. Please list the most typical situations when an IBS intern or graduate needs to use interpersonal skills.

8. Please list the five most frequent and/or important tasks that student employees need to perform:*

5.

9. Please list what you consider to be the three major strengths of IBS interns or graduates:*

1.
2.
3.

10. Please list what you consider to be the three major weaknesses of IBS interns or graduates:*

1.
2.
3.

11. In general, how would you evaluate our students compared to the graduates of other institutions?*

a. excellent
b. good
c. average
d. below average

12. Name of Employing Company (optional):_____

Additional Comments

Please add any additional comments or suggestions you wish to make here.

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Dispositions towards studying in an international environment: The student perspective

Zsuzsanna Soproni and Györgyi Dudás

1. Introduction

Although not all member states have ratified the Constitutional Treaty (Draft Constitution of the EU, 2004), one of the fundamental freedoms that the European Union (EU) aims to guarantee its citizenry is the free movement of people within its territory. Much of the EU's workforce is mobile and an increasing number of Central and Eastern European citizens would like to work abroad. For example, 1.5 million Polish citizens were living in other EU countries in January 2009, over 500,000 of whom were in the United Kingdom (Iglicka, 2010). Moreover, and more importantly, more than three million European students have studied at a foreign higher education institution since the Erasmus programme was launched in 1987 (The Erasmus Programme, 2013). By 2020, the objective of the EU is to equip 20% of its higher education graduates with some foreign study or work experience (European Commission, 2013).

The undisputed internationalization of education is proceeding at a high speed at global, European and national levels. Traditionally, Anglo-Saxon universities were major education-providers. British degree programmes as well as pre-sessional courses are still in demand despite the fact that British higher education institutions have lost some of their appeal to international students as a result of tougher visa regulations. This is evidenced by the over 20% drop of enrolment from 2011 to 2012 (Migration Statistics Quarterly Report, 2013). Recently, many Hungarian higher education institutions have adopted an open-door policy, offering one-year intensive preparatory English language courses and different English medium degree programmes for foreign students. For example, both Eötvös Loránd and Pécs Universities offer various bachelor programmes in English in medicine, dentistry, nursing, music and architecture on their official websites (Degree programmes at Eötvös Loránd University, 2014; Degree programmes at the University of Pécs, 2014). Similarly, at Semmelweis University there are programmes in medicine, dentistry, and sports science among others (Degree programmes at Semmelweis University, 2014).On the other hand, Gazdasági és Vállakozáskutató Intézet (Economic and Entrepreneurial Research Institute), a Hungarian organisation, in a large-scale study conducted on a purposive sample of secondary schools found that more

than one third of Hungarian secondary grammar school learners would like to study abroad (GVI, 2013). In summary, studying in an international environment is a reality for a growing number of learners and secondary school teachers need to better prepare them for the eventuality.

Over the years, the International Business School (IBS), our institution in Budapest, although a small organisation, has become an epitome of a truly international college. In the case of IBS, Jenkins's (2007) observation that "native speaker (NS) teachers go to teach in non-native speaker (NNS) countries while NNSs go to learn in NS countries" (p. 58) might need to be slightly modified to include international institutions and cosmopolitan learners. IBS is an international college, which is in a country where English is not spoken as a native language (ENL) and its faculty are mostly NNS teachers. It has a multinational student population, and this is one of the reasons why it does not insist on NS norms in the use of English. Instead, its aim is to output educated speakers of the English language. As the head of the Teaching and Research Centre described the school's attitude to differences in pronunciation at a welcome ceremony: "Don't worry about your accent. Everybody in this school has one" (L. Szepesi, personal communication, Sept 10, 2012).

The purpose of the present paper is to answer the following research question: what do students consider to be the advantages and disadvantages of studying in an international context? The findings provide an "insider perspective" (Patton, 2002, p. 368) through qualitative interviews. The interviews were conducted as part of a larger-scale mixed methods study aiming to explore IBS students' perceptions of English as a lingua franca (ELF) and the communication patterns that characterise their use of ELF (See further details in Soproni & Dudás, 2013). As a spin-off of the qualitative investigations, it was possible to gain insight into the perceptions of students regarding the language learning related impact of the international context of learning.

2. Background to the research

Since the students at IBS use English as a lingua franca, it is first necessary to look at issues relating to ELF and the internationalisation of English. English has become "the world's preferred medium for business, science and, […], even entertainment" and the "language of convenience" (Ostler, 2010, pp. XV-XVI). The most frequently evoked model describing the spread of English was offered by Kachru (1985, 1992), which distinguishes between three concentric circles. In the Inner Circle, English is used as a native language. This includes the Anglo-Saxon

countries (UK, US, Canada, Australia and New Zealand), which are considered norm-providing. In the Outer Circle, English has become an institutionalised language and speakers are regarded as second language users. This circle includes countries colonised by the British Empire, where speakers of English have developed and are developing their own norms. Finally, in the Expanding Circle, speakers use English as a foreign language. This circle includes countries where the official language is not English, such as Hungary or Poland. In Kachru's model, speakers of English in these countries are seen as norm-dependent, that is, they are expected to adopt the norms provided by the Inner Circle.

The world has changed considerably both politically and linguistically since the above model was created: migration has taken new forms and users of English on the global labour market get involved in interactions that do not easily lend themselves to a description within the three-circle framework. As a result of globalisation and the availability of the Internet, "a global discourse community" (Widdowson, 2003, p. 160) with "globally diffuse interactions" (Seidlhofer, 2010, p. 153) has emerged. This informal network of geographically dispersed users of the language no longer meet face-to-face like members of other language communities do (Dewey, 2009). As a result, communities of practice have appeared, which are local groups of users of English who share a common interest and establish their own norms (Wenger, 1998).

Since the majority of interactions in English are conducted between non-native speakers (Beneke 1991, as cited in Seidlhofer, 2004), the prevalent use of English is characterised by English functioning as a lingua franca, that is, "a contact language used among people who do not share a first language" (Jenkins, 2007, p. 1). ELF therefore means "any use of English among speakers of different first languages for whom English is the communicative medium of choice" (Seidlhofer, 2011, p. 7). Canagarajah refers to ELF as "a variety that overshadows national dialects" (2007, p. 925). Seidlhofer, however, argues that ELF is not a new form of English, but rather "a mode of communication" (2010, p. 158), a "function of English in international contexts" (Matsuda & Friedrich, 2011, p. 333). Drawing on Jenkins' definition of ELF as a "specific communication context" (2009a, p. 200), Illés also posits that "ELF is neither a limited linguistic resource nor a particular language variety", and "can be best perceived as a specific context" (2013, p. 5). In this paper, the latter conception is adopted and, as a result, ELF is examined as a particular type of context within the setting of an international business school.

In ELF, language use and learning are integrated (Canagarajah, 2007, p. 927). Therefore, the language is characterized as a fluid, flexible and dynamically changing system (Canagarajah, 2007; Dewey, 2009; Jenkins, 2011) which is necessarily affected by the interlocutors' first language (Jenkins, 2009a). This necessitates constant "overt negotiation using communication strategies such as rephrasing and repetition" (Seidlhofer, 2004, p. 218). In ELF communication, speakers develop new, shared conceptualisations through negotiating meaning. As Sharifian (2009) points out, interlocutors in international contexts of use have to "constantly monitor the assumptions they are making about the systems of conceptualisations on which the other interlocutors are drawing" (p. 248). Given the linguistic and cultural diversity of ELF communication, speakers in ELF situations have to be prepared for otherness and engage in ELF interactions with increased tolerance and context-sensitiveness (Illés, 2013). In ELF communication, intelligibility and interactive success, that is, getting the message across, are the most important factors for users of the language and not the accuracy of form (Dewey, 2009).

Based on the examination of communication breakdowns in ELF settings, Jenkins (2000) identified core pronunciation features that are essential for successful communication. It was observed, for example, that the absence of the consonants /θ/ and /ð/ does not hinder understanding and therefore they have not been included in the Lingua Franca Core (LFC). Other features excluded from the LFC are word stress and weak forms. It is within the realm of pronunciation that Jenkins emphasises the importance of accommodation skills. Accommodation skills in general, however, may incorporate communication strategies that aim at negotiating meaning, which can involve, for example, "code-switching, repetition, echoing of items that would be considered errors in ENL, the avoidance of local idiomatic language, and paraphrasing" (Jenkins, 2009a, p. 201).

ELF researchers challenge the view that ELF users, many of whom come from countries in the Expanding Circle, are norm-dependent. They claim that ELF users are developing their own norms and shape English to suit their communicative purposes in the same way as native speakers do. If native-speaker norms are no longer the only desired standard and "all users of LFE [author's term for ELF] have native competence of LFE" (Canagarajah, 2007, p. 925), English language teaching (ELT) needs to reinvent itself (e.g., Illés in this compilation; Jenkins, 2006; Rajagopalan, 2004). A major change in teaching and learning might be, for example, the attitude to deviations from standard forms. English as a foreign language (EFL) teaching traditionally looked at deviations as

errors, which reflects a "deficit perspective"; while ELF teaching takes a "difference perspective", implying that deviations are "legitimate variations" (Jenkins, 2011, p. 928).

This then raises the question of the norms learners need to adhere to in learning English for international communication. Those who see ELF as a deficient or a "reduced version of English as a native language" (Kuo, 2006, p. 216) claim that it cannot be taught to learners (Kuo, 2006, p. 216). Others (e.g., Alptekin, 2002, 2006; Illés, 2013; Jenkins, 2007, 2011; Seidlhofer, 2010; Widdowson, 2003), on the other hand, argue that the NS-based communicative competence model is "utopian, unrealistic and constraining" (Alptekin, 2002, p. 57). In the same vein, McKay and McKay (2002) advocate that "NS competence should not be used as a standard in language learning and pedagogy" (p. 2); however, English language teaching policy and practice, which still promote NS norms, are lagging behind even in international higher education institutions (Jenkins, 2011). Native speaker dominance and norms permeate the ELT world, even in the field of training international business executives (cf. a programme described in de Berly & McGraw, 2010).

Attitudes towards ELF have been examined by several researchers. Jenkins (2007) discusses the attitudes of both practising and prospective teachers as well as learners. Based on the findings of studies in international, German, Swiss, Greek, Indonesian, Korean, Austrian, Brazilian, Japanese and British contexts, Jenkins concludes that "the ELF dimension" has not influenced actual teaching practice yet (2007, p. 106). Another such study is Timmis' (2002) questionnaire and interview research involving 400 students from 14 different countries and 180 teachers from 45 different countries. The findings highlight that students can more easily identify with the desire to attain NS competence than "accented international intelligibility" (p. 242) in terms of both pronunciation and grammar. In addition, "it was clear that some students saw native-speaker pronunciation as a benchmark of achievement" (p. 242). The study also reveals that teachers appear to be faster in shifting away from NS norms than students.

Hungarian researchers have also developed an interest in ELF. Dörnyei and Csizér in a large-scale study (2002) documented that learners had developed a distinct concept of ELF as opposed to the concept of English as a native language. Likewise, today's students appear to be aware of the importance of speaking English in international contexts of use as Kontráné Hegybíró and Csizér (2011) found in their research, which examined 239 higher education students' dispositions towards ELF in four Hungarian institutions. Since Hungarian secondary level learners at present have "few contact experiences"

with NS or NNSs of English (Illés & Csizér, 2010, p. 15) and ELT materials produced for the global market aim at preparing learners to use English with native speakers according to NS norms (Jenkins, 2006), it is the teachers' responsibility to prepare them for communicating in international contexts and adapt teaching materials that serve this purpose. Teachers "need to rethink their entire approach to ELT", warns Rajagopalan, for example (2004, p. 112).

As is the case with many Expanding Circle countries, the teaching of English in Hungary is mostly native speaker oriented and norm-dependent. In Europe (Modiano, 2009, p. 208) and in Hungary, too, ELT has long been influenced by the geographically closest native English speaking community, its representatives and institutions: the British people, British English speaker teachers and teacher-trainers and the British Council, for example (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2002; Illés & Csizér, 2010). Lately, varieties from the United States have also exerted increasing influence through the internet, popular culture and multinational companies. In contrast to the limited choice in ELT, outside the language classroom there is a plethora of different varieties of English and the predominant use of English as a lingua franca can be observed in all of Kachru's circles (Seidlhofer, 2004). ELT in Hungary, therefore, also has to rise to the challenge and bring the practice of teaching English into alignment with the reality of English language use (Illés, 2013).

3. The research context

IBS is unique in this Hungarian context for two reasons: (1) unlike most Hungarian classrooms, IBS classrooms are not at all monolingual, although some students might have a shared mother tongue (e.g. Hungarian, Kazakh or Turkish); (2) even though the institution is UK-accredited, the school openly embraces diversity and employs teachers of not only British or American, but Indian, Bulgarian, Spanish or Macedonian origin in addition to its Hungarian lecturers.

IBS is a suitable place to study the ELF context for at least two reasons. First of all, the student population reflects the kind of linguistic and cultural diversity that characterises ELF settings (Illés, 2013). IBS is an international institution that has attracted not only ambitious Hungarian students wishing to obtain both a British and a Hungarian degree, but many foreign students who find the school's programmes and environment attractive as a starting point of their international career. Secondly, similarly to other international higher education institutions,

the English language functions as a contact language between foreign and local students as well as staff and administrators (IBS Annual self-evaluation report, 2013). Even though the majority of full-time IBS faculty are native Hungarians, they use English as the language of instruction with their students, and they also communicate with their foreign colleagues in this language. Thus, IBS represents a setting "par excellence of English as a(n academic) lingua franca" (Jenkins, 2011, p. 927).

Many IBS students may be regarded as cosmopolitan learners or language users who have "blurred identities" (Holliday, 2009, p. 28). Over half of IBS's students come from more than 60 different countries alongside a considerable Hungarian student intake, and they use English as a means of communication both in the seminars and lectures as well as outside class with their teachers and peers. In general, the Hungarian students at IBS have a greater potential for understanding cultures due to a variety of reasons: they either come from families with mixed parentage, or have lived or been educated in foreign countries. They often speak other foreign languages and have a good understanding of intercultural differences.

Other IBS students who have not spent a long time abroad, on the other hand, have to handle the academic and cultural challenges of an international environment from the very start. The multilingual and multicultural environment, however, can give students a competitive advantage over students who do not study in a globalised context. The IBS context, which often presents real life scenarios of communicating in an international environment, can benefit the students in many different ways and can also help them develop appropriate strategies for successful communication. A setting where negotiation of meaning and mutual understanding (Jenkins, 2000; Sharifian, 2009) are the objectives that guide students' everyday behaviour easily lends itself to studying ELF perceptions.

3.1 Research tools and participants

This study was based on a semi-structured interview protocol (See Appendix 2). It included 26 open-ended questions, which were devised based on the relevant literature and previous research results. The interview questions were designed around five main topics: the language use of students and lecturers, the environment in which English is used, students' choices of conversation partners, code switching and learning. The questions were peer reviewed by two colleagues at the department before being finalised. The in-depth interviews also included a number of examples of ELF to illustrate written and spoken examples: a list of seven written sentences taken from the literature (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998; Seidlhofer, 2000) and collected by the researchers and a three-minute excerpt (Audio sample PBqas411) of a business meeting among a British, a Finnish, an Austrian and a German speaker from the VOICE corpus (VOICE, 2013). Students were invited to comment freely on both the written and the audio samples. Each student was interviewed by one of the researchers, who used the interview protocol, but also tried to ensure that the interviews resembled conversations (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007). Both the interview questions and the ELF examples were used to trigger participants' views on English used as a lingua franca and it was these narratives that were qualitatively analysed for the purposes of this study.

A total of seven students were selected with a purposive sampling method. Three students were native Hungarians to represent the subgroup of Hungarian IBS students, which is gradually decreasing in size, while the other four were foreign students (a Turkish, a Norwegian, a Moldovan, and a Chinese student) to represent the increasing number of international students at IBS. These first- and second-year students with different national, cultural and linguistic backgrounds were interviewed in March 2013. All the students will be cited using pseudonyms to ensure their anonymity.

In this paragraph, to illustrate the heterogeneity of the sample, a brief description of each interviewee will be provided. The interviewees, four male and three female, fit in two major age groups: five are between 18 and 22, and two are either 24 or above. Dave is an exceptionally open-minded Asian student, who obtained his school leaving certificate from an American school in Budapest after his primary education in China. Greg, whose Hungarian parents live and work in Germany, has grandparents of Russian origin. Harry is one of the Norwegian students who attend IBS and is regarded as a hard-working and responsible learner. Phil is a very pragmatic Turkish student with good business

acumen. Judy, who comes from Moldova, is an exceptionally dedicated student with excellent academic achievements. Lisa is a mature Hungarian student, who has already had some work experience in the publishing industry in France and now commutes between Hungary and France. She has a French spouse with whom she communicates in English. Fiona is an ambitious Hungarian student from the countryside who has less self-confidence than an average IBS student. The interviewees represented all the four levels at which English language modules are offered at IBS. Based on their entrance placement exam result, the most advanced students are exempted from English, others receive 8, 6 or 4 hours of English language instruction per week depending on their level. The sample included students of each of the above language competence categories. For further details see Table 1 below.

Table 1. *The interview sample included students of different nationalities, age groups and language competence.*

Name	Year	Nationality	Age	In-house placement written test score (max 70)	In-house placement oral test score (max 15)	English Contact hours	Level label in this study
Dave	2	Chinese	20	46	9	4 hours	High
Fiona	1	Hungarian	24	28	10	6 hours	Low
Greg	1	Hungarian	19	29	7	8 hours	Low
Harry	1	Norwegian	20	29	6	8 hours	Low
Judy	1	Moldovan	19	49	11	4 hours	High
Lisa	1	Hungarian	37	61	15	exempt	High
Phil	2	Turkish	21	28	6	8 hours	Low

The seven interviews, each an hour on average, were digitally recorded. The interviews were reduced to a protocol to be able to identify relevant sections, which were transcribed. The questions were available in two languages: English and Hungarian. The interviews were conducted in English with the foreign students and in Hungarian with the Hungarian students as the interviewers were native Hungarians. Surprisingly, Lisa, the Hungarian student exempt from studying English language modules due to her good command of English, decided to do the interview in English as she felt confident enough to answer the questions in English. The interviewer felt that conducting the interview in English with her would not result in data loss.

Each interview was conducted by one of the two researchers, who are full-time lecturers at the Language Department at IBS. Both are NNS teachers with over 20 years' experience in ELT. They were familiar with the students as they had taught them before, which assisted them in the sampling process.

Both researchers listened to the recorded interviews and indentified the common emerging themes. This involved several re-listenings and re-readings, as the constant comparative method was used (Cohen et al., 2007; Szokolszky, 2004). The in-depth interviews provided sufficient data on the students' and lecturers' language use, on code switching and learning, on students' preferences, and the environment English is used in. The responses concerning the above are discussed in Soproni & Dudás (2013). However, in the course of the interviews, students elaborated on their views of the advantages and disadvantages of studying in an international environment without specifically being asked to do so. It is the discussion of these findings that constitutes the next section.

4. Results

In this section, first the empirical findings concerning the use of strategies will be presented. Then the findings will be classified along two main categories: advantages and disadvantages of studying in an international environment. The interviewees, regardless of their English language levels, made very similar comments as regards the benefits and drawbacks of such an environment, which suggests that students' perceptions are not determined by their language competence.

4.1 Strategies and gains in language learning

When commenting on studying in an international environment the interviewees emphasised that taking responsibility for one's learning is crucial for exploiting the opportunities available in the environment. Demonstrating a responsible attitude towards his own development, Greg noted: "… if someone would like to acquire the language [English], then the person will look for opportunities to communicate." Similarly, when examining Erasmus students' socialisation into their communities of practice in Szeged and Prague, Kalocsai (2009) also found that students "recognized each other's linguistic skills as a valuable resource" (p. 33).

In order to maximise their chances to improve their English language competence, students employ various strategies. In an international context, the most significant of these appears to be selecting the right conversational partner. In the sample, both higher and lower level students preferred to communicate with speakers whose command of English was better than theirs. This was noted by Lisa, who said that students tend to "gravitate towards better speakers" and this applies especially to those students who look for the company of better speakers to take advantage of their advanced language skills. Phil, who sometimes has difficulty observing deadlines, admitted, for example, that he would always choose students "who can speak fluently and it will make [his] job easier" when preparing for an assignment.

The stimulating power of interaction with higher competence peers was also touched upon by Fiona, when she said, "if the person might speak English better than I do, or might have a wider range of vocabulary, that motivates ME to express my ideas well" (Emphasis added by authors to indicate sentence stress used by the respondent). These opinions underline the potential benefits of an environment in which English is used as a lingua franca. On the other hand, there were views, which echoed those of some researchers (Kuo, 2006), that regarded this environment as sometimes unchallenging, especially for students with a better command of the language. This was commented on by Judy, who said: "… when I speak with someone who has a lower level, I myself […] feel that my English also drops down a little". However, accommodating, that is, adjusting one's language skills to communicate successfully with speakers representing different levels (Jenkins, 2009a), in this case is also seen as motivating at the same time, as expressed by the same student earlier in the interview: "… sometimes, if the level is low, I try to help the person to make him understand some new words, expressions." These attitudes illustrate how learners with

different language competence relate to a context which offers them learning opportunities, irrespective of their level of English competence. The same phenomenon has been identified by researchers as the "extensive use of the accommodation strategy of convergence" (Jenkins, 2011, p. 928).

4.2 Advantages

The interviewees identified a number of reasons why learning in an environment where English is used as a lingua franca is advantageous for all learners. One of the most significant benefits to all was the culturally diverse environment (Illés, 2013), which, as Greg put it, provides an opportunity for students "to get to know other cultures", which can deepen their understanding of cultural diversity. The importance of cultural awareness was also pointed out by Harry, the Norwegian student, who claimed that learning about the religions of the world in his secondary school helped him increase his cultural awareness indirectly. Harry emphasised that his school subject, entitled Religions of the World, had prepared him for communicating at an international college, even though the subject was not about cultural differences per se. Studying in a multicultural environment was seen to have a positive effect on the students' cultural sensitivity and tolerance (Illés, 2013), and it was also regarded as a context which can prepare one for the requirements of an international workplace. Even Lisa, who has much experience living and working in cultures other than her own, considered this milieu "enlightening" when commenting on cultural differences. Equally, Phil, the student from Turkey, which is a multicultural country, perceived the environment as an 'incubator', which "prepares [students] for working in a multinational environment". Many IBS modules include the ability to work in a multinational environment as a learning outcome and ensure that students coming from various cultural backgrounds are exposed to both simulated and real communication challenges that resemble real ELF interaction at a multinational company.

4.2.1 Advantages for higher level learners

In our study the students who are exempt from English language lessons due to their excellent command of English and the ones who have four English lessons per week to improve their language competence will be referred to as higher level learners. This definition might not fully coincide with the students' own classification of their levels, but a similar distinction between higher and lower level learners kept occurring in the narratives of the respondents.

Since IBS represents a truly ELF context, one benefit for higher level learners of English identified by the interviewees in a multicultural and multilingual environment was the opportunity to develop communication strategies (Jenkins, 2009a), or "acquiring new skills, for example, how to explain", as Judy, the industrious Moldovan student put it. The need to "slow down and clarify" meaning was mentioned by the Turkish interviewee, Phil, a lower level English speaker who, similarly to Lisa, the most advanced English speaker, also admitted that there are instances when there is a need to "simplify" the language used, as it was observed by Seidlhofer (2011). Apparently, when students communicate with each other in an academically and culturally diverse community, they will inevitably talk to peers with different language abilities either in the lessons or outside the classroom. As the language skills of certain students might not be so advanced, the ones with a better command of the language need to find ways of making themselves clear to students with a lower language competence. To do so, students need to clarify, explain, paraphrase and summarize their messages (Jenkins, 2009a) if they want to communicate effectively in the multinational environment of the school. The interviews evidenced that there are two kinds of accommodation in IBS student interaction. The first, linguistic one, is where students adjust their English (e.g., pace, vocabulary, sentence structure) to be able to communicate with fellow students. The second type of accommodation concerns language use when students need to understand and perhaps approximate one another's conceptualisations behind the linguistic code (Sharifian, 2009).

Another potential gain of studying in an international environment for higher level language learners was identified by Lisa, who found it motivating "to see others [students] struggle". Seeing other learners having difficulty getting the message across can be inspiring even for advanced learners because they can see the progress they have made up to that point. This experience can give the learners a sense of achievement, which signposts that they have already passed an earlier stage of language learning.

4.2.2 Advantages for lower level learners

Lower level learners at IBS include those students who have either six or eight English language lessons to develop their language skills. These students with a poorer command of the language found the international environment at IBS similarly advantageous for various reasons. A most general comment made by Greg emphasised that the environment is "motivating" simply because "others speak English well". This implies that there is a common incentive for lower level

learners of English to take advantage of the language competence of higher level students. Another advantage of the international environment is the diversity of students' accents in the school. Phil tagged these as "non-native accents" and remarked that they were easier for him to comprehend. As the majority of IBS students speak English as a second language (L2), in addition to their core L1 accent (e.g., Hungarian, Chinese, Turkish, etc.), they also display signs of a secondary learned accent as a result of their language learning experience (e.g., American, British, Scottish, etc.) (see Jenkins, 2009a).

According to Phil, the need to distinguish between different core or secondary accents is not important. It is mother tongue interference that results in a core accent, while a secondary accent may be the consequence of the language learning environment. In the IBS context, diversity allows a tolerance of NNS accents to emerge, which creates an atmosphere where students can communicate without worrying about making mistakes or deviating from the language norms of native speakers. In other words, some IBS students indeed take a difference rather than a deficit approach to ELF (Jenkins, 2011). Tolerance of what counts as an error in ELT was mentioned by three of the interviewees, namely Phil, Fiona and Judy, who considered it to be particularly helpful and encouraging for lower level speakers of English. Fiona, for example, felt that an environment in which accents differ can be more relaxing for lower level students as it allows speakers to sound different from NSs and can reduce lower level students' anxiety. In other words, tolerating language mistakes and different accents can create a relaxed learning environment for unconfident students. As was highlighted by the interviewees, this tolerance towards accents, however, is limited to cases where it does not hinder intelligibility. These comments again highlight the fact that intelligibility takes precedence over correctness in ELF communication (Dewey, 2009).

4.3 Disadvantages

During the interviews some drawbacks of studying in a multicultural and 'plurilingual' environment emerged as important, although their number was far smaller than that of the benefits mentioned by the interviewees.

4.3.1 Disadvantages for higher level learners

One of the few disadvantages of an international setting for higher level English speakers was pointed out by Judy, the academically successful student, who said that it was "not challenging" enough for advanced learners of English. This was

reinforced by a very similar comment made by Lisa, who claimed that "communicating in a multinational environment is not as challenging as it would be with natives". Both students are very advanced users of English with a keen interest in perfecting their language skills and they would find a native environment more challenging than an international one.

Another drawback of an environment which includes NNSs of English was further highlighted by Lisa, who commented that learners "can't pick up the proper accent" in an international environment. By "proper accent" Lisa meant NS accent, although for other learners it might as well mean the best possible accent that a L2 learner can acquire, which echoes the views of the participants of the study conducted by Timmis (2002), where for some students native speaker pronunciation was the indicator of achievement in English. Not being able to learn "the proper accent" appears to be a shortcoming of the international setting in the eyes of an advanced speaker of English, whereas the presence of non-native accents is perceived as a "blessing" by lower level speakers of English, as it was pointed out by Fiona, a lower level speaker. This duality, the fact that both NS and NNS norms are present in an ELF context, indicates the changing dispositions towards norms.

4.3.2 Disadvantages for lower level learners

One of the disadvantages of learning in an international environment for lower level learners was claimed to be the presence of "fossilised mistakes" in the English used at IBS, which can negatively influence the language development of lower level students, who may not be able to recognise when the language is incorrectly used. This lack of development may be attributable to their focus on intelligibility rather than accuracy. Consequently, learners may acquire non-standard language forms in an environment which is highly tolerant towards making mistakes, as it was revealed earlier on by one of the interviewees. Although they are members of an ELF language community at IBS, the interviewees keep using terms that reflect the way they think about language learning and norms. Throughout their language learning history, they have been socialised into "the deficit perspective" (Jenkins, 2011, p. 928). The ambivalence in their comments and reactions seem to "represent, perhaps, a necessary transitional phase in coming to terms with new ideas" (Seidlhofer & Widdowson, 2003, p. 9).

Another difficulty for students with a lower language competence was identified by the Turkish interviewee, who thought that in such an environment "natives

are difficult to understand". The school does not have an overwhelming number of native speakers of English. In fact, it only has a few native and a greater number of near-native lecturers as well as a number of students with advanced language skills. This might be the reason why understanding these highly competent speakers' English can be a real challenge for students with a lower level of English knowledge.

In any event, the interviewees have voiced a greater number of benefits than drawbacks of learning in an international environment, which can be considered a reassuring finding for learners who would like to study in such a context. Greg's casual remark is illustrative of this view: "it [the international environment] is beneficial for everyone, even for those who don't find it beneficial, although it may sound funny".

5. Studying in an international environment and its pedagogical implications for language learning

Although it was not the primary aim of the qualitative research to draw pedagogical inferences from the responses, many of the answers and comments lend themselves to making assumptions about the ways English could be taught to equip students with the necessary language skills and strategies in a multilingual environment. The themes that surfaced can be useful reference points as regards the development of language skills in the English language classroom in general, too.

This phase of the research shed light on the communication skills and strategies IBS students exploit when using English as a lingua franca. Among the skills the interviewees listed were many accommodation strategies that feature in the ELF literature (Jenkins, 2009a), such as adjusting pace, that is, slowing down the speed of communication in order to make themselves understood, which can also be accompanied by an explanation to make the message clearer.

As evidenced in the interviews, clarifying ideas and simplifying the language are very closely related to other valuable communicative skills such as paraphrasing or summarising (Jenkins, 2009a), especially in an environment where students come from very different cultural backgrounds and are non-native speakers of the language. Fiona justifies the need to be good at summarising in a different language, that is, giving a brief account of the previous discussion, when she explains how and how frequently students switch the code and summarise what has been said earlier among Hungarian IBS students. As she recalls: when a non-

Hungarian speaker joins the conversation, "he either joins in in English, or asks what is being talked about, … (pause) or we say it again in English, or we talk a bit about it in English, but then we continue in Hungarian again".

Different communicative strategies are needed to "clarify underlying conceptualisations" (Sharifian, 2009, p. 25) which may differ more markedly than conceptualisations of native speaker interactants who come from the same linguistic and cultural background (see Illés in this compilation). This process often involves speakers having to negotiate meaning, which requires an active exchange of ideas to clarify words that might not be understood in the same way by different speakers (Cogo, 2009; Jenkins, 2000; Sharifian, 2009). These strategies are called pragmatic strategies that enable interlocutors to become "skilled communicators" (Jenkins, 2011, p. 928).

The findings of the research have revealed the importance of teaching particular communicative strategies, such as adjusting pace, attentive listening, summarising, paraphrasing, simplifying and explaining (Jenkins, 2009a; Seidlhofer, 2004). The development of these strategies could, and perhaps should be incorporated into any curriculum or particular language class. In the IBS context, the application of accommodation strategies (Jenkins, 2009a) is an everyday necessity, while in a local monolingual English language learning classroom improving such strategies may be challenging as the learners' mother tongues are likely to be the same. However, in order to prepare learners for studying and working in ELF contexts, teachers of English need to facilitate the development of accommodation strategies and provide opportunities that allow learners to practise for ELF communication in the ELT classroom (for details see Illés in this compilation).

In addition to communicative strategies, as is posited by Canagarajah, speakers "have to be radically other-centred" (2007, p.931), that is, focus on the communicative needs of their interlocutors. In our sample, this surfaced as attentive listening, which was also identified as a useful strategy in an environment where English is spoken as a lingua franca (Seidlhofer, 2004; Sharifian, 2009). In Canagarajah's words, because diversity and variation is at the heart of ELF, the speakers "monitor each other's language proficiency" (2007, p.925). Contradicting the findings concerning the comprehensibility of NS teachers above, one of the interviewees said he "pay[s] more attention when a non-native is speaking". This underlines the fact that the ELF context presents its own difficulties. In such a context, attentive listening is required to be able to follow interaction. Not only does this imply that the learner who is exposed to a

variety of accents has to make more effort when listening to others, but such situations also create an opportunity for further ear-training, which is an 'unsolicited' wash-back effect of attentive listening. Presumably, when learners encounter similar difficulties in the future, they will find them less challenging. On the basis of the findings, it therefore appears well justified to include more NNS accents in ELT materials, which has also been underlined by other researchers (e.g., Kachru, 1992; Matsuda & Friedrich, 2011; Modiano, 2001; Sharifian, 2009).

The strategies students use to enhance their own English language skills in an international context aim at approximating either NS or highly competent NNS competence. These two are co-existing goals in the ELF context as the following quotations from the interviews illustrate. It appears from the interviews that despite having a high threshold of tolerance towards language mistakes and varieties of accents, students regard both native and educated speakers' English to be the norm. Phil, the lower level Turkish student expressed this by saying that "I'd learn more from natives", whereas Greg, the Hungarian interviewee with a similar command of English said he "can learn more from people from Norway, Sweden" who, according to EU statistics (European Commission, 2012), are highly competent speakers of English in Europe.

These views underline the parallel existence of native and educated non-native language norms in students' minds and suggest that these norms can be used interchangeably in the international learning environment. The narratives reveal that the international setting may encourage lower level learners to set more realistic goals in connection with their own language learning (Illés in this compilation). While some learners at IBS appear to be more norm-dependent, making efforts to approximate a certain NS variety, others seem to be prepared to develop their own NNS norms. One explanation for this might be that at least half of the students can be regarded as English as a foreign language learners who have encountered an ELF milieu for the first time in their lives in IBS. Having experienced a relaxing and motivating international learning environment, some of them are beginning to accept the English used by educated speakers as an alternative and reconceptualise English as a lingua franca. These findings again highlight the importance of creating conditions in the classroom which are conducive to learning to function in international contexts of use in the English language (see Illés in this compilation).

6. Conclusion

From the research it has become clear that the more informed learners are about the role of English around the world, the better decisions they can make in terms of their language learning and language use. The study has provided evidence that in addition to teaching "an established variety of English" (Matsuda & Friedrich, 2011, p. 336), in the ELT classroom exposure to various varieties of English and the ELF use of English is vital when preparing learners for international study as well as speaking English in international contexts. Sensitising learners to the availability of different varieties and accents is as important as raising learners' awareness of the particularities of ELF communication, including the need to monitor to what extent one's own and one's interlocutor's "cultural conceptualisations" are shared (Sharifian, 2009, p. 247), and to decide how much information is necessary to arrive at mutual intelligibility (see Illés in this compilation).

The negativity and antipathy towards ELF found among users by other researchers (e.g., Jenkins, 2007, 2009a) was not present in the respondents' reactions in our study. The qualitative phase of the research confirmed that studying in a multilingual environment where English is used as a means of instruction and communication is believed to be beneficial for both more and less advanced learners of the language.

Despite some of the drawbacks highlighted by the interviewees, the majority of the comments emphasised the benefits of the international environment for language learners as well as for potential future employees of a culturally diverse global workplace. Developing one's English language and intercultural competence were identified as the two prime gains of studying in an international milieu, which can currently be seen as prerequisites of any educational or employment tenure in a global context. The tolerant and diverse learning environment appears to give learners greater confidence, especially in the case of lower level learners, which is also emphasised by Jenkins (2009a). Whether the aim of the learner is to approximate NS norms or become a proficient NNS user of ELF is determined by individual needs, characteristics and plans, but often the learners in this study were unable to distinguish between the concepts of good English and NS English. This might be a result of the fact that their conceptualisations were developed under the influence of pre-ELF methodologies and teaching materials. It is evident from the results that students' former language learning experience heavily influences the framework within which they interpret their language development. Therefore, it is

Essential that their teachers familiarise learners with the different roles English might play in different contexts, including for example Inner Circle (Kachru, 1992) or ELF contexts.

The findings demonstrated that learners of all levels prefer to gravitate towards better speakers to exploit learning and practice opportunities. The study also reinforced the view that, similarly to teachers, who have contradicting views of the norm(s) (Jenkins, 2009b), learners find communicating with both native and educated English speakers motivating and desirable.

In the IBS setting, English is mostly seen as a practical instrument. Despite an appreciation of the multilingual context that tolerates NNS variations and accents, fosters the acquisition of communicative strategies and allows learners to select different role models for language learning, the NS norm is still present in an international context while the successful bilingual norm (Cogo, 2008; Widdowson, 2003) has also undoubtedly surfaced from the research on young cosmopolitan students.

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Appendix 1

Letter of invitation to respondents

Dear (name of student)

As members of the Methodological and Pedagogical Research Group at IBS, we are carrying out the second stage of our research on the internationalisation of education and the way the English language is used and learnt in our institution. We would like to ask you to participate in an interview in which we will ask you a few questions regarding students' perceptions and communication patterns in the use of English. You would be one of the seven students we have selected.

We are planning to organise the interviews individually. The interviews should not take longer than 60 minutes, and we would like to organise them by 8th March 2013 the latest. They will be recorded on a dictaphone for our research purposes and will be handled with utmost confidentiality. The time of the interview with you will be selected depending on your availability and it will be conducted in English/in Hungarian.

We would be very grateful if you could participate and contribute to the success of our research. Could you please tell us if you would be prepared to do the interview as soon as possible so that we could plan ahead?

Thank you very much for considering our request and we look forward to your reply.

Best wishes

Györgyi Dudás and Zsuzsanna Soproni
Senior lecturers
Department of Foreign Languages
International Business School, Budapest

Appendix 2

Interview questions

INTRODUCTION		**Interviewer's notes**
1	Milyen volt az IBS-ben elkezdeni angol nyelven tanulni? *What was it like to start learning in English in IBS?*	NB: we should use a dictaphone as a video recorder may create a stressful atmosphere
LANGUAGE		**Interviewer's notes**
2	Te milyen angolt tanultál? GB, US, World Englishes *What kind of English did you learn at school/earlier?*	
3	Milyen az az angol, amit az IBS-ben az órán beszélünk? Hogyan jellemeznéd? *How would you describe the English we use in class in IBS?*	
4	Milyen az az angol, amit az IBS-ben az órán kívül beszélünk? Hogyan jellemeznéd? *How would you describe the English we use outside class in IBS?*	
5	Milyen az az angol, amit a tanárok beszélnek az IBS-ben? *How would you describe the English teachers use in IBS?*	
6	Mi a véleményed az IBS-ben tanító angol anyanyelvű és nem angol anyanyelvű tanárok arányáról? *What do you think of the proportion of native and non-native English speaking teachers in IBS?*	
7	Mennyire fontos számodra, hogy angol anyanyelvű tanárok tanítsanak Téged? *How important is it for you to have English native speaker teachers?*	
8	Milyen az az angol, amit a diákok beszélnek az IBS-ben? *Please describe the English used by students in IBS.*	
9	Milyen szinten beszélik a hallgatók az angolt? *What levels of English do students speak?*	
10	Ez hogyan befolyásolja, hogy kivel beszélgetnek? *How does this affect who they choose to communicate with?*	
11	Te kivel beszélgetsz angolul? *Who do you communicate with in English?*	

12	Te kivel szeretnél többet beszélgetni? *Who would you like to communicate more with in English?*	
13	Mit gondolsz, mennyire lehet az órán kívül az angol nyelvet gyakorolni az IBS-ben? *To what extent/how much do you think you can practise your English in IBS outside class?*	
14	Hogyan szoktad az angolt gyakorolni az IBS-en kívül? *How do practise your English outside IBS?*	
15	Mi jelenti a legnagyobb kihívást számodra abban, hogy fejleszd angol nyelvtudásodat az IBS-ben? *What is the biggest challenge for you in wanting to improve your English at IBS?*	
ENVIRONMENT		**Interviewer's notes**
16	Milyen hatással van rád a nemzetközi környezet az IBS-ben? Szerinted ez mindenkinek jót tesz? *What influence does the international environment have on you? Does everyone benefit from it?*	
17	Milyen hatással van az IBS-es nemzetközi környezet az angolodra? *What influence does the international environment have on your English?*	
18	Hogyan készítettek fel Téged az eddigi angol nyelvtanulásod során arra, hogy más anyanyelvűekkel angolul kommunikálj? *To what extent/how much has your English language education prepared you for communicating with non-native speakers of English?*	
PREFERENCE		**Interviewer's notes**
19	Te hogyan válogatod meg azt, hogy kivel beszélgetsz? *How do you choose the people you communicate with?*	
20	A nemzetközi angol megenged olyan formákat, mint: It don't depend …/We are cancel the card … Mi erről a véleményed? Mennyiben lenne a szöveg/beszélgetés más, ha anyanyelvűek beszélnének? Mennyiben más így? *International English allows forms such as (…). What do you think of these? In what way would the text/conversation be different if natives were communicating? In what way is it different this way?*	*Written sample:* sentences on hard copy (Dudley-Evans & St. John; Seidlhofer) *Audio sample:* PBqas411; 2.42 mins (VOICE)

CODE SWITCHING		**Interviewer's notes**
2 1	Mennyire használják a hallgatók az anyanyelvüket? Kikkel? Miért? Mi erről a véleményed? *To what extent/how much do students use their mother tongues? With whom? Why? What is your opinion of that?*	
2 2	Előfordul, hogy a diákok keverik a nyelveket beszéd közben. Te szoktad? Mikor és hogyan? Kivel? *Sometimes students mix languages when they communicate. Do you? When and how? With whom?*	
LEARNING		**Interviewer's notes**
2 3	Szerinted hogyan befolyásolja a kulturális háttér azt, hogy ki hogyan tanul? *How do you think cultural background influences the way people learn?*	
2 4	Kik vagy milyen diákok viszik a szót az órán? (Milyen tulajdonságok befolyásolják, hogy ki dominál?) *Who or which students dominate the discussions in class? (What personal qualities influence who dominates?)*	
2 5	Kik viszik a szót az órán kívül? Ugyanazok? *Who dominates the discussions outside class? Are they the same students?*	
2 6	Szerinted milyen szinten kell tudni angolul, ami elegendő a sikeres kommunikációhoz a nemzetközi üzleti életben? *What level of English do you think is enough to successfully communicate in international business?*	

A comparison of motivation for learning English in Croatia and Finland

Anne Teräväinen and Zita Varga

1. Introduction

Achieving a high level of proficiency in a foreign language depends on many factors and individual variables. Of all these variables, motivation can be seen as one of the most important as motivational factors can override even aptitude effects (Dörnyei, 2005). This means that even the learners who could learn the foreign language with relative ease will not be successful without motivation. Similarly, Sternberg (2002) argues that what appears as an aptitude related issue might in fact be a reflection of a valuing process (i.e., it may be motivation related). Based on the importance of the concept, it is not surprising that numerous studies on motivation have been conducted in different countries during the past decades.

Language learning is a culturally and socially bound event and for this reason it seems likely that variation in terms of English language learning motivation exists between countries. For example, research carried out in Norway indicated that Western students tended to have stronger integrative motivation whereas Middle Eastern, African and Asian students seemed to have more instrumental motivation to learn a foreign language (Svanes, 1987). In European settings less drastic differences are likely to exist; nevertheless, societies differ from each other and thus differences in motivational disposition towards learning English are possible.

Comparative research on motivational variables in different countries can give us an insight into how to enhance the quality of language teaching in various communities. The classroom practices can be adjusted based on the tendencies in a given country: for example, if the learners seem to be most motivated to learn English because of its status as a lingua franca, this should be taken into account in teaching and activities supporting this kind of motivation should be created. Moreover, the results of such comparative research can also explain possible differences in attained proficiency levels in different countries.

The aim of this study is to find out whether motivational disposition between learners of English as a foreign language (EFL) differs in two countries in Europe:

Finland and Croatia. These countries were chosen because they differ from each other in terms of foreign language learning. Both countries show a relatively high level of speaking foreign languages: 69% of people in Finland and 71% in Croatia report speaking at least one foreign language (European Commission, 2006). However, a gap between the countries seems to exist in connection with the level of English spoken: whereas in Finland 63% of the people say they can speak English, in Croatia only 49% report the same (European Commission, 2006). Therefore, it is feasible to investigate whether this difference can be partly attributed to the motivation of the learners of EFL.

The research questions were the following:

Is there a difference in motivational constructs between learners of English as a foreign language in Finland and Croatia?

What characterises the possible differences?

2. Background

One of the most influential works in the field of L2 motivation was carried out by Gardner and Lambert (1959) whose model of motivation relied mainly on the distinction between integrative motivation (desire to learn an L2 in order to communicate and perhaps identify with the L2 community) and instrumental motivation (desire to learn an L2 in order to achieve some practical goal such as course credits). The limitation of the concept of integrativeness has been often challenged because, whereas in Gardner's setting in Canada there is an L2 community into which the learner might wish to integrate, in foreign language settings this community is absent (Dörnyei, 2010). However, in the past two decades there have been many attempts to re-conceptualise integrativeness and as Dörnyei (2003) argued, the absence of the L2 community in a foreign language setting might not be a problem if the identification associated with integrative disposition is generalised to the cultural and intellectual values associated with the language. Therefore, distinguishing between integrative and instrumental motivation remains one of the most prominent distinctions in L2 motivation.

Another major theory in the field of L2 motivation is Dörnyei's L2 Motivational Self System (Dörnyei, 2003). In the view of this theory, motivation consists of three dimensions. The first dimension is the ideal L2 self, which is a view of

oneself as a successful learner of the L2 and the desire to reduce the discrepancy between one's actual self and the L2 specific ideal self. The second dimension, the ought-to L2 self, refers to motivation to learn the L2 in order to avoid negative outcomes and motivation to learn the L2 because of feelings of obligation and duty. Finally, the third dimension is called L2 learning experience and it concerns situation-specific motives related to the learners' immediate environment (Dörnyei, 2003). The present research investigates motivation in relation to both Gardner and Lambert's (1959) model and Dörnyei's (2003) L2 Motivational Self System.

2.1 Finland

In a small country with a language not related to any of its neighbours' languages, the need to learn foreign languages seems apparent (Laine, 1993), and as a national survey conducted in 2007 indicates, English is the most widely studied foreign language (Leppänen, Pitkänen-Huhta, Nikula et al., 2009). As mentioned earlier, the Eurobarometer 2006 shows that 63% of Finns report English as a language they can speak, and the latest Eurobarometer in 2012 shows that the percentage has increased to 70%. Another study conducted in Finland reveals that over 90% of people under the age of 25 report their level of English as at least a "basic user" (Tilastokeskus, 2006).

In addition to the number of people speaking English, there has been a significant change in attitudes and motivation in the past decades: in the 1980's English was still a language to be learnt at school in order to be able to communicate with people who do not speak Finnish. Today, in many areas of life, the knowledge of English is necessary not only in international settings, but also inside the country: often English is also used in situations where Finnish could be used, such as in media targeted at young people. As another study conducted in Finland indicated, the younger population especially uses English in everyday life without conceiving of it as a "foreign language" (Leppänen et al., 2009). For example, Muhonen (2008) found that English is part of the linguistic repertoire of producers and listeners of radio programmes aimed at teenagers. In addition, through video games English is very much part of the everyday life of young Finns (Piirainen-Marsh, 2008).

Twenty years ago Laine (1993) argued that obvious instrumental motivation to learn English exists in Finland because, as already mentioned, the country is small and the language different from the neighbouring languages. However, as the presence of English in the everyday lives of Finns has increased in the past decades, negative views have started to appear as well: the impact of English is

seen as a threat and even as destroying the Finnish language and culture as well as the unity between them (Leppänen et al., 2009). It is possible that this has an impact on the motivation of the learners of English in the country nowadays.

2.2. Croatia

Croatia became the 28th member state of the European Union in 2013; therefore, the learning and using of languages has become an issue of the highest importance. Knowing languages is important not only from the perspective of tourism and the economy, but also in all other fields ranging from entertainment to education. Language learning has been widely researched in the Croatian context and several studies have been conducted recently on individual differences in language learning and motivation.

Mihaljević-Djigunović and Bagarić (2008) carried out research on the differences in motivation among learners of English and German. Rovan and Jelić (2008) also added French to the list. Their findings indicate that students have the highest motivation towards learning English. Mihaljević-Djigunović and Bagarić (2008) hypothesise that this may be due to the perceived usefulness and contact with the language: while learners of English have almost daily contacts with the language, learners of German tend to find it difficult to establish a connection with the language. The researchers also claim that whereas English is regarded as having a higher status and being easier to learn, German has lost its position as an international language and is regarded as difficult by the students.

Balenović's (2011) research on the motivation of adult learners of English in the context of globalisation indicated that affective-cultural is the most prominent type of motivation – the language is either learnt because is it considered as beautiful or the learner wants to establish a connection with the speakers of that language. Affective-cultural motivation is followed by instrumental-technological and communicative-integrative motivation. Balenović (2011), therefore, concludes that these results are in accordance with the trend of English becoming the language of globalisation and thereby motivating learners in the learning process.

3. Design

3.1 Participants

Fifty-nine learners of English from Finland and 49 from Croatia volunteered to participate in the research. All of them were secondary school students aged between 16 and 18. The schools were average monolingual secondary schools; that is, the schools were not specialised in any particular subject and no special requirements were set for entry. Bilingual schools have been excluded because the students at such schools would probably be more motivated and the aim of the study was to find out about the motivation of average learners. Additionally, in order to provide a valid comparison, similar school types were analysed in both countries. These schools were average secondary schools with approximately 600 students. The only difference between the schools was that the school in Finland was located in the city and in Croatia a countryside school was chosen. This selection was based on the access and convenience of the researchers. All the participants have been learning English as a foreign language for a minimum of five years. The data were collected during the participants' normal English class, and age variation exists within the groups.

3.2 Instrument

A questionnaire was used for data collection. It was compiled using several sources. The questions were based on 11 constructs used in motivation research before: some of the components were based on research conducted by Dörnyei, Csizér and Németh (2006) in Hungary. The constructs are the following:

1. Cultural interest (example question: How much do you like the TV programmes made in the United States?);

2. Integrativeness (example question: How much would you like to become similar to the people who speak English?);

3. Instrumentality (example question: How much do you think knowing English would help your future career?);

4. Vitality of the L2 community (example question: How rich and developed do you think the UK is?);

5. Attitudes towards L2 speakers/community; that is, direct contact with L2 speakers (example question: How much would you like to travel to the UK?);

6. Milieu, which means the attitude of people in the students' immediate environment concerning the importance of learning English (example statement: People around me tend to think that it is a good thing to know foreign languages.);

Three constructs were adopted from Dörnyei's L2 Motivational Self System (2005). These constructs are as follows:

7. Ought-to L2 self, which concerns the perceptions of language learning obligations imposed by the learner's immediate environment (example statement: If I fail to learn English, I'll be letting other people down);

8. Ideal L2 self; that is, the students' view of themselves as successful L2 learners (example statement: I like to think of myself as someone who will be able to speak English);

9. L2 learning (example statement: I always look forward to our English classes);

Finally, the last constructs are:

10. ELF-disposition (example statement: Learning English is necessary because it is an international language);

11. Parental encouragement; that is, the extent to which the parents encourage the student to study English (example statement: My parents really encourage me to study English).

The former was adopted from a pilot study by Illés and Csizér (2010) conducted in Hungary. The fact that these days English is also a lingua franca might have some effect on the students' motivation. Originally, the construct was named EIL (English as an international language); however, it was renamed as ELF (English as a lingua franca) because even though the terms are sometimes treated synonymously, ELF has gained ascendance since it better reflects the prevailing use of English in international contexts (Jenkins, 2012).

The questionnaire consisted of 55 questions and statements concerning motivation which were measured with a 5-point Likert-scale and 8 biographical questions. The questionnaire was translated into the mother tongues of the participants (i.e., Finnish and Croatian) by the researchers. After the translation, a back translation was provided by another native speaker of the languages in

order to check the validity of the translated questions. In this procedure, the translator received the questions in Finnish or in Croatian and translated them back to English after which the original and the translation were compared. Finally, a think-aloud protocol was conducted in the case of the Croatian translation; however, this was not possible in the case of the Finnish translation due to time limitations. In this procedure a subject from the target population (i.e., a secondary school student aged between 16 and 18) completed the questionnaire in the presence of the researcher and provided feedback on the questions. See the final questionnaire in Appendix 1.

3.3 Reliability of the instrument

First, a Cronbach's alpha analysis was done in order to ensure construct reliability. Out of the 11 constructs, 6 were reliable in both Croatia and Finland (i.e., they were measuring what they were intended to measure). In order to consider a construct reliable, the Cronbach's alpha has to reach .70. The constructs which reached the requisite level were instrumentality (.72 for Croatia and .70 for Finland), vitality (.79 and .75), parental encouragement (.75 and .84), L2 learning experience (.85 and .92), ideal L2 self (.84 and .90), and ought-to self (.83 and .73). Some items that did not reach this level were excluded. There were 4 constructs that were reliable only for one of the samples: cultural interest and ELF-disposition were reliable only in the Croatian sample (.71 and .74); direct contact and integrative motivation were reliable only in the Finnish sample (.74 and .74). Only milieu did not reach a satisfactory level of reliability in either sample: .63 for Croatia, and .59 for Finland.

3.4 Data collection

The schools were contacted prior to the data collection in order to ensure their cooperation in the project and present the main points of the research. The questionnaires were brought to the schools personally by the researchers. In Finland, the questionnaire was administered during two regular English classes. In the Croatian school the researcher was asked to give the questionnaires to the English teacher who administered them to two groups during their English classes. The questionnaires were collected the following week.

3.5 Data analysis procedures

Data was analysed with the help of SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) version 17. A Cronbach's alpha analysis was first used to find out about the internal reliability of the scales (i.e., to see if the items in each scale work

together and produce similar scores). In addition, the descriptive data analysis procedures used were a t-test and a Pearson's correlation analysis. The t-test was used to compare the answers to the questions in the two different countries. The Pearson's correlation, on the other hand, was used to see the relationships between the different constructs in each country separately.

4. Results and discussion

A Cronbach's alpha analysis showed that six constructs were reliable in both countries (See Table 1); however, two constructs only worked in the Croatian context and two only in the Finnish context.

Direct contact (attitudes towards L2 speakers and community) and integrativeness were only found to be reliable in the Finnish context. This indicates that Croatian students might not conceptualise English as a language of English speaking countries but as a lingua franca. The Finnish students, on the other hand, seem to be motivated by direct contact with English speakers. However, integrativeness in this context is not likely to mean the traditional notion of wishing to integrate into a community (i.e., Finns do not wish to integrate with English speaking communities), but rather an appreciation of cultural and intellectual values associated with English speaking countries. This means that the Finnish students are motivated because of their favourable attitudes towards English speaking cultures. This finding confirms Laine's claim (1993) that Finns have overall positive attitudes towards English speaking countries. This is supported further by the lack of reliability in the ELF construct: the Finnish students do not conceptualise English learning in terms of ELF. A possible reason for this is the students' exposure to traditional, native speaker models in the classroom.

The lack of reliability of direct contact and integrativeness in the Croatian context might be due to several reasons. First of all, the Croatian students do not think of English so much as a language of English speaking countries, but rather a contact language and this is reflected in their ELF disposition as can be observed in the relatively high mean value as well (M= 4.2, SD= .65). One possible reason for such strong ELF position is tourism: Croatia is a country which is visited by more than ten million foreign tourists a year (croatia.eu, n.d.). However, statistics show that the majority of the visitors are from Germany (22.8%), Slovenia (11.7%), Italy (9%), and Austria (8.8%) (Ministartstvo turizma, 2012). Thus, ELF is emphasised in the country since most foreigners are not English native speakers, and English is likely to be used as a language of international communication.

The second reason for the lack of reliability of the constructs directly related to English speaking countries is that although according to the State Office for Croats Abroad (2013) many Croats live in English speaking countries (1,200,000 in the US, 5,000 in the UK, 250,000 in Canada, and 118,000 in Australia), there seems to be less contact with them than with those Croats who live in German speaking countries (90,000 in Austria, 350,000 in Germany). The reason for this might be that the immigration to English speaking countries generally took place at the end of the 19th and the beginning of the 20th century, while that to German speaking countries took place in the second half of the 20th century (Ministarstvo vanjskih i europskih poslova, 2013). Therefore, it is possible that Croats regard German speaking countries more favourably in terms of cultural and intellectual values as their connections to those countries are stronger than to English speaking countries.

Finally, regarding the constructs which were found reliable only in one of the countries, cultural interest has to be addressed. A possible reason for cultural interest only working in the Croatian context might be that the media (music, films, etc.) teenagers consume are usually in English (Mihaljević Djigunović, Nikolov & Ottó, 2008) and thus English might be regarded as a language necessary for understanding modern pop culture. In addition, a self-report survey conducted in 2012 (GfK Croatia, 2012) indicates that 79% of the population can communicate in at least one foreign language, the most popular being English with 81%, which possibly confirms the research of Balenović (2011) according to which people choose English because it is the language of globalisation and international contact.

The fact that the cultural interest construct was not found reliable in Finland indicates that the whole construct might have to be reconceptualised. Due to Nokia being a pioneer in Wireless Application Protocol technology (Clark, 2003), it was hypothesised that Finns have more direct instant access to the internet than the Croatians and this causes them to conceptualise cultural content differently. Thus, books and television are not relevant sources of culture for the secondary school students. This should be taken into account in teaching in the modern age when exposure to English through smart phones and tablets is everyday life for young people. In addition, as discussed in section 2, in Finland young people in particular do not see English as a foreign language. For this reason, cultural interest is not a motivating factor for the students as for them the language of cultural products is part of their linguistic repertoire, not something they need to learn.

Table 1. *Cronbach's alpha.*

Scale	Croatia	Finland
Cultural interest	.71	.55
Direct contact	.55	.74
Instrumentality	.73	.71
Vitality	.79	.75
Integrativeness	.41	.74
Millieu	.63	.59
Parental encouragement	.75	.84
Learning experience	.85	.92
Ideal L2 self	.84	.90
Ought-to self	.83	.73
Elf	.74	.55

Note: Values above .70 are considered reliable

An independent samples t-test was conducted in order to compare the learners in Croatia and Finland in terms of their motivation to learn English. This statistical procedure allowed the comparison of the two groups. In general, the findings indicate that the students in Finland seem to be less motivated than their Croatian counterparts. This result is interesting considering the high percentage of people speaking English in Finland. However, the finding is in

accordance with Eurobarometer (European Commission, 2006) which indicated that Finnish people are among the least enthusiastic to learn foreign languages in Europe. Furthermore, the lack of motivation to learn English among secondary school students in Finland may be the result of the everyday presence of English. It is possible that by the time students have reached a certain level of English, they are not motivated to learn more, but they acquire English in their everyday life without conscious efforts.

Concerning the differences between the countries in more detail, the results revealed that there is a significant difference between the countries in five out of six scales, which were instrumentality, vitality, learning experience, ideal L2 self and ought-to self. All these constructs appear to be more motivating for the Croatian students. There was no significant difference in parental encouragement (see Table 2). Therefore, it seems that parents have equal impact on the motivation of the students in both countries. The highest mean value was obtained by instrumentality for both Croatia (M=4.7, SD= .36) and Finland (M=4.1, SD= .54). However, it seems that Croatian students are more motivated by this construct than Finnish ones. This result was to be expected: according to the Eurobarometer (European Commission, 2012) survey, most Europeans view working in another country as the most considerable advantage of learning a foreign language; therefore, instrumental motivation seems to be the strongest factor on the continent as a whole. The least motivating factor in the case of both countries was language learning experience. This might be due to the fact that most of the participants learned English only in a school context. As the school setting of learning might not be the most motivating learning experience, this was not found to be a very motivating factor for the students.

In order to see the relationships between the different constructs, a Pearson's coefficient correlation analysis was computed (see Tables 3a and 3b). The correlation was regarded as high if it was over .50. In general, the constructs which were found to correlate significantly were found to have similar correlation in both countries. The highest correlation in the Croatian context was found between parental encouragement and ought-to self (.66). This is not surprising because according to Dörnyei (2005) ought-to self is made up of various components, such as duties, obligations, and responsibilities, which might be in close relationship with parental encouragement (i.e., external influences on learning). This is further supported by the significant moderate correlation between the concepts in the Finnish context (.40), even though the relationship between them was not as strong.

Table 2. *Mean values of the samples.*

	Croatia		Finland	
Scale	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Parental encouragement	4.0	.81	3.6	.81
Instrumentality	4.7	.36	4.1	.54
Vitality	4.0	.54	3.4	.56
Learning experience	3.8	.78	2.9	.81
Ideal L2 self	4.3	.60	3.8	.86
Ought-to self	4.6	.64	3.9	.72

Another high correlation was found between ideal L2 self and ought-to self which was relatively high in both countries (.63 in Croatia, .51 in Finland). As both of these constructs address the possible selves of the students, the high correlation is not surprising: if the student is motivated to learn English to avoid negative outcomes in the future (ought-to self), it is expected for them to be motivated by their view of themselves as successful language learners in the future (ideal L2 self).

Furthermore, ideal L2 self and instrumentality were found to have the highest correlation in the Finnish context (.72) and second highest in the Croatian context (.63). This high correlation seems to indicate that students in both countries who are instrumentally motivated (i.e., learning language as a tool to achieve some goal) are also motivated by the ideal L2 self construct. This shows that their instrumental motivation is possibly so strong that the ideal L2 self of the students is closely linked to it; for example, it is likely that the career orientations of the students are in close connection with their view of themselves in the future and English is necessary for both. Moreover, the correlation confirms the results by Kormos & Csizér (2008) that ideal L2 self and instrumentality are, in fact, in close relation.

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In addition, the other high correlations in both countries were found between ideal L2 self and language learning experience (.61 in Finland and .59 in Croatia) and instrumentality and ought-to self (.55 in Finland and .59 in Croatia). The first of these is not surprising because both of the concepts belong to the L2 Motivational Self System (Dörnyei, 2005). If these constructs did not appear to be in close connection to one another, it might indicate that the theory of L2 Motivational Self System is problematic. However, the correlation shows this is not the case. The final correlation, between instrumentality and ought-to self, shows that the obligations and duties associated with ought-to self are also connected to the possible feeling of obligation related to instrumentality. When the student is instrumentally motivated, he or she is not learning English for the joy of learning the language for its own sake, but to achieve some goal in the future, which evidently makes learning seem like an obligation. Therefore, it is not surprising that if the learner is motivated to learn the language to avoid negative outcomes (ought-to self), he or she is also instrumentally motivated.

Finally, a high correlation was found between ideal L2 self and integrativeness (.79) in the Finnish context. The high correlation suggests that their integrative motivation is part of their future self, that is, the Ideal L2 Self. This confirms Dörnyei's results of these constructs being closely related (Dörnyei, 2010). Moreover, this means that when the students have high integrative motivation (i.e., appreciation of cultural and intellectual values), they will also have high motivation to learn English to decrease the discrepancy between their current self and their view of themselves as successful language learners. The likely reason for this result is the connection between the students' view of themselves as successful learners and the values associated with English speaking countries: the appreciation of these values extends to the ideal L2 self of the students, that is, to how they see themselves in the future.

Table 3a. *Correlations: Croatia.*

	Ought-to self	Ideal L2 self	Parental Encouragement	Learning Experience	Vitality	Instrumentality
Ought-to self	1					
Ideal L2 self	.626	1				
Parental encouragement	.662	.455	1			
Learning experience	.382	.587	.152	1		
Vitality	.332	.355	.170	.233	1	
Instrumentality	.592	.629	.376	.377	.375	1

Table 3b. *Correlations: Finland.*

	Ought-to self	Ideal L2 self	Parental Encouragement	Learning Experience	Vitality	Instrumentality
Ought-to self	1					
Ideal L2 self	.510	1				
Parental encouragement	.402	.353	1			
Learning experience	.437	.612	.441	1		
Vitality	.398	.244	.399	.337	1	
Instrumentality	.553	.718	.536	.524	.327	1

6. Conclusion

The differences in the reliable constructs and mean values of the two countries indicate that a difference between the motivational factors in Finland and Croatia exists. Croatian students seem to be generally more motivated for language learning than their Finnish counterparts. The only construct which was not different in the two countries was parental encouragement which shows that regardless of the country, parents have equal impact on their child's motivation. Instrumental motivation was found to have the highest mean values in both countries, which suggests that students, regardless of their country, are motivated to learn English to achieve some goal. Similarly, learning experience was found to be the least motivating factor in both countries, which shows that the students do not learn English because they enjoy it in the classroom.

This study has several limitations. First, there was no opportunity to validate the translations with think-aloud protocols for both countries; therefore, even minor mistranslations or misinterpretations could have influenced the results. Furthermore, since the research was conducted only in one school in each country, it might reflect only the situation in those two homogeneous groups and further research is needed in order to make the hypotheses presented here more generalisable. In addition, several of the items might need to be reformulated in order to be comprehensible and acceptable for both contexts and the targeted age group. Finally, social desirability might have influenced the participants' responses to the items, as is always the case with questionnaires and self-reports. Because of this, it is possible that the students did not always give honest answers, but rather what they thought might make them look better.

The results of the study may have several practical implications. First of all, it would be important to observe what motivates students of English and to support that kind of motivation. Furthermore, strategies of self-motivation could be introduced to the students in both contexts and their use could be encouraged. Finally, as the results from the Finnish sample indicated, the cultural interest construct might be outdated and this should be considered in the classroom: magazines and books are possibly not the best learning material and more up-to date cultural content could be included, perhaps making use of contemporary mobile devices, such as smartphones and tablets.

Further research could extend to the whole of Europe to compare motivation to learn English in several different countries. In addition, different types of schools could be included in order to get more generalisable results. Research could also target ELF and motivation in a more detailed way since in the Finnish sample this construct was not reliable; however, it is unlikely that the Finnish students are genuinely more motivated to learn English to communicate with native speakers than with other non-native speakers. Furthermore, the question remains as to why the Finnish students seem less motivated, yet the number of English speakers is high. Further research is needed to address this issue as well.

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Appendix 1

English Learner Questionnaire

This study is conducted by the School of English and American studies of Eötvös Loránd University, Budapest, Hungary, to better understand the thoughts and beliefs of learners of English. This questionnaire consists of three sections. Please read each instruction and write your answers. This is not a test so there are no "right" or "wrong" answers and you don't even have to write your name on it. The results of this survey will be used only for research purposes so please give your answers sincerely. Thank you very much for your help!

In this part we would like you to answer some questions by simply giving marks from 1 to 5. For example, if you like apples very much, choose number 5.

	Very much	Quite a lot	So-so	Not really	Not at all
How much do you like apples?	5	4	3	2	1

There are no "right" or "wrong answers. – we would like to know your personal opinion.

	Very much	Quite a lot	So-so	Not really	Not at all
1. How much do you like the TV programmes made in the United States?	5	4	3	2	1
2. How much do you think knowing English would help your future career?	5	4	3	2	1
3. How much do you like meeting foreigners from English-speaking countries?	5	4	3	2	1
4. How rich and developed do you think the United States is?	5	4	3	2	1
5. How much do you like the films made in the United States?	5	4	3	2	1

6.	How much do you like the people who live in the United States?	5	4	3	2	1
7.	How much do you like English?	5	4	3	2	1
8.	How much do you think knowing English would help you if you travelled abroad in the future?	5	4	3	2	1
9.	How much do you think knowing English would help you to become a more knowledgeable person?	5	4	3	2	1
10.	How important a role do you think the United States plays in the world?	5	4	3	2	1
11.	How important do you think learning English is in order to learn more about the culture and art of its speakers?	5	4	3	2	1
12.	How much do you like books by English-speaking authors?	5	4	3	2	1
13.	How important a role do you think the United Kingdom plays in the world?	5	4	3	2	1
14.	How much do you like the people who live in the United Kingdom?	5	4	3	2	1
15.	How much would you like to become similar to the people who speak English?	5	4	3	2	1
16.	How rich and developed do you think the United Kingdom is?	5	4	3	2	1
17.	How much would you like to travel to English-speaking countries?	5	4	3	2	1
18.	How important do you think English is in the world these days?	5	4	3	2	1
19.	How much do you like the pop music of English-speaking countries?	5	4	3	2	1

In this section there are going to be some statements some people agree with and some people don't. We would like to know to what extent they describe your own feelings or situation. After each statement you have five boxes. Please circle the number that best expresses how true the statement is about your feelings or situation.

	Absolutely true	Mostly true	Partly true, partly untrue	Not really true	Not true at all
20. When I hear a song in English, I listen carefully and try to understand all the words.	5	4	3	2	1
21. I study English because I plan to continue my studies in an English-speaking country.	5	4	3	2	1
22. People around me tend to think that it is a good thing to know foreign languages.	5	4	3	2	1
23. Learning foreign languages makes me fear that I will feel less Finnish/Croatian because of it.	5	4	3	2	1
24. My parents really encourage me to study English.	5	4	3	2	1
25. I study English so I can communicate with English-speaking people who come to my country.	5	4	3	2	1
26. Learning English is really great.	5	4	3	2	1
27. The things I want to do in the future require me to speak English.	5	4	3	2	1
28. I like to think of myself as someone who will be able to speak English.	5	4	3	2	1
29. Nobody cares if I learn English or not.	5	4	3	2	1
30. I always look forward to our English classes.	5	4	3	2	1
31. Learning English is necessary because it is an international language.	5	4	3	2	1
32. I really enjoy learning English.	5	4	3	2	1
33. If I could have access to English-speaking TV stations, I would try to watch them often.	5	4	3	2	1
34. If I could speak English well, I could get to know more people from other countries. (Not just English-speaking countries.)	5	4	3	2	1

	Absolutely true	Mostly true	Partly true, partly untrue	Not really true	Not true at all
35. My parents feel that I should really try to learn English.	5	4	3	2	1
36. When I think about my future, it is important that I use English.	5	4	3	2	1
37. Whenever I think of my future career, I imagine myself being able to use English.	5	4	3	2	1
38. Studying English will help me to understand people from all over the world. (Not just English-speaking countries.)	5	4	3	2	1
39. My parents consider foreign languages important school subjects.	5	4	3	2	1
40. For me to be an educated person I should be able to speak English.	5	4	3	2	1
41. I would like to be able to use English to communicate with people from other countries.	5	4	3	2	1
42. For people where I live learning English is not really necessary.	5	4	3	2	1
43. I think that foreign languages are important school subjects.	5	4	3	2	1
44. My parents encourage me to practise my English as much as possible.	5	4	3	2	1
45. If I fail to learn English I'll be letting other people down.	5	4	3	2	1
46. I find learning English really interesting	5	4	3	2	1
47. A knowledge of English would make me a better educated person.	5	4	3	2	1
48. If my dreams come true, I will use English effectively in the future.	5	4	3	2	1
49. I can imagine speaking English with international friends.	5	4	3	2	1
50. My parents have stressed the importance English will have for me in my future.	5	4	3	2	1

		Absolutely true	Mostly true	Partly true, partly untrue	Not really true	Not true at all
51.	The job I imagine having in the future requires that I speak English well.	5	4	3	2	1
52.	I study English because I plan to spend some time in England.	5	4	3	2	1
53.	Studying English is important to me because with English I can work globally.	5	4	3	2	1
54.	I study English because it's the language of internet	5	4	3	2	1
55.	In the future, I imagine myself working with people from other countries. (Not just English speaking countries.)	5	4	3	2	1

Finally, please answer these few personal questions

1. Gender? 1 – male 2 – female

2. Age? …… years

3.What foreign language(s) are you learning at school? .....

4. Have you learnt any foreign languages outside school? .....

5. If yes, which ones? ……

6. At what age did you started to learn English? .....

7. Have you ever been abroad for longer than 6 months? (e.g., when your parents worked there?)
.....

8. If yes, where? .....

Thank you for your cooperation!

ELF challenges for non-native speaker English teacher trainees

Orsolya Szatzker

1. Introduction

The final months of teacher education programmes are likely to become a life-changing experience for prospective teachers regardless of the subject they study and intend to teach. This is the time when they gain first-hand experience of teaching a group of students in a school and not their peers at university under 'laboratory' circumstances. Undoubtedly, the practicum period raises several issues for the trainees. They might question whether they are ready to work in the profession at all: ready in terms of their subject knowledge or in terms of their ability to act in the capacity of a teacher. Although teacher education aims to prepare students for the practicalities of classroom teaching by providing them with a solid subject knowledge and teaching techniques, the question arises whether this vast amount of information remains fragmented or will be synthesised to contribute to the development of a professional teacher.

This study focuses on the views, beliefs and reflections of students in the MA in ELT programme during their teaching practicum at Eötvös Loránd University (ELTE), Budapest. The aim of the research is to gain insight into the views and beliefs of a selected group of trainees regarding the language related norms and standards that they follow, as well as the ones that they want to represent for their learners within the context of English as a lingua franca (ELF).

Despite the fact that the concept of ELF has been in the foreground of research in applied linguistics and seems to be slowly finding its way into the practice of English language teaching (Seidlhofer, 2012),the notion itself and its perception in ELT still poses several challenges for English language teachers. The trainees under scrutiny in this project are familiar with ELF and have studied the current trends, questions and related topics within the context of teaching English as a foreign language; therefore, it is an intriguing question as to how they see the dominant use of English as a lingua franca, and in particular, to what extent their views and beliefs concerning ELF shape the way they teach English in the classroom

2. Theoretical background

This section attempts to provide a brief overview of research on ELF and discusses the challenges it poses for non-native ELT professionals.

2.1 ELF and ELT

The fact that the number of non-native speakers (NNS) using English for communication has already surpassed that of native speakers (NS) by a ratio of four to one (Graddol, 1997; Beneke as cited in Seidlhofer, 2004),as well as the global spread of English, has led to an increase of research interest in the various aspects and characteristic features of international communication in the English language.

One of the early definitions of ELF, which was provided by Firth (1996), claims that "it is a 'contact language' between persons who share neither a common native tongue nor a common (national) culture, and for whom English is the chosen foreign language of communication" (p. 240). This definition excludes NSs from ELF communicators, restricting ELF use exclusively to NNSs. More recent definitions, however, include native speakers as well on condition that they do not dictate the rules of communication in terms of generating standards of correctness and appropriateness (Jenkins, 2006; Seidlhofer, 2005; VOICE, 2013).

Since in ELF contexts NSs typically constitute a small minority and are not considered as reference points to which speakers of English must adhere, how English is used as a means of communication is shaped by the huge number of non-native speakers. Consequently, the language use of NNSs should be accepted in its own right and should not be viewed on an interlanguage continuum where the 'perfect', native-speaker level of English can never be achieved anyway.

The findings of the VOICE project (2013) as well as those of Jenkins, Cogo and Dewey (2011) suggest that there are linguistic features which are often used in ELF communication but are considered incorrect and are, therefore, discouraged in ELT; for instance, omitting the third person present tense *–s*, using the relative pronouns who and which interchangeably, failing to use correct forms in questions tags and overusing certain verbs, such as *do*, *have* and *make*. ELF researchers, however, argue that since these features do not pose a threat to intelligibility and can be found in other contexts of use of English (Jenkins,

2012), they should be considered as different as opposed to incorrect or inappropriate. It has also been proposed that the results of ELF research should be incorporated into ELT principles (Seidlhofer, 2012); for instance, the norms to be followed should be adjusted to ELF users rather than the idealised native speaker who has until now always served as a reference point for correctness and appropriateness in ELT (Illés, 2011; Widdowson, 2012).

One of the consequences of ELF filtering into the classroom could be replacing the current monolingual, English only language teaching with a multilingual environment that ELF communication represents. As a result, the use of the mother tongue as well as code-switching, which feature in ELF communication but are seen as a sign of a gap in the speaker's knowledge of English in ELT, should be reconsidered and utilised as a valuable pragmatic resource when teaching learners to function in international contexts (Jenkins et al. 2011).

2.2 The challenges of ELF for NNS teachers of English

According to Jenkins (2007), due to globalisation, a range of identities are available to individuals, though the most crucial and common division with regard to English teachers is still based on whether they belong to the native speaker or non-native speaker group of professionals. Being a non-native speaker teacher of English has long been considered an inferior position in the labour market for various reasons (Illés 1991; Medgyes, 1994). One explanation for this is that current language teaching approaches place the idealised but unattainable native speaker as the role model for both NNS teachers and students (Illés, 2011; Kramsch, 1997; Widdowson, 2012). However, the dominance of native speakers has been challenged from linguistic, psychological and pedagogical viewpoints. From the linguistic perspective, it is a vital fact that NNSs outnumber native speakers (Seidlhofer, 1999); psychologically, NNSs have the undoubted advantage over NSs that they understand the unrealistic nature of native speaker models and targets (Widdowson, 2003); and from the pedagogical viewpoint, NNS teachers may have a clearer picture of what language learners go through as they have experienced a similar learning process, being language learners themselves (Medgyes, 1994).

ELF researchers argue that the change in the use of English should be reflected in ELT as well (Seidlhofer, 2012). Kramsch (1997) envisages a shift in pedagogy where the status of NNS teachers has to change substantially from inferior to privileged on the basis of their advantageous characteristics mentioned above. In order to implement these changes, issues such as the ownership of English,

the norms of language use and the process of teachers' identity formation should be addressed, not only among researchers and professionals in the field of language teaching but also in teacher education programmes.

This study represents such an approach towards teacher education in that it aims to get an insight into trainees' personal experiences, beliefs, subject knowledge and reflections on their linguistic identity and language awareness in an environment where English is predominantly taught as a foreign language preparing learners to use the language in future contexts of use with native speakers. As a result, an understanding of pre-service teachers' views, beliefs and reflections on ELF and its influence on their teaching practice is sought in order to inform and improve teacher education.

3. Method

The research study was set in the qualitative research paradigm in order to seek deeper understanding. Answers were sought to the following research question: How do trainee teachers' views of English and its role in international communication influence the way they see themselves as English teachers and the way they teach English?

3.1 Participants

One of the most difficult tasks for the researcher was to select the participants in a way that in-depth analysis along with the maximum variety considering the sample would be ensured. Eventually, on the basis of a convenience sampling criterion (Creswell, 1998), participants were selected from a teacher training programme at ELTE, Budapest. Although all the participants have different backgrounds in terms of their language knowledge, language learning history, previous education, and even experience in teaching, they had all taken the same courses in the MA in ELT programme, and they were all completing their teaching practicum in secondary schools (university practicum ones) at the time of data collection.

Theoretical as well as practical preparation is of equal importance in this MA in ELT programme. The five-term course consists of the following main elements: language proficiency improvement including language practice for teachers, pedagogical grammar, phonetics and phonology, ESP courses, the basics of applied linguistics, and psychology and pedagogy courses both in English and in Hungarian.

The participants were selected on a voluntary basis with the help of teacher trainers and mentor teachers in the host institutions. Unfortunately, the majority of trainees contacted were reluctant to participate mainly due to the recorded classroom observation component of the study. The trainees considered the classroom recording to be an extra stress factor which they wanted to avoid. However, those participants who were eventually willing to contribute to the research represented a cross section of students with regard to their age (23-42), gender (8 females, 2 males), experience (0-12 years of teaching), and language skills and expectations (for summary see Table 1). The two participating mature students have not been excluded from the analysis due to the fact that prior to their teaching practice they studied several novel topics including ELF-related ones, and it was interesting to see how, if at all, this had changed their views.

All the participants are referred to under pseudo names in the discussion section. The quotations are selected from the interview transcripts and direct quotes are only applied in the most representative cases without attempting to quote all the participants in each subsection.

Table 1. *Teacher trainee participants.*

Name	Gender	Age
Dóri	F	23
Evelin	F	22
Helén	F	24
Ildikó	F	42
János	M	44
Judit	F	24
Kinga	F	23
László	M	23
Lilla	F	24
Rita	F	22

3.2 Instruments, data collection and data analysis

In order to explore and gain an understanding of the topic, we found conducting interviews appeared to be the most suitable instrument; therefore, a semi-structured interview guide (see Appendix) was developed, which was analysed by a fellow-researcher in order to improve the comprehensibility of the tool. Besides the interviews, videotaped classroom observation was also scheduled in order to ensure data gathering from multiple sources and to fulfil the criteria of triangulation. The reason for applying the classroom observation method was twofold: it was meant to provide the opportunity for prolonged engagement and it allowed the participants to watch the videos and reflect on themselves in terms of classroom management, language proficiency and any emerging topics.

Two lessons were observed and recorded on two occasions in the case of each participant. Permission from the parents of the students to record them was obtained beforehand in order to avoid any problems with ethical issues. Having recorded both of the classes, the videos were distributed to the trainee teacher participants who were asked to watch them reflectively. Nobody was given any particular criteria regarding how to conduct self-evaluation; they were only told that they should focus on themselves as teachers in the lessons and the decisions they made in the process. In the meantime, the videos were also watched by the researcher and noteworthy parts were marked in order to be able to ask questions on the basis of concrete examples during the interview sessions. In this way both the interviewees and the interviewer could prepare for the interviews, which were conducted individually on a one-to-one basis.

All the interviews were audio-recorded with the permission of the interviewees to ensure member checks. The conversations were transcribed and read through several times in order to let themes emerge without preset categories. All the interviews were analysed with the help of the constant comparative method (Maykut and Morehouse, 1994) and meaningful units of data were sought to present the data in a comprehensive way.

4. Results and discussion

The interview sessions provided valuable data for analysis. Having read through the data on numerous occasions, several interesting units of meaning emerged for further interpretation from the aspect of examining the English language and its role in the teaching profession, which are divided into three main groups. On

the whole, an underlying controversy can be observed between what the trainees do and say based on the classroom observation videos and the self-reflective interviews. In the first place, the language models that trainees wanted to represent to their students were defined by the level of language proficiency and in terms of an idealised language variety, which soon led to the paradoxical situation of a NNS teacher trying to achieve the unattainable native speaker level proficiency. Secondly, the difference in the use of English in and outside the classroom emerged on many occasions with respect to both the teacher's own use and that of their students. The third category shed light on the participants' views regarding teacher models and the connection between their being non-native teachers and the teaching practices they applied in their classrooms.

4.1 Language proficiency and language use

As for their language proficiency, only one of the participants claimed that she was satisfied with her English knowledge. However, it was interesting to see where the participants put the emphasis when describing their own or someone else's knowledge of English: for some of them accuracy played the key role, for others pronunciation or fluency. For instance, László noted that when he made a grammar mistake it worried him much more than his pronunciation, whereas Kinga claimed that "I always tell my students that for a native speaker it is a bigger problem when you mispronounce a word than when you make an accuracy mistake. I think inaccurate pronunciation is anything that is not close to any existing language varieties." This was the view she held of her own English use as well. Interestingly, Kinga tended to focus on the differences between communication with native speakers and non-native speakers, as if a different set of rules applied when using English with native or non-native speakers. János shared this view by saying: "I observed that with non-native speakers you don't have to worry that much; I observed that they also make mistakes."

In terms of identifying the kind of English they would like to speak and represent to their students, all of the participants found it crucial not to have any Hungarianness in their English. Ildikó was very direct, not only regarding her English used as a teacher but also her English outside the classroom: "I would like to be a person, beyond being a teacher who can get a job abroad, for example, without even being recognised as a Hungarian." However, it was not clear which language variety the participants considered as their own, or whether they felt the necessity of having such a variety at all.

A strange duality and controversy could be sensed when they were talking about their own language use and the models they would like to present to their

students. Although at an abstract level the participants were all aware of the fact that reaching native-speaker-like proficiency was unrealistic and impossible, they all judged themselves as well as others in reference to their approximation to native speaker standards. At the same time, all of them referred to a particular seminar during their MA studies where they discussed the differences between the characteristics of native and non-native teachers and also the question of who is worth more (Medgyes, 1992). Their conclusion was that there was no straightforward answer and that it should be up to the individual teacher to decide how and why they position themselves within the community of ELT professionals. The participants mainly referred to Medgyes's book (1994) entitled The *non-native teacher* as a source of reference and relief in their situation: "His book is an excuse for us, it shows that we can make mistakes, we don't have to be flawless "(János).

The majority of the participants clearly wanted to approximate Received Pronunciation (RP) as a model, mainly by living abroad for a while. Kinga considered her English a variety of American English, which she was satisfied with for herself and also as a model for her students. She, however, harshly criticised the lecturers in the MA programme for not giving more direct feedback to students regarding their pronunciation and knowledge of English in general: "I really missed that during university classes none of the teachers told some of my group mates that their English had not been good enough and they should have worked on it. But this only annoyed me because I knew that they would become teachers later on, and I thought they shouldn't have been waiting for a miracle from the university." Overall, Ildikó seemed to be the most conscious about all the influences concerning her English use, describing it as a mixture of American and British English, condensed to be her 'own language variety'.

4.2 Language use in and outside the classroom

Most of the participants did not mention any preferences in terms of a language variety they would expect to be used by their students. Rather, they emphasised the fact that the language can be acquired easily because it is ubiquitous. As Kinga put it: "non-native speakers can learn English very well without living abroad; English is everywhere around us, we don't live in the 1960s anymore". It is for this reason that Idikó wanted to expose her students to as many varieties and opportunities to meet foreigners as possible: "in our multi-cultural institution, my class is always the first who welcome our foreign visitors for a chat". Regarding English language use outside the classroom, László made the

following observation: "in real life the only thing that matters is to put the message across when they communicate with foreigners. The most important thing is accuracy, not pronunciation". This statement in itself is a contradiction in that it carries the emphasis on accuracy in the classroom over to English language use outside the school walls where intelligibility takes precedence over accuracy.

Additionally, the theme of the unattainable native-speaker standard reappeared in the conversations with all the participants when it came to their own language use outside the classroom. Only one participant claimed confidently that she was satisfied with her English language proficiency and found her 'own voice' in English. All the other participants mentioned that they had been constantly struggling with improving their English up to a level which was clearly unattainable and had been accommodating to the English language variety used in a given communication situation, especially if the other party was a native speaker.

4.3 Models, proficiency and methodology

As for the kind of teacher they would like to be, all of the participants mentioned their previous language teachers and mentor teachers in their host institutions either as models or as counterexamples. Seven trainees out of the ten highlighted the fact that they followed their mentor teachers' advice all the time mainly because they thought that the mentor teachers knew the group the most. In general, the participants could not recall any teacher models from their experience as learners who they could look up to; they wanted to become better than those teachers who used to teach them.

The interesting issue of spontaneous language use in class was raised by János and concerned a combination of methodology and language proficiency, as well as personality traits. According to János, "the most difficult thing is to react spontaneously in class. I can ask what I want, but then reacting to the things that have been said and giving feedback closing down something is really difficult for me".

In the view of several participants, the most important characteristic of a teacher was to create a working atmosphere in which all the students dare to communicate without anxiety regardless of the potential mistakes they might make. One of the trainee teachers (Ildikó) explained that when she was a student

she did not study in a supportive environment, and she strongly believed that her language anxiety stemmed from these experiences. Tiredness was mentioned by all of the participants as a factor which did not always allow them to act in the teacher role as they would have wanted to in the classroom. For instance, the use of Hungarian in the lessons was triggered by tiredness in János' and László's case as well. They said that occasionally they got so tired that it was easier for them to shift to Hungarian when they were giving instructions to students or when they wanted to explain grammar. The fact that the learners' mother tongue could be deliberately exploited in the classroom was not given much emphasis by the participating trainee teachers.

6. Conclusion

The interviews with the teacher trainees in the current study shed light on various aspects of the issues trainees have to face during their teaching practicum. One of the most interesting themes that has come up is the fact that being a non-native English teacher is still a controversial issue in the profession. What is more, it is not only controversial but also occasionally remains hidden as the participating teacher trainees did not have a clear idea of their status and worth and the kind of teacher model they want to present to their students. However, it must be noted that at the beginning of their career it is perhaps unrealistic and unjust to expect teachers to have a well-developed and well-defined model they want to represent. What can, however, be expected as an implication for teacher education is that time devoted to the discussion of ELF related issues, including self-evaluation and reflection before, during and after the teaching practicum should be incorporated into teacher education programmes. This could be done, for example, with video recordings of lessons, which all the participants found beneficial for improving self-awareness and the development of various teaching skills.

This change could help teacher trainees to synthesise the vast amount of information, both theoretical and practical, they gain during their studies. Self-reflection and more theoretical, not only methodology-focused, feedback sessions would encourage future English teachers to make informed decisions in the classroom. Topics considered relevant and worthwhile to discuss might be as diverse as the students' own teaching and learning contexts. Such issues may include the discussion and reconciliation of the native-non-native teacher and fluency-accuracy dichotomy, as well as decisions regarding the model and target of English that teachers choose for their learners and themselves. Raising awareness of the prevalent use of English as a lingua franca can then hopefully result in changes in the way teachers of English see themselves and the way they teach the language.

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Appendix

Interview questions

1. How long have you been learning English?
2. Where did you learn English? How would you describe your knowledge of English? Are you satisfied with it?
3. How much has your university training contributed to your English knowledge? (The BA or the MA program)
4. Do you consider the language training you have received at university sufficient for teaching?
5. What challenges have you faced when teaching? (e.g., explaining grammar, the use of certain words or grammatical structures, in-class communication or something else)
6. Can you mention specific language elements whose use you have found problematic during teaching?
7. What do you consider "correct English" (for yourself and for your students)
8. How important is accuracy for you? (grammar, pronunciation)
9. What do you think about non-native English as a linguistic model (for language learners and for yourself)
10. To what extent do you consider Hungarian English ("Hunglish") acceptable?

11. How do you prepare for lessons language wise?
12. Has it happened to you that a learner brought up English from outside the classroom which differed from the textbook? What did you do? Have you ever complemented the textbook with your knowledge of English from outside the classroom?
13. How and in what kind of situations do you modify your English according to the language level of the learners.
14. Are you planning to teach English in the future? (if so, where?)

FOR WATCHING THE VIDEO: what language-related decisions did you make during the lesson and why? (Please note down the times of the recording when you find a relevant part from this aspect)

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This publication of articles based on the annual IATEFL-Hungary Conference is an opportunity for speakers and researchers to have their conference talks published. The compilation is not a conference proceedings volume, but a carefully edited selection of research-based, double-blind, peer-reviewed articles. Speaker proposals that have been accepted for the Conference are not automatically and simultaneously accepted for publication. Speakers who are interested in having their talks published following the Conference should contact the editors concerning their submissions. All submitted manuscripts will undergo a three-stage process of editing and review: initial editorial comments, double-blind peer-review comments and final editorial comments. This process may take several months and the volume is published the year following the IATEFL-Hungary Conference (e.g., talks given at the 2013 Conference on October will be published before the next conference in 2014).

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Manuscripts need to be based on the IATEFL-Hungary Conference talk or workshop of the author(s).

Articles should be about 5000 words in length. They should be submitted as MS Word documents.

The manuscripts need to have a balance of theory and practice. Practical suggestions and approaches need to be underpinned with theory, and theoretical concepts have to be related to practical application the classroom.

Articles dealing with a particular educational context need to have implications for a wider audience.

Authors should demonstrate some familiarity with the work of others in the area they are concerned with.

Authors should not presuppose that the readers have more than a basic knowledge of statistics, specialised terminology or theoretical concepts. All such data need to be presented with clear explanations that would make it possible to understand even for novice teachers or those in teacher education.

For more information as well as submissions please contact the editors:

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