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Conference Selections
Edited by
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Introduction

This is the fourth in the series of compilations inspired by the annual IATEFL-Hungary conference. It contains a selection of talks delivered at the 26th IATEFL-Hungary conference, which took place in Kaposvár, between 7–9 October, 2015.

Similarly to the previous compilations, (http://www.iatefl.hu/index.php?q=node/123), this volume also contains peer-reviewed and non-peer-reviewed papers. The four non-peer-reviewed pieces include a forum for teachers to exchange ideas, ways in which teachers can change the culture of talk in the classroom, as well as how Hungarian higher education institutions meet the challenges posed by an increasingly international student cohort and finally, the issue of native speakerism in proofreading practices.

The peer-reviewed section of the volume includes four papers. The first two are concerned with younger learners, one dealing with the benefits and challenges teaching English in kindergarten and the other with using picturebooks in the language classroom. The final two articles address wider social issues, such as bullying in school and social justice.

The volume could not have materialised without the invaluable contribution of the following reviewers: Ágnes Abuczki, Valéria Árva, Kata Csizér, Nigel Harwood, Dorottya Holló, Csilla Kiss, Ildikó Lázár and Uwe Pohl. Our special thanks go to Árpád Farkas who did an outstanding job as the proofreader of the manuscript and vindicated our views of the competence of non-native speaker language professionals.

Éva Illés and Jasmina Sazdovska

Teachers talking shop: Stories shared over coffee and cake

Uwe Pohl and Anna Szegedy-Maszák

It all begins with a story

Telling stories is fundamental to what makes us human and so a universal feature of all known cultures. Perhaps this is because telling and listening to stories touches something very deep in the human psyche: It is a form of *being*. At the same time, such sharing is also a profoundly interpersonal act and part of "the social cement which creates group cohesion" (Thomas, 1993, p. 3).

In the course of human history the need to tell and hear stories has not changed, only the forms and contexts in which personal narratives are shared have become much more diverse. We now experience story-telling in daily conversations with family, friends and colleagues or the media in a wide array of forms: diaries, anecdotes, jokes, news stories, autobiographies or blog posts. As Atkinson (1998) writes, "all human beings have a story, even many stories, to tell about the life they are living. Everything that happens, happens in story form" (p. 22).

So what do teachers talk about when they talk to their peers, family members and friends? What stories of their everyday experience, their values, aspirations, disappointments, conflicts and collaborations are there waiting to be told? And where do teachers find the space and a climate in which they would want to tell stories and be listened to?

These questions were central to two sessions at recent IATEFL-Hungary events run by members of the Mentor SIG: the 26th Conference in October 2016 and the Winter Warmer Conference in February 2017. We see great potential in letting teachers share professional stories in a relaxed and enjoyable setting. So in this article we will be telling the story of these two events.

The CoffeeWorkShops

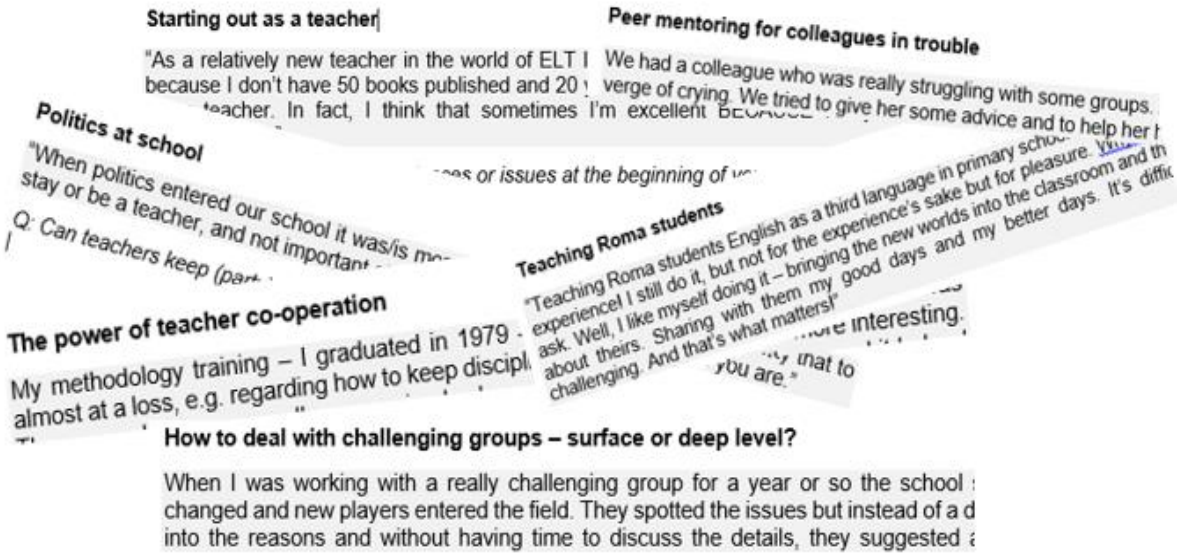
Are you being served?

Stepping into our workshop at Radnóti or in Kaposvár, you might have confused the conference room with the lounge of the conference. Appetising home-made pastries were on the table, water for tea and coffee was boiling in the kettle, tables were arranged as if in a cafe, and waiters/waitresses (Judit Révész, Uwe Pohl and Ágota Pálmai) in neat aprons were going around asking whether you'd take sugar, lemon or milk in your tea.

The idea for doing our workshop in coffee-house style goes back to the World Café method (http://www.theworldcafe.com/key-concepts-resources/world-cafe-method/). Conferences are tiring affairs, and teachers, like most people, enjoy moments of rest and being 'pampered' a little. We wanted to invite participants in coffee-house style to talk about things that matter to them and to share their own stories of life and work. But good talk hardly ever just happens. It usually needs the right kind of 'trigger' and requires at least a minimum of structure to develop and be inclusive. This is why the workshop organisers decided on a mix of trigger stories and facilitated group discussion.

Trigger stories

Participants were first asked to read a number of very short stories posted along the wall and to decide which they would like to discuss. All of the trigger stories were related to teaching or wider issues of education, and each had been given a simple heading. At the same time, they were the often very personal stories, offered by the organisers of the workshop or – in the case of the second event at Radnóti – new additions written by participants at the previous conference in Kaposvár. Here are a few examples of story themes:



The discussion

After a vote on which three (Radnóti) or four (Kaposvár) stories were to be discussed, each table was assigned a story and a workshop organiser acting as facilitator. Then, participants formed discussion groups according to the topics they had chosen. The discussion started with the facilitator reading the trigger story aloud to jog everyone's memory. Each story ended with a problem question which invited participants to relate the story to their own experience and to suggest ideas for addressing the issue(s). The facilitators were not directing the conversations; their role was rather to make sure everyone became part of the conversation. One round of discussions (three rounds in all) lasted for no more than ten minutes, after which participants were allowed to choose whether to join a new group or stay with a topic.

Tangible outcomes

The format of the café style created a relaxed atmosphere and encouraged participants to play around with ideas. But the facilitators kept track of the discussion and jotted down the main ideas raised. At the same time, the roundtable format added to the sense of shared focus and collaboration. Given the diverse background of the participants (novice teachers, teacher trainers, language school teachers, etc.), the stories were approached from different angles, which resulted in equally varied interpretations and, ultimately, a range of very specific suggestions for addressing the underlying issue(s).

An example case story: *Culture and communication problems in the Hungarian classroom*
One of the topics which was discussed in the Kaposvár 'café' concerned the challenges arising from teaching non-Hungarian speaking students together with Hungarian speakers in state schools. Here is the story:

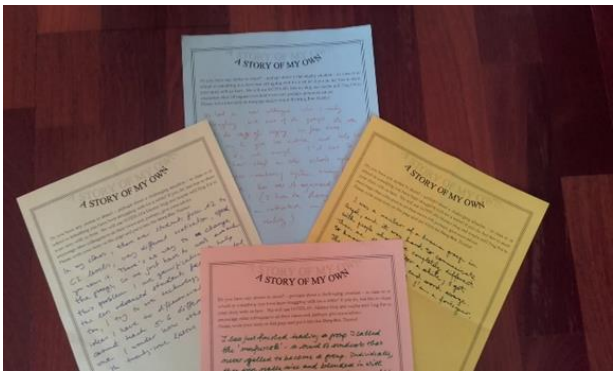
> I teach in a bilingual school where there are more and more foreign students who do not speak any Hungarian. Some of them speak English well or at least well enough for us to be able to communicate with them. There are others - mostly Asian students - who only understand English and express themselves in English at a very basic level, but do not communicate at all during the lessons. They do not show any emotions, there is no body language, sometimes we do not even know whether they understand what we are talking about because they do not look at us, they do not work during the lessons and do not react to us at all. And then there are some who do not speak any Hungarian or English. These students are completely isolated in the school, completely lost. To be honest, as teachers, we feel lost as well.
>
> Questions: How could we help these students? How should we communicate with them? How should we teach them in a mixed group of 20?

The issues which were pinpointed by the discussion group included motivation problems and the considerable differences among students as regards their cultural, linguistic and educational backgrounds. The teachers also came up with what were down-to-earth suggestions, especially given the limited time to delve into such a complex and, for most Hungarian school teachers, still unfamiliar topic. By way of illustration, here are a few of their ideas:

- setting up a peer system (Hungarian students looking after their non-Hungarian peers);
- allowing students to introduce their own culture or make it into a project for Hungarians;
- involving the parents;
- actively finding the 'common language', (e.g., talents of students);
- handing them so-called 'emotion cards' to help them to express their sentiments;
- assigning a counsellor to each student, creating a 'preparatory course' which would include and intercultural programme and last, but not least;
- encouraging the teacher to learn about the culture of the student.

A story of my own

After the three rounds of discussions, each participant was handed a coloured template on which to write a story of their own, if they wished. Not everybody did, but each workshop yielded at least four to eight new stories. Some were inspiring success stories, others unresolved issues, with some ending with a question to the reader. Interestingly, the stories participants wrote there and then did not relate strictly to the methodology of English language teaching, but reflect broader educational issues and concerns, for example:



- issues concerning the teacher as a member of a school staff, the relationship with colleagues, peers and supervisors, the teacher as subject to teaching conditions within the institution;
- difficulties and success stories of adapting to a specific group of students, be it special needs students, students of different cultures, levels of English or communicative styles;
- questions related to the imparting of knowledge that goes beyond language teaching (e.g., educating students to become critical thinkers and citizens).

The benefits of a World Café format

There are a number of benefits to this way of running a workshop. Here, we'd like to highlight those that we see as contributing directly to EFL teachers' well-being and professional development.

Emotional release

Teaching is an intellectual activity, for sure, but it also requires a great deal of emotional energy. Classroom teaching is about making split-second decisions continuously, decisions which often are not clear-cut, sometimes involving moral dilemmas. Disclosing and verbalising experiences and worries in a non-threatening setting helps teachers to process those often stressful experiences.

Language development for teachers

EFL teachers have relatively few opportunities to use English with other proficient speakers (that is, to 'talk shop' in the language they teach). This type of workshop created a forum in which the teachers got to think, talk and write in English about professional matters in the company of sympathetic and interested peers.

Professional feedback

It is perhaps safe to say that some EFL teachers do not feel the complexity of their work is appreciated enough. Positive feedback from students, parents or employers is, of course, important. But, in our experience, recognition expressed by teaching peers carries a special weight. For one, feedback from another teacher is professional, as opposed to that given by a parent or a student. What is more, appreciative feedback given by a colleague from a different school, institution or even country – without any vested interest in the discussion – might be felt to be more impartial and therefore accepted.

Validating practical knowledge

In our small café setting, discussing the teachers' case studies encouraged and aided participants in articulating their own, often tacit, knowledge based on personal experience. When this happens – and in our experience it doesn't happen very often – such teacher knowledge can become a valuable shared resource (Pohl & Révész, 2014, pp. 123–124). For this reason, the aim of each discussion was to arrive collaboratively at a shared understanding of a problem and ways of addressing it. The scope of ideas and suggestions that were generated at the two workshops in the span of just one hour showed how insightfully and creatively a group of teachers can deal with their own concerns. For this reason, the 'server' role taken by the teacher trainers who had been involved in the design of the workshops was very fitting.

How about organising a café in your school?

In this article, we have given an account of a 'workshop with a difference', organised at two recent IATEFL Hungary conferences. But we also see some additional advantages if teachers organise a café-type workshop in their schools. Familiarity with the specific context and participants might help to shed light on issues and dig deeper when it comes to, for example, individual students, specific groups, the curriculum or parents. Examining an issue from various perspectives with first-hand experience and in a shared context is likely to lead to enhanced understanding. Most of what will be talked about is likely to be personal in nature. We believe the café workshop setting will add a lighter note to such an event, making it *a team-building* event, not run by outsiders but by members of the school team.

Our conference workshops have shown how teachers can find the solutions to their own problems if given some time, space and a bit of pampering. Be it a café organised for teachers of various institutions or a cafe organised for and by colleagues of the same school, the main purpose is for teachers to share stories **and** enjoy the experience. So, bring on the tea, coffee and the pastries, and let's talk shop!

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Learning to talk – talking to learn

Margit Szesztay

We all know how to communicate in our mother tongue ... or do we? I sometimes wonder, as I listen to (political) slinging matches among friends and family, overhear heated conversations on public transport, observe how people throw verbal punches at tenants' meetings, or witness 'circular' staffroom exchanges. As a language teacher, I have always wanted my students to learn to talk in English – beyond the ability to buy a ticket, order a meal, or refuse an invitation politely. A deeper dimension of communication involves exploring ideas, appreciating a richness of perspectives, and perhaps even questioning our own values and assumptions. I think that the communicative English classroom is the right place for students to learn to talk in this sense. My plenary explored how we can change the culture of talk in our classrooms and beyond by becoming facilitators of conversations about issues that matter.

Three kinds of talk

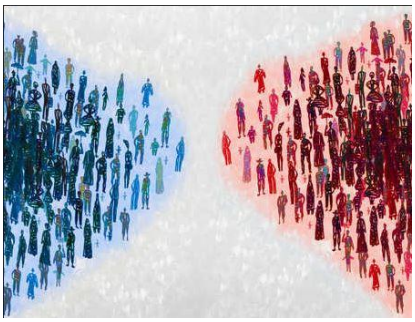
Neil Mercer (1995) distinguished three kinds of talk: cumulative, disputational and exploratory. A casual conversation among friends can be an example of cumulative talk: there is not much concern for sticking to any one topic or for linking ideas. Disputational talk can take the form of a debate, or any other exchange of views where there are fixed positions and the aim is to convince the other side that your position is the right one. By contrast, exploratory talk enables people to come to a deeper understanding of complex issues. There are no fixed positions, and listening to each other and considering views different from the one you hold is an essential requirement.

Each type of talk achieves different aims and should have its place in society. I believe, though, that western societies are dominated by disputational talk. In other words, an argument culture in communication seems to reign supreme. It shapes the way we think and talk in public. It even shapes the way we think about improving public talk – becoming better debaters, sharpening our skills of building good arguments. And indeed, backing up your views with evidence is an important skill. Debating clubs can encourage members to do research and develop a rational line of thinking, to move from emotionally charged opinions to clearer and more informed views. The problem lies not with the practice of engaging in thoughtful debate – the problem is living in an all-encompassing argumentative culture.

Two contrasting metaphors for group interaction

The image that best captures the disputational culture of public speaking is that of two camps facing each other with hostility. This image to me represents the polarisation that is gaining ground in the world at the moment. The Americans – and the Rest of the World.

Muslims – and Christians. Liberals – and Conservatives. We are led to believe by the media and the public discourse of many politicians that the boundaries separating people into camps are sharp and define who we are, as is illustrated by the image on the right. In addition, we can find it hard to talk about certain issues even with family members or with close friends. In this way, our alliances with political parties or even with football teams can also 'put us into camps' and can be just as divisive as cultural or religious differences.



Examples of exploratory talk with high quality listening, reflectiveness and a lack of emotional reactivity are hard to find, and I believe that the English classroom is one of the places where such talk can be practised and learnt. With English as the lingua franca, its role as the language of communication across cultures, religions and ethnic divides over issues that matter is becoming more highlighted. Learning to engage in discussions with an open mind, being ready to appreciate a multitude of perspectives on any one issue is something we need to be able to do with people who speak the same language, as well as with the ones who don't.

The image that to me captures the essence of exploratory talk is that of a campfire.

I see this as a metaphor for meaningful group interaction. Whenever I engage in deep conversation with a group of people, I feel as if transported back to the roots of humanity, when the fire was the magnet bringing Homo sapiens together, giving us warmth and being the bond that built communities. Perhaps conversations evolved around the open fire alongside ceremonies and rituals. Whenever I see a circular formation emerging naturally out of a group of students waiting for a class to start, for example, I feel the pull of that imaginary fire.

The circular formation of a campfire also signals that everyone's voice matters. If you're sitting in small groups or in a horseshoe formation in the classroom, attention can flow in different directions and as you look around, you will notice the people around you. The message of this layout is that learning is not just something that happens between you and the teacher with everyone competing for attention. Rather, learning becomes a communal activity. And yet engaging in meaningful group interaction is not without challenges. In the rest of this short paper, I would like to highlight three such challenges and suggest some ways to overcome them.

How to change the way we talk

Switching off the autopilot

In his recent book, *The Power of Habit*, Charles Duhigg (2012) mentions many examples to illustrate that why we do what we do is often down to habit. Most of his examples highlight bad habits, such as overeating, smoking, or chewing your nails that people often engage in unawares. The equivalent of such bad habits in group interaction might be getting stuck in superficial talk, dominating a conversation, or switching off internally and not paying attention. In order to replace these bad habits with more fruitful ones, we need to catch ourselves in the act, as it were, in other words, become conscious of them and to move out of autopilot mode.

Such a move requires a shift of attention and has to do with regaining control. I think that most of the behaviours and routines that can cause problems during group interaction have been socially created and therefore can best be changed if there is a shift of attention in the group as a whole, rather than just in an individual member. To begin with, establishing discussion ground rules can be helpful in breaking unproductive routines. Even simple rules, such as, 'When someone talks, we give them our full attention', can help to raise our awareness. Displaying these rules in the form of a poster on the wall, they can be then referred to during and after class discussions.

Holding ideas loosely

The ability to hold your ideas loosely can also help to facilitate exploratory discussions. David Bohm talks about suspending your ideas and opinions as if they were hanging in the air in front of you. The key is not to identify with them because if you do, you might feel attacked if someone disagrees with what you say.

Once you are able to keep a reflective distance from an idea, you are less likely to have the impulse to defend your points. In fact, they are no longer your points – in the give and take of exploratory talk ownership of ideas is not important. The aim is to arrive at an in-depth understanding of complex issues by listening to and considering a richness of perspectives.

Whenever members of a group are locked into a Ping-Pong match type of situation and are keen to score points, it can also be helpful to bring in other people, different views. In a classroom context, for example, the teacher might ask: 'What do other people think?' giving some time for the ones involved in the ping-pong match to gain a bit of reflective distance.

Knowing your hot buttons

According to the Merriam-Webster Dictionary, a *hot button* is an issue that causes people to feel strong emotions like annoyance or anger, and it leads them to argue with each other. The emotional undercurrents in a given situation can intensify our response to the issue in question. For example, in addition to differences of opinion, a sarcastic comment, a patronising look, or an aggressive tone of voice can act as triggers. But strong negative feelings can cloud our vision and make us lose our calm. Such emotional stumbling blocks can derail a discussion and bring it to a dead end. In addition to the ping-pong match already mentioned, members might withdraw, start shouting, or simply walk out.

According to Goleman (2013), impulse control is an integral part of social intelligence. In his book *Focus*, he claims that one way to define emotional maturity is to think of the widening gap between 'impulse' and 'action'. A reflective pause after a strong impulse to lash out at someone, for example, can help us to regain our calm and redirect our attention to the issue under discussion.

Knowing what issues can set us off on an emotionally charged, reactive path, can help us to keep our calm when it matters. One way to learn about our own hot buttons is to observe others. For me, seeing someone else get upset and becoming reactive acts as a kind of mirror. It helps me to connect with my own reactive, impulsive self and to keep it in check.

Does it all matter?

I think it does. As human beings, we have come a long way from the days of the campfire. We have developed sophisticated and powerful tools to communicate, but in terms of our communication culture we don't seem to have evolved all that much. At the same time, seven billion plus humans share the same home, Planet Earth, and face a host of difficult issues, many of which are fuelling ethnic, religious and social conflicts.

I believe our ability to tackle these issues, indeed, our survival as a species depends on our ability to co-operate and communicate effectively. I also feel that, as teachers of English, we can make a small but significant contribution to this by bringing exploratory talk into our classrooms and by helping our students to learn about co-operative ways of interacting.

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Challenges of Hungarian higher education institutions in meeting international student needs

Csilla Marianna Szabó

Introduction

The internationalisation of higher education is a key issue within the Bologna process (Sava & Danciu, 2015) and one of the main priorities of all universities, so most higher education institutes (HEIs) consider it part of their strategies (Roga, Lapina, & Müürsepp, 2015). Additionally, students think that studying abroad gives them better opportunities both for their higher education studies and on the labour market. One consequence of this is that the number of students studying outside their home countries is sharply increasing, but this increase constantly challenges both the sending and the host institutions (Nedulcu & Ulrich, 2014).

The aim of this paper is to research what motivates students to study abroad and to investigate the extent to which studying abroad supports the development of professional, personal, social and international competences of the young generation. Another goal of this paper is to find out how international study programmes influence students' academic and personal development by widening their horizons and making them more open and tolerant. Finally, this study intends to investigate how HEIs can meet the needs of international students.

Studying abroad

Studying in another country has become a good opportunity for students all over the world. Students taking part in mobility programmes could gain international knowledge and experience, enlarge their intercultural knowledge and improve their foreign language competence. According to Nedulcu and Ulrich (2014), "… studying abroad is an academic, intellectual, cultural, and emotional journey, which offers opportunities for international interaction and personal growth" (p. 91).

There are several advantages as well as some disadvantages of studying abroad. Studying in a foreign country means living in a different cultural environment where students experience the culture and traditions of the host country. As a consequence, they are more open than non-mobile students, regarding their foreign language proficiency, intercultural knowledge, multicultural awareness, cross-cultural sensitivity, international experience and understanding things from multiple perspectives (Firmin, Holmes, Firmin, & Merical, 2013; Nedulcu & Ulrich, 2014). As the labour market has become global, students who take part in mobility programmes benefit from their international experience and find a job more easily. According to Bryla (2015), studying abroad within the framework of the Erasmus mobility programme increases the individual's opportunity to work later in a foreign country by 15%.

Apart from academic progress and adopting international perspectives, students can develop their personal competences as well. According to Firmin et al. (2013), students taking part in international studies reported increased maturity and personal development. They declared that their maturity had

developed through new experiences and increased independence. Studying in a foreign country places students in situations that are outside of their normal, everyday routine and makes them adjust to novel and different living conditions. All these have a significant impact on students' way of thinking (Firmin et al., 2013).

After returning home from international studies, students are more self-confident and have more independence and entrepreneurial skills. Moreover, they are more tolerant of other cultures as well as more appreciative of their own culture. While studying in another country, students can discover cultural similarities either between their home culture and the host culture, or between their home culture and some other cultures. Bryla (2015) asked the students to mention the most positive element of an international study programme. Analysing the answers of 2017 student-participants, he found that the most frequently mentioned benefits were the following: "… learning languages, the ability to get to know another culture, international friendships, broadening one's horizons, and improving one's chances for a professional career …" (Bryla, 2015, p. 2080).

There have been several studies in Hungary too about student exchange programmes, and one of them was carried out by Bencze and Tóth-Szerecz in 2013. According to their research results, Hungarian students' preferred purpose is to improve their foreign language competence. Many students listed some other goals, such as building international relationships, getting to know other cultures, and expanding their academic knowledge. More than half of the students believed that the skills gained during their studies abroad would be regarded advantageous on the labour market (Bencze & Tóth-Szerecz, 2014).

Besides European students, more and more Far and Middle Eastern students think that studying abroad brings them high benefits. Nowadays, many Chinese students travel to European countries or to the USA to broaden their academic knowledge. Chinese students are convinced that studying short or long term in another country helps them to get to know other societies and cultures and enables them to get along with people of different cultural backgrounds. Not only students, but Chinese employers also prefer international studies: They believe that students having international experience are better than the non-mobile ones in many competences that are relevant for their jobs. The main goals of international education for Chinese students are to get to know and understand European customs and through education to be able to have access to the global community. According to Chinese students' opinion, the most positive factors of studying abroad are the following: Depth of knowledge, acquired experience, and professional connections that could enhance their career opportunities. Students agreed that the most beneficial aspect of studying abroad was to facilitate their personal development through opportunities to travel, which helped them to become more independent (Cheng, 2014).

On the other hand, studying abroad has several difficulties. According to Bryla (2015), the most negative elements of international studies include financial difficulties, problems transferring credits and separation from family. Students also talked about the mental stress of adjusting to living in a foreign country and the difficulties with the foreign language (Nedelcu & Ulrich, 2014). Some of these challenges may be significant in Hungary because they can cause further difficulties for foreign students. The Hungarian language is not Indo-European and therefore has no similarities with most European languages, which might make it difficult for a foreigner to learn. The other problem is that, except for the young and well-educated generation, most Hungarian people do not speak any foreign languages, which makes everyday life here especially difficult for a foreigner.

The Hungarian authors also mentioned some problems in connection with studying abroad. Most Hungarian students complained about the low scholarship payment and high bureaucracy. However, only a few students mentioned the challenges of adjusting to the different culture and education system in the host country (Bencze & Tóth-Szerecz, 2014).

Internationalisation: Challenge for HEIs

Internationalisation can be seen as a must for HEIs. Experts claim that there are no good universities without students from other countries, without student and teacher mobility and without English-language programmes. This aspect of higher education is becoming increasingly significant (Janczyk-Strzala & Tomaszewski, 2013). While universities in the Western part of the world, especially in the UK and the US, have been accepting foreign students for several decades and providing them with special language and academic courses, many Eastern European universities started to accept international students on their English language programmes in the 21st century. As this is a novel situation for HEIs, they experience advantages as well as difficulties. According to the EU integration process, these universities should focus on ensuring the necessary acquisition of new competences and on building a European knowledge-based society (Janczyk-Strzala & Tomaszewski, 2013).

The internationalisation of higher education may bring considerable benefits for HEIs. However, it requires many changes to HEIs' study programmes. Except for launching English academic courses, universities should change their educational methods and their management views "in order to release new initiatives and innovative skills accelerating modernisation of the education system" (Janczyk-Strzala & Tomaszewski, 2013, p. 69). In order to meet these new requirements, HEIs must adopt a different attitude, goals, intercultural knowledge and methods of teaching. First, they should seek new opportunities and appropriate niches in the field of education and try to find international contacts and invite students. Second, they should integrate international students into their institutions by providing them not only with excellent academic courses, but also with extracurricular programmes and suitable accommodation. To be able to achieve these goals, HEIs must train their staff, develop their foreign (mostly English) language competences, broaden their methodological techniques with an emphasis on the cooperative ones and make them tolerant of foreign customs.

Local students should be made more sensitive towards foreigners, especially those from distant cultures. Among several opportunities, HEIs could provide specific courses on global education and global citizenship to their students so that they can understand the importance of responsibility, tolerance and interdependency. Such a course has been designed by the University of Pécs (Nemeskéri & Zádori, 2016).

Regarding Hungarian HEIs, they have had foreign students for a long time. However, there is a big difference between the periods of 1980s and 2000s regarding both the number of the students and HEIs taking part in international programmes. According to data, the number of foreign students is gradually growing. While in the 1995/1996 academic year there were 6,300 foreign students, in 2001/2002 the number was 8,556 and in 2010/2011 the number reached 15,889 (Takács & Kincses, 2013). The ratio of foreign students in Hungarian higher education was 4.74% in 2005, which grew to 7.7% in 2012/2013, when their number approximated 18,000 (http://eduline.hu/felsooktatas/2015/2/2/Egyre_tobb_a_kulfoldi_hallgato_a_magyar_egy_6HNHV2).

In addition, there are many Hungarian speaking foreign students in Hungarian HEIs who belong to the ethnic minorities of neighbouring countries. Both the host institutions and the country benefit from academic migration. Apart from paying the tuition fee, international students spend a lot of money in the host country and build professional contacts. Furthermore, after returning home they spread the reputation of the university and the region (Takács & Kincses, 2013).

Although studying abroad is getting increasingly popular among students, new kinds of actors are emerging in this sector. Research and training organisations and business companies provide their services similar to that of HEIs. In order to be successful on the higher education market, HEIs should

develop international business models to cope with the changing environment and rivalry (Girdzijauskaitea & Radzevicienea, 2014). Internationalisation of higher education is a concept which has various aspects (e.g., international cooperation, joint research and publishing, transnational study programmes, staff and teacher mobility programmes), and student mobility is only one of them, albeit perhaps the most significant one.

The research

This empirical research study was carried out at a university in Hungary from November 2015 to April 2016 with international students, using both with quantitative and qualitative methods which included a self-administered questionnaire and semi-structured focus-group interviews. The university is a small HEI compared to other Hungarian universities. Its purpose is to form an international campus. Therefore, the university is building international relationships with many HEIs abroad and is inviting both foreign staff and students. There are approximately 200 foreign students studying presently at the university from various countries. Some of them complete their full-time study programmes at this university, some do only one semester within the framework of the Erasmus mobility programme, others (Brazilians) accomplish two semesters within the framework of the Brazilian 'Science without borders' project, and a considerable number of Chinese students do their final year in Hungary.

To choose the sample, two types of sampling cases were applied for the two parts of the empirical research. In the questionnaire survey, the research team strived to work with a representative sample and intended to ask most foreign students. Out of the circa 180 foreign students studying at the university in the given semester, 92 filled in the questionnaire. This means that roughly half of the foreign student population was included in the sample. There are many Chinese students both in the population and in the sample, which might make the results biased regarding foreign students' opinions in general. That is why in some cases we have examined whether there is a difference between the opinions of Chinese and non-Chinese students. The data of the questionnaire were analysed by SPSS 22.

Regarding the focus group interviews, we worked with a purposive sample, which means we tried to interview students from nearly all nationalities. In the first interview (December 2015) seven students took part, each from different countries: Brazil, China, Cameroon, Iraq (Kurdistan region), Turkey, Portugal and Romania. In the second interview (April 2016) four Chinese students participated. We needed more Chinese students' opinions because firstly, they form a large portion of the population and secondly, the researcher taught many Chinese students in the spring semester.

Research results

Findings of the questionnaire

Out of the 92 students who filled in the questionnaire, only 78 students' answers have been analysed. Seventy-three percent (n = 56) of the respondents are male, while 25% (n = 21) are female. As all students attend the bachelor programme, most of them are in their 20s. Regarding their nationality, a high proportion of students are from China (63.85%), while the other 15 students are from seven different countries (Libya, Turkey, Portugal, Brazil, Belgium, Iraq and Cameroon).

Students have different reasons for studying abroad. We wanted to see which factors motivate students to apply for foreign studies. There were 10 factors listed, and students had to grade each on a 5-point scale, where 1 meant 'not important at all' and 5 meant 'absolutely important'. Figure 1 shows the mean of the answers.

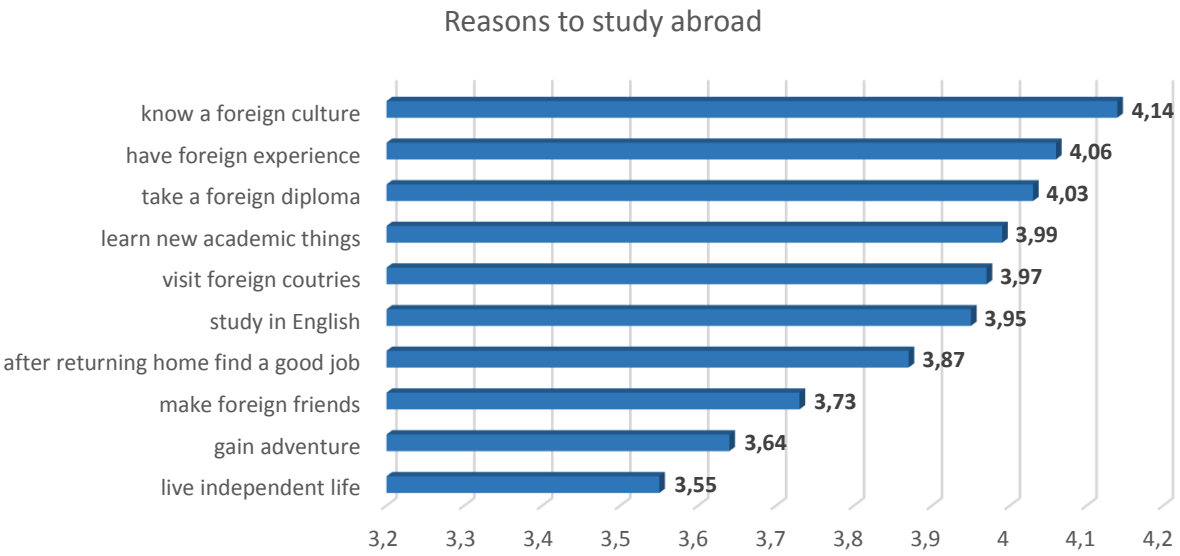

Figure 1. Motivating factors to study abroad (*n* = 78)

It was expected that the most important factors would be in connection with academic studies and career opportunities. As Figure 1 shows, students stated that some other factors are more significant for them. They indicated that the two most important factors are getting to know a foreign culture (4.14) and gaining foreign experience (4.06). Factors regarding academic and career plans come next, which are obtaining a foreign degree (4.03) and learning new academic things (3.99).

Most students have fears before travelling and experience difficulties during their stay in a foreign country. On the other hand, they often have positive experiences as well. Students were asked to evaluate different factors on a 5-point scale regarding fear, problems and positive experiences. Eight factors were listed in both categories.

Table 1. *Fears, problems vs. positive experiences (n = 78)*

Fears, problems	weather, climate	not speaking good English	Hungarians not speak English	Hungarian language difficult	missing family	strange food, meals	living in student hostel	Hungarian customs
	2.68	3.06	3.60	3.63	3.36	2.94	2.83	2.61
Positive experiences	nice climate	friendly Hungarians	safety	trips to Hungarian cities	making friends	fine foreign food	living in student hostel	Hungarian customs
	3.78	3.91	3.86	3.74	3.87	3.61	3.14	3.54

According to the matrix, students evaluated positive experiences higher than fears and problems. As far as the fears and problems are concerned, students' three biggest problems are that they miss their family, find the Hungarian language difficult, and only few Hungarians speak English. The first is a typical problem when students spend at least a semester or even more abroad. The second and the third factors can be regarded as a Hungarian speciality, a negative one though.

Regarding positive experiences, students mostly enjoy that Hungarians are friendly, they can make new friends, and living is safe in Hungary. These factors are significant for students during their studies abroad and probably make mobility enjoyable. Taking into account the same factors in the category of problems and positive experiences (climate, food, student hostel and Hungarian customs), students have rather good feelings about them as the mean of these variables is much higher when students graded them as positive experiences.

Examining the difference between the Chinese and the non-Chinese students, we have found that there is significant difference between these two groups of students regarding two variables: Missing family ($\chi 2=10.620$; $p<0.05$) and strange food and meals ($\chi 2=10.983$; $p<0.05$). While among the non-Chinese there were no students who thought that these factors were rather or significantly difficult, around 50% and 40% of Chinese students considered that these things caused big problems for them. Most Chinese students arrived at the university for two or three semesters or even for a full-time programme. This is a very long period far from parents for someone in their early twenties. As the social environment and the cuisine are significantly different from those of the Far East, Chinese students miss their family and their favourite meals perhaps more than the students who arrived from Europe.

The experience gained during foreign studies could be affected by several different factors. One of the main groups of factors is in connection with education including teaching and other staff (e.g., colleagues in the International Office) and the level of education. All these factors influence students' experiences as well as their attitude to foreign people and cultures. Fourteen different factors were listed, and students had to grade each one on a 5-point scale indicating to what extent they agree with the statements. Figure 2 shows the means. Some of the results seem reasonably good, while some of them need improvement. Students are significantly satisfied with the attitude of both the administrative and teaching staff. They consider that both of them are friendly and helpful (4.21; 4.19). They evaluate the administrative staff's English very good (4.2). On the other hand, students are not satisfied with the teachers' English knowledge (3.81), so this factor needs to be improved in the next years. However, foreign students appreciated teachers' professional knowledge (4.2) and their teaching methods (4.04). However, the teachers' requirements are not always clear (3.99), which should also be improved.

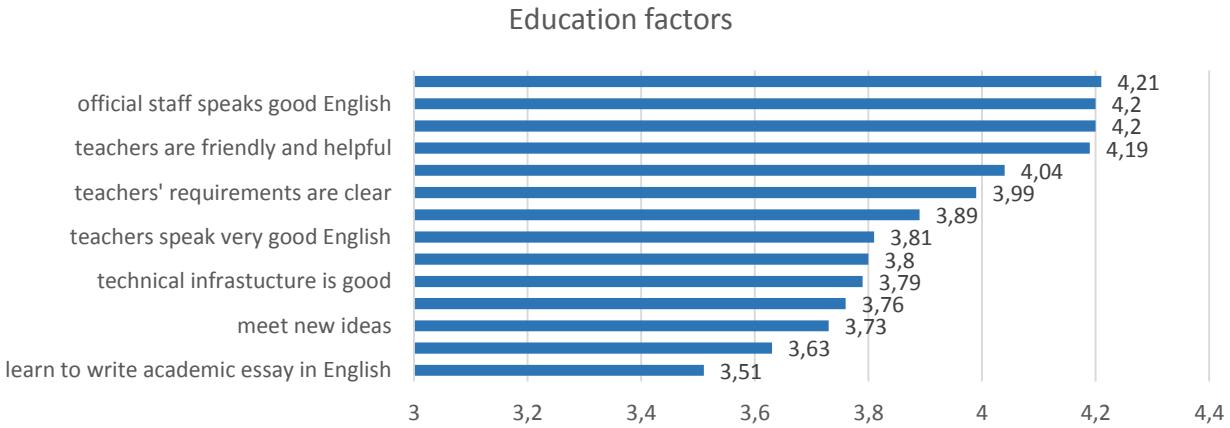

Figure 2. Students' opinion on education factors ($n = 75$)

However, there are some factors that achieved low points. Students indicated that they rarely perform academic tasks in the English language: Discuss issues (3.76), hold a presentation (3.63), or write academic essays (3.51). These competences are important for students' academic and work career, for example, for thesis writing, the final exam, and finding a good job. Although teachers should pay more attention to improving these competences, students should also improve their English, especially productive language skills, such as speaking and writing. Teachers often face difficulties when the requirements of their courses are essay writing or presentations. Chinese students' productive language skills are significantly low, which makes meeting these requirements difficult or sometimes impossible for students.

Examining the difference between Chinese and non-Chinese students' opinion, the difference is significant in one factor: Teachers' requirements ($\chi 2=12.877$; $p<0.05$). While teachers' requirements are unclear for Chinese students (69% of them agreed with it), non-Chinese students understand requirements much better (83% of the students find teachers' requirements clear). The reason for this difference could be the fact that teaching methods and lecturers' requirements at European HEIs are different from those of their Chinese colleagues.

Besides professional knowledge, students also acquire social and personal skills. While studying in a foreign country, students can learn about the host society, its culture and history, its customs and traditions, and even perhaps some words in the host country's language. This learning process is typically informal, through observing people in the host country, talking to them, or even taking part in some events or festivals. Moreover, as students live in an international environment and meet students from other countries, they can learn about different cultures and traditions. Students were asked to evaluate 11 statements indicating to what extent they agree with them.

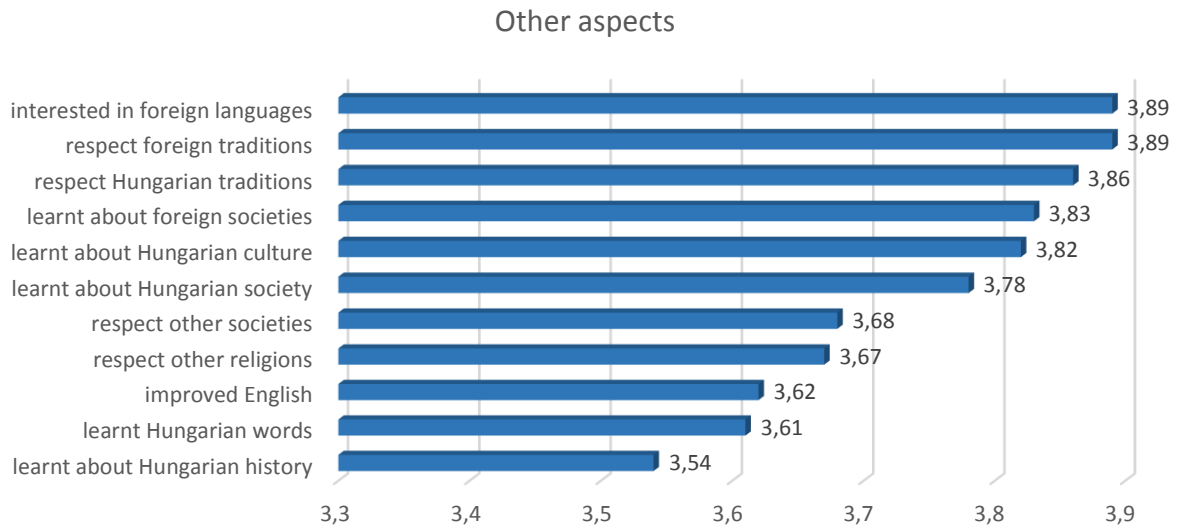

Figure 3. Students' evaluation of other aspects ($n = 76$)

According to the results, students are interested in foreign languages other than English (3.89) and respect both other foreign and Hungarian traditions (3.89; 3.86). They learnt something new about foreign societies (3.83) and Hungarian society (3.78), as well as about Hungarian culture (3.82). One element should be improved in the future: Students learnt little of the Hungarian language.

Findings of the interviews

Foreign students at the university listed very similar reasons for taking part in international studies as the students in the research of Bencze and Tóth-Szerecz (2014). Most frequently, they mentioned that they wanted to learn about new cultures and meet new people. They regarded studying abroad as a personal challenge and expected to gain new experiences. Some students' aim was to expand their horizon and become more open-minded. Other students, especially the Chinese ones, wanted to improve their English language skills or learn some words in a foreign language. The four Chinese students (second focus group) emphasised that one of their most significant goals was to obtain an EU degree in English. They indicated that having such a degree gives them better chances in the labour market at home. Their second most important motivation was to travel to Europe, visit European countries and get to know their culture. In close connection with this, the third factor was to try themselves out far away from their country and to live independently.

Spending at least 3-4 months or even some years far from the family and home presents difficulties that many students face during their studies abroad. Foreign students at the university also had some fears and difficult situations prior to and at the beginning of their stay in Hungary. They were afraid of getting into a new environment which is culturally different from their own, and they feared being excluded and feeling lost in a different society. Besides typical fears, some students were anxious about personal problems. For example, the Iraqi student worried about dormitory life and how to get on with non-Muslims. The Portuguese student was anxious about security, while the Chinese students were afraid of language problems. The biggest problem for nearly all the students except for the Chinese was being alone during the first days in Hungary. Students felt completely lonely, and some indicated that they were frustrated and even sick. To be able to overcome these difficulties, they had to be open-minded and friendly with the locals and with other foreign students.

Studying in a foreign country places students in situations that are outside of their normal, everyday routine (Firmin, et al., 2013). Students at the university had some problems with the taste of meals as well as the ingredients. It was difficult for Muslim students to find out about the ingredients of meals (pork) in the university canteen as the name of the meals are not written in English.

Besides some difficulties, studying abroad has several advantages as well, which usually outweigh the negative points: Students acquire practical and intercultural knowledge, multicultural awareness, gain international experience, expand their horizon, and learn to adjust to novel and different living conditions. Almost all foreign students agreed that both the teachers and the coordinators were kind and friendly. They provided the necessary support for the students to survive in the first few days, to accommodate to the new environment and to progress with their studies.

Many students (Cameroonian, Iraqi, Chinese and Portuguese) highlighted the different teaching methodologies used as well as the teachers' attitude compared to those in their home country. Students mentioned that in their home countries learning is regarded a reproductive process. The Chinese emphasised that at school they were trained to sit quietly, listen, not to ask questions, not to express their opinions, and only to reproduce the material. In contrast, in Hungary they had to acquire the skills to make and hold presentations, to plan research and to write academic papers. Hungarian teachers require students to develop productive skills, which was a novelty for some foreign students and created difficulties especially for the Chinese, who were not socialised into the practice of expressing independent ideas. Spending nearly a whole academic year in Hungary, they got used to these new interactive and cooperative methods; they liked them and realised that interactivity improves their linguistic and professional competences.

Some students participated in online courses in Hungary. They thought it was a very good way of learning, thanks to its flexibility. The Cameroonian student regarded online courses "amazing" as she could listen to the lecturers' presentations again and again and could understand the material. The Portuguese student liked that seminar groups were small and that teachers could be more personal and could focus on individual students.

Besides interactive methods, students liked the teachers' attitude. Some of them mentioned that the teacher-student relationship is rather cold and rigid in their own country, and there is a big gap between professors and students, and teachers often show superior behaviour. They were surprised by the teacher-student relationship in Hungary as it is more relaxed and is based on partnership rather than hierarchy. The Chinese students also mentioned that their relationship with some of their professors in Hungary is much closer than the usual teacher-student relationship at home. On the other hand, foreign students mentioned that they could not form as good a relationship with Hungarian students as with their teachers because Hungarian students do not speak good English.

Nearly all the students indicated that they would prefer having more academic courses and extracurricular activities together with the Hungarian students. They mentioned that they could have much better relationships with Hungarian students if they could work with them and discuss different personal and social issues together. Especially Chinese students emphasised the significance of this. They admitted they would really need to work in small multinational groups to be able to improve their academic English and to learn to express their ideas in the English language. Since this way of working would improve all competences of the students not only the academic ones, it should be introduced at the university.

Conclusions

In the 21 century, HEIs should educate their students so that they can meet the requirements of the globalised, post-modern world. Since higher education students have more opportunities to travel abroad and study at a foreign university than before, HEIs should teach students the positive attributes of variety and complexity. They should teach them to respect other cultures and people and to be tolerant towards each other. Studying abroad is beneficial for the students taking part in mobility programmes, for the sending and host institutions. Mobile students acquire intercultural knowledge and multicultural awareness, and they become more tolerant and independent. The sending institute profits from mobility programmes as their students arrive home with broadened horizons and different perspectives on academic issues. Moreover, they come back with much better foreign (English) language skills. Besides financial benefits (tuition fee), the host institute has several advantages: It strengthens and widens its international connections, it provides an international academic environment for its national students, and it makes university life more colourful.

However, both the sending and the host institutions face challenges. Based on the students' opinions, the teachers' English should be improved, and they should focus on giving clear instructions and more individual and group work to the students. Foreign students would prefer to work together in small multinational groups and have more contacts with Hungarian students. On the other hand, nearly all students enjoy their stay at the university. They like the administrative staff's and the teachers' attitude towards the students and the partnership between teachers and students. They also like the interactive and cooperative teaching techniques, and they indicated that due to these methods, they are more confident to express their ideas. Although Hungarian culture is different from that of most foreign students, students find Hungarian people kind and friendly. Besides academic issues, students also acquire social skills and become more interested in and tolerant towards other people and cultures.

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Guidelines for writing: "If English is not your first language …"

Éva Illés and Jasmina Sazdovska

Introduction

The idea of addressing the issue indicated in the title stems from personal experiences. In our capacity as editors, authors and contributors to academic publications, we have come across different proofreading practices, differing ways of judging what should be considered as correct and appropriate. Our examples include an occasion where a native English speaking proofreader modified the phrase *on a par* to *on par* in a paper written by a non-native author. Before accepting the modification, the non-native author researched the use of the indefinite article in the expression and then rejected the suggested modification by the native speaker. In another instance, a reviewer of an academic paper thought that the style and language of the article should be checked by a native English speaker, not knowing that the paper was actually written by a native English speaking university lecturer.

Exploration of the wider context of proofreading has provided more evidence of the importance attached to native speakers as proofreaders. A cursory search of websites listed Proof Reading Service (https://www.proof-reading-service.com/en/), which claims that all their proofreaders are "highly qualified native English speakers". Another website, Scribendi (https://www.scribendi.com/), advertises that they "hire only **native English speakers**, so you can be sure that your editor is a language expert" (emphasis in original). These findings inspired us to look at scholarly journals in the field of applied linguistics and language pedagogy and examine whether the same bias can be detected in their requirements with regard to the native language of the author and the proofreader. We aimed to explore what qualities a good proofreader is expected to have and whether being a native speaker of English is an indispensable aspect of the task at hand. We were also curious to find out whether the current proofreading practices have been adapted to the changing sociolinguistic environment brought about by the widespread use of English as a lingua franca.

In what follows, each of these questions will be dealt with in a separate section.

Journal guidelines

In the guidelines of different journals, there seemed to be a steady continuum of diverse requirements ranging from publications that insist on a native English speaking proofreader, to those that do not mention the topic, and those that explicitly state that the proofreader need not be a native English speaker. This variety of choice is illustrated in Figure 1.

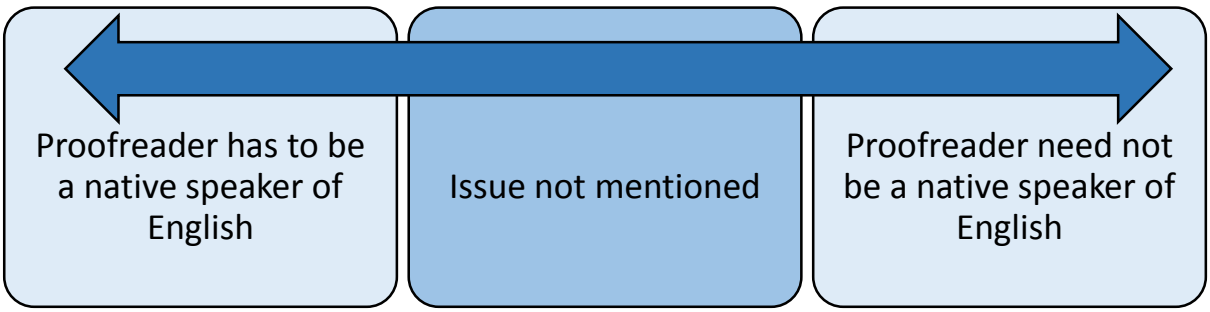

Figure 1. Continuum for proofreader requirements

Starting on the left side of the continuum, the *Working Papers in Language Pedagogy* (*WoPaLP*) state the following: "Please remember that – unless you are a native speaker of English – the paper should be proofread by a native speaker". The *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching* (*IRAL*) takes a similar approach, asking authors whose native language is not English "to have their article carefully checked by a native speaker". The *ELT Journal*, a truly international publication, is somewhat ambiguous about the issue. In fact, we took the title of this paper from their guidelines: "If your first language is not English, to ensure that the academic content of your paper is fully understood by journal editors and reviewers is optional. Language editing does not guarantee that your manuscript will be accepted for publication." The first sentence does not explicitly mention having your paper proofread by a native speaker, but the implication is there in the wording. The sentence itself is also unclear and structured confusingly, most likely due to an effort to maintain political correctness and evade the mention of the term native speaker.

The middle range of the continuum consists of journals and publications that do not make any explicit reference to proofreading by a native speaker but, instead, indicate requirements for professional standards. *Applied Linguistics*, for instance, only recommends that authors should proofread and spell check their work when finished. Likewise*, TESOL Quarterly* requires that the style of submissions be "accessible to a broad readership, including those individuals who may not be familiar with the subject matter". The related *TESOL Journal* also expects the use of "simple academic prose that makes the article content accessible to practitioners". The *Language Learning Journal*, on the other hand, makes no reference to the style of submissions at all, requiring only the contact information of the corresponding author who will check the proofs. Finally, the *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching* simply asks authors to conform to the APA Publication Manual.

At the other end of the continuum is the *Journal of English as a Lingua Franca*, which, contrary to *WoPaLP*, states that a submitted manuscript should be "written in an English which is intelligible to a wide international academic audience, but it need not conform to native English norms". The two end-points of the continuum seem to epitomise two very different views of language learning and language use. Those who insist on native-speaker proofreaders imply that no matter how proficient and educated a non-native author may be, they can never achieve native speaker competence and therefore cannot be trusted to make good decisions about what is acceptable in English. The other end of the continuum seems to entail that there is English language use outside of native-speaker contexts where native speakers are not granted exclusive linguistic rights. As the title *Journal of English as a Lingua Franca* at this end of the continuum indicates, the context in which native-speakers cannot assume authority is the lingua franca use of English.

English as a lingua franca (ELF)

It is the dominant use of English as a lingua franca which poses a considerable challenge to the view that it is the native speaker who is competent enough to pass judgement about correctness and appropriateness. First of all, non-native speakers of English outnumber native speakers by a huge margin (Graddol, 1997). In 1991, Beneke (in Seidlhofer, 2004) estimated that 80% of interactions where English was used involved non-native speakers of the language only. Thus, ELF is seen as a "specific communication context: English being used as a lingua franca, the common language of choice, among speakers who come from different linguacultural backgrounds" (Jenkins, 2009, p. 200). Seidlhofer claims that because of the global use of English as a lingua franca, non-native speakers shape the language as much as their native-speaker counterparts do and should therefore "be accorded their right to be 'norm developing' rather than simply 'norm dependent' (Seidlhofer, 2011, p. 60).

As a consequence, if non-native speakers, too, contribute to changes and innovations occurring in the language and its use, the gatekeeping role of native-speaker editors and proofreaders, who have been schooled in the norms of their particular native speaker communities, should be questioned. Given the normative nature of the work of editors, copyeditors and proofreaders (Kruger & van Rooy, 2017), native speaker proofreaders may stand in the way of accepting and legitimising innovative forms of ELF use, thus imposing native English norms on a context where the rules of the game that apply in a particular native-speaker environment may not be authentic or relevant. In other words, whereas ELF use is becoming endonormative, that is, it relies on its own locally developing norms, constraints imposed by native speakers represent an exonormative practice where ELF users have to conform to the way English is used in the countries where it originates from.

So far we have looked at the untenability of the view of the native speaker as the authority over all matters of English and its use, including proofreading of scholarly papers. The discussion in the sections that follow concerns the indefinite article before 'native speaker', since the expression 'it should be proofread by a native speaker' implies that any native speaker is entitled to pass judgement about a non-native author's writing. The first issue to be investigated in this regard is the question of writing skills. Are writing skills acquired simultaneously with speaking by children, in which case a native-speaker is necessarily endowed with the ability to write and therefore proofread, or are writing skills, especially in an academic context, something that has to be taught to native speakers of English as well?

Approaches to teaching writing

It seems that there are institutions which subscribe to the former view and distinguish between native and non-native speaker writers. For example, the University of Essex (2005, as cited in Harwood, Austin, & Macaulay, 2009, p. 167) has the following recommendation to students (another source for the title of this paper): "If English is not your first language, try and get a native speaker to read your essay through for you". The process of students having the paper proofread by a native speaker is not only seen as a professional requirement, but is given an emotional gravity by describing papers that have not been proofread by native speakers as "unloved" (Harwood et al. 2009, p. 167) and careless. Harwood et al. (2009), in fact, claim that it is common practice for lecturers in the UK to encourage non-native students to have their papers proofread by native speakers.

The distinction between the writing strategies of native and non-native students has also been discussed by Cogie, Strain and Lorinskas (1999, as cited in Myers, 2003), who claim that native speakers can use the read-aloud method to discover their own errors at sentence level. However, according to the authors, this same strategy "provides little help to ESL students who lack the ear to hear their own errors" (Myers, 2003, p. 55). This assertion has dire implications for non-native speaker students. Among others, it entails that students whose first language is not English can never achieve the level of proficiency which would enable them to assess their own use of English, thus further promoting the notion of the idealised native speaker "who knows its language perfectly" (Chomsky, 1965, p. 3). In addition, it consolidates the position of native speakers as custodians in control of the English language.

By contrast, for example at Harvard, which is one of the most prestigious universities in the world, all freshmen, regardless of whether they are native speakers or not, need to take a course in Expository Writing during their first year and complete the course to fulfil the graduation requirements. This implies that the skill of writing and proofreading an academic paper is something that needs to be taught to all students. Harvard also has a writing centre which offers one-to-one tutorials to students working on any writing assignments. The practice of offering academic writing classes to first year students is actually common in a large number of universities as writing is considered to be "arguably the most advanced and difficult" (Myers, 2003, p. 53) skill to acquire for students. It is also usually the last skill to be attained, with even native speaker students rarely achieving "the ability to write good formal academic prose at the university level" (Myers, 2003, p. 53).

The starting point of the next section is the latter view, which considers writing to be a highly advanced skill that needs to be explicitly taught to everyone, including native speakers. It is this standpoint that is most supported by research and will be discussed below.

Research on proofreading academic papers

According to Glasman-Deal (2010), the aim of conducting scientific research is to publish the findings and share the results with other experts in the field as well as the wider public. Nevertheless, a good scientist is not necessarily a good writer "and even native speakers of English sometimes have difficulty when they write up their research" (Glasman-Deal, 2010, p. v). While professional researchers' skills and expertise to conduct scientific enquiries can usually be taken for granted, the ability to write up and present their results to others is something in which they may require training. Additionally, even native speakers may, at times, lack knowledge of the discipline-specific terminology or be ignorant of the conventions of scientific English and academic writing. In addition, native speakers may "have an imperfect command of grammar" (Burrough-Boenish 2003 as cited in Harwood et al. 2009, p. 181), which can pose problems for both writing and proofreading research papers. These examples lead Burrough-Boenish (2003, as cited in Harwood et al. 2009, p. 181) to conclude that simply "being a native speaker is not sufficient qualification for proofreading in itself". This conclusion has two ramifications. Firstly, the journals and universities that advise having papers proofread by native speakers seem to lack the grounds to back their instruction. Secondly, if being a native speaker does not constitute sufficient qualification, then what does?

The latter issue is addressed by Lillis and Curry (2006), who propose three different categories of brokers that can be involved in the process of writing up and proofreading academic research papers. They are the following:

1. **Academic professionals**. These are people who work at universities, colleges or research institutes and are experts in the research field of the article in question.
2. **Language professionals**. These are brokers whose profession is linked to the linguistic medium, that is, the language of the research paper.
3. **Nonprofessionals**. These are individuals who, as the name suggests, have no professional qualifications either in the academic field or linguistics, but by chance happen to have a personal relationship with the author and a "serendipitous knowledge of English" (Lillis & Curry, 2006, p. 14).

In the case of humanities, especially in the fields of language-related research, the first and the second categories of brokers may be conflated since many of these professionals work with the linguistic medium. The distinction between academic and language professionals seems to be more relevant in the case of hard sciences where the two do not coincide, and the academic professional is preferred. For example, *The Lancet*, one of the oldest and best known general medical journals, offers the following advice, highlighting the importance of a professional reader but without distinguishing between native or non-native speakers of English:

> Whatever you have written, remember that it is the general reader whom you are trying to reach. One way to find out if you have succeeded is to show your draft to colleagues in other specialities. If they do not understand, neither, very probably, will *The Lancet*'s staff or readers.
> (https://ees.elsevier.com/thelancet/default.asp?acw=&utt=baa61cbe0220551bda4569730cb98a3b644a4fd)

The world's most prestigious international journal of science, *Nature*, makes reference to non-native English speaker contributors in its guidelines. Similarly to *The Lancet*, it recommends that non-native speaker authors should seek the help of colleagues, that is, other academic professionals (see Appendix). What transpires from the guidelines of journals in hard sciences is that the editors of these publications take a more pragmatic approach and attach real importance to the content of submitted papers.

The last category – nonprofessionals – seems of particular interest for us as it is likely to be the type of person that university students or authors of manuscripts would ask to proofread their paper. This is simply an acquaintance who happens, for one reason or another, to speak English. This is probably the 'any native speaker' with the indefinite article the guidelines refer to. The use of the expression "serendipitous knowledge of English" (Lillis & Curry, 2006, p. 14) supports this claim. According to the online version of the Merriam-Webster Dictionary (https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/serendipity), *serendipity* is defined as "the faculty or phenomenon of finding valuable or agreeable things not sought for". This definition encompasses all native speakers of English who, by a simple accident of birth, have been brought up with English as their first language. They do not necessarily have the linguistic skills needed for professional proofreading and are quite possibly unfamiliar with both the research area and the scientific and linguistic conventions of the paper. Still, according to some journals and universities, they qualify as proofreaders of academic writing and publishing.

Power relations

Involving unqualified and inexperienced native speaking brokers in the proofreading process is not only unprofessional, but it can also have serious implications for the distribution of power in the area of proofreading and writing. In fact, Lillis and Curry (2006) claim that it is evident that the whole process of brokering and writing an academic text is influenced by "unequal power relations" (p. 30). Experienced and professional brokers constitute "cultural capital" (Lillis & Curry, 2006, p. 30) which is not evenly distributed. Scholars and researchers at different locations around the world do not have equal access to such cultural capital, which greatly impacts the possibility of publishing one's work. Authors with more direct access to brokers can get published more easily and frequently than those on the periphery of this cultural capital. This unequal opportunity for publication can likewise indirectly result in what is valued as knowledge. Authors in locations with easier access to English speaking brokers, therefore, have more power and influence through their publications in directing the course of scientific development and the trends of future research. In so doing, the English speaking brokers empower the regions where English is the native language which leads to "the privileging of English center literacy and rhetorical practices" (Lillis & Curry, 2006, p. 28). In this way, even texts published in other languages often need to comply with Anglo-Saxon discourse conventions. More importantly, the production and publication of knowledge results in an even greater difference in power relations between the centre and the periphery.

This unequal distribution of power, privileging native speakers, is becoming untenable in the context of the international use of English as a lingua franca. ELF researchers have long been arguing against the deep-seated assumption that "there is such a thing as the English language, a stable entity, an established preserve of its native speakers" (Seidlhofer, 2011, p. 33). They have challenged native speaker authority, thus promoting greater equality for ELF users. In the context of knowledge brokering, this translates into a more balanced approach and "a multi- rather than unidirectional process with regard to the content and linguistic and rhetorical forms" (Lillis & Curry, 2006, p. 31).

Implications for ELT

Based on this discussion of the practices of text production and brokering, what are the repercussions for the classroom? Firstly, the education and training of future researchers and authors needs to include activities that will increase their awareness of the conventions of academic publications. This is an initial step which could be accompanied by efforts to encourage non-native English scholars to take control of the norms of academic journals and their rhetorical practices. In order to achieve this aim, the teaching of writing would need to take on an even more process-oriented approach than it has been so far. The process-oriented approach to the teaching of writing skills in English has been around since the late 1980s (Reid, 1988), but has not gone far enough in including proofreading and brokering as part of the professional development. Instead of looking at the written text as a final product, the teaching of writing should focus on the various stages of creating a text from initial drafting to final proofreading. Students should use all the phases of the process as an opportunity to learn from their mistakes. This would entail, in turn, an increased effort to improve language proficiency and decrease the need for nonprofessional brokers. Future scholars and researchers also need to be trained in the various rhetorical practices in order to enable them to make informed decisions and take control of the shaping of conventions.

In general, in order for the power relations to be more equalised, students of English will need to become more proactive in their language learning and use. They would need to be the driving force behind the development of their own individual proficiency. They would also need to be more assertive in the directing and shaping of writing and publication requirements. Teachers can provide assistance in this by encouraging their students to become independent, autonomous and self-confident learners who aim high in their knowledge and use of the language.

Conclusions

The fact that some, often international, journals in the field of applied linguistics and language pedagogy recommend or even insist on native-speaker proofreaders reflects an exonormative practice where language users have to conform to norms, which have been developed by and for a different speech community. Imposing native-speaker norms and assuming native speaker authority in matters of English is particularly contradictory in the context of the worldwide use of English as a lingua franca where learners of English function as language users who make their own contributions to the way English is being shaped nowadays.

Accepting the nonprofessional broker, that is, any native speaker as a suitable proofreader, perpetuates the notion of the idealised native speaker and the subsequent fallacy that it is impossible for non-native speakers to become competent and highly proficient users of English. English language teaching and teacher education need to act to remedy the situation by, among other things, enabling students to become independent and autonomous language users.

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The Language Learning Journal. Available from: http://www.tandfonline.com/action/authorSubmission?journalCode=rllj20&page=instructions

Working Papers in Language Pedagogy (WoPaLP). Available from: http://langped.elte.hu/WoPaLPstylesheet.htm

Appendix

Even though no paper will be rejected for poor language, non–native English speakers occasionally receive feedback from editors and reviewers regarding language and grammar usage in their manuscripts. You may wish to consider asking a colleague whose native language is English to read your manuscript and/or to use a professional editing service such as those provided by our affiliates Nature Research Editing Service or American Journal Experts. Please note that the use of a language editing service is not a requirement for publication in *Nature*.

(http://www.nature.com/nature/authors/gta/index.html?foxtrotcallback=true)

Peer-reviewed papers

English in kindergarten: Is it worth it?

Valéria Árva

Introduction

Although it is a commonly held view that young children learn languages fast and with ease, ELT did not break significant ground in preschool settings until recently. What is more, early childhood language development is frequently looked at with a degree of suspicion. Some of the views sounded by its critics include that learning a foreign language at such an early age puts extra burden on children and that it prevents them from properly acquiring their mother tongue, or that it even confuses their linguistic and cultural identity, and they will speak neither language properly (Sorace, 2014). Bialystok (2001) reports in detail about these criticisms, refuting them by providing a review of recent studies on early childhood bilingualism which emphasises its positive effects. However, the criticism may be well founded if the appropriate conditions for early childhood development are not available. The most important prerequisite is the availability of a well-trained professional, who not only speaks the foreign language fluently and accurately, but who is equally skilled in early childhood pedagogy and developing young children's foreign language skills in an age-appropriate way (Enever, 2016). Such a teacher should also have intercultural competences, such as the knowledge of the cultures of both the target language and the mother tongues of the children (European Commission, 2011).

Similarly to international trends (Eurydice, 2012; Ellis, 2015; Enever, 2011; Mourao, 2016; Rixon, 2016), demand for early childhood language development has surfaced and spread in Hungary, too (Kovács, 2009). In the author's experience, a growing number of parents of kindergarten-aged (3-6) children express their wish for their children's foreign language education, most frequently English. However, while in countries around Europe there has been an increase in bilingual kindergartens where children acquire functional language (Kersten & Rohde, 2016), in Hungary, with the exception of ethnic minority kindergartens, foreign language development is not provided by state institutions. These parents' needs in Hungary are met only in the flourishing private sector (Kovács, 2009).

Language acquisition for the children in bilingual kindergartens belongs to the category of successive language acquisition: By the time they start kindergarten, they are already three years old or a little older and have acquired their mother tongue (Klein, 2013). The stages of successive language acquisition are the following (Tabors & Snow, 1994 as cited in Klein, 2013):

1) The child uses their mother tongue.
2) Non-verbal phase, the child is not using the foreign language heard in their environment.
3) Telegraphic foreign language use, without grammar.
4) Productive use of the foreign language.

Preschool language development is offered in kindergartens in three forms: foreign language programmes, Hungarian-foreign language bilingual programmes and language sessions as an extra activity. The three approaches differ to a great extent, but the curriculum documents presented on kindergarten websites prove that they have one thing in common: Instead of learning the language formally, as a subject, children can acquire it through play, playful activities and content. This approach is in accord with the recommendations of recent research in the topic. Mourao (2016) and Kerstan and Rohe (2016) both point out the significance of content-based language acquisition in the preschool age group. Thus, in the present paper I will refer to language teaching to young children as early childhood language development. My focus is on early childhood language development in a Hungarian-English bilingual kindergarten setting.

Research plan

I have chosen the topic of early childhood foreign language development because there seems to be a lack of systematic research on bilingual kindergarten programmes in Hungary. Through my research, I intended to gain insight into the process of children's language acquisition in a bilingual kindergarten programme.

The questions I aimed to examine in this paper were the following:

1) How is early childhood language development implemented in a bilingual kindergarten programme?
2) Is it possible to trace and document children's English language development in the bilingual kindergarten?

Thus, my aim was to study the process of English language development and all the issues it entailed: How a bilingual programme is put into practice, what the roles of the English- and Hungarian-speaking teachers are, and how the language development component is embedded into the programme. I planned to collect observation data about the language learning process of the children who attend the group.

The kindergarten where I conducted my research is a state-kindergarten in Budapest with a Hungarian-English bilingual programme operated by a private foundation. The parents of the children attending the kindergarten are charged only for the bilingual programme. The institution is extremely popular, each year there are more applicants than they can admit. However, only children living in the district are accepted.

The research was planned to be longitudinal and last for three years, that is, as long as the group attended the kindergarten. I decided to carry out an ethnographic-style, long-term observation plan. The observations started in October 2014 in the youngest group, where the children had just started attending kindergarten.

In order to achieve my goal, I visited the group on Friday mornings, approximately every second week. The morning hours were chosen because this is the time span when children can be observed during a variety of work modes: arrival, breakfast, free play time, structured activities and snack time. I shadowed the native English teacher by sitting next to her in the classroom.

Since this is the kindergarten where kindergarten teacher trainee students spend their teaching practice, the children are used to outside visitors. I usually talked to the children in Hungarian, but in English when the native English speaker teacher was with them. My observation focus was on the children's interactions with the English-speaking teacher.

The research tool I applied here was an observation diary where I put down notes about the activities, examples of children's language use and observations about their behaviour. I also took notes about which of the teachers and how many children were present. These notes were taken both during and after the observations.

The observations were supplemented with a questionnaire to be filled in by the parents of the children and interviews with the three teachers. The goal of the questionnaire was to survey the parents' language background and their attitude to early childhood language development. The language of the questionnaire was Hungarian, and a combination of closed and open-ended questions were asked. It was sent home to the parents of the children in the group where the observations were carried out. Both the mothers and the fathers were requested to answer the questions. The English version of the questionnaire can be seen in Appendix A.

Data about the teachers' views and practical experiences were collected with the help of the interviews with them. The two Hungarian and the native English speaker teacher were interviewed about their professional backgrounds, work in the bilingual programme, the process of children acquiring the English language, and whether they have perceived any differences between kindergarten-aged children in a bilingual and in a monolingual programme. The interview questions were open-ended, and some questions were different for the Hungarian and the English teachers (Appendix B). All three interviews were recorded.

Research context: The kindergarten group

Initially there were 25 children in the group, all of whom had Hungarian as their mother tongue. As new children were admitted, their number reached 29 by the middle of the second year.

There were two Hungarian-speaking teachers, one native English speaker teacher and one care giver working with the group. It needs to be emphasised that although the role of the native English speaker was that of developing the children's English, she was not a language teacher but a kindergarten teacher. The Hungarian speaking teachers worked in shifts, and the native English speaker teacher was present between about 8 a.m. and 5 p.m. The English-speaking teachers in the kindergarten came from various countries and the teacher in this group was from Great Britain. The kindergarten had a topic-based syllabus, which means they had a new topic approximately each month.

The core of the bilingual programme is the simultaneous presence of the Hungarian and English teachers, who work in parallel: They both run organised activity sessions, play with individual children or small groups, read to them, play table-top games with them and participate in child-care activities. Structured activities are focused around the monthly theme, with the Hungarian activities always preceding the English ones. According to the teachers, the proportion of English activities is smaller at the beginning but increases continuously during the three years of the programme.

The native English speaker teacher in the group has the role of developing the children's English language skills. In the kindergarten, they adhere to the 'one person–one language' policy, which means that each teacher uses their own mother tongue with the children. One of the Hungarian teachers speaks basic English, while the other one has only a passive knowledge of English. They can make themselves understood with the native English speaker teacher, who does not speak any Hungarian.

The native English speaker teacher plays an equally active role in the daily routine of the group with their Hungarian colleagues: She greets and receives the children in the morning, takes them over from the parents when they are anxious, especially during the first year of the kindergarten. She has meals together with them and plays with them during free play time: They read books, play table-top games, do art activities, puzzles, chant rhymes and sing together. During these activities, there are plenty of opportunities for conversation with the children. She is involved in childcare activities, such as taking the children to the bathroom, washing hands and changing for outdoor play, handing out fruits and vegetables during the morning hour snack time, which are all excellent opportunities for the use of the English language with the children. The advantage of routine activities is that they are repetitive and contextual. The language which is used, for example, while getting dressed, can easily be linked with the context and is reinforced on a daily basis.

The native English speaker teacher is responsible for planning and delivering the English component of the bilingual kindergarten programme. She runs the English activities during the structured sessions in the group. As mentioned earlier, these sessions are linked with the monthly themes. Some examples for the themes are snow, Christmas or castles. The range of the activities is wide and includes, among others, learning songs, rhymes, playing games, using puppets, storytelling and art-and-craft activities, usually taking place during circle time. Every day there are also specialised sessions, such as physical education, arts or science. These sessions are linked with the monthly theme and significantly contribute to language development in the given topic. For example, when playing games during physical education, the children pretend to be snowflakes or snowmen when the topic is snow.

During the structured sessions, the Hungarian activity always precedes the English one and thus, when it is time for the English song or game, the children are already familiar with the topic. However, the drawback of this arrangement is that since their attention span is short, by that time they can be tired and willing to leave the activity, especially in the first year. In the Hungarian kindergarten system, a strictly play-based approach is applied and structured activities are voluntary: Children are free to join and leave activities as they wish. This applies to art and craft, science, PE activities, reading and games, too. However, it is rare that a child does not join in and if they stay out, they usually have a good reason, such as being tired, sick or emotionally upset.

Interestingly, there seems to be a striking similarity between the character of the bilingual group and a typical bilingual family. They share a number of features, such as the policy of one teacher/parent – one language, an intimate, emotional relationship between children and teacher/parent, language development takes place through both childcare activities and play, art, reading and storytelling. There is also a parallel in the language of communication between children. In most bilingual families, the language of communication between siblings is the majority language (Cunningham-Andersson & Andersson, 2004). In a similar fashion, the kindergarten children also use the majority language (i.e., Hungarian) for communication between each other.

Results

In the following sections, I will report on the results of the first two years of the research: the observation notes, the findings of the questionnaire and the interviews with the teachers.

Observations

The aim of carrying out my observations was to focus on the language acquisition of the children participating in the bilingual programme. The children who joined the programme were monolingual Hungarian speakers, whose level of Hungarian was age-appropriate for three-year-old children. In their case, the acquisition of the second language was going to take place in a successive way (Tabors & Snow, 1994 as cited in Klein, 2013).

Having analysed my notes in the observation diary, my aim was to identify the stages listed above. While I was aware of the significant differences between the individual children, the group as a whole did follow the pattern of Tabors and Snow (1994).

1) The child uses their mother tongue.
During the first month of the programme (September), the children tried to make themselves understood with the English teacher in Hungarian. They reverted to speaking louder and used various techniques of metacommunication. Occasionally they impressed the observer as though they did not believe the native English teacher was unable to speak or understand Hungarian. Of course, the context made it easier for the teacher to understand their message. The teacher used plenty of gestures and mimics to help the children understand her.

2) Nonverbal phase: The child is not using the foreign language heard in their environment.
There was a fairly quick transition into the second phase, which is sometimes referred to as the silent phase. By the end of October, the children understood a small amount of language: Some expressions, especially those ones used by the teacher during the care-giving activities had become familiar to them. They had learnt a few rhymes and chants as well. However, most of them did not produce any language at all. There were only a few children who were able to use short phrases, such as 'Carrot/Apple, please!' during snack time.

3) Telegraphic foreign language use, without grammar.
Some of the children had already entered the third phase by November and by December there was evidence of most of the children producing some English language. Their language, as suggested by the name of the phase, lacked appropriate grammar. During the observations, the children frequently used English at snack time. In spite of the gaps in grammar, the phrases they used were short and contextually appropriate and their range grew from month to month. For example, in addition to the names of the seasonal fruits and vegetables, they learnt colloquial expressions like 'This one', 'The end' or 'All gone'. It was visible that they enjoyed testing and 'tasting' the words of the new language and were even asking each other how to say something. Occasionally, they even came up with English-sounding 'nonsense language'. Fast developers managed to produce full sentences, for example: 'Shall we change'.

In February, I found examples for children being able to answer questions, even if in one word only. For example, the teacher asked a boy 'There's a baby coming in the family?', and he answered 'Yes.' In other cases, they repeated the native English speaker teacher's words in Hungarian or helped each other say something in English. As the use of English was on the increase, it was possible to notice a striking resemblance between the native English speaker teacher's and the children's pronunciation. The children were able to copy the native English speaker teacher's British accent reasonably well and formulate utterances in the way she speaks. This illustrates how naturally and well children acquire the accent of the people they communicate with and can produce near-native pronunciation.

Language inference was a new phenomenon in February. In a number of cases, children could be heard using English words or phrases when speaking in Hungarian, for example, when answering the native English speaker teacher's questions in Hungarian. In one instance when they were asked to put the toys away ('Pack away!'), a child shouted out in her disappointment: 'Jaj, pack away!'

As the school year was approaching its end, the children's vocabulary dramatically rose and the use of the English language became increasingly natural. They started to use multiple-word expressions and more frequently conducted conversations with the native English speaker teacher. They often approached the teacher to say something about themselves, as in the case of a little boy, who told her: 'Sam no sleep. Lunch.' In other words, he told her he was not going to stay for afternoon sleep, but go home after lunch.

While developing their new language through the daily routine, they also learnt several chants, rhymes and songs, played games and read a number of picture books together with the native English speaker teacher. After having read the books several times, they were able to retell the stories by heart, while leafing through the pages. The books used in the group are authentic British or American picture books written for the preschool age group. They typically contain few words but large and detailed pictures, which tell the narrative on their own. They are useful tools for children's language development, be it their first or second language. The children were able to recite 'The very hungry caterpillar' by Eric Carle in June.

As a result of the 'one person–one language' approach, the children became used to speaking to every person in the language they thought was their own language. In one instance, when I said goodbye to a little girl in English, she looked at me in surprise and said 'Nem vagyok angol.' ('I am not English'). This meant that even though she had heard me speak to her teacher in English, she was aware of the fact that my primary language was Hungarian and thus our language of communication should be Hungarian.

To sum up, even though the majority of the children had acquired a great deal of knowledge in English, they did not move beyond the third stage in their process of language acquisition by the end of the school year. Their understanding or passive knowledge of the new language was far more developed than their active use. Nevertheless, individual differences were significant between the children.

4) Productive use of the foreign language.

Only very few, maybe one or two children reached the fourth stage of the language acquisition process by June. The children had been acquiring English at differing paces and therefore moved into the consecutive phases at different times. The child with the most outstanding language performance seemed to be 'taught' English by his parents at home and he watched television and films in English. A factor that usually slows down the pace of development is the fact that the language of communication between the children is Hungarian. In fact, they spend the bigger proportion of their time playing together when they speak to each other in Hungarian. During the free time periods, the native English speaker teacher can spend time only with individual children or small groups.

In the second year of the programme, there seemed to be an explosion in the language development of the children and the amount of productive use of language kept on increasing. Their vocabulary grew immensely, and more children became able to hold conversations with the native English speaker teacher. They easily chatted over meals, art activities and games. They initiated saying chants, clapping rhymes they had learnt or created together. Their interactions in English were limited to the native speaker English teacher. Between each other, they spoke in Hungarian. The topics of conversation included food, picture books they were reading, family, siblings and holidays. There were some humorous cases, when a child understood a word for its other meaning: The teacher asked if she had a black eye because of a blow – she ran for a tissue to blow her nose. The teachers gave an account of an occasion when a child involuntarily joined two teachers' English conversation also in English. Individual differences became more pronounced: One child was becoming increasingly fluent and sophisticated in speaking English, while some others decided to keep quiet, and yet others were becoming suddenly more talkative. There were examples of children's creativity using English: When the teacher asked a boy 'Hand wash?', he replied 'No way, bye, bye!'

Their pronunciation was strikingly similar to native speakers', but concerning their language accuracy, there was still room for improvement in terms of using more grammar in their speech at the end of their second year. Nonetheless, communicating in English was clearly an effortless task for them.

Parent questionnaire

During the research project, the parents of the children were asked to fill in a questionnaire (see Appendix A) about their views on early childhood language development in kindergarten and their own language background. Not surprisingly, the parents held a positive view of bilingual programmes and early childhood language development in general. They reported back on positive experiences and some families had already registered elder siblings in the programme.

The most interesting information gained from processing the questionnaires concerned the parents' motivation for enrolling their children in the bilingual programme and their own language backgrounds. When making the decision in favour of this kindergarten, they considered not only a possibly 'near-native level of language knowledge', the 'acquisition of good pronunciation' or 'playful language learning without any inhibitions'; but they also hoped the children would develop an 'open-minded attitude' and considered how beneficial language learning is for the children's cognitive development. They assumed that children in a bilingual environment are likely to grow into more creative, open-minded and tolerant adults for whom a multicultural environment is natural.

The parents' positive attitude towards the bilingual programme and the values they attach to it are even more understandable when their own language background is examined. It became clear from the answers that all of the parents who filled in the questionnaire speak at least one foreign language and three of them even speak four languages in addition to Hungarian. Eight of the twenty parents attended school or university abroad, which means that a foreign language environment and studying through a foreign language is not a strange, but a positive concept for them.

At the same time, the majority of the parents preferred the bilingual programme to a solely foreign-language one. They regarded the development of the mother tongue as important as learning a second language.

Teacher interviews

The three teachers of the group were interviewed about their experiences in the bilingual programme (See the interview questions in Appendix B). One of the Hungarian teachers had been teaching bilingual groups since the beginning of the programme, whereas the second Hungarian and the native English speaker teacher had only recently started working there. All three teachers reported positive experiences of the bilingual programme.

First of all, the teachers emphasised the beneficial aspects of early childhood language development, because although the programme is extremely popular, it is often the target of criticism. It was explained that the mother tongue development of these children may be slower, but by the end of the kindergarten programme their L1 level is at the same as their peers' who attend a regular, monolingual Hungarian preschool. Second, the bilingual programme is play-based and therefore does not put any extra burden on the children, as suggested by some of its critics. One of the teachers pointed out that while in kindergarten language development is achieved through age-appropriate methods, as children move on to school, they frequently lose their motivation to learn a language due to the lack of age-appropriate teaching methods in the classroom.

They also mentioned late developers, who speak less than the more communicative children. The teachers find that it is more difficult to involve these children in structured activities in Hungarian, as well. However, in the teachers' experience the children do have a significant amount of passive language knowledge. It often turns out that while seemingly they do not join a circle activity to learn a song or rhyme, they do listen to the others while being involved in play. Later on, it is frequently discovered that they are perfectly capable of singing the song or reciting the rhyme in question.

An interesting aspect of the classroom dynamics of the group was the relationship of the children with the native English speaker teacher. The fact that at the beginning she and the children did not share a common language did not prevent the children from having a strong emotional relationship with her. This strong attachment was present already at the very beginning when the children had just started. Instead of words, the English teacher used other means of communication, such as her tone of voice, facial expressions and body language. The children's trust in the English teacher has a significant role in their language development.

All three teachers agreed that in their experience children attending the bilingual programme have a more open-minded attitude than the ones in a monolingual programme.

Conclusion

The aim of the present paper has been to give an account of the first two years of a research project about early childhood language development in a bilingual kindergarten. The focus of the study is the language learning process of the children and how their language development is realised within the framework of the programme.

Through the observations so far, it has been possible to identify the stages of language development as presented in the professional literature. Although there are significant individual differences between the children in the group, their initial language development proved to take place at a

relatively fast speed and they reached the second, non-verbal phase of successive language development fairly early. Many of them quickly became able to use the telegraphic version of the language with little grammar. However, this third phase seems to last for a long time, since many of the children did not move on to the productive use even by the end of the second year. It has been observed that the children's passive knowledge of the language is deeper than what is visible for the outside observer.

The change into the last, productive phase may be slowed down by the fact that there is only one English speaking teacher with the group and the proportion of her structured sessions is less than 50% of the full programme. The proportion is reported to be only 30% during the first year and reaches 50% only by the third year. English is used for communication only with the English teacher and not between the children, who use their mother tongue with each other during free play.

The kindergarten managed to design and put into practice a language development programme for children which is age-appropriately play-based and resembles the first language acquisition process and the situation in bilingual families.

It has also been concluded that language development is not the only goal of the bilingual kindergarten: Parents regard it equally important that their children become more open-minded, tolerant and multicultural after having attended this kindergarten. The teachers' and the researchers' observations both confirmed that these goals are indeed achieved.

And to answer the question in the title: All parties agreed that it is worth it.

End note

1. In this paper preschool and kindergarten are used interchangeably meaning an educational institution for children aged 3-6.

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Appendix A

Questions from the parent questionnaire (Translated from Hungarian)

Father / Mother (please underline)

1. Age:

2. Qualification:
   primary/ secondary / higher education

3. Mother tongue:

4. Foreign language skills:
   Language(s) …… …….. …….. ……..
   Level: …… …….. …… ……
   (A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, C2)
   (A2 – basic, B2 – intermediate, C1 – higher level)

5. How frequently do you use a foreign language?
   daily / weekly / monthly / yearly / never

6. Why do you use a foreign language?
   work / with friends / travel/ reading/ watching films/ internet / study/ reading magazines, news / social media (e.g. FB) / other: ……

7. Where did you use foreign languages?
   school / language course/ private tutor / at school or university abroad /other:

8. Have you ever spent a longer time abroad?
   yes / no

9) If yes, where?
   ……

10) How long?
   ……

11) Do you speak the language of the country you stayed in?
   yes / no

12) Is there anyone in your close family whose mother tongue is not Hungarian?
   yes/no

13) What is your relationship to them?
   ……

14) What language do they speak?
   ……

Father / Mother (please underline)

1. Age:

2. Qualification:
primary/ secondary / higher education

3. Mother tongue:

4. Foreign language skills:
Language(s) …… …….. …….. ……..
Level: …… …….. …… ……..
(A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, C2)
(A2 – basic, B2 – intermediate, C1 – higher level)

5. How frequently do you use a foreign language?
daily / weekly / monthly / yearly / never

6. Why do you use a foreign language?
work / with friends / travel/ reading/ watching films/ internet / study/ reading magazines, news / social media (e.g. FB) / other: ……

7. Where did you use foreign languages?
school / language course/ private tutor / at school or university abroad /other:

8. Have you ever spent a longer time abroad?
yes / no

9) If yes, where?
…….

10) How long?
……..

11) Do you speak the language of the country you stayed in?
yes / no

12) Is there anyone in your close family whose mother tongue is not Hungarian?
yes/no

13) What is your relationship to them?
……..

14) What language do they speak?
……..

15) Does your child hear a language other than Hungarian at home?
yes / no
16) If yes, which language?
……
17) How frequently does your child hear this language?
…….
18) Does your child watch television or films in a language other than Hungarian?
yes / no
19) If yes, which language?
…….
20) Do you have foreign language books at home?
yes / no
21) If yes, what type are they? (e.g. fiction, non-fiction, children's books) ,
…….
22) Do you have any older children whom you registered in a bilingual kindergarten programme? yes / no
23) If yes, what language?
……
24) For how many years?
……
25) How do you know about the bilingual programme of this kindergarten?
……
26) Did you know about bilingual education in kindergarten before your child started here?
yes / no
27) Could you give some reasons why you enrolled your child in the bilingual programme
…….
28) In your opinion are there any disadvantages of the bilingual programme?
yes / no
29) If yes, what are they?
…….
30) Have you heard any views on early childhood development within your family or you're your friends? yes / no
31) What pros?
…….
32) What cons??
…….
33) In your view, apart from the high-level language skills, does bilingualism have any advantages or disadvantages? yes / no
34) What are they?
……
35) Would you enrol your child into a kindergarten where they only speak in a foreign language? yes / no
36) If yes, why?
……
37) If not, why?
……
38) What feedback do you hear from your child about English language?
……

Appendix B

Interview questions

Interview questions for the Hungarian teachers

1. Why did you come to work here?

2. What are your plans for future professional development?

3. What kind of professional challenges do you face working in the bilingual programme?

4. If you had a choice, would you keep on working in a bilingual programme or go back to a monolingual kindergarten?

5. Do you speak English?

6. Do you find it disturbing when you do not understand what your English colleague or the children are saying?

7. How do children solve the situations when they need to inform the English teacher about something but they are still unable to speak the language?

8. How is the emotional relationship of the children with the teacher affected by the fact that at the beginning they lack a common language?

9. Can you define their language level of Hungarian when they start kindergarten in September?

10. Do the children ever mix Hungarian and English?

11. Do you think English affects children in developing their Hungarian vocabulary or pronunciation?

12. Are there any words that they know only in English?

13. Do children ever talk to each other in English?

14. How do you see the proportion of the two languages in the programme?

15. Can you see any differences between monolingual and bilingual groups in their problem-solving and social skills, their way of communication between each other and accepting each other and strangers?

16. Please list some activities when they typically communicate in English.

Interview questions for the English teacher

1. Do you speak Hungarian?

2. Do you mind if you don't understand what the children say because they speak in Hungarian?

3. So, you are not bothered by this?

4. How do you cope with such situations you mentioned …

5. What do children do when they talk to a teacher who does not speak Hungarian?

6. How does not speaking a common language affect the bonding/emotional relationship with the English -speaking teacher?

7. Why do you think they bonded with you first, before the Hungarian teacher?

8. How long does it take for the children to repeat / produce the first English words?

9. And to produce the first English words?

10. Do the children ever speak to each other in English when on their own?

11. So, when they talk about you, he thought they should be speaking in English.

12. Do children mix English and Hungarian? Can you give examples?

13. Are there any words the children know only in English?

14. How is the bilingual programme structured?

15. What is the ratio between the English and Hungarian components of the programme?

16. Do you see any differences between the bilingual and monolingual (English or Hungarian) groups in play, problem solving, communication between each other, social skills, accepting each other or strangers, such as trainee teachers coming into the group?

17. And in play, problem solving, social skills, etc.?

18. What kind of activities make your children communicate in English in particular?

19. What is your professional background?

20. Why did you start this job?

21. Where did you do your training?

22. What kind of professional challenge does this job offer to you?

Stepping into the woods with Little Red Riding Hood: Visual narratives in the English language class

Nóra Nagy

Reading Little Red Riding Hood

The most famous children's stories evoke memorable reading experiences both in teachers and students of all ages, a quality which positions such texts as powerful resources in the language classroom. Not only do they provide rich materials for in-class discussion, reading, vocabulary development and writing, but they are also sources of shared experiences, which can contribute to a more meaningful learning process with successful outcomes (Egan, 1989; Heath, 1994; Rose & Martin, 2012; Rosen, 1998; Rothery & Stenglin, 1997; Walsh, 1993). Tales are available to learners and teachers in multiple forms and variations through the various retellings and adaptations in written, spoken and visual languages. These different "modes of engagement" (Hutcheon, 2006, p. 22) support the teacher in creating a multimodal learning experience in which narratives can make an impact in manifold ways.

The aim of the present paper is to introduce the idea of a multimodal approach to using narratives in the classroom. I intend to highlight the importance of knowledge of visual grammar and image-text relations in the processes of text selection and lesson planning. The two visual texts under scrutiny will be two picture book adaptations of the classic fairy tale *Little Red Riding Hood* (Northcott & Flores, 2015; Zoboli & Concejo, 2015). *Little Red Riding Hood* is one of the many stories with which most of our students are familiar and from which they can recall a memorable scene or a character. The scene that I have chosen for investigation in this paper is the one when Little Red Riding Hood meets the wolf. This is one of the most famous scenes which has been adapted in several imaginative ways and might be interpreted differently by various age groups focussing on different aspects and levels of meaning.

Visual narratives

The visual narratives discussed in this paper concern picture books, one designed for English as a second language learners, and the other one designed for English native speakers. In order to understand the picture book as a powerful medium in the language classroom, their distinctive characteristics among other forms of visual narratives need to be addressed. There is an important distinction to be made about picture books and illustrated narratives. In illustrated narratives, the images simply illustrate the already complete written text. The illustrations can contribute to the understanding of the meaning; they can create an atmosphere, but taking them away would not impact the meaning of the written text (Blezza Picherle, 2009; Graham, 2005; Nikolajeva, 1997, 2006; Nikolajeva & Scott, 2006). On the other hand, in a picture book the reader creates the meaning of the text through the interplay between words and images (Blezza Picherle, 1996, 2002, 2004b,

2004c, 2004d; Nikolajeva, 1997, 2006). There are no strict rules regarding the relationship between images and text or the amount of text picture books should contain. The amount of written text can be limited to as little as none, turning the picture book into a wordless picture book, another medium which is interestingly called silent book in Italian children's literature discourse (Terrusi, 2017). Picture books became the focus of serious research studies only about three decades ago. Hunt (1999) reports on the lack of "serious critical literature" concerning picture books, probably because of the young audience they are targeted at. Since his first reflection on picture books, many views have changed, and the "polyphony" (Hunt, 1999, p. 69) he praises in picture books (because of the combination of different codes, styles and textual devices) has already been acknowledged by academic research (e.g., Nikolajeva & Scott, 2001; Nodelman, 1988; Painter, Martin & Unsworth, 2013).

Unit of investigation

In what follows, I have taken the double-page spread as the unit of investigation, which is a unit formed by two opposite pages and usually treated as a single unit in a picture book and in other printed publications, such as newspapers and magazines. The double-page spread often shapes the visual thinking of illustrators and graphic designers as well as the thinking of editors. This unit supports multimodal analysis by including aspects of image-text relations, different functional layers and elements of graphic design. A single image or excerpt from the text would not be able to provide such a comprehensive picture.

A multimodal approach to reading picture books in the classroom

A painting we look at, a piece of music we listen to, and a novel we read are the closest examples of monomodal texts we encounter on a daily basis. In such texts, most meaning is conveyed and interpreted through one mode of representation, which is written language in the case of the novel, a static image in the case of a painting, and sound in the case of music. These examples apply a single form or channel of meaning-making, which is defined as 'mode' in multimodal discourse analysis (Jewitt, 2010; Kress, 2004, 2010; Kress & van Leeuwen, 1996, 2001; Norris, 2004, 2011; O'Halloran, 2004; Unsworth, 2008). However, what constitutes a mode also relies on the amount of knowledge the reader has of the channel that is used to make meaning. For example, the choices made in page layout and typography are more significant and contain more information value for a graphic designer than for an average reader. Similarly, a musician might notice both cognitive and affective aspects in a film soundtrack based on their understanding of different modulation and rhythm. The clothes chosen by a fashion stylist might carry multiple levels of meaning based on colour, style and garment choices. Generally, the most widely accepted and accessible modes of communication are written language, spoken language, static and moving images, music, non-verbal sound and gestures (Forceville & Urios-Aparisi, 2009). These different modes are often described as semiotic resources (Kress, 2010; van Leeuwen, 2004) in order to make a distinction between verbal language and other types of languages at our disposal as well as to indicate that meaning-making is a complex semiotic process. In a multimodal text, two or more of these modes interact with each other, and when different modes are combined, they make our analysis an engaging and informative reading experience. Having knowledge, skills, and language to explore the often implicit messages delivered by these different modes empowers the reader to fully grasp the meaning-making potential of a

multimodal text. The language teacher encounters all of these modes in a single lesson and draws on them, often implicitly. In the context of social semiotics, research and analysis focusses not on the conventional relationship between sign and signifier, but rather on the process of sign-making in social interactions within different situational and cultural contexts (Kress, 2010). Each semiotic resource, such as a visual image, static image or written language (the text on the page), can achieve different effects. These characteristics are referred to as affordances (e.g., Kress, 2010).

When reading illustrated narratives, written and spoken language interact with the visual world of images and graphic design, and the meaning that is created is similar to the intersections Halliday (1996) refers to as "friction points at which new meanings are created" (p. 99) describing the differences between reading/writing and listening/speaking. The different modes only become valuable for the language classroom when the teacher begins to think in terms of the meanings that each of them can make possible. How do the images and the text relate to each other? How does the visual representation express what the writing expresses? The two modes might communicate different meanings, and when this is the case, we can reflect on how this difference becomes significant. These considerations of the affordances of semiotic modes lead on to the impact visual grammar and image-text relations have on the reading and learning processes.

Multiple reading strategies

In terms of reading strategies, the process of reading illustrated books needs to be distinguished from reading monomodal narratives. Bimodal reading (in the case of a picture book) and multimodal reading (e.g., reading a webpage with sound and moving images) are different from reading a written text. Walsh (2013) provides a simple and comprehensive overview of multimodal reading, which can be applied to picture books. In her analysis, visual images 'show' rather than 'tell' the content of the text, and they do this by relying on graphic and visual elements, such as shape, colour, line, angle, positions and frames. The visual style is also important as different meanings can be conveyed through different medium choices. For example, an oil painting might look more traditional than a crayon drawing or collage. The reading pathway is nonsequential and nonlinear, whereas a printed monomodal text tends to imply a sequential, linear unfolding of the narrative. By noticing different details in a double-page spread, the reader of a picture book might enter the story at different points. This effect is achieved by the addition of salient details which might direct the reader's attention in a non-linear and necessarily left-to-right reading path, which is the traditional path in most cultural contexts. These multimodal effects are achieved through the elements of visual grammar, image-text relations and graphic design, which will be discussed below.

How can we and our students benefit from such an understanding of multimodal texts? Research studies conducted in literacy and language classes indicate that high-achieving readers draw on several modes of meaning-making, and they make connection and infer meaning from the visual field as well as the verbal, and they also understand the relationship between the two semiotic modes (Chan, 2011; Walsh, 2010). Multiple strategies are used by good readers to recover meaning from a visual-verbal interface, which include inferring meanings and implicit relations, drawing on prior knowledge, bringing together representational, interactional and compositional meaning, and they also integrate meanings distributed across different modes (Chan, 2011).

The theoretical basics of analysis: The three metafunctions of language

Grammatical rules are often taught in the language class to make sense of the structures of language. Similarly, visual grammar guides the viewer in interpreting visual texts. However, it is important to clarify that in Systemic Functional Linguistics (hereafter SFL, Halliday, 1975, 1978; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2007) grammar is considered a meaning-making resource and significance is given to the interrelation of form and meaning. In this sense, visual grammar is treated as a set of socially constructed resources for the construction of meaning (Kress & van Leeuwen, 1996). Unsworth (2008) summarises the basic principles of the grammar of visual design in social semiotics as proposed by Kress and van Leeuwen:

> Images, like language, also always simultaneously realize three different kinds of meanings. Images construct not only representations of material reality but also the interpersonal interaction of social reality (such as relations between viewers and what is viewed). In addition images cohere into textual compositions in different ways and so realize semiotic reality. More technically, the 'grammar of visual design' formulated by Kress and van Leeuwen (1996) adopted from SFL the metafunctional organization of meaning-making resources. (p. 3)

This simultaneous realisation of the three different kinds of meaning described in this paragraph are the three metafunctions of language as proposed by SFL. Knowing and reflecting on these three metafunctions can guide any reader, teacher, writer or graphic designer in creating and analysing tasks and texts. The ideational meaning answering the question word 'What?' refers to representation of the content or subject matter of the text. The interpersonal meaning answering the question word 'Who?' involves the roles and relationships between the different participants of the communication process. Finally, the textual meaning answering the question word 'How?' describes the way the text is organised as a coherent whole and how it relates to the context through the application of textual and visual devices (Painter, Martin, & Unsworth, 2013). Equipped with the three metafunctions in mind, the most direct step into the analysis of illustrated narratives is the application of a few aspects of visual grammar, which can make the visual world of the double-spread page approachable in our verbal descriptions. A few significant elements of visual grammar will be described and exemplified in the next sections, but before that I will briefly introduce the two double-page spreads and their contents to provide the context for further analyses.

Two texts: Same scene, different stories

Figure 1 represents a scene from a recent adaptation of the story of *Little Red Riding Hood*, and a glimpse at this excerpt should be enough to identify the particular story we have in front of us. Without checking the name of the publisher or the blurb of the book, the visual elements suggest that this book is aimed at a younger audience. The style of the illustration depicting the two participants, the big bad wolf and the innocent and friendly Little Red Riding Hood with strong colours and exaggerated physical features, as well as the typography with the large fonts which promote easy reading signal that this book was probably designed for young learners. As we read the written text on the pages, the simplicity of the sentences using only the present simple and continuous tenses suggests that the target audience is probably young learners at an elementary level of English.

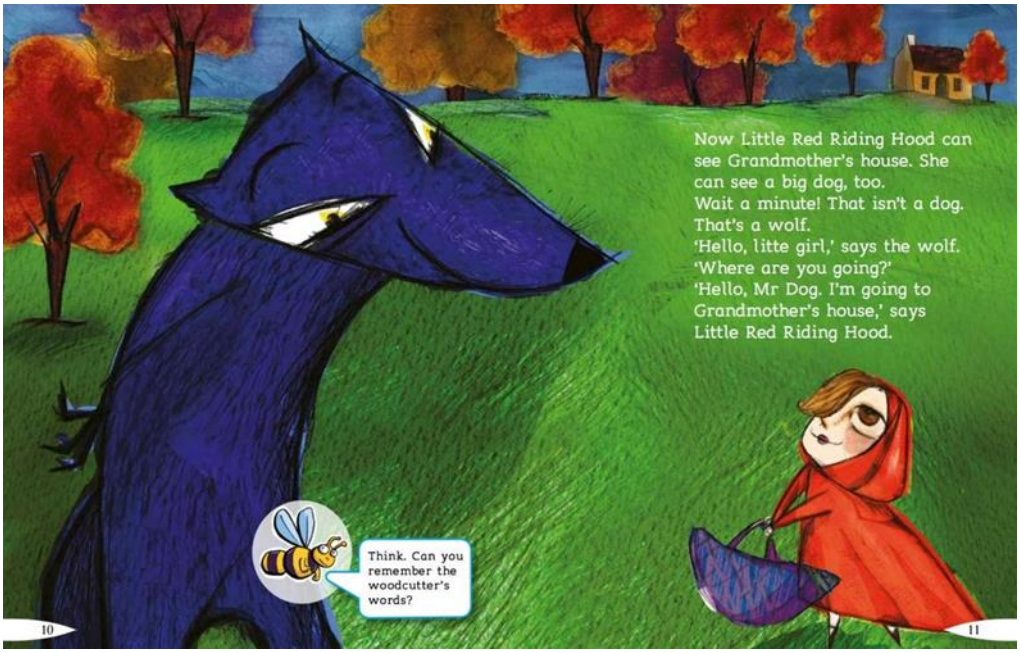

Figure 1. Little Red Riding Hood and the wolf. Illustrated by Catty Flores. Copyright Helbling Languages.

Figure 2. Little Red Riding Hood and the wolf. Illustrated by Giovanna Zoboli and Joanna Concejo, Copyright Topipittori.

When we read the extra layer on the left-hand side of the spread near the symbol of the small bee, we can see that there is a comprehension check exercise with a reference to a previous scene in the book with probably Little Red Riding Hood and the woodcutter. This adaptation was published by the English language teaching materials publisher Helbling Languages in 2015. The name of the series is Helbling Young Readers and the reader is aimed at primary school students at a beginner level (Cambridge Young Learners English level 'Starters' and Trinity Exam Level 1). It was retold by Richard Northcott and illustrated by Catty Flores.

Figure 2 offers a sharp contrast to Figure 1, and it clearly shows a very different adaptation and retelling of a similar scene in the same tale. The visual characteristics of this double-page spread do not explicitly suggest that this book is the appropriate material for language learning purposes. Firstly, there is no text on these pages, and the artistic pencil drawings represent the scene in an unconventional variation. The lack of a written text might confuse some inexperienced or unguided readers, and these features might suggest that this book is either for a mature audience or for shared reading sessions in the first language of young readers. This book was published by the Italian publisher Topipittori in 2015. It was written and illustrated by Giovanna Zoboli and Joanna Concejo.

Grammar of visual elements

In this section two important aspects of visual grammar within the larger framework of social semiotics as proposed by Kress and van Leuween (1996) will provide the basis of my investigation. First, the realisations of narrative structures will be addressed through the action processes in the scenes. Then, salience as a powerful visual quality will be described in some examples. Finally, the realisations of social relations will be described.

Circumstance and narrative structures

The action process and circumstances in Figure 1 are clearly defined. When describing the narrative structures, starting with the description of the **circumstance** clarifies the setting and the context of the action. We can see two **participants** in the middle of a field surrounded by trees. The small house in the background indicates that this area in not uninhabited, and Little Red Riding Hood, who is on the right side of the spread, is still in a familiar landscape. The two participants are interactors in this scene, and both their body postures and eye contact indicate some kind of communication between them. The keyword in this description is vector as it describes the connection between the participants and establishes whether this action is transactional or not.

In Figure 2, the lack of the background places the participants in a dream-like setting as if they were floating on the page. They are surrounded by empty white space out of time, out of context, out of the story, in a surreal, imaginary dream. The transactional process between the two participants is obvious as not only do they look at each other but the red thread literally connects them. This scene might seem unusual to most readers because of the playful but unconventional relationship between the wolf and the girl. We rarely see Little Red Riding Hood sitting on the knee of the wolf, playing with a red cotton thread ball.

Salience

Even more can be revealed about the scenes when we focus on the salient visual qualities which contribute to the effectiveness of both narrative structures and interactive meanings. According to Kress and van Leuween (1996), salience can be achieved "through size, place in the composition, contrast against the background, colour saturation, sharpness of focus and psychological salience, which refers to the eye-catching quality of the human figure and the human face" (p. 63). In Figure 1, the wolf appears to be a salient figure not only through the deep blue of its fur but also through its size. It takes up almost the whole left page of the spread, and its nose protrudes to the right page. Although Little Red Riding Hood is significantly smaller in size, the bright red of her cape draws the attention of the reader. The size and position of the text as a visual detail also attracts our attention.

In Figure 2, salience is achieved through size, colour and composition. Here the wolf spreads out over both pages right in the middle of the double-page spread. Little Red Riding Hood, although much smaller in size, seems to dominate the relationship by sitting on the knee of the wolf. Both scenes seem playful in a menacing way. The unbalanced power relation suggested by the extreme and unrealistic difference in size between the wolf and the little girl is contradicted by the unusual position of Little Red Riding Hood on the knee of the wolf.

Social relations

The way the two participants are positioned within the double-page spread and the way the **angles** and **perspective** position the reader-viewer can influence the meaning created in the reader. In Figure 1, the wolf and the little girl are placed on the same level but there is some distance between the two of them, signalling that they are not truly familiar with each other; they might be strangers. Although they still appear on the same eye-level, a sharp contrast is represented in Figure 2, where the unusual physical closeness creates some tension.

Image-text relations

In every picture book where there are images and written texts, the two modes together inform the readers in creating their own interpretation. This duality of picture books is described as an interesting interplay by Nodelman (1988), who suggests that "the relationships between pictures and texts in picturebooks tend to be ironic: each speaks about matters on which the other is silent" (p. 5). This description gives an example of the complementary relation between text and image. Although several other types of relationships have been described and systematised in various image-text taxonomies (Agosto, 1999; Martinec & Salway, 2005; McCloud, 1993; Nikolajeva & Scott, 2001; Nodelman, 1988; Schwarz, 1982), I would like to highlight and recommend one of them, which might assist the analytical process. Martinec and Salway (2005) point out the importance of thinking about the image in relation to the whole text as well as in terms of its relation to a part of the text. In the case of a double-page spread, the focus of investigation is on the relationship between the image and a part of the text. An overall system of image-text relations is offered in Figure 3, which presents a network commonly used in systemic linguistics (p. 351).

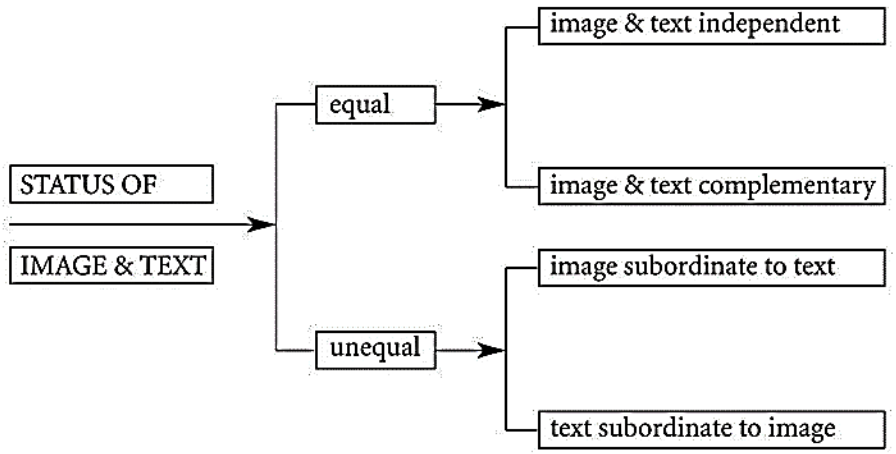

Figure 3. System of image-text system relations (Martin & Salway, 2005)

In a picture book, several image-text relations might occur throughout the pages of the book, as it happens in both examples. In Figure 1, we see that the text adds extra information to the image, giving an explanation of the friendly attitude Little Red Riding Hood has towards the wolf. The text reads 'Hello, Mr Dog', making the reader understand that Little Red Riding Hood trusts this frightening creature. Another layer of text is also present on this double-spread page. That part of the text directs the reader's attention to the narrative as a whole, encouraging the reader to look backwards, applying reading strategies which might serve them in the future with remembering and focussing on important details in narrative structures.

In Figure 2, we see no written text. Here, the ever-changing oral narration that occurs in a shared reading session will guide the reader's attention and change the meaning of the verbal layer of the reading experience. This characteristic of oral narration exemplifies how every retelling can add a new interpretation and meaning to the visual narrative, a resource on which teachers can rely in the classroom.

Reading visual narratives in the language class

Here, I will present two approaches to introducing these double spreads in the language class. The questions are designed for the two scenes from the books, but they can be adapted for any other picture book or illustrated book.

Joint discussion

Taking into consideration the aspects of visual grammar (circumstances, narrative action, vectors, composition, and salience) and image-text relations, I have formulated a number of questions that can guide teachers in approaching these two visual narratives. Here are some questions to consider when preparing questions for classroom discussions:

- Are participants depicted in the picture far away from each other?
- Are they moving towards each other? What makes you say that?
- What kind of relationship can we see between them?
- Where are they positioned in the page?
- Are they in the distance or are they close to us?
- Are they in our eye level or are we looking at them from above? How does it make you feel?
- Do you have the feeling that you are part of the story?

When reading the text in Figure 1, it is interesting to point out the 'Mr Dog' reference and ask the students why they think Little Red Riding Hood makes that mistake. Ask them to compare wolves and dogs, listing the similar characteristics and pointing out differences the little girl should notice. An important strand of research highlights and supports the pedagogical importance of the dialogue built around picture books. Both "parental 'talk around the text' in relation to the child's language and/or literacy development (e.g., Rose, 2011; Torr & Clugston, 1999)", and "the importance of informed classroom teaching approaches and the fact that picturebook meanings are most often negotiated in oral contexts between adult and child" (Painter, Martin, & Unsworth, 2013, p. 4) have also been discussed thoroughly by classroom studies.

Discussing Figure 2 in a young learner classroom might seem challenging, not only because of the unusual social relation represented in the scene, but also because of the lack of written text to guide the young reader. Unless the whole text of the book is studied with a focussed discussion, based on this wordless scene, it might prove difficult to use this double-spread in a language class. However, this feature of the spread can prove to be the strength of this scene. The artistic visual world of the scene can be engaging for young and older learners alike. Beginning with simple vocabulary building exercises (talking through the scene to practise words such as *knee*, *back*, *hold*, *sit*, *play*, *thread*, *dangerous*, *friends*) through storytelling practice (what has just happened; what is happening now) to reflection on the strangeness of the scene might direct the teen or adult readers to discuss various interpretations of the tale. In this instance, the lack of text is more significant than in the case of a single painting, where we do not expect to have any written language other than the title next to the artwork. With proper scaffolding offered by a teacher, this adaptation can become a meaningful learning resource for a wide range of students of different language proficiency levels.

Writing tasks and visual narratives

After the discussion of the scenes, a series of writing tasks can be designed to help language learners respond to the visual narratives. During the discussion of Figure 1, the keywords of the story can be collected. Then, after the revision of these words, most probably using the double spread as a visual aid, the students can be asked to describe the image. First, they can rely on both the keyword list and the double spread, and then they can use either the list or the image. Learners with less developed writing skills can create a montage by drawing their own version of the scene and writing the keywords into it, labelling the objects and characters with the words.

While Figure 2 provides more opportunities for teen and adult learners, it also has more potential for writing practice. During the discussion of this image, collect keywords which the students then need to use to rewrite the story. Then, using this narrative piece, students can discuss and write down what happened before and after this scene. More proficient learners can also write an essay which discusses the theme of the tale and its interpretation through the visual representation. Focussing on the social relations, the circumstance and the salient elements of the illustration, they will be able to build an essay which ranges from the formal visual analysis to the social and thematic description of the represented scene.

Conclusion

The investigation in this paper has established that a multimodal approach to visual narratives and explicit knowledge about the visual grammar of images and image-text relations equip the language teacher with a set of tools which assist them in using picture books and visual narratives in the language classroom. By having this type of knowledge, teachers can approach seemingly complex visual narratives and unfold the meaning conveyed through images by telling stories and discussing the visual elements of double-page spreads. In this way, an artistic image, even without any written text, can provide meaningful resources for language development. The knowledge and analysis of semiotic resources can deliver impressive results in language teaching, and it requires teachers to think in terms of a combination of semiotic resources when they create learning tasks in meaningful contexts. Similarly, this multimodal approach can be applied to using films, discussing fashion, architecture or music in the classroom. It has also been pointed out that thinking in terms of the metafunctions of language and semiotic resources can provide an overall approach to the analysis and understanding of learning materials. Fairy tales, folk tales, and their visual adaptations in the hands of a teacher well-equipped with linguistic and multimodal knowledge might be able to create more meaningful and engaging language learning experiences.

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Teacher talking style: Intention and impact From research insights to teachers' classroom practice

Ágnes Enyedi and Ildikó Lázár

Introduction

When examining how teachers talk in the language classroom, it is usually teacher talking time (TTT) that first comes to mind. TTT is part of any basic teacher education course as the sheer quantity of teacher talk indicates how much space is left for the students to practise and thus language teachers have long been encouraged to monitor how much they speak (Thornbury, 1996). The quality of teacher talk has also been the target of critical attention, but this is usually done to make sure students are provided with linguistically valuable language input (O'Neill, 1994). However, the style and the purpose of what a teacher says are often even more important than the proportion and linguistic quality of teacher talk in a lesson. This does not only mean whether teacher talk is engaging and comprehensible or if it is authentic and serves as a good language model for learners. The way a teacher speaks sets the working culture of a lesson. It signals power relationships, establishes norms and rules and allocates roles in the classroom. Learners do not only understand what the teacher instructs them to do, but at the same time they also get or feel the underlying messages. The way a teacher expresses their authority, demonstrates critical thinking, or resolves a conflict in class all send messages to the students beyond practice in the target language.

For us teachers, being aware of our language use will help us work towards conscious professional behaviour instead of non-professional reactions in the classroom. There are a number of professions for which communication is a primary tool. Psychologists, doctors, police inspectors, counsellors, mediators or coaches are trained in professional communication. Asking the right questions or making the appropriate comments at the right time are skills that can be developed and can add to effective practice in these helping professions. For teachers, asking the right questions, inviting students to connect ideas and reflect on their learning, or using the right words when giving feedback are just a few examples of professional teacher talk.

The present article draws upon the authors' experience in various research and training projects they have been involved in recently. These addressed learning the skills of nonviolent communication, strategies for preventing bullying and school violence, and developing a democratic school culture; lessons from all of which reinforce the idea that professional communication is indispensable in addressing these issues and creating pleasant, culturally sensitive and supportive (language) classrooms.

Lessons from communication training

Professions where the most important tools of the trade are linked to communication are relatively young. They developed in business contexts, linked to some legal or medical fields and also to some educational areas. Coaches working with business people who need to make stressful decisions, nurses who help people in crisis situations, or mentors supporting trainee teachers at school all need to develop their professional communication style. The skills that such professions need are active listening, asking the right questions, and making the client reflect, think, set goals and make decisions. Most of these skills can be helpful for any teacher, but they have not yet found their way into mainstream teacher education.

Teachers do learn some strategies for effective language use in the classroom, but they are not provided with a wide spectrum of skills to be used is situations when they need to go beyond the subject matter of a lesson and need more complex communication tools. Any trained teacher will know that some **questions** are more effective than others; open questions yield more complex answers than closed questions, and also that certain questions trigger high-order thinking as opposed to activating just memory skills (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001). Mentors working with trainee teachers use **active listening** and rely on asking questions to initiate reflection much rather than providing their mentees with ready-made solutions (Stephens, 2001). Fewer teachers might be familiar with the results of Dweck's study (2006), which highlights the power of appropriate praise that influences motivation, positive self-image and the development of a growth mindset. Praising students for skills and results can be counter-effective in the long run and yet praising the effort or the persistence is relatively rare at schools.

Handling classroom situations where emotions run high or where **conflict management** skills are needed is an area where a lot of teachers need professional support. Courses on nonviolent communication, mediator trainings, or workshops to make teachers aware of the dangers of the by-stander effect and help them to integrate students who are marginalised in their schools are just a few examples that try to provide for this need. These are popular especially with teachers and educators who work in less fortunate settings than an academically ambitious school with motivated students.

Soft skills in practice

Conflicts at school arise because people have different needs, goals and experiences. Conflicts are a natural aspect of human interactions and are neither good nor bad in themselves. In fact, change and development cannot happen in any context without creating conflicts. It is the way we deal with conflicts that make the outcome positive or negative, and harmony can be seen not as the absence of conflicts but as the result of the ability to manage them. An important tool for successful **conflict managemen**t is effective communication, which starts with active listening. When one side does not feel as though they are being heard, they may be reluctant to communicate with the people around them. By using **active listening** skills, parties in conflict can build trust in demonstrating that they want to genuinely understand the other. Not only do teachers need to show that they are interested, but they also need to demonstrate that they are able to listen attentively to help solve or manage conflicts. For this purpose, active listening techniques such as restating, summarising, emotional labelling, and reflecting are well-established tools.

As Marshall Rosenberg, the initiator of the concept of **nonviolent communication** (NVC), sees it, violence can be attributed to the "tragic expression of an unmet need" (Rosenberg, 2003. p. 16). In the light of this, conflicts can be resolved successfully when people recognise and communicate their needs, and when these needs are mutually heard, acknowledged and fulfilled.

So what language do teachers need to use? Instead of blaming, criticising, labelling, ridiculing and raising feelings of guilt, they need to show in every verbal and non-verbal act of communication that they respect the other as a person, that they are able to make room for other needs, opinions and values, and that they are going after the problem or conflict and not the person. This entails listening without interrupting, showing interest, **expressing feelings and wishes**, using I-statements, and asking open questions.

When students do not have any real sense of achievement and are repeatedly frustrated by not being able to meet academic expectations, they will not be motivated to study. If this is combined with poor family support and negative peer-pressure, resentment and aggression are very common outlets. Acts

of school violence of varying types and severity have become a spreading phenomenon (see the following section) that teachers are largely unprepared to handle. This is exactly where purposeful professional communication could make a difference; without this, no further restorative techniques can be used to handle such situations.

Teachers are far from being just sources of knowledge and managers of class events; they also establish values, provide strong models for handling situations, and demonstrate their soft skills that guide their students in their social development. Similarly, language teachers are not just **language models,** but they also model **behaviour and communication style**. The way a language teacher formulates a request, praises a student, or responds to a mistake does not merely add to the language competence of the learners but also leaves a mark on their **socio-cultural skills** and the general working culture of the lesson.

Considering the proportion of students whose everyday lives at school are full of tension, fear and anxiety according to the research results summarised below, we must reconsider how we communicate and what behaviour we model as teachers in the classroom. In addition, language teachers have to be even more cautious because in a foreign language it is more difficult for students to judge, for example, how hurtful a remark can be when it is intended to be simply funny.

Lessons from studies on bullying and school violence

Recent studies on verbal and non-verbal bullying at schools have brought to light some worrying results that should not be ignored. The definitions of bullying in the studies and programmes reviewed in this section take as their starting point a definition by Olweus: "A student is being bullied or victimised when he or she is exposed, repeatedly, and over time, to negative actions on the part of one or more students" (Olweus, 1993, p. 9). However, the frequency of bullying and the number of students affected in Hungary vary considerably in the following research studies. As Buda (2015) notes in an excellent overview of research conducted in Hungary on school violence, all Hungarian research projects found that the proportions of bullies and victims were considerably higher than the reported figures in the international surveys for Hungary, for example, in the *Health Behaviour in School-aged Children* or HBSC study (Currie et al., 2008). An additional important feature of local studies is that they also examine teacher behaviour and not only bullying done by students.

According to all studies reviewed here, Hungarian teachers have long found that students' aggressive behaviour is difficult to handle. Buda (2015) also cites the HBSC statistics on fighting, where Hungary's position is far from ideal as we are 6th to 9th in the ranking depending on the age group in question. Buda (2015) notes that with such high ranking in school fights and with teachers' reportedly serious difficulties with aggressive behaviour, it is indeed surprising that the international HBSC study found the frequency of bullying to be relatively low in Hungary (Currie et al., 2012). The HBSC international report based on the 2009/2010 survey found that in Hungary 8% of 11-year-old girls and 13% of 11-year-old boys reported having been bullied at school at least twice in the previous months. The same was 8% for young women and 9% for young men among 13-year olds, and 4% for young women and 5% for young men among 15-year olds. Prevalence rates vary considerably across Europe and with the above results, the proportion of bullies and victims of bullying is seemingly not very high in Hungary compared to other countries.

However, Buda (2015) claims that the study of bullying is still a new field in Hungary and there is not even consensus on how to translate the word *bullying*, how to define its types and frequency of occurrence, or what research tool would be the most suitable to measure the problem, considering that students do not necessarily have the same understanding of the terms used in questionnaires even within the same school, county or region (Buda, 2015, p. 17).

In comparison, the following sections review further local studies especially from the perspective of the impact of a school's communication culture on learners' lives. In 2008, an online questionnaire- and interview-based study was conducted on a large sample: in 186 secondary schools with one randomly chosen class from a number of schools in Budapest as well as their teachers and school heads or deputy heads, in addition to 50 classes of 7th graders from primary schools (Hajdú & Sáska, 2009). The total number of participating teachers was 980 and the number of students participating was 4,375 with an average age of 17.88 years.

This study conducted by Hajdú and Sáska (2009) is particularly interesting because of its findings related to classroom communication. The most common forms of violent behaviour they found were yelling/cursing (59.9% of 11th graders reported having done this at least once before), humiliation (47.5% admitted having done this to others), and exclusion (25% claimed to have excluded others), which shows that the frequency of bullying acts is significantly higher than expected based on the HBSC study (Currie et al., 2008). Most importantly, 38.3% of the students claimed to have been shouted or cursed at by their teachers, and 33.5% said that they had been humiliated by a teacher at least once. An additional finding worth noting was that in schools where children find their teachers to be fair, the rate of aggressive acts is much lower.

A study by Buda and Szirmai (2010) was the first Hungarian (regionally) representative research conducted in 23 randomly selected schools, in which over 1,000 5th graders participated from towns and villages in Hajdú-Bihar County. School bullying seemed to be a prevailing problem in the upper section of primary school (grades 5-8) where only 9.6% of children claimed that there was no bullying at all in their class. The researchers found that seventh graders called their peers names more often, fifth graders were more often involved in spreading rumours and in physical fights, and girls did less bullying in all types of bullying acts altogether, except for ostracising and spreading rumours. This supports earlier findings, which concluded relational bullying to be typically a girls' type of bullying. This study showed that pupils were most often bullied in places where they were together and were or should have been under surveillance (in the changing rooms, in the classroom when the teacher was not necessarily there, or in the corridor). It is especially surprising to see that 30% of the pupils claimed that bullying also happened during the lessons. This study also pointed out that there was clear correlation between school climate and violence.

Most recently, Simon, Zerinváry and Velkey (2015) conducted research on bullying and school climate among students and teachers for the Hungarian Institute of Educational Research and Development (OFI). Their sample was a representative random sample: Nearly 3,000 students and their 450 teachers participated in the study. The authors' aim was to explore the types of aggressive behaviours and their frequency among students in the age group 10 to 14. The methods used consisted of a complex many-item questionnaire and focus group interviews. The questionnaire they used described 13 types of bullying including physical, verbal and online forms of aggression in detail. In addition, the behaviour and conflict resolution strategies of teachers working with the surveyed students were also examined. The final goal was to find pedagogical and sociological correlations between bullying incidents, opinions about them, the atmosphere in the classrooms and teachers' conflict resolution strategies.

The results of the study (Simon, Zerinváry, & Velkey, 2015) indicate that the proportion of students who felt they had been bullied was between 15.2% and 31.2% depending on age group, type of school and perceived frequency of bullying, which was much higher than the proportion of students (7%) who claimed to have been bullied according to a simple perception tool, which did not specify or define what bullying was. The authors also highlight that unlike teachers, students considered virtual online aggression more serious than physical aggression, and stealing or damaging property more

serious than beating. According to student perceptions, physical aggression provokes stronger teacher reactions than any other form of bullying. However, students would prefer more frequent teacher intervention in the case of verbal offence and humiliation as well as in cases of online bullying.

As for the reasons behind bullying, there was also a huge difference in student and teacher perceptions. The majority of teachers participating in the study (Simon, Zerinváry, & Velkey, 2015) believed that bullying was the result of the "otherness" of students who become bullies, whereas the majority of students thought quite rightfully that it was because of peer pressure and the bullies' compulsion to please some of their classmates or to conform to unspoken expectations.

The authors' concluding remarks warn about a general lack of information among all those concerned about types of bullying and prevention/treatment methods regarding school violence. They highlight the beneficial preventive nature of a good class atmosphere and mutual trust between students and teachers and among students themselves. More sensitive and reserved students with low self-confidence tend to become victims more easily, but the values, expectations and climate of the school have a significant influence on the number of bullied students. As a result, if teachers, school leaders and other school personnel are well informed and qualified to diagnose, prevent and treat cases of school violence, including online bullying, then the frequency of these will very likely decrease.

From the point of view of classroom communication, here is a summary of some additional conclusions of interest from this recent representative study (Simon, Zerinváry, & Velkey, 2015):

- Verbal harassment is the most common form of school violence.
- Teachers rarely intervene in cases of verbal harassment and tend to overlook these incidents.
- Teachers underestimate the prevalence of the problems, but they regard the detected cases (usually acts of physical violence) as more serious than what the children themselves think about them.
- No correlation was found between aggressive behaviour and socio-economic status, but the social intelligence of the community and the conflict resolution methods used by the members (mostly teachers) were claimed to be crucial factors.
- As for teachers' violent behaviour, 20% of students experience some kind of aggression from their teachers (usually harsh, offensive and humiliating words) on a weekly basis.

Based on the above research findings, the role of communication, particularly what teachers can do to prevent and handle anxiety, tension and violence cannot be emphasised enough, and clearly calls for further research and development.

Lessons from Council of Europe projects

According to the Council of Europe's *Charter on Education for Democratic Citizenship and Human Rights Education* (2010) adopted by the organisation's 47 member states in the framework of Recommendation CM/Rec (2010), "Education plays an essential role in the promotion of the core values of the Council of Europe: democracy, human rights and the rule of law, as well as in the prevention of human rights violations" (p. 1). The Charter also calls for action when claiming that

> Teaching and learning practices and activities should follow and promote democratic and human rights values and principles; in particular, the governance of educational institutions, including schools, should reflect and promote human rights values and foster the empowerment and active participation of learners, educational staff and stakeholders, including parents (Council of Europe, 2010, p. 9).

The Charter also suggests that it is essential to

> promote educational approaches and teaching methods which aim at learning to live together in a democratic and multicultural society and at enabling learners to acquire the knowledge and skills to promote social cohesion, value diversity and equality, appreciate differences (...) and settle disagreements and conflicts in a non-violent manner with respect for each other's rights, as well as to combat all forms of discrimination and violence, especially bullying and harassment (Council of Europe, 2010, p. 14).

In the past decade, dozens of Council of Europe and European Commission funded projects and publications have been trying to help develop democratic school cultures all over Europe. Not only does this initiative call for a different organisational culture at educational establishments, but for many teachers it also requires a completely new approach to the teaching and learning process.

Perceptions of school violence in focus

The authors of the present article participated in an international Council of Europe research project (Council of Europe, 2016) involving teams from Montenegro, Romania, Poland and Hungary as participants, and Greece as the project leader. Verbal, physical and psychological aggression at school was explored through focus group interviews and comparative studies conducted in the five participating countries. The main objective of the project was to review recent research results, and explore policies, initiatives and best practices concerning the prevention and treatment of school violence in the countries involved.

The Hungarian team of researchers conducted a focus group interview in January 2016. In the focus group, added to the four members of the Hungarian research team, nine volunteer informants represented a variety of professional backgrounds, ranging from practising school teachers through members of NGOs and civil societies to members of school communities affected by violence-related problems. The participants discussed 14 questions previously prepared by the research team. These targeted the following larger areas:

- possible perceptions of violence at school
- possible reasons behind violence
- typical profiles of victims
- ways of preventing and managing violent behaviour
- resources and support that teachers would benefit from.

The main conclusions form the focus group interview included the idea that school violence is a multifaceted concept and its manifestations are not always clearly identifiable. Prevention is a better solution than treating the situation after the violent act has happened.

At the same time, it was also concluded that it is the responsibility of teachers and school leadership to model respectful communication, to build trusting relationships based on dialogue, and to develop a positive school climate where students feel confident to express their feelings and seek the support of teachers when needed. To be able to ask for and accept help, students need to be aware of their emotions, and become able to express them in a constructive way. To achieve this, it was stressed that all stakeholders should be working closely together to discuss common aims, negotiate rules, develop personal and social competences, and engage in creative, constructive, and enjoyable activities at schools so that all members of a school community derive pleasure from school attendance.

The focus group interview was followed by a practice-oriented interactive workshop in April 2016 to a group of 20 interested and committed teachers, trainers and representatives of NGOs. The workshop introduced the participants to some good practices that help prevent or combat bullying at schools and encouraged colleagues to continue to network and share their experiences and expertise. The collected good practices (see pages 67–69) include communication tools, the use of restorative techniques, the teaching of conflict management techniques to a group of teachers or the whole staff of a school, and in general the efforts made by all players in any educational establishment to create a pleasant atmosphere. This is only possible in a school culture of acceptance, respect and cooperation, which could be founded by the more extensive use of learner-centred approaches, cooperative learning structures and respectful communication during lessons.

Intervention: the school's responsibility

Citing research studies by Vreeman and Carroll (2007) and Ahlfors (2010), the HBSC report (Currie et al., 2012) also claims that

> Fairly consistent evidence suggests that school-based interventions can significantly reduce adolescents' bullying behaviour, with the opportunities for success being greatest if the intervention incorporates a whole-school approach involving multiple disciplines and the entire school community. Staff commitment to implementing the intervention plays a crucial role in its success. (Currie et al., 2012, p. 200)

This seems to be in line with the Hungarian research team's findings and leads us to discuss the potential in developing a democratic school culture.

We need to reconsider teacher and learner roles, communication patterns, classroom management techniques and assessment methods just to mention a few of the areas where change needs to take place if we want to replace the traditional teacher-centred authoritarian climate with a democratic school culture.

These values cannot be taught at school as content or knowledge. Students need to be equipped with the skills to understand and practise democracy at their level. They can best acquire these skills if they see good models working in their everyday school lives, and if teaching professionals are trained to make a difference between personal instinctive, emotional communication and effective professional communication in sensitive situations.

Resources and tools

The description of the whole international project (Council of Europe, 2016) summarised all the international participants' first-hand experience of good practice for the prevention or treatment of school violence. The Hungarian focus group study in the Council of Europe international research project was summed up in an unpublished report based on the transcription of a video recording. The following examples are all linked to communication issues as phrased by the Hungarian focus group participants:

- As a first step, it is important for children to know that even when they are playing, "they should give a clear signal verbally, or non-verbally, when the game goes beyond the point when it is not a game for them any more" (p. 8-9). There is a thin margin between play, even rough play and violence, teasing or hurting, and when this line is trespassed, it needs to be communicated and the signals respected.

- Also, trust needs to be established between children and those in charge of helping them. Helpline workers report that children turning to them "get as far as recognising that they are abused but they do not take the next step of asking for help, because of a million reasons [...] like the lack of trust, the lack of hope that an adult can help, or the fear of becoming an outcast of their reference groups even more" (p. 9).

- Teachers and parents need to be able to recognise and manage situations where help is needed. Verbal abuse is one of the most difficult areas as adults may not be familiar enough with teenage subcultures to judge whether rude verbal expressions are signs of violence among teenagers or just the opposite, the expression of belonging together. Similarly, adults' expressions that are meant to be innocent may cause distress in teenagers.

- Rules of a class or those of the school are immensely important, and these need to be negotiated, understood and internalised by all members of the school community. Rules mean that actions have consequences, which is not the same as punishment.

- When children cannot control themselves in an emotional situation, "they are required to demonstrate skills in being empathetic and to recognise what their partners feel and what they themselves feel" (p. 10). It is not easy, even for an adult, to recognise, verbalise and reflect upon inner feelings, and so this also needs to be learnt.

- Students' social skills can be developed in lessons where group dynamics and various emotive topics are addressed. The ultimate aim is to establish a dialogue and a trusting relationship between teachers and students, and to make sure that teachers are seen as supportive professionals – for which appropriate communication is indispensable.

- Finally, it was noted that for all this teachers themselves need support, both in enriching their professional toolkit and also in releasing stress and maintaining their emotional health. However, "they often do not have the chance to rest or look after their physical well-being. With this they do not only miss the opportunity to be able look after their students' physical and mental health but also communicate the opposite of what they would like to teach about values" (p. 13). Institutional support, trainings and a helping network in the schools can equip teachers with strategies to switch off and avoid getting wrapped up in problems, avoid burnout and maintain a professional attitude.

Awareness raising activities for teachers in a workshop

At the 2016 IATEFL Hungary conference, workshop participants worked with quotes collected from teacher talk in various schools in various classroom situations. The quotes showed teachers' helplessness, hurtful irony, personal dislike or other negative feelings that students probably resented. Participants were asked to re-phrase the quotes, making them sound more professional, supportive and purposeful. In what follows, some examples of this work will be provided.

First of all, we must remove unintentionally derogatory language from our everyday classroom communication as also suggested by Alex Shevrin (2015). Compare "very bad student" to "the student who has recently found it difficult to respect the rules we agreed on". If a teacher talked like this to you or about you in front of your classmates, which of these sentences would make you want to change, or at least try and cooperate to work out a solution, and which one would turn you off? For another example, feel the difference between these two sentences uttered by teachers in similar situations: "This is the worst class I've ever taught" and "I've been disheartened by our lack of cooperation lately. I would like to discuss and renegotiate the rules of the game because I sense that we have different needs and expectations and would like to hear your opinions." The message we send with the former declaration carries stigma, lack of understanding and hopelessness, while the latter conveys honesty, willingness to compromise, and interest in the students and in improving teaching and learning conditions.

It is interesting to stop and think for a minute about the kinds of messages teachers send to their students by saying fairly typical warnings like these "If you answer all three questions correctly, then I'll believe that you actually spent a few minutes studying at home" or "Filling in this test paper obviously requires individual work and you'll be suspended even if you only ask for a tissue from your classmates." What students will understand from these is that the teacher clearly does not trust them, thinks that they lack curiosity for and interest in learning, have no desire to be honest, and will probably show signs of ignorance (again). We need to reconsider whether we really want our students to think and feel this way.

When assessing learning outcomes and giving feedback on students' written or oral performance, teachers sometimes forget that if a whole class did not do too well on a test, then perhaps this is not only their fault. When we say things like "You just don't know this. This is one way of ensuring a fail at the end of the year" or "Your results are appalling; I don't see why you are not willing to learn anything", then this does not help learners at all. In fact, this is clearly counterproductive as they will feel even less motivated to make an effort because effort is clearly not appreciated.

Conclusion

When teachers pay attention to using words that **empower**, **support** and **include**, they directly and indirectly motivate students and help them develop coping strategies, which will all help prevent anxiety, tension and verbal and physical violence. As for bullying prevention and treatment, attempts have only recently been made at collecting information in Hungary about the available tools and training events for teachers onto one single website (http://iskon.opkm.hu). This will need to be disseminated widely so that teachers, school heads, students and parents all become better informed and more competent in preventing, noticing, and treating cases of verbal and physical school violence. For further information and self-access professional development in nonviolent communication, many further resources are available in English on the Internet by using search words like nonviolent communication, communication activities, NVC for educators, supportive teacher talk and prevention of bullying. As language lessons include a lot of communication activities and role-plays, the authors of the present article strongly believe that the feelings and intentions behind words should also be reconsidered for the benefit of students and teachers alike in the EFL classroom.

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Teaching for social justice: Global education in the English language classroom

Margarita Kosior

Introduction

Armed clashes, terrorist attacks, epidemics, starvation and famine, poverty and natural disasters make headline news on a daily basis. According to the United Nations (UN), "The world is facing its largest humanitarian crisis since 1945" (BBC News, 2017). Basic human rights violations are commonplace, the natural environment is being harmed, and cultural diversity is often synonymous with conflict. In the face of these dire developments, an educator cannot stay indifferent, and global education has become increasingly integrated in English Language Teaching (ELT) (Cates, 2002). Language teachers, therefore, need to transform their teaching and learning process by shifting the focus from merely conveying linguistic knowledge to equipping students with the competencies "to be more understanding and showing more respect to their surroundings" (Pratama & Yuliati, 2016, p. 719).

Global education is an approach to education which emerged in response to the rapid globalisation of the contemporary world. In this context, the role of the educator has taken on a new dimension: to provide learners with opportunities to acquire skills which will allow them to function properly in today's interconnected world. According to *Global Education Guidelines* (Cabezudo et al., 2010), it is now crucial for education

> to give learners the opportunity and competences to reflect and share their own point of view and role within a global, interconnected society, as well as to understand and discuss complex relationships of common social, ecological, political and economic issues, so as to derive new ways of thinking and acting. (p. 10)

Global education, the purpose of which is to bring about change in society, has been around for a couple of decades, but amid the aforementioned humanitarian crisis it has gained ground and supporters, as "[m]any language teachers find it morally wrong to just stick their heads into their textbooks and pretend these problems don't exist" (Cates, 2002). Despite that, however, there are still those who sceptically question the purposefulness of the global approach (claiming that it is just a drop in the ocean and what an individual does cannot really make a difference on a large scale), and others who do not know how to skilfully and smoothly adjust their curriculum to the new needs of the globalised world. Therefore, the purpose of this article is first to briefly present the rationale behind incorporating social issues into ELT; then, to recommend specific teaching ideas and practical strategies. Finally, the article will discuss challenges related to adopting the global approach to foreign language teaching and suggest ways to respond to these challenges.

Global education

There is no single definition of global education. According to GLEN: Global Education Network (2009), it is "an active learning process based on the universal values of tolerance, solidarity, equality, justice, inclusion, co-operation and non-violence". Hicks (2010) defines it as follows:

> a form of education which:
> - enables people to understand the links between their own lives and those of people throughout the world
> - increases understanding of the economic, cultural, political and environmental influences which shape our lives
> - develops the skills, attitudes and values which enable people to work together to bring about change and take control of their own lives
> - works towards achieving a more just and sustainable world in which power and resources are more equitably shared.

Similarly, according to UNESCO (2017): "Global Citizenship Education (GCED) aims to empower learners to assume active roles to face and resolve global challenges and to become proactive contributors to a more peaceful, tolerant, inclusive and secure world." Regardless of the abundance of definitions, however, many of them share common attributes and are built around common concepts and ideas, such as knowledge, skills, responsible living, empowerment, commitment and interdependence. Therefore, many definitions, such as this one by Cates (2002), combine such seemingly remote areas as foreign language teaching and learning, global citizenship and solving global problems: "It [global education] aims to enable students to effectively acquire a foreign language while empowering them with the knowledge, skills, and commitment required by world citizens to solve global problems" (Cates, 2002).

Global education in the English language classroom

The influence of global education has made itself felt, and the English teaching profession has new aims now – not only improving the linguistic proficiency of our learners, but also changing attitudes, fostering and promoting their social development, and empowering young people to make the world a better place. Consequently, new ideas about the content of ELT flourish. With this rising interest, ELT associations invite global-issue speakers and organisations to their events and relevant themes are emphasised at ELT conferences. Finally, the increasing interest in global education has resulted in the formation of global-issue interest groups within the English teaching profession. A fine example is the IATEFL Global Issues Special Interest Group, which was created in 1995 with the aim of stimulating awareness and understanding of global issues, and to encourage the development of global education within language teaching, therefore, empowering its members to fulfil the two roles a language teacher has in society: "the conveyor of linguistic knowledge and the educator to enable students to understand better how the modern world functions" (as cited in iran.britishcouncil.org, n.d.).

Therefore, the rationale behind incorporating social issues and teaching about social justice/injustice into ELT boils down to several major points. First, our planet faces serious global issues. As Kniep explains,

> Hardly a day goes by without an announcement of terrorist activities, the newest lake poisoned by acid rain, the latest energy crisis, the suffering of displaced people in refugee camps or the repression through violent means of people seeking their human rights" (as cited in Cates, 2002).

Another reason behind incorporating global education into ELT is the interdependence of our modern world. Like in a domino, even those who are more privileged to be born in safer or more developed parts of the world, less frequently influenced by crime, terrorism, war, famine or natural disasters, are eventually affected by the humanitarian world crisis. To give just an example, a terrorist attack in one European country can cause stricter airport control in the whole European Union or in the U.S. As the Dalai Lama put it:

> Today's world requires us to accept the oneness of humanity. In the past, isolated communities could afford to think of one another as fundamentally separate. Some could even exist in total isolation. But nowadays, whatever happens in one region eventually affects many other areas. Within the context of our new interdependence, self-interest clearly lies in considering the interest of others. (as cited in World Peace Through Technology, 2011)

Each local problem will sooner or later become a world concern, and it should be treated as such from the beginning. We can no longer afford the luxury of maintaining the laid-back attitudes of the past and keep distinguishing between 'us' and 'them', when all people should be allowed to enjoy the same fundamental human rights. The Dalai Lama's words from 2001 resonate even louder today: "In the context of our new interdependence, considering the interest of others is clearly the best form of self-interest" (Gyatso, Quaki, & Benson, 1999, p. 142).

Another justification for global education is what Cates (2002) refers to as "the attitudes of apathy, selfishness, and ignorance of many modern young people." It is time, he asserts, to change the 'whatever' attitude of the youth into the attitude of civic engagement. This can be done through teaching about cultural differences and similarities, racial prejudice, stereotyping, and through teaching values such as kindness, empathy, respect, gratitude, responsibility and fairness, to name just a few. However, more optimistic voices can be heard as well, claiming that the degree of young people's civic (and political) engagement varies from one country to another, but also within countries, and, in some contexts, the youth's interest in important global issues is clearly articulated. According to an article in the UN Chronicle,

> these issues were usually experienced as having considerable personal meaning and relevance for their own lives. [...] Youth today are more likely to focus on specific issues that are of personal concern, using alternative modes of action that differ from those that were used by their parents' and grandparents' generations. (2018)

Whatever the case may be, schools in general, but also the English language classroom in particular, should enable and allow students to raise and discuss issues of global importance in order to maintain and/or stimulate their interest in and awareness of those issues.

The final rationale concerns the way in which current education systems in many parts of the world still function. It can be argued that many young people are still exposed to teacher-centred environments, in which they are not offered the opportunity to acquire skills which will prepare them to cope with the real world and its present and future problems. The traditional education system, which builds on memorisation, repetition and passive learning in which student success is measured by exam results, should be replaced with a more stimulating teaching/learning environment in which students are encouraged to experiment, explore, question, and think critically in an up-to-date student-centred environment. Only in this way will they develop into autonomous citizens of the world ready to take responsibility for their own actions. To this end, all education systems need to be transformed:

> Students need critical thinking skills, a level of self-awareness and confidence that will empower them to take on unfamiliar challenges. They need to be able to work on teams of diverse individuals, opinions and experiences. As they will most assuredly be faced with some of the world's greatest challenges, they will need to ensure there are sustainable supplies of food, water, and energy; address the needs of more than seven billion people living on a planet with ever-dwindling natural resources. Whatever the challenge, they will need to innovate, work collaboratively and creatively, across borders and disciplines, and with ethics. (Drew, 2014)

In many educational settings, however, the traditional teacher-centred instruction which involves passive learning, rote memorisation and a focus on testing, and in which the teacher is the primary communicator of knowledge, is still very popular or even predominant (Cates, 2002) and does not place sufficient (if any) emphasis on inquiry and problem-solving, which are among the fundamental 21st-century skills and competencies. There are many ways of bringing the world into the classroom, and the following part of the paper is going to present a wide array of techniques in which this can be achieved. We can all take the initiative, working either individually, or collectively, organising or participating in a bigger movement.

Global Education in practice

Much has been said about TED talks, and so much still remains to be said. A growing body of educators agree that TED talks can have a greatly beneficial effect on learners in an English language classroom:

> Educators have been encouraged to use TED talks in the classroom for two reasons: to provide students with the context within which the English language can be used, and to help them gain a different perspective on a variety of issues, change their attitudes and spark their minds. (Kosior & Tzouris, 2013, p. 21)

An example of a talk which tackles a very important issue is *Photos that bear witness to modern slavery* by Lisa Kristine (2012), a photographer who travelled the world to capture images of people in bondage. Using her own words, "this body of images documents the pain of modern day slavery and the hope of freedom, allowing us to bear witness to the most horrible abuses imaginable and the most astonishing glimpses of the indomitable human spirit" (Kristine, n.d.). TED talks can be an extremely good resource for any language work, such as listening and speaking activities, a starting point for

reading or writing tasks and in-class discussions, but also a springboard for project work. In April 2012, TED launched the TED Ed platform which allows the use of TED talks but also any YouTube video to create customised lessons and create a flipped classroom environment. This allows students to work autonomously and independently, and take responsibility for their own learning process. All in all, TED and TED Ed put the learner in the centre of the classroom by exposing them to authentic materials, encouraging them to share ideas, underscoring the importance of critical thinking, and enhancing their autonomy; all among the most popular terms and commonly recurring themes in contemporary ELT (Kosior & Tzouris, 2015).

Just like TED talks, short YouTube videos are often a great inspiration for learners of various ages. The ones that deal with social issues such as poverty, homelessness, discriminations and other topics are referred to as "social shorts" by Kieran Donaghy. According to the author, such videos "are sometimes commissioned by non-governmental organisations or charities, to raise awareness of a particular social problem" (Donaghy, 2015, p. 26), and are usually really touching and emotional, leaving a lasting mark on the viewers, who can often relate their lives to the issues depicted in the video.

Similarly, documentaries will enliven most classrooms and provide students with opportunities to learn the language and the content. Some documentaries can be shocking, many will be thought-provoking and quite a few life-changing. For example, *Santa's Workshop* is a documentary which can be used in the classroom when discussing the highly controversial and debatable issue of sweatshops. Despite being an overt and unethical form of exploitation, "some of the world's leading economists have cited sweatshops as a necessary step in modernization and development" (Wong, 2013). Regardless of how strong the beliefs of the teacher are, students should be allowed to develop their own deeper understanding of such controversial issues and to eventually adopt a stance and be allowed to voice their opinion and support their point of view with sound argumentation. To that end, in order to allow students to look at the issue of sweatshops from another point of view, they should be allowed access to articles like *Where Sweatshops are a Dream* by Kristof (2009), in which the author looks at the issue from the economic point of view and presents arguments in favour of sweatshops. When allowed to make their own decisions and take a stance, students will more likely engage in further research on the topic, reach conclusions, and take action. The teaching/learning benefit is that intriguing and captivating material presented in documentaries and relevant readings will keep even the most easily bored students engaged and involved in a critical way.

Silent discussion, also referred to as big paper strategy, is yet another great tool which can be used to tackle difficult issues in the English language classroom. It is an activity which allows students to explore a topic in depth and lends itself well for discussions on global issues. It involves having a written conversation with peers and gives the students an opportunity to focus on the views of others and engage in a dialogue with them. A silent discussion can start with a word, a quote, a phrase, a sentence or an image. An instance of such a stimulus has been taken from Melissa Fleming's TEDxThessaloniki talk on the topic of refugee crisis, in which, in her capacity as the Head of Communications at the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, the speaker told heart-wrenching refugee stories and made an appeal to stop the wars and the persecution, saying: "No person fleeing war should have to die crossing sea to reach safety" (Fleming, 2015). This quotation can be an effective trigger for a silent discussion.

Silent discussion is a collaborative learning strategy which helps students explore a topic in depth, but most importantly, it allows each student to work at their own pace and engages even the most intimidated students. It first takes the form of written self-expression, and the exchange of ideas

ultimately turns into a verbal discussion. The instructions need to be very clear: The participants are not allowed to talk to each other for the duration of the task; the only means of communication among them is a long stretch of big wrapping paper and markers. As mentioned earlier, a silent discussion gets generated around a stimulus selected by the teacher; a stimulus which will arouse curiosity and serve as a springboard for discussion. The time limit is announced. It is recommended that a silent discussion should last at least 15 minutes. It is especially important in the case of groups of students who are not familiar with this type of activity and need some time to get used to it. They will have to understand that silence plays an important role in the process and gives them an opportunity to think, listen, respond, reflect, ask questions and respond to queries raised by other participants.

The group receives a big paper and markers in various colours. After the students have read the hint/stimulus, they start making written comments, asking questions, and responding to queries posed by others by connecting these questions, answers and comments with lines. The outcome looks similar to a big mind map. It is important that the students know that a silent discussion is not a turn-taking activity; all students can be engaged in it simultaneously, which creates the atmosphere of a creative mess. Once the time is up, the students are given some time to step back, walk around and read through the whole discussion, identifying different areas and noticing how the conversation has got organised around certain points/topic statements. The silent phase of the task is over, and a regular discussion begins during which the participants voice reflections and draw conclusions. It is interesting to notice that even the shyest in the group are more confident to speak up and get their voices heard. Silent discussions can be used with various groups of students (aged 12+), and positive feedback has been reported.

One of the key characteristics of the silent discussion technique and the one which is largely responsible for its success is that it gives the participants ample time to reflect. Despite its undeniable benefits, the role of reflection is often underestimated in traditional educational and academic settings. Its value, on the other hand, is aptly summarised by Gibbs:

> It is not sufficient simply to have an experience in order to learn. Without reflecting upon this experience it may quickly be forgotten, or its learning potential lost. It is from the feelings and thoughts emerging from this reflection that generalisations or concepts can be generated. And it is generalisations that allow new situations to be tackled effectively. (Gibbs, 2001)

In other words, we should allow our students time and space to take a break, stand back and look at their in-class but also out-of-the-classroom experiences, from a distance, trying to find meaning in it and learn from it. The ultimate goal is for students to take a stand and speak up, and to take action on a matter of global injustice. Therefore, one of my favourite assignments, but also the one which many students enjoy, is writing a reflective essay. Many of such reflective essays assigned to my students are based on a TED talk previously watched in class. An example of a talk which results in fruitful discussion and deep reflections is *The Opportunity of Diversity* by Aimee Mullins (2009). Aimee is an American actress and a fashion model but also an athlete. Notably, she was born with a medical condition which resulted in the amputation of both of her lower legs. The diagnosis was that she would never be able to live a normal life. Contrary to that diagnosis, Aimee has been recognised worldwide for her achievements and her perseverance. Today, she is “a passionate advocate for a new kind of thinking about prosthetics” (ted.com, n.d.), an activist and a motivational speaker empowering others facing adversities in their lives to never give up on their dreams. There have been instances of students for whom writing about their own, similar experiences, has been a form of therapy. By identifying with the speaker, students discovered their own power. Others understood that the term *disability* does not have to be synonymous with defect, impairment or inability.

Student presentations are a classic type of assignment commonly chosen by teachers. Delivering an oral presentation benefits the presenter in many significant ways and not only in terms of linguistic gains:

> Presentations are a great way to have students practise all language systems areas (vocabulary, grammar, discourse and phonology) and skills (speaking, reading, writing and listening). They also build confidence, and presenting is a skill that most people will need in the world of work. I find that students who are good presenters are better communicators all round, since they are able to structure and express their ideas clearly. (TeachingEnglish, British Council, BBC, 2006)

In the context of global education, gaining the ability to research a topic and then to communicate the findings to wider audiences with the purpose of convincing them to take action is an asset of crucial importance. Today's educators create the citizens and leaders of tomorrow; a great responsibility to bear and a challenge to accept. Education is for the brave; it is for brave teachers who are not afraid to tackle difficult issues with their students, encourage them to ask questions and look for answers, and to make decisions and change attitudes. The beauty of digital or poster presentations created and presented by students lies in the fact that the presenters may become a source of inspiration for their classmates. It is also an opportunity for the audience to ask questions and respond critically to the material presented to them. All these skills – research, critical thinking, communication and enquiry, along with good problem-solving – are among the basic skills developed within the scope of global education and among student-centred pedagogies effective in promoting global competence (OECD – PISA New Global Competence Framework, 2018).

All the aforementioned activities can be parts of a bigger project tackling issues of global importance, involving all kinds of learners and tapping into different learning preferences and needs. Making the results of such projects public boosts the confidence of the students participating in their creation even further.

Cooperation for Global Education

Global education will have an even greater impact when multiple voices join forces towards a common goal. Collaboration with colleagues from all over the world can take on various forms: You can join an already existing movement or create your own initiative. An example of an already existing movement is The NO Project (http://thenoproject.org/). The NO Project (TNP) is an award-winning, global, anti-slavery educational campaign which raises youth awareness of human trafficking and modern-day slavery. The campaign addresses issues such as recruitment methods for commercial sexual exploitation (CSE), domestic servitude (maids behind closed doors), and slavery in the production of our daily products, such as chocolate, tea, coffee, minerals in all smart electronics. One of the projects I engaged my BA students in was carried out in collaboration with TNP within the framework of our Evaluation and Design of Teaching Materials unit at CITY College, The University of Sheffield International faculty in Thessaloniki, Greece. For the purpose of the assignment, teacher trainees designed a 50-minute lesson for students aged 16+ on the topic of human trafficking with the aim of raising awareness of the crime of modern-day slavery. The first lesson plan to be adapted by TNP was created by Despina Sarantidou, today a graduate of the BA (Hons) in English Language and Linguistics. This plan is directly targeted at young adults and focuses on vulnerability factors and the manipulative, effective recruitment strategies used by traffickers to recruit both young males and females for CSE. The founder of the campaign explains:

> The collaborative plan will be featured in the first series of free downloadable teaching material soon to be uploaded on The NO Project website. The NO Project would love to hear from any teachers who would like more information either about the free online classroom seminar or from teachers who would like to collaborate on lesson plans. Please contact judy@thenoproject.org to contribute your own teaching materials to this cause. Any educator can join The NO Project in an effort to raise awareness of modern-day slavery. (J. Boyle, personal communication, April 17, 2017)

Starting your own initiative in collaboration with colleagues worldwide can also make your voice resonate loudly and strongly. An example of such initiative is the Holocaust project I have been involved in together with Mark Andrews and Adam Janiszewski. The project was initiated on the occasion of the International Holocaust Memorial Day, designated by the UN on 27 January, the anniversary of the liberation of the Auschwitz death camp. I worked with students in Greece, Mark worked with students in Hungary, and Adam worked with his groups in Poland. The results of the project have been published on the Global Issues Special Interest Group's website under the title *ELT for Social Justice: Addressing the Issue of the Holocaust*. I started my personal account as follows:

> I was born and raised in Lublin, Poland. My family home is within a walking distance of 15 minutes from what is known today as Majdanek National Museum, but between the years 1941 and 1944 operated as a concentration and death camp. I have been asked a number of times: what was it like to be growing up so close to the "cemetery of Europe" (Aleksander Ford). The weird, and possibly scary, thing is that it was very normal. (Andrews, Kosior, & Janiszewski, 2016)

It is this normality that motivated me to get involved in the project. Any kind of social injustice scares or shocks us when we observe it for the first time, but we often gradually get used to it and we stop noticing it. Knowing that history tends to repeat itself, the authors of the article hope that the message reaches as many educators worldwide as possible, and through them as many young people as possible: We have the power to create a better future, but only if we all speak up against social injustice.

Challenges and solutions

Introducing global issues into an English language classroom for the first time is not always easy; after all, no change is plain sailing. Teachers frequently find it difficult to decide which topics they can discuss with their students in class. All too well acquainted with the list of PARSNIPs, controversial topics in the English language classrooms, they more often than not avoid discussions on the topics of politics, alcohol, religion, sex, narcotics, -isms (such as capitalism, feminism, or sexism) and pork; a practice which Gray (2002) refers to as sanitisation of content. Except for the unease experienced by some English language teachers, many students may feel uncomfortable as well, stating personal opinions and discussing certain debatable or sensitive topics. Such inhibitions may have been caused by a variety of reasons ranging from personal ones to a more general lack of ability to take a stand in a discussion. In their research on discussing controversial topics in the classroom, Lusk and Weinberg (1994) arrived at the following conclusions:

> [...] students arrive in the classroom with a combination of the following inhibitions: 1) they are uncomfortable about conflict in general, in or outside the classroom; 2) they are concerned with how their peers will perceive them if they voice anything but "middle-of-the-road" views on controversial topics; 3) they expect to receive lower grades if they disagree with their professors in class. (p. 301)

While some students are unwilling to participate in classroom discussions on certain topics and prefer to remain silent, others may express extreme views putting others in a difficult position. Reactions from students and parents can be expected and, therefore, thorough preparation on the part of the teacher is required. Therefore, teachers' choices and decisions may, according to Ruas (2017), depend on aspects, such as their teaching contexts and geographical location, the age and educational background of the students, but also on the needs and interests of the learners. "It may also, however, be related to what materials are available and how much experience you have in preparing and using your own materials" (Ruas, 2017, p. 3).

Regardless of the challenges, by no means should social injustice remain taboo. According to the toolkit titled *Teaching Sensitive or Controversial Topics* compiled by the University of Sheffield (n.d.), "careful planning and management plays a particularly crucial role when teaching and learning involves students discussing sensitive or controversial issues". This involves getting to know your students well before introducing a potentially difficult topic and foreseeing their reactions to it. Other steps include, but are not limited to, setting clear outcomes for the session and announcing them to the students, facilitating a balanced discussion in which everybody can voice their opinion if they can justify it soundly, and handling each topic with the sensitivity it deserves. Asking students for reflection after the session will help improve the teaching practice and the learning experience in the future (The University of Sheffield, n.d.). A similar tip sheet has been complied by Moore and Deshaies (2012), and it includes the necessary steps, such as setting the stage (i.e., creating a supportive environment in which students will feel safe and comfortable sharing their opinions), recognising your own biases or confusion surrounding certain topics, recognising the diversity of your students, or setting a clear framework for the discussion. Similarly to Lusk and Weinberg (1994), Moore and Deshaies (2012) remind teachers that they should "make sure students understand that it is okay to disagree, but keep comments focused on the *ideas* and not the *people* who share their ideas." Keeping these in mind will allow a meaningful discussion and foster civility in the classroom.

A more practical challenge educators may face regards the availability, or rather the unavailability, of teaching and learning resources tackling difficult topics. The aforementioned PARSNIP principle puts constrains on authors' writing materials for conventional coursebooks. Luckily, however, more and more educators and materials writers currently step out of their comfort zone and create (and publish) ready-to-use materials for global education in the English language classroom. An indicative list of recommended publications can be found in the Appendix.

Conclusion

The purpose of this article was first to briefly present the rationale behind incorporating social issues into ELT; then, to recommend specific teaching ideas and practical strategies. Finally, the article discussed challenges related to adopting the global approach to foreign language teaching and suggested ways to respond to these challenges.

Existing research and evidence indicate that there are sound reasons for making global education a common practice in ELT. The selection of teaching ideas presented in the paper and the resources with ready-to-use activities recommended can hopefully convince even the more sceptical teachers that there is room for difficult topics and truly meaningful discussions in the English language classroom. Undeniably, the challenges faced by educators willing to embrace global education are numerous and finding solutions requires time and effort, and commitment to the cause. If we look beyond these challenges, though, there is hope; there is hope that if we stop just teaching but start educating, we will awaken a power hidden in the youth. If we enable students to understand better how the modern world functions and equip them with the necessary knowledge, skills and values, they will be able to confront both local and global problems. Last but not least, an educator should keep their eyes and ears open as there is no better source of teaching materials than real life itself, but also, echoing the Dalai Lama's words, have faith in the potential of an individual to make a global change: "I, for one, truly believe that individuals can make a difference in society (...). It is up to each of us to make the best use of our time to help create a happier world" (Gyatso, Quaki, & Benson, 1999, p. 161).

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Appendix

A list of recommended publications

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