

Educational Linguistics

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Essential Competencies for English-medium University Teaching



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Educational Linguistics

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Editors

Essential Competencies for English-medium University Teaching

 Springer

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Foreword

English has become the most important and widespread language of instruction across the higher education landscape, as universities push to internationalise and to compete in the global higher education market through facilitating student and staff mobility. Since the turn of the millennium, there has been exponential growth in English-medium academic instruction in non-Anglophone settings, where more and more universities now offer degree programmes taught wholly or partly in English for home, international and exchange students or where universities from Anglophone countries have set up transnational overseas campuses operating entirely in English. At the same time, universities in Anglophone countries seek to attract increasing numbers of international students from a variety of linguistic and cultural backgrounds who clearly need to possess the competencies to cope with academic and daily life in English. Understandably, the ubiquitous presence of English across higher education today gives rise to much critical debate pertaining to issues such as entry requirements, assessment, standards, varieties, academic literacies, resources and support where students' English language skills are concerned (for detailed discussion, see Murray 2016).

Whatever the complex outcomes of such debate across the internationalised higher education landscape, university teachers (whether we teach academic content, English skills or both) face a fundamental pedagogical and ethical concern. This concern is to nurture our own students' capacities to engage effectively with their academic and professional discipline areas through English and their capacities to continue developing their skills and knowledge (including English skills and knowledge) in response to changing needs and circumstances in the future. In other words, we have a pedagogical responsibility not simply to teach content or language or to make academic content linguistically accessible but more importantly to stimulate the attitude of mind, ways of thinking and 'will and skill' (McCombs and Marzano 1990) needed for students to be able to take meaningful charge of their own learning now and into their future personal and professional lives. These are the core pedagogical concerns under focus in this volume, framed in terms of four essential competencies of *critical thinking*, *creativity*, *autonomy* and *motivation*. What is perhaps striking about these competencies is that they clearly have relevance

beyond English-medium academic instruction, or rather they have relevance for students in all categories, regardless of whether English is an additionally acquired language for them or not. These are essential competencies for effective personal engagement in academic studies in all contexts. This means that, if students who have acquired English as an additional language are enabled to develop these essential and transferable competencies, they will be cognitively and motivationally advantaged (rather than linguistically disadvantaged) in the quality of their learning and academic engagement in English-medium university settings.

Viewed in this light, the theoretical and pedagogical insights contained in this collection have potentially significant implications for our practice as teachers in English-medium universities and, through us, for the quality of learning that all our students experience and achieve.

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Ruth Breeze (MA, MA (Ed), PhD) is a senior lecturer in English at the University of Navarra, Spain, and a member of the GradUN Research Group in the *Instituto de Cultura y Sociedad*. She has researched and published widely in the area of discourse analysis applied to media language and specialised discourse. Her most recent books are *Rethinking Academic Writing Pedagogy for the European University* (Rodopi, 2012) and *Corporate Discourse* (Bloomsbury, 2015). She is also co-editor of various collected volumes, including *Interpersonality in Legal Genres* (Peter Lang, 2014), *Theory and Practice in CLIL* (Rodopi, 2014) and *Evaluation in Media Discourse: European Perspectives* (Peter Lang, 2016). Her interest in teaching in English in expanding circle countries stems from her own involvement in the internationalisation process in European universities. She has designed and led courses and workshops for university lecturers in Spain and Slovakia who are involved in implementing international programmes and/or starting to give content courses in English. She has also researched on how taking courses in an L2 affects student performance and on appropriate admissions criteria for EMI programmes.

Francis Cornish gained a PhD in linguistics in 1982 from the University of Sussex, UK, and in 1997, a postdoctoral degree in the language sciences from the University of Toulouse II, France, where he was professor of English linguistics in the Studies of the Anglophone World Department from 2004 to 2011. Prior to this, he lectured in general linguistics (syntax) in the Language Sciences Department at the same university (1995–2004) and in the UK in French language and French and general and applied linguistics at the University of Kent (1976–1994), as well as briefly at the University of Sussex (1974–1976). He currently acts as handling editor on the editorial board of the French linguistics journal *French Language Studies* (CUP) and is a member of the advisory board of the online French linguistics journal *Discours*. Francis Cornish is now retired but maintains links with his host university (Université de Toulouse Jean Jaurès) as emeritus professor. He is the author of two books on anaphora in English and French within a discourse context and has written numerous articles and chapters in edited volumes on anaphora and deixis, reading in a foreign language, agreement and text and discourse structure, as well as information structure, reference, predication and the lexical semantics-syntax interface.

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Joseph Falout researches, publishes and presents internationally about educational psychology of language learning and teaching, with an interest towards pedagogical applications. Papers include 'Coping with Demotivation: EFL Learners' Remotivation Strategies' in *TESL-EJ*, 'Demotivation: Affective States and Learning Outcomes' in *System*, 'Forming Pathways of Belonging: Social Inclusion for Teachers Abroad' in *Native-Speakerism in Japan: Intergroup Dynamics in Foreign Language Education*, 'Japanese EFL Learners' Remotivation Strategies' in *Researching Cultures of Learning: International Perspectives on Language Learning and Education* and 'The Social Crux: Motivational Transformations of EFL students in Japan' in *Transnational Higher Education in the Asian Context*. He edits for the *OnCUE Journal*, published by the Japan Association for Language Teaching (JALT), and the *Asian EFL Journal*. His collaborations in teaching and researching include contributions to originating the theoretical and applied foundations of critical participatory looping (CPL) and present communities of imagining (PCOIz). An assistant professor at Nihon University, College of Science and Technology, in Japan, Falout teaches English for academic purposes and English for specific purposes to undergraduate and graduate students. He has also taught English composition and essay writing, public speaking and English as a second language at colleges in the USA.

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David Little retired in 2008 as associate professor of applied linguistics at Trinity College Dublin. His numerous publications and conference presentations on the theory and practice of language learner autonomy have done much to shape international debate. He played a leading role in the Council of Europe's European Language Portfolio project from 1998 to 2010, coordinated two ELP-related projects for the European Centre for Modern Languages between 2004 and 2011 and is a member of several Council of Europe expert groups.

Bill Louw has worked in the Department of English at the University of Zimbabwe, twice as chair, for more than 40 years. In 2015, he was visiting international professor at Coventry University, UK. Bill Louw invented corpus stylistics in 1987, the year in which the first edition of the *Collins Cobuild English Language Dictionary* had reference corpora of 22 million words of running text. Other discoveries followed, all of which involved the digital use of collocation. Contextual prosodic theory began in 2000. He discovered corpus-derived subtext in 2008 and devoted a lecture tour to it in the same year. In the seminal volume *Perspectives on Corpus*

Linguistics, edited by Vander Viana, Sonia Zyngier and Jeff Barnbrook and published by John Benjamins, Bill Louw's work is featured as the only approach to corpus studies that is based upon the philosophy of language and especially on the work of the logical positivists of the Vienna Circle and upon analytic philosophy in general. Bill Louw and Marija Milojkovic have published both jointly and separately since 2010. They published a major article in *The Cambridge Handbook of Stylistics* in 2014 and a separate co-authored volume in 2016, entitled *Corpus Stylistics as Contextual Prosodic Theory and Subtext*. Other applications of their work are to be found in humour studies and business communication.

Alan Maley has been involved with EFL/ESL for some 50 years. He has lived and worked in ten countries, including China, India, Singapore and Thailand. He has published over 40 books and numerous articles. He is a former president of IATEFL. For 20 years, he was series editor of the *Oxford Resource Books for Teachers*. He was a founding member of the Extensive Reading Foundation and is currently helping to found the 'C' group, dedicated to the promotion of creativity in language learning. In 2012, he was presented with the ELT Lifetime Achievement Award. His main professional interests are currently in creative writing, literature, creative materials design and the dynamics of teacher-student interaction. He writes poetry and stories for a hobby.

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Introduction: Making Essential Competencies Visible in Higher Education

Carmen Sancho Guinda and Ruth Breeze

Abstract This introductory chapter states the motivation underlying the present volume, describes its goals and structure, and examines the challenges posed by the Bologna Process with regard to the encouragement of lifelong competencies in English-medium instruction within the European Higher Education Area. In addition, the editors justify their choice of *critical thinking*, *creativity*, *learner autonomy* and *motivation* as essential competencies, highlight their interconnection, and explain the educational premises that bind the collection together, which is intended to inform and inspire not only European lecturers, but also university teachers all over the world. Finally, the implications of fostering lifelong competencies in English as a second language or lingua franca are discussed. These include, along with linguistic proficiency, mastering the genres and discourses of the discipline and their associated stylistic conventions and rhetorical variants, as well as methodological changes for ensuring interactive learning and making language more salient than when teaching in the first language. Lastly, a closing reflection on pedagogical options and dilemmas is provided.

Keywords English-medium university teaching • Essential lifelong competencies • Critical thinking • Creativity • Learner autonomy • Motivation

Why publish this book? First, the issue of teaching competencies¹ has been in the spotlight ever since the European Parliament and the Council of the European Union

¹Following Thornbury (2006, pp. 38–39), by ‘competency’ we understand the framework or combination of knowledge, abilities, mindsets and behaviours needed to teach or train in a specific practical skill and that lead to successful performance, whereas ‘competence’ denotes our internalised knowledge of a certain field or concept.

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launched their *Recommendation for key lifelong learning competences*² in 2006, yet many university teachers have been at a loss as to *how* to promote such key competencies in the classroom. This change in paradigm, furthered through the ongoing implementation of the Bologna Declaration (1999) in most European countries, has come at a time when the pressure to teach in English to encourage student mobility and raise the prestige of our institutions has also placed increasing demands on university teachers. The challenge is thus often a double one: we need to update our teaching methodology, and we need to do this in English. It is therefore important to gain a deeper understanding of what teaching competencies means, while also integrating this into the perspective of English-medium instruction (hereafter EMI)³ in higher education. If we start by examining the European *Recommendation*, one of the first things that might strike us is the flexible, cross-disciplinary and transferable nature of those competencies, and also certain areas of overlap that mainly concern *creativity, critical thinking, motivation and autonomy*. This amalgam of ‘knowledge, skills and attitudes appropriate to the context’ (European Parliament and the Council 2006) is essential to achieving personal fulfillment and development, social inclusion, active citizenship and employability.

The European Reference Framework proposed by the European Union (European Parliament and the Council 2006) speaks of the ability to *interpret* concepts, thoughts, opinions, feelings and intercultural nuances when referring to the competencies needed to communicate in the mother tongue and in a foreign language, of *problem-solving* as a basic aspect of the mathematical, scientific and technological competencies, and of a *critical use* of information in the exercise of digital prowess. It also mentions being able to *motivate oneself and regulate one’s own learning process* to become a proficient learner, the *creative transmission* of ideas, experiences and emotions to become culturally aware and articulate, and the need for *creativity, innovation* and risk-taking to acquire a sense of initiative and entrepreneurship. In sum, the four competencies dealt with in this volume provide the foundations for the ‘education for the future’ enunciated by Delors et al. (1996): learning to know, to do, to live together and with others, to be, and to learn. Within this framework, we aim to gather and disseminate concrete and visible lines of pedagogical action to stimulate creativity, critical thinking, autonomy and motivation in higher education, going one step beyond the general guidelines provided by renowned educational scholars such as Bain (2006), Cowan (2006) or Hattie (2012).

A second reason for publishing this collection is that we do not want to confine our scope to Europe but rather turn our gaze to the experiences, knowledge and proposals of colleagues from other continents. Although most of our authors are

²The European Reference Framework (European Parliament and the Council 2006) defines in its Annex eight key competences to be pursued throughout life in order to keep learning over one’s lifetime: communication in the mother tongue, communication in foreign languages, mathematical competence and basic competences in science and technology, digital competence, social and civic competences, sense of initiative and entrepreneurship, cultural awareness and expression, and learning-to-learn, which underpins all the others.

³For a more detailed definition of this concept, namely of its CBL and CLIL patterns, see footnotes 3 and 4 in this introduction.

applied linguists who investigate language and education or teach English for academic or specific professional purposes (fields known as EAP and ESP), we think that their expertise may also inspire content instructors, encourage reflection on classroom practices and open up fresh avenues for research. This volume is intended to clarify and refine notions, expose false myths, update readers with recent advances in the state-of-the-art, and share classroom strategies, suggestions, tools and findings related to each of the four competencies addressed, which have traditionally either been taken for granted (i.e. taught or learnt intuitively) or tackled separately, theoretically and under a monocultural perspective.

1 The Spirit of this Initiative and its Contributions

To integrate theory and practice we have organized the work into four sections, each devoted to one of the four competencies. Each section has an introductory chapter that explains concepts accessibly and synthetically with operational definitions, summarizes the state of the art and indicates current sites of debate. This is followed by three or four ‘practitioner chapters’ written by teachers and scholars from different cultures and higher education contexts, which provide guidance, effective procedures or cutting-edge research for English-medium university teaching. Our point of departure brings together a series of premises: the conception of teaching and learning as holistic, dialogic, supportive, collaborative and inherently creative processes (Hattie 2012; DeZutter 2011), which are learner- and community-centred and have to be negotiated between teachers and students and reflected upon (Cowan 2006) by both collectivities so as to take action. Like Bain (2006), we believe that knowledge is not received or transmitted one-way but co-constructed, and following Feynman (2000) and Hattie (2012), we hold that, in addition to being evaluators and facilitators, we teachers are activators of change who can increase activity and transform habits of thought and mental attitudes.

Pursuing this objective, we should foster collaborative environments and diverse learning experiences, devise task structures rather than tell, and flee the hackneyed metaphors of ‘the sage on the stage’ and ‘teaching as performance’, according to which students are assigned the passive role of ‘audience’ and not of ‘fellow ensemble’ in what Sawyer (2004) terms the ‘classroom choreography’. Another assumption we adopt is that there are multiple ways of knowing (i.e. verbal, visual and multimedia channels), interacting (i.e. stories, sample cases, conflict or problem solving, deep reasoning, etc.), and practising (i.e. opportunities that can be more or less framed or spontaneous). Furthermore, we understand the essential competencies studied here as dynamic and relative, because they vary with disciplines, contexts, learning media (see for example Hafner et al. this volume) and are perceived differently through the teachers’ or the students’ lenses (see Cremin, this volume). All in all, the philosophy running through this chapter compilation is that teaching and learning may be improvisational as well as structured, and along these lines we endorse and try to elaborate on Sawyer’s (2004, 2011) thesis that what makes good

teachers great is ‘disciplined improvisation’, and illustrate our attempt with a range of initiatives, empirical findings and teaching instances.

A last premise is that none of the competencies occurs in a vacuum: as we perceived in the European Council’s recommendation, and have also learnt from a number of researchers, they are intertwined and feed into one another in a circular relationship. Motivation, for one, is a component of creativity (Sternberg and Lubart 1995), which requires a favourable environment with obstacles to surmount, and a threshold level of analytical ability to recognize challenges and evaluate the feasibility, applicability and efficacy of solutions (Renzulli 1986). In turn, thinking creatively does motivate learners (Amabile 1997), while it also requires autonomy and a willingness to reject conformity and stand up independently for one’s unconventional ideas (Simonton 2003). Likewise, by means of critical thinking we create a mental map of reality (Leicester 2010), which can help us gain autonomy and consequently motivation: originality and imagination are traits of critical thinking (Leicester 2010; Moore 2011), which involves envisaging alternatives and imagining or predicting what situations might be like. Conversely, creativity cannot exist without the active intervention of the ‘triarchic mind’ (Sternberg 1988) – that is, the analytical, synthetic and practical processing elements of intelligence that enable us to obtain information, make decisions and adapt to the world. In fact, many a scholar has emphasized the link between creativity and critical thinking in educational models and frameworks: as early as the 1950s, Guilford (1956) theorized that creativity comprises reasoning in general, problem finding and solving, evaluation, and other factors such as fluency (the ability to spark a large number of ideas), flexibility (the ability to make connections between unrelated concepts), originality (the ability to make unique contributions), and categorization (the ability to group ideas together or separate them). Fredericks (2005) adds to this list the concept of ‘elaboration’, whereby we are able to manipulate an idea and work on it until it is well formed. Recently, it has been argued (Sawyer 2011) that creativity does not end with the fully formed idea but must include its implementation as well. Creative or divergent thinking, it seems, is a subset of critical thinking (Halpern 2010) and actually much literature on critical thought includes chapters on thinking creatively. Innovative approaches today, therefore, involve their joint introduction in curricula (Fairweather and Cramond 2010) and explicit instruction, because nowadays “students need permission and directions to be creative” (Halpern 2010, p. 391) and creativity is simultaneously a ‘habit’ of the mind and ‘a matter of ability’ (Sternberg 2010, p. 412). This intersection of creative and critical thinking, called by Craft (2010, p. 295) ‘possibility thinking’, is a space of conjecture shared by teachers and students, and embraces question-posing, exploration, connection-making, imagination, evaluation, risk-taking, and critical reflection. We wanted the contents of this volume to evolve precisely from this intersection, with critical thinking as the governing competency that alerts us to the need to be creative and autonomous and motivate ourselves, evaluates our plans and performances as creative, autonomous, motivating or critical, and is in itself a critical act that may motivate and confer autonomy. Hence, it is introduced first.

Whereas a great deal of critical thinking syllabi and materials are focused on questioning, reflection and rational argumentation (i.e. the distinction between

types of arguments and the detection, through reflective scepticism, of argumentative fallacies, biased reasoning, hidden agendas and implicit assumptions), few aim at self-reflectivity and stance-taking – that is to say, at meta-reflection or ‘thinking about thinking’, decision-making and the construction of one’s own point of view, judgement and the extrapolation of elements and aspects to other texts and contexts. Arguments appear to be the ultimate purpose of critical thinking, when in fact they should be just one more ‘means of inquiry’ (Weston 2009, p. xi). In our first section, Tim Moore’s overview clearly delimits the multiplicity of abilities encompassed by critical thinking and makes the case for a ‘transdisciplinary pedagogy’ to seek critical thinking connections across disciplines. This approach, already outlined in his 2011 monograph *Critical thinking and language*, is intermediate between the generalist and the discourse-based specificist visions taught so far. Moore urges us to see critical thinking commonalities as part of a ‘larger whole’ or bigger picture that brings together different strands of knowledge, and notes the multifarious nature of the concept (there is no unitary definition), its variability, and the importance of background knowledge. Further, he distinguishes between teaching the competency in pre-tertiary and concurrent EAP contexts, the latter more suited for disciplinary task-based methodologies, and profiles three chief foci: skills, ethics, and evaluative language.

The three practitioner chapters following combine the skills and language-of-evaluation outlooks and are embedded in disciplinary instruction, particularly in science popularizations, business and technology, and foreign language acquisition, although they could be easily adaptable to generalist teaching and learning alike. The contributions by Ruth Breeze and David Rear facilitate strategy maps for questioning reflection. Breeze’s procedure serves to hone students’ intercultural awareness, and with it their concept of an audience, through careful and sensitive writing (i.e. reorganizing and reformulating local information according to the needs of a broader readership) and establishes routines to question the validity of strategies via peer feedback. Similarly, Rear’s six-step training for debate builds on interpretation and analysis, evaluation, inference, explanation and self-regulation, through which students appraise the strengths and weaknesses in their performances. This six-step roadmap not only provides a taxonomy of skills to explicitly help students know what critical thinking entails, but also underscores the language skills inherent in each of them, so often underestimated in discussions by non-native students, as an integral part of critical thought. The section concludes precisely with the reverse approach: a linguistic orientation that unfolds several thinking skills to interpret and appropriately choose certain lexicogrammatical items – indexicals. Francis Cornish’s concern is to improve the metadiscursive awareness of non-native speakers of English and assist them in decoding and encoding indexical references (i.e. deixis, anadeixis and anaphora). With this target in mind he provides a set of standard guidelines for non-literary genres, grounded in the distinction between ‘text’, ‘context’ and ‘discourse’ and pivoting around the discernment of a text’s rhetorical superstructure, discourse structure and topic chains. His model departs from previous textualist views and regards discourse – inevitably rooted in context – as the central factor for making meaning, above textual coherence or cohesion. This valuable study expands the horizons of critical thinking as it suggests fascinating

research into multiculturalism (the lower or higher tolerance of indexical ambiguity displayed by a given language or register, be it a sociolect, technolect, dialect or jargon) and issues of misinterpretation, manipulation and social control due to indexical fuzziness.

In his opening chapter to the next section, dedicated to creativity, Alan Maley introduces this competency by examining its features, providing strategies to encourage it, and suggesting untapped areas and feeder fields worthy of exploration. He additionally underlines the impact of creativity in class management, motivation, the use of space and time, and learning outside the classroom, and points to changes in content perspective, classroom habits, teaching style and pace, and the re-exploration of traditional practices as potential sites of creative action. In her practitioner chapter, Teresa Cremin highlights the difference between ‘teaching creatively’ and ‘teaching for creativity’, two closely related undertakings that are not always coincident, although fostering creativity tends to be accomplished creatively. She reminds us of the major types of creativity (historical, every-day, personal and professional), stresses the importance of knowledge, and contrasts the students’ views on creativity with those of lecturers, replacing the ‘sage on the stage’ and ‘guide on the side’ images of teaching by a ‘meddlers in the middle’ attitude. The next three chapters turn to digital technologies and a variety of tasks to enhance creative learning: Christoph A. Hafner, Lindsay Miller and Connie Kwai Fun Ng apply scientific documentary-making to an ESP course at a university in Hong Kong and spur students’ creativity to arouse in them sensitivity to audience and meta-reflection through the use of two distinct genres and channels: the multimodal video and the written report, whose respective affordances demand different degrees of creativity according to the learners’ perceptions. Lastly, the corpus-based empirical research conducted by Marija Milojkovic and Bill Louw at the University of Belgrade closes the section. It probes lexico-grammatical collocational creativity drawing on the philosophical principles of the Vienna Circle to scrutinize the performance of native and non-native English-speaking students, and identifies three mechanisms of deviation from the native norm, namely the existence of prospection, the frequency of reference lexical collocates and semantic prosody.

The concept of learner autonomy has been central to debates on higher education since the 1960s, but has gathered momentum in the last 10 years. As the European *Recommendation* emphasizes, since universities aim to prepare learners for life, they should equip students to take control of their own lifelong learning process. To do this, universities need to foster not only academic and intellectual competencies, but also personal and interpersonal skills. The section on autonomy sets out the theoretical background as it relates to English-medium higher education, and provides stimulating examples of how this objective can be operationalized. Starting from the specific field of language learning, David Little’s introductory chapter traces how the interest in promoting learner autonomy dates back to influential work by Holec in the 1970s and 1980s (Holec 1981). Holec argued that if learners themselves were able to determine the content of language learning and set their own goals, their learning would be at once more meaningful and more effective. However, the ability to take charge of one’s own learning is not innate, but must be fostered by

the educational system by restructuring our students' experience so that they gradually take greater responsibility for their own progress. At the same time, other visions of autonomy were developing that presented very different dynamics. Famously, Dam's work with teenage students showed how the teacher plays an important role in guiding students and managing the learning environment, and also underlined the vital role of interaction with other learners (Dam 1995). Little argues that the principles at work in autonomous language learning at different levels can be successfully applied to English medium instruction, providing such programmes are redesigned to take account of the role of language and the needs of learners.

The practical chapters in this section amply demonstrate the different ways in which university EMI programmes can promote learner autonomy in language learning. The first three practical chapters look in detail at specific projects designed to foster autonomy, one based on class projects, the others on distance learning platforms. Miriam Symon's chapter documents how carefully structured group projects can be used to promote language and transversal skills in different subject areas. Teachers must organize these projects carefully to ensure that appropriate guidance and support are available, but should then act as facilitators, allowing students to take control of their own work. The role of the teacher in accompanying students is fundamental in helping them to develop their own learning approaches. She concludes that control needs to be transferred to students, but that the learning experience will be shaped by an ongoing process of negotiation. Teachers, too, need to monitor their own actions and reconsider the strategies that they use. In her chapter, Elisabet Arnó considers learner autonomy in the context of distance learning, centring her attention on how students manage their tasks in such settings, what strategies they use, and to what extent they reflect on their language learning process. She notes that students take an active role in steering and monitoring activities, and that collaboration appears to play an important role in developing autonomy in this setting. Students not only deploy a wide range of strategies to carry out the tasks, but they also create a sense of community at a distance, and reflect on their own learning. The chapter by Kenneth Ong and Sujata S. Kathpalia focuses on the way learners interact in order to learn in online settings. Their empirical study of online knowledge construction in multi-party quasi-synchronous chat illustrates how argumentation influences floor management, and sheds light on four interrelated dimensions of collaborative learning: participation, argumentation, and the epistemic and social dimensions. They propose ways in which students can be helped to manage the 'floor' in online discussion, to ensure optimal autonomous learning experiences.

The last two chapters in this section explore the introduction of a more autonomous learning paradigm in traditional university contexts in Algeria and Spain, and look at the way teachers and students respond to this change. In her study based on interviews with Algerian university teachers, Faiza Bensemmane explains the various issues that arise as teachers attempt to change the paradigm, not least the question of student expectations concerning the authoritative role of the teacher, and the need for reflexive practice and peer support. To meet these challenges, she suggests that teachers themselves should try to develop greater autonomy: an autonomous

teacher has the capacity to transform the reality in which she or he lives, rather than reproducing the system he or she has inherited. The teachers she interviewed appeared to be engaging in the co-construction of new understandings of the teaching and learning processes, and thereby building a greater shared awareness of the need to promote autonomy. Finally, in a transitional chapter between this section and the next, bridging the notions and practices of autonomy and motivation, Ruth Wilkinson describes a project intended to help learners take greater responsibility for their own learning. The measures she introduces include: self-assessment and goal-setting, choice of learning materials, peer-review of written and oral work, peer instruction, and the use of a learning-to-learn portfolio, as well as periodic, structured reflections. She finds that the choice of learning materials proves to be fundamental in transforming student motivation. Other aspects, such as self-assessment, goal-setting, and reflection, are a cause of anxiety in some students, and often require teacher support in the initial stages. She concludes that in the long term, small moves in the direction of fostering greater autonomy will help students build a stronger sense of agency and a more positive self-image.

The last section in this volume explores the crucial issue as to how motivation can be enhanced and maintained in English-medium learning situations. Motivation – defined as the energising force which drives an individual to engage in an action, put effort into this action and maintain this effort (Dörnyei 1998) – has been amply researched, but still presents considerable challenges to practitioners at all levels of education. Lindy Woodrow’s introduction provides a concise overview of motivation theory in the context of language learning, from early work by Gardner in the 1950s, through self-directed and process models, to the current panorama dominated by researchers such as Dörnyei (Dörnyei 1998; Dörnyei and Ushioda 2009; Dörnyei et al. 2015). Development in this area can be understood as a move from a linear view of motivation to a more complex understanding of interrelated learning and contextual variables. Current trends take a situated approach to research into motivation, encompassing the educational, cultural and social dimensions of language learning and use. On the one hand, we are now aware of the power of imagination in projecting possible selves. On the other, we have seen that motivation, rather than being a constant, is often better understood as a confluence of factors which can spur learners on to high achievement for a specific period of time. This leads to an increasing realisation of the importance of the ‘Directed Motivational Current’ (DMC), defined as “a potent motivational surge that emerges from the alignment of a number of personal, temporal and contextual factors/parameters, creating momentum to pursue an individually defined future goal/vision that is personally significant and emotionally satisfying”, which “captures the contingent, limited, yet powerful nature of motivation in the real world, and provides a tool for understanding how to harness this force” (Dörnyei et al. 2014, p. 103). Such ‘currents’ need to be harnessed to engage students in effective and meaningful learning processes in the short and medium term.

The four practical chapters in this section deal with different aspects of motivation in our target context. Fukada, Murphey, Falout and Fukuda draw on Dynamic Systems Theory (Ellis and Larsen-Freeman 2009) to look at the development of

student motivation over 3 years, in what they term ‘present communities of imagining’. They thus explore how L2 learners’ motivations are co-constructed socially, while they also develop on an individual (mental) level. By investigating student motivation and looping self-information back to the students themselves, these researchers helped to create healthier ‘Socially Intelligent Dynamic Systems’ within the classroom and student group. In their view, this reflexive procedure stimulated positive growth in their students’ mind-time frames of English-learning motivation. It thus helped not only to generate a more positive attitude within the classroom, but also to project more powerful imagined future selves that spurred greater confidence and more focused learning. In her chapter on the crucial role of authenticity in motivation, Christine Jernigan looks at various aspects of authenticity in English medium higher education, centring on the role of the teacher, the type of material used, and the links forged with the world beyond the classroom. First, teachers need to build authentic relationships with those they teach. In her view, if students perceive that their teacher is not giving of him/herself, they are not as willing to give of themselves. Constructive teaching builds on a genuine relationship between teacher and learners. Second, the materials used should also reflect authenticity, though in quite a different way. The challenges that arise when using realia in the classroom are well known, but should not be insurmountable. Finally, the links between real-world language use and classroom activities have to be reinforced, since the use of genuine materials and tasks based on real-world situations is one of the most powerful motivating factors.

The final two chapters, one by Amos Paran, Fiona Hyland and Clare Bentall, and the other by Linda Weinberg, both address the practical study of motivation, but in very different contexts. One crucial aspect of the university teacher’s role is the supervision of student work, particularly theses and dissertations. Paran, Hyland and Bentall use interviews with course leaders at the University of London to investigate the way students are helped to identify, conduct and write up their research project. Support for students was ensured through a variety of different affordances, including the provision of taught courses on research methodology, the establishment of clear time frames for different stages in the research and writing process, the use of online platforms, and the creation of learning communities. However, these writers stress the role of the supervisor-researcher relationship in providing support to maintain motivation over what may be a long period of time. Supervisors were found to have a key role in specific areas such as conceptualising the research, focusing a broader initial idea, and designing a feasible project – areas where student motivation is liable to flag when appropriate guidance is not available. Paran et al. emphasize the importance of providing both academic and pastoral support, the role of the student’s own peer community, and the need for concrete time frames. Their multidimensional model of thesis supervision also assigns a key role to the course leader in ensuring that structure, timing and support are appropriate to maintain student motivation at this decisive period in their education. Finally, in another empirically-based study, Linda Weinberg looks at learner motivation and self-confidence over a 4-year period in the context of a blended learning course. Although the course challenged learner expectations in various ways, most students managed to adapt, gradually acquiring greater independence as time passed. Their motivation

was mainly instrumental, but there was some evidence that the ‘ideal L2 self’ (Dörnyei 2005) acted as a motivating factor. Various features of the online environment contributed positively to learner motivation and enhanced students’ ability to work more autonomously, which boosted their sense of self-efficacy and increased their motivation. The setting and monitoring of goals, in particular, encouraged learners to acquire a greater degree of self-determination, which ultimately enhances learner motivation (Ushioda 2003).

2 Fostering Essential Competencies in University EMI Contexts: What Does It Really Mean?

The increasing numbers of courses taught through English in higher education across Europe fall into a variety of patterns. Some, such as content-based learning (CBL),⁴ or content and language integrated learning (CLIL),⁵ have a joint focus on learning the language and studying a particular content area. The vast majority, however, are conceptualized by their institutions as simply English Medium Instruction, that is, imparting an area of disciplinary knowledge or a particular series of skills through the medium of English. Arguably, even in these situations, where the language of instruction is felt to be purely instrumental, lecturers have to rethink their teaching methodology in order to meet the challenges of twenty-first century higher education in contexts where English is a second language or *lingua franca*. Lecturing in a second language entails acquiring proficiency in a series of complex discursive practices that may discourage content teachers. And for the students, it means a double cognitive challenge: that of mastering new concepts and practices, but also that of learning the terminology of their field, its characteristic genres and discourses, in what may be for them their second or third language. In other words, students are supposed to assimilate the stylistic and discursive conventions of their target professional community (e.g. the mitigation of scientific claims when disseminating their own research, the expression of steps in a line of mathematical reasoning, etc.) and the text types or rhetorical variants it uses. But who is to teach all this? It has been traditionally assumed, in areas with a shared L1, that students learn these skills and competencies by themselves, often once they are already in the professional arena, and that it is not the content teachers’ job to teach linguistic or communicative issues. Studies such as that of Airey (2012), about Physics lecturers in Sweden, show that this attitude (i.e. ‘I don’t teach language’) predominates in more than one university sector. A number of well-known CLIL

⁴CBL teaching is defined as teaching content in language lessons. Content is used by the teacher as a motivational backdrop to help students acquire language (Dale and Tanner 2012, pp. 4–5).

⁵According to Coyle et al. (2000, p. 1), CLIL is a dual-focus educational approach used for the learning and teaching of both content and language, which are interwoven. Depending on the teaching/learning goal, each may receive more or less emphasis.

specialists,⁶ in contrast, advocate making language and genres salient while teaching content, because every teacher, consciously or not, offers students a linguistic model, which must be as correct as possible, be it of the mother tongue or of any other language. Basturkmen and Shackleford (2015), in particular, posit the need for content teachers to pay special attention to ‘language-related episodes’ during the class, to provide corrective feedback including language issues, or highlight rhetorical sequences and social conventions that affect students’ written and spoken expression. Teaching transversal competencies like the four studied in this book may also underlie some of these episodes, whatever the discipline, since the feedback provided needs to take account, say, of the thinking skills or motivational issues that may have a bearing on the students’ written work or class participation.

The understanding that language is instrumental to learning, and that contents and competencies should be our priority, should in no sense distract us from the reality that proficiency in English will often be the main factor that conditions our students’ employability when they graduate. In most sectors, it is obvious that an intermediate (B1) or basic conversational competence in general English does not suffice. Of course, students need to be able to communicate on everyday topics, but as they progress through their degree course they need increasingly to acquire professional competence in English at a higher level (C1). Ideally, they will be able to use different registers: one more ‘casual’, with which we greet, ask, interrupt, apologize, give orders, thank, criticize, ask for permission and opinion, propose, tell an anecdote, agree or disagree, etc., and another more ‘formal’ to deduce, explain, define, summarize, argue, classify, etc. (Cummins 1996). In some sense, the content teachers in EMI situations are responsible for fostering their students’ acquisition of the latter: they themselves use the more formal, technical language for transmitting content. However, we would argue that content lecturers in EMI should go beyond this, actively promoting students’ language skills and helping to socialize students into the discourses of their target profession.

Finally, we might also think about the EMI teachers’ own language skills, and how their competences in English will impinge on the quality of their classroom performance. There is already a large body of research on teachers’ language in EMI situations which clearly shows that good communication skills and a principled approach to teaching are more important than, say, native-like pronunciation. Clarity is an indisputable must in every kind of teaching and – importantly – does not depend only on the teacher’s command of the language of instruction, his/her articulation, amenity, or natural tendency to digression, but on a series of *organizational measures* as well. Undoubtedly, in the EMI class clarity is achieved through careful pronunciation, strategic use of repetition, a more abundant and significant use of pauses, trans-cultural similes and examples, and more visuals to reinforce learning (Allison and Tauroza 1995; Crawford Camiciottoli 2005; Morell 2004), but it also results from thorough planning. If we pay special attention to

⁶Some of them are Lyster and Ranta (1997), Dafouz and Núñez (2009), Airey (2012), Smit and Dafouz (2012), Ball and Lindsay (2013), Hüttner and Smit (2014), Arnó Maciá and Manchó Barés (2015), and Basturkmen and Shackleford (2015).

designing lessons, to each session's openings and closures, to marking distinctively the transitions between sections and ideas and any topic shift, and to giving enough examples and clarifications when we teach in our L1, we should pay all the more attention to these aspects in EMI. The discursive monopoly of the conventional 'chalk-and-talk' teacher (Mason 1994) is now being displaced to the students, who come to share with him/her the role of expert (at least temporarily), evaluator, controller, and facilitator. They may obtain information and tools from diverse sources, distribute them and present them to others, give peer feedback, and lead discussions. So EMI, in essence, calls for diligent syllabus and lesson planning, for a democratization of tasks and speaking turns to encourage participation and relieve teachers of all the discursive weight (Fortanet 2004; Morell 2007; Musumeci 1996; Nikula 2005). It also requires extreme care in delivering contents clearly, where necessary by applying linguistic adjustments to the audience's culture and linguistic proficiency by means of metadiscourse, significant silence use, visuals, frequent exemplifications and summaries.

Teaching essential competencies in EMI contexts must logically incorporate all of these communicative measures and concurrently should bring to fruition the concept of learning we supported at the beginning of this introduction: a process that is holistic, dialogic, community-centred, and creative. The contributors to this volume have shown us that *creativity* may emanate from teachers and students alike and materialize in the type of contents selected and in the criteria for selecting them, in the use of a certain situation, that is, of space and time, in manipulating genres and transferring knowledge from one genre and medium to another (Ogborn et al. 1996, pp. 14–15), in using tools from specific fields (e.g. linguistic corpora), or in playing with language, exploring lexico-syntactic collocations and their communicative effects. Our authors have also informed us about how we can cultivate a sense of community, through which we will boost motivation and deal more successfully with group work and class projects. In connection with this communal feeling, the combination of students' interdependence and teacher guidance is pivotal to the learners' autonomy and empowers them to have a stronger say in the setting of their learning goals, the choice of the materials they want to work with, and the evaluation and assessment of their own learning. Along the 19 chapters of this book we have uncovered the prominent and complementary roles of planning, imagination and authenticity in this fascinating process, underpinned by critical thinking. Helping develop analytical abilities and staying critical enables both teachers and students to discern reliable information and adjust it to any audience's capabilities and sensitivities, build effective arguments, evaluate, and finally make decisions.

3 Moving Forward

The challenges lying ahead for future initiatives are indeed numerous and complex. Some of them have even triggered heated debate in diverse educational circles. Weighing up our teaching circumstances, we must position ourselves along a

continuum of variables of different kinds. We must strike a balance between domain-specific and domain-general instruction on creative and critical thinking. We must find our own place between teacher-centred or student-centred learning, promote appropriate levels of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation, favour ensemble or solitary creativity, and modulate the degree of supervision in autonomous work and the input of content knowledge in order to foster critical and creative skills. It has been argued (Skiba et al. 2010) that domain-general approaches ignore students' progress in the specific tasks and problems they will encounter in their professional lives, that it is not possible to teach content-free thinking skills (Baer and Garrett 2010), and that interactional creativity is what prepares learners for the globalized economy of our time (Sawyer 2011). On the other hand, however, there are voices that claim that an expert level of content knowledge may cause tunnel vision, narrow thinking and entrenchment (Frensch and Sternberg 1989), and that group dynamics may hinder creative potential, mostly because of a fear of negative evaluation by fellow members, dominance by certain individuals, or group-thinking and group-agree phenomena (Williams and Yang 1999).

Added to all these options and dilemmas, the electronic technologies now at hand allow us to be critical and creative in our selection of teaching methods and pace. Knowledge no longer needs to be passed on face-to-face and its acquisition may take place at a distance and involve multicultural groups of learners, who may take advantage of tireless computerized tutorials and practise their abilities in virtual worlds where the visuospatial representation of problems and professional situations simulates reality with amazing accuracy. Also, thanks to hyperlinks and interactive programs, the simpler facts and procedures do not necessarily need to be learnt in a pre-determined order, and students may manage their own learning process flexibly within negotiated constraints and frames. Whatever our choices, we should strive to nurture the 'cross-fertilization' (Sternberg 2010, pp. 409–410) of students' thinking across disciplines and subjects, and allow them time and chances to learn from their mistakes. We hope that the insights provided by this book will make a small contribution towards transforming our daily practice.

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Part I
Critical Thinking

On the Teaching of Critical Thinking in English for Academic Purposes

Tim J. Moore

Abstract The teaching of critical thinking is seen as a key component of many English for Academic Purposes programmes. There is a degree of uncertainty and confusion, however, first about how critical thinking is best understood, and then how our conceptualizations of it might translate into coherent programmes for students. The chapter identifies three distinct strands of thinking about critical thinking in the literature: a skills approach, an ethics approach, and a “language of evaluation” approach. A critical discussion of these approaches is provided, alongside some recent empirical research into critical practices across a range of discipline areas. It is suggested that the framing of critical thinking curricula needs to be guided by a number of broad principles arising from this research, namely: that critical thinking typically takes in a variety of discursive practices; that the types of critical judgements students need to make are subject to a good deal of variation; that the quality of these critical judgements is strongly related to the degree of knowledge students have of the entities they need to consider. The chapter concludes with some practical advice about how these principles might be given effect in the design of English for Academic Purposes programmes, both in pre-sessional and concurrent contexts.

Keywords Critical thinking • English for academic purposes • Disciplinary discourses • Generic skills • Critical theory • Evaluation • Knowledge

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1 Introduction

In an important article that appeared in *TESOL Quarterly* some 15 years ago – ‘A critical approach to critical thinking in TESOL’ – the author, Dwight Atkinson, noted an emerging interest in critical thinking within the teaching of English for Academic Purposes (EAP). Atkinson (1997) observed at the time that, whereas interest in the concept had previously been confined to L1 education contexts, the signs were increasingly there that the idea was beginning to take hold within “the realm of TESOL” (p. 71). While acknowledging the emerging influence of critical thinking within the field, Atkinson was keen at the time to sound a few cautionary notes. Chief among these was his concern that too many ready assumptions were being made about the nature of the construct, and that some versions of critical thinking being taken up in the profession appeared excessively “reductive and exclusivist” in their approach (p. 72). In short, Atkinson was concerned that the idea was being embraced by some in a less than “critical” way.

One and a half decades on, it is fair to say that the concept has become well and truly entrenched in thinking about education at all levels. As all who teach in higher education contexts know, the idea has received major impetus from its inclusion as a key “graduate attribute” in the educational missions of many institutions (Barrie and Prosser 2004). Within TESOL contexts, these attributes have had a major shaping effect on the design of EAP curricula, with critical thinking now viewed increasingly as an essential component of many programmes (Dooley 2010). But even though there is widespread acceptance of the need to incorporate some version of critical thinking within EAP course design, some of the earlier queries and doubts expressed by Atkinson remain. Foremost among these is continuing uncertainty about how critical thinking is best understood, and then how our conceptualizations of it might translate into coherent programmes for students.

In this chapter I consider some of the difficulties and challenges that continue to surround the elusive critical thinking grail. As part of the discussion, I consider both the contribution and limitations of some of the teaching approaches currently adopted in the profession. I also describe some discipline-based research I pursued in the mid-2000s to help to get some clarity around the idea. The chapter concludes with some suggestions for how the teaching of critical thinking might be pursued in EAP contexts. I draw a distinction here between pre-sessional and concurrent contexts, where the issues and challenges facing practitioners appear to be of a different order.

2 Different Approaches to the Teaching of Critical Thinking

In the burgeoning of materials and programmes that have been developed in recent times to address this concept, it is possible, I believe, to identify three main approaches – what I have called the *skills* approach, the *ethics* approach and the

language of evaluation approach. In this section, I provide a brief description of each approach, along with an account of some of their essential differences.

2.1 *The Skills Approach*

What I call the skills approach has not emerged out of traditions of language teaching per se, but is associated more with some branches of the teaching of analytical philosophy. Also known as informal logic, the skills approach conceives of critical thinking as a finite set of cognitive operations, ones that can be taught as an object of study in their own right. Related to this is the notion that these skills are of a general, universal nature, and thus have applicability across academic domains and disciplines (Norris 1992).

Probably the most influential figure within this strand is Robert Ennis, an American philosopher of education who has been writing about critical thinking for upwards of 50 years. In his work, Ennis has sought to articulate a clear and usable definition of the term, and to build around this a cogent pedagogical framework. Though undergoing a number of iterations over the years, his definition of critical thinking as “reasonable, reflective thinking that is focused on deciding what to believe or do” (1987, p. 10) is probably the most widely cited in the field. Also widely cited is Ennis’s list of “constituent thinking skills”, which he suggests should form the basis of a critical thinking curriculum. These include among others:

1. Judging whether there is ambiguity in a line of reasoning;
2. Judging whether certain statements contradict one another;
3. Judging whether a conclusion necessarily follows;
4. Judging whether a statement is specific enough;
5. Judging whether a statement is actually the application of a certain principle etc.

There are a number of dimensions of critical thinking that can be discerned from Ennis’s list. One is that it is seen fundamentally to involve acts of “judgement”. Another is that there are specifiable criterial bases for making such judgements (e.g. ambiguity, contradiction etc.). A final dimension is that these judgements are seen to operate mainly at some propositional level of texts – characterized in this list principally as “statements”.

This type of taxonomizing of skills – and Ennis’s is only one of many – has formed the basis of a large number of critical thinking programmes (e.g. Paul and Elder 2011; Ikuenobe 2001; van Gelder 2000), and also interestingly, the basis for the testing of students’ acquisition of these skills (Ennis 1993). The influence of the approach – or what Ronald Barnett (2000) has dubbed “the industry” – has been increasingly evident in EAP programmes and publications over the last decade. Thus, the following exercise taken from a popular EAP textbook (Fig. 1) demonstrates the type of activities that are set for students to develop these capacities – in this case the ability to assess the quality of evidence adduced by a writer to support a claim.

Task A: Critical thinking - what constitutes strong/weak evidence?

Look at the following extracts from texts and then:

- Underline the evidence in each.
- Decide which evidence is strong and which is weak. Think about your reason.
- With other students, compare your answers and discuss your reasons.

1 Another reason that women are better than men at raising children is that they are kinder. My mother was a good example. She did many kind things not only for me but also for many other people she met, including strangers.

Fig. 1 Sample EAP materials – ‘skills’ approach (Cox and Hill 2003) (Reproduced with permission from Cox, K., and Hill, D., EAP. English for Academic Purposes Now ©2003, Pearson Australia, p. 32)

2.2 *The Ethics Approach*

Another type of instruction that comes under the broad rubric of critical thinking is what I have called the ethics approach. This strand relates to a tradition altogether different from the skills approach described above, namely critical theory (e.g. Habermas 1984), and its educational counterpart, critical pedagogy (e.g. Freire 1970; Giroux 1988). Here the notion of criticality is concerned with a specific form of judgement and evaluation, one involving the critical scrutiny of social structures and practices, especially those seen as oppressive in some way, and which contribute to forms of social injustice. This version has its historical origins in Marx’s distinctively activist take on critique – “not so much to interpret the world, but to change it” (Thesis 11: *Theses on Feuerbach*, 1845). In academic literacy pedagogy the approach has come to prominence as a counter to what have been deemed “pragmatic” approaches, characterized as those that typically introduce students in an unreflective way to “the standards, conventions, rules and discourse practices” of the academy (Pennycook 1997). Within this critical paradigm, these standards, conventions etc. are made the object of constant scrutiny.

Arguably, the writer who has done most to turn these ideas into a comprehensive pedagogy has been Sarah Benesch with her advocacy for a “critical English for Academic Purposes”. Benesch (2001) sees the role of EAP instruction as not one of just preparing students for the expectations and practices of their institutions (a needs analysis approach); it should also “encourage students to question and, in some cases to transform, those practices as well as the conditions from which they arise” (p. xv) – what she has called a “rights analysis” approach. Thus, the critical motif in Benesch’s schema is one of encouraging students to assess their options in particular academic situations – for example, whether to take up the prescriptions of a genre – as opposed to simply fulfilling the academic expectations required of them. As she suggests, “after considering options, students may choose to carry out

*Table 8.1 Verbs, adverbs and formulaic phrases used in arguments***Argumentative verbs**

Pro: believe, think, prove

Con: doubt, question

Emotionally-charged boosters

particularly, definitely, certainly, surprising

Personalisation (when arguing your own position)

I/we/our; this group includes most of the argumentative verbs (e.g. we believe that ...)

Formulaic phrases

In my opinion, beyond a doubt, a serious flaw

De-personalisations (when criticising others)such as 'the findings may be criticised ...' (Note: the findings are criticised - not the researchers), 'it is unjustified to ...'

Fig. 2 Sample EAP materials – “language of evaluation” approach (Hamp-Lyons and Heasley 2006) (Liz Hamp Lyons, *Study Writing: A Course in written English for Academic Purposes*, Cambridge University Press, 2006. Acknowledgement Permissions has been obtained by Cambridge University Press)

demands, or [they may] challenge them” (p. 64). To enable students to develop this strong critical voice requires, among other things, that curricula are built around contents and themes that draw on students’ own experiences, and which “connect strongly with their lives”.

It will be clear from this account that the type of criticality advocated by Benesch is of a quite different order from that associated with the skills approach. Commenting on these differences, Atkinson suggests that the use of the same term in these two contexts seems “largely coincidental” (1997, p. 74). The ethics version of critical thinking, he suggests, has its origins, in the classic Marxist concept of “critical consciousness”, and the skills approach in non-Marxist traditions of Western rationalism.

2.3 The Language of Evaluation Approach

A final strand in the teaching of critical thinking is a more linguistic one – what I have called the “language of evaluation” approach. On EAP programmes, such an approach is typically manifested in materials that demonstrate the linguistic means by which different types of judgements are enacted in texts, or that enable a writer to assume some kind of authorial stance in relation to the materials they are considering. For example, in textbooks taking up this approach, students are typically provided with samples of evaluative expressions that will assist them to frame the judgements they wish to make, as in the examples shown in Fig. 2.

Another common teaching routine is to have students analyse sample texts to identify how evaluative moves are typically enacted over stretches of discourse.

This discursive approach has a strong research base in the applied linguistics literature (Hunston and Thompson 2000; Hyland 2000). An important ground-breaking study was Thompson and Yiyun's (1991) work on reporting verbs, which sought to show how the verb choices used in citations typically signal the attitude or stance the writer has to the cited material. Contrasting rhetorical effects are noted, for example, between the use of the more neutral "state" and the more evaluative "claim".

This approach has been taken up in a most comprehensive way in Appraisal Theory developed within the framework of Systemic Functional Linguistics. As Martin and White (2003), the innovators of the theory, explain, the aim of Appraisal Theory has been to describe systematically how lexico-grammatical resources are deployed for evaluative purposes within social interactions – or "how", as Martin and White say, "writers/speakers positively or negatively evaluate the entities, happenings and states-of-affairs with which their texts are concerned" (p. 2). Appraisal theorists have investigated the operations of evaluative language in a range of domains, with the most thorough exploration of academic discourse to date conducted by Sue Hood (2004). In her investigations of the introduction sections of undergraduate research projects, Hood systematically catalogues the variety of resources deployed by students to "position themselves evaluatively" in their texts. Among other things, such knowledge can be used pedagogically to model the texts students need to produce, and, as Hood suggests, to enable them to participate critically in their studies: "Making the implicit in discourse explicit is a means by which we can enable critical awareness and critical participation" (p. 244).

3 The Ineffability of Critical Thinking: Definitional Problems

The three approaches described above all provide quite different takes on the idea of critical thinking and how it can be taught. The skills approach, with its associations with analytical philosophy, sees critical thinking programmes providing students with a basis for the making of critical judgements, ones typically founded in notions of logic and rationality. In the ethics approach, there is arguably a similar focus on judgement, but here these are of a more normative, deontic kind (not what is or is not the case, but rather what should be). In this way, this strand has an additional activist dimension to it – the idea of "critical action". The final approach – the language of evaluation approach – is in a sense the odd one out. It is best seen not as an epistemological position, but more as a mode of inquiry – that is, as a way of recognizing how critique as a social activity typically operates in discourse. Arguably this approach provides not so much guidance as to what judgements might be made (and on what basis), but rather "how" these judgements can be appropriately framed in discourse.

While all three approaches have much to offer, their variety – even incompatibility – provide a challenge to practitioners in deciding how to go about framing a critical thinking curriculum. This uncertainty around what it means to be critical, and what and how it should be taught has been commented on frequently in the literature. Thus, Fox (1994), for example, has pointed out that while academics often know it when they see it, explaining exactly what is meant by critical thinking is a much more difficult task:

... because it is learned intuitively, critical thinking is easy [for academics] to recognize, like a face or a personality, but it is not so easily defined and it is not at all simple to explain (p. 125).

Barnett (1997) is of a similar view, suggesting that confusions about the term stem from a lack of conscious reflection on the part of practitioners: “Higher education”, he says, “which prides itself on critical thought, has done no adequate thinking about critical thinking” (p. 3).

This is not to say however, that efforts have not been made by some to try to get a fix on the term. In an interesting exercise conducted in the 1990s, a group of US “critical thinking experts” working under the auspices of the US Philosophical Society convened a forum to try to produce both a consensual definition of the term, and a list of the skills of which it is composed (Facione 1990). In what was known as the Delphi Project, the group managed to assemble the following list of constituent skills: “interpretation”, “analysis”, “evaluation”, “inference”, “explanation” and “self-regulation”. While the framework produced in this exercise is sometimes drawn on in the design of critical thinking programmes (e.g. Vardi 2013), it is difficult to view the project as a successful one. The project’s convenor, Peter Facione (1990), acknowledged at the time that the position reached was some way off being “consensual” – an unsurprising outcome perhaps for a convention focused on “critical thinking” – with a number of experts insisting on alternative lists, and with at least one asking to be excluded from the reports findings.

Some writers have in fact been scornful of these efforts to arrive at a single overarching account of critical thinking. Atkinson, for example, is dismissive of such efforts, suggesting that the definitions that arise from them are unavoidably “desiderative or polemical” in nature – i.e. what the writer imagines or wants the notion to be (1997, p. 74). Toni-Lee Capossela (1998) has been similarly critical:

It seems reasonable to suppose that a concept so frequently invoked would long ago have acquired a clear-cut definition, but in fact the opposite is true: with each new appearance, critical thinking becomes less, rather than more, clearly defined (p. 1).

The lesson to be drawn from the foregoing discussion, is that one can feel no comfort about there being an unproblematic version of critical thinking (and unproblematic critical thinking programmes), that can be relied upon when one is called on to teach students about this aspect of university study. Ultimately one needs to make principled decisions about how the notion is to be understood, in what ways it has relevance to the particular student cohorts one is teaching, and then how the notion is best turned into a coherent teaching programme. In the next section, I describe some research I pursued several years back to help me get some clarity around the concept, and which, it was hoped, could inform decisions I needed to make in this area.

4 Some Research into Critical Thinking

The teaching context I was involved in at the time was working as an academic literacy lecturer within the Arts faculty of a large Australian university. This work had two components to it. The main one was to provide adjunct academic literacy programmes to students – including writing classes, usually on a discipline-specific basis. The other part was to provide consultation advice to EAP staff on the design of pre-tertiary programmes associated with the university, ones often occurring in offshore contexts. In both these roles, the idea of critical thinking loomed particularly large. In the adjunct role, a key issue to address was how students could somehow be more “critical” in their writing – a failing often identified by discipline lecturers in the marking of their students’ work. In the EAP consultant role, a central issue was how to integrate the teaching of critical thinking into programmes, without neglecting the many other components that typically need to make up an EAP programme. The challenge of these issues – as well as the attendant uncertainties around the concept of critical thinking – were the spur to undertake some systematic research into the idea.

The research chiefly involved interviewing a range of academics from a variety of disciplines in my faculty, with a focus on the key areas of Philosophy, History, Cultural Studies (see Moore 2011a, b for an extended discussion of the research). The aim was to have informants explain in as precise detail as they could, the type of thinking (and writing) they typically expected of students in their discipline area. The discussion that ensued – of a very open-ended nature – was facilitated by focusing on instances of the actual assessment tasks set for students by these academics. A key question asked of informants in this part of the interview was how they saw critical thinking entering into the particular tasks they set.

4.1 *Variable Understandings of Critical Thinking*

A number of key notions findings emerged from the study. One was that there was much variety – both among individual academics, and across disciplines – in the way the idea of “criticality” was understood. Significantly, some of these conceptions resonated strongly with those we have seen in the EAP literature. Some, for example, emphasised the strong rational basis of critical thinking, as advocated in the skills approach. Thus, as one explained: “There is a sense that critical thinking, like all intellectual work, is engagement with a rational project”. Other conceptions were readily relatable to the ethics approach: “Critical is a value laden term. It’s critical in the sense of having – not exactly a radical – but at least kind of a reformist kind of agenda; in other words, not being satisfied with the status quo.”

But there were other conceptions to emerge that had no obvious correspondence to the approaches noted above. Some academics – particularly those from the

Cultural Studies field – were sure that “critical thinking” was inextricably related to “theoretical thinking”:

CULTURAL STUDIES INFORMANT: [In my area], we stress to students that the critical work they’re doing – we’re quite explicit about this – they’re using theoretical notions to explore and to interrogate literary and cultural texts.

Another view – one expressed by some of the historians – was to downplay critical thinking’s rational basis, and to see it as a more empathic, hermeneutic quality – “getting into the heads of those who one is seeking to understand”, as one described it.

4.2 *Different Judgement Types*

Another finding to emerge from the study was that the nature of the critical thinking required of students in these disciplines clearly varied depending on the type of entities to which they needed to direct their thinking. On this point, the philosopher John McPeck (1981) has pointed out that thinking, by definition, is “always thinking about something, and that something can never be everything in general, but must always be something in particular” (p. 4). In the study, it was interesting to explore this notion – that is, to see what particular entities (or “objects of inquiry”) students were called upon to consider in their work. The main source of data drawn on here were the various assignment tasks collected for the study and discussed by informants.

In the analysis of these objects of inquiry, an initial distinction was drawn between those that related to some *real world* entity (e.g. actions, events, episodes and the like), and those of a more *abstract* nature (e.g. concepts, arguments, works). Thus, it was noted, among the history assignment tasks, that these entities were often of this “real world” kind, as seen in the following sample topic:

What, besides immediate grievances at their universities, motivated the *Parisian students to demonstrate in May 1968*? How successful were they in achieving their objectives? (MODERN EUROPEAN HISTORY)

In contrast, in topics from the other two disciplines, the objects of inquiry tended to be focused not on actions/activities in the world, but on texts, as in the following topics taken from Philosophy and Cultural Studies:

Provide a statement of the *argument of Aquinas’ Third Way*. Do you think this is a persuasive argument for the existence of God? (PHILOSOPHY OF RELIGION)

Discuss *J.M. Coetzee’s novel Elizabeth Costello* drawing on the concept of genre (and in particular the genre identified as ‘ficto-criticism’) as the basis for your interpretation (INTRODUCTION TO CULTURAL STUDIES)

It was clear from informants’ discussions that the nature of the thinking required within these two broad realms was different. In the History topic, for example, the judgements to be made relate to questions of human behaviour/action

(i.e. motivations) and also the outcomes of actions (i.e. relative success). In the Philosophy and Cultural Studies, the criteria for judgement are concerned with qualities that relate to texts (i.e. “persuasiveness”, “genericness”). Susan Peck MacDonald (1994) has characterized this contrast as one between “epistemic” (textual) and “non-epistemic” entities, which, for her, is suggestive of quite distinctive modes of argumentation. A similar distinction is drawn in Systemic Functional Linguistics between what Halliday (1994) has termed, “phenomenal” and “meta-phenomenal” discourses.

Additional distinctions were evident among those tasks that fell within the epistemic, text-based category. Thus the “object of inquiry” in the Philosophy task above is characterised as an “argument”, an expository text type. In the Cultural studies task, the form is a literary one – a “novel”. In the study, it was clear that each of these constitutes very different entities, involving quite different types of judgement. Thus, in the philosophy task the judgement is an explicitly evaluative one (is the text persuasive?), to be derived from the application of established principles of logic (i.e. the acceptability of premises, the validity of conclusions etc.); in the Cultural Studies task, the judgement is of a looser, less evaluative kind, where a literary concept (“genre”) is to be drawn on as the basis for developing an “interpretation” of the work.

4.3 The Role of Knowledge in Critical Practices

One final idea to emerge from the research was that to respond adequately (and critically) to academic tasks, such as those described above, usually requires the application of some level of background knowledge relevant to that task. This idea was affirmed by a number of informants in interview:

HISTORY INFORMANT: [being critical] is very much dependent on a certain level of knowledge in the subject which ... is why we say to students “you must do adequate reading otherwise you cannot respond to the questions [that we pose]. You might find a perfectly reasonable answer in a single book on this topic, but you’re in no position to evaluate that unless you’ve read alternatives.”

CULTURAL STUDIES INFORMANT: We try to give a sense of what a good critical reading of a novel is – which would be one that’s aware of previous readings, that would be critical of previous readings, [and] that would bring in theoretical resources from outside the text to bear.

This key role played by background knowledge is evident when one considers the particular academic tasks discussed above. Thus, to respond adequately (and critically) to the History task – i.e. to adjudicate on the motivations of the demonstrators in the events of May 1968 – students would need to have to hand a sound knowledge of the broad societal context in which these actions took place, as well as an understanding of how they have been viewed by different historians. Similarly, in the Cultural Studies task, relevant knowledge would include a solid grasp of the Coetzee text, along with an understanding of the concept of genre, and

the relevant sub-genre variant – “ficto-criticism”. In the Philosophy task, knowledge of Aquinas’ argument, along with some of the traditional objections made to it in the literature, would appear to be essential.

These observations about the role of knowledge in critical practices are well-supported in the literature. In an influential article by Glaser (1984) ‘Education and thinking: the role of knowledge’, which reviewed psychological work in the area of schema theory, the conclusion drawn is that familiarity and active engagement with content appears crucial in the application and development of students’ critical thinking and problem solving abilities. Siegler and Richards (1982) have drawn similar conclusions, pointing out that “knowledge of specific content domains [seems to be] a crucial dimension of development in its own right” (p. 93). They suggest further that “changes in such knowledge may underlie other changes previously attributed to the growth of capabilities and strategies” (p. 93).

Such views about the importance of knowledge may seem self-evident – i.e. that a person with familiarity and expertise in a field is usually better positioned to bring a critical approach to it. This dimension of critical thinking, however, is not always fully recognised in some of the critical thinking literature, and also in the teaching approaches we have considered. In particular, the skills approach of the type advocated by Robert Ennis has tended to underplay the role of background knowledge, suggesting that the thinking skills that typically make up such programmes can be developed independently of the content to which they are applied. Similar criticisms can also be made of the ethics approach, where the emphasis is often on students reflecting critically in some immediate, experiential way on the materials and situations with which they are presented, without necessarily having recourse to relevant literatures. In the language of evaluation approach, as suggested earlier, students are shown how judgements are discursively enacted in texts, but there is not much on offer in such an approach (i.e. engaging with relevant content knowledge) that might enable them to formulate substantive judgements within a particular area of study.

4.4 Summary of the Research

The main conclusions drawn from the study can be summarized in the following sets of propositions:

- The term “critical thinking” appears to defy reduction to some unitary definition, but instead appears to take in a variety of practices, ones associated strongly with the methods and worldviews of particular disciplines.
- The types of critical judgements that students need to make in their studies are subject to a good deal of variation. This variation relates to the different entities (or “objects of inquiry”) that students are called on to consider, as well as the typical criteria for judgement associated with these entities.
- The quality of the critical judgements that students make in their studies appears to be strongly related, among other things, to the degree of knowledge they have of the entities they are asked to consider.

In the remaining discussion, I wish to consider how these broad principles might be given effect in the design of programmes to develop students' critical thinking abilities. While up to this point I have been critical in various ways of established approaches to critical thinking, I also consider here how some of the clearly positive aspects of these approaches might be drawn upon in these design processes.

5 Implications for Teaching

In thinking about issues of teaching and curricula, a distinction can be drawn between *pre-sessional* EAP contexts (i.e. before students have commenced their studies in the disciplines), and *concurrent* contexts (i.e. once their studies have begun). I shall consider the second context first, as this, in many respects, seems the more straightforward of the two.

5.1 *Teaching Critical Thinking in Concurrent Contexts*

The analysis made in the previous section suggests that in concurrent contexts, the teaching of critical thinking is always best handled within the context of the teaching in the disciplines. Such an approach – often referred to as curriculum embedding – is now widely supported in relation to the teaching of many different aspects of academic practice and discourse (Wingate 2006; Chanock et al. 2012). The rationale for the broad approach is that key processes of study, such as how to produce an academic essay, or how to read a text effectively, are inseparable from the content with which these processes are concerned. As Wingate (2006) explains:

any separation [of the methods of study from their contents] suggests there is a difference between studying successfully and learning, and that, if certain techniques are acquired, students can study successfully without deep engagement with the subject (p. 459).

Such a view is equally relevant to the teaching of critical thinking.

Elsewhere I have suggested that the best focus for this embedded approach to critical thinking is always on the assessment tasks students need to complete on an academic programme (Moore 2007, 2011a). This is because for students such tasks are the most material and relevant manifestation of critical practices in the academy, and also because they constitute the site where students' critical abilities are typically both developed and judged. The approach – what Benesch (2001) refers to as “making sense of assignments together” – is one that involves detailed explication, deconstruction and negotiation of assessment tasks prescribed on a course. The skills approach, as we have seen, highlights the notions of “judgement” and “criteria for judgement” as central to our understanding of critical practices. While the conceptions of judgement within this tradition appear rather narrow, the broad idea itself – judgement – seems a most useful motif to frame discussions

about assessment, and the nature of the critical processes embodied in them. The type of questions that can inform these discussions include:

- What type of entity (or object of inquiry) do students need principally to make judgements about? Are these, for example, of a phenomenal or of a textual nature; and what kind of phenomena or texts?
- What types of judgements need to be made of these entities? And by what concepts or criteria? Are they, for example, evaluative criteria such as “persuasiveness”? Or more conceptual, interpretive ones, such as “genericness”?
- By what processes, might students go about forming such judgements? For example, through their wide reading on the subject? Through processes of primary research? Through the application of some discipline-based technique etc.?
- How in textual form might students go about presenting, supporting, and defending the judgements they are expected to make?

Such protocols are likely to be effective not only as a way of clarifying task expectations to learners, but also to make more explicit to academics the nature of the work (and the nature of the thinking) they require of their students, and indeed whether their demands at this point in students’ development are realistic and fair (Benesch 2001).

An embedded, task-focused approach stands in contrast to the view that critical thinking can be taught outside disciplinary contexts in dedicated stand-alone programmes. This latter approach is founded on a putative efficiency principle, such that students can be taught general critical skills within standardized courses, with the expectation that these will be readily applied to specific situations (Davies 2006). The diversity of practices we have seen, however, suggest that such an approach is likely to be of limited value. On this matter, John McPeck (1992) has suggested that efforts to distill a common core of generic thinking skills tend only to reduce and ‘trivialize’ such practices.

[While] I do believe there are some limited general thinking skills ... these skills offer little to get excited about ... [Indeed] the more general they are, the more trivially obvious they are – for example, not contradicting oneself, not believing everything one hears and so forth. Conversely, the truly useful skills tend to be limited to specific domains or narrower uses of application (McPeck 1992, p. 202).

The disciplinary base of much critical thinking suggests there is a need to move away from what Wingate calls “bolt on” programmes, and to take up, wherever possible, a “built-in” approach (Wingate 2006).

5.2 *Teaching Critical Thinking in Pre-Tertiary Contexts*

In pre-tertiary contexts the teaching of critical thinking is not so straightforward. This is because in these contexts students are not typically engaged with a clearly delineated disciplinary content – the purpose of such courses (EAP and the like) is often to prepare students in a general way for tertiary studies – and so the types of discipline-based practices we have seen above have no obvious applicability.

The situation is further complicated by the fact that such programmes are often made up of students bound for a variety of courses and programmes (e.g. business courses, social sciences, STEM).

I have asserted a number of times above that critical thinking of its nature is always thinking about something, and so one of the challenges, if one wishes to incorporate dedicated critical thinking instruction into an EAP programme, is working out how to deal with this exigency. This principle suggests that the first requirement is that programmes be founded on a strong and coherent content base. This idea has been explored comprehensively in the field of language and literacy education under the rubric of “content-based instruction” (Brinton et al. 2003; Grabe and Stoller 1997). Bereiter and Scardamalia (1993), commenting on the broad area of language development, have pointed out that the development of complexity in skills requires an initial foundation of knowledge. Such a principle, as we have seen, applies equally to programmes that have as an objective the development of students’ critical thinking abilities.

In searching for a relevant content base for mixed-discipline groups, one can look for guidance from the approach suggested within critical EAP; that is, to draw on a content that “connects strongly with students’ lives”, and which affords students the opportunity to reflect critically on issues that both shape and constrain them in their studies and in their lives more generally. Pennycook (1997) has identified the role of English as an international language and its bearing on students’ lives as a particularly suitable subject area. Other areas that seem relevant, and which have a growing literature base to draw on, include:

- The commodification of higher education (Bok 2009; Slaughter and Rhoades 2004);
- The employability agenda in higher education, including graduate unemployment (Knight and Yorke 2004; Moreau and Leathwood 2006).

In addition to having a strong content base is the need for programmes to have a strong reading component to them. Despite the many changes occurring in the way that course content is delivered on university programmes nowadays, it is fair to say that the sustained reading of texts in a discipline remains at the heart of study in any discipline (Taylor 2009). And as we have noted above, critical thinking in university study can be seen to be fundamentally about engaging critically with different types of texts, and for a variety of critical purposes. The critique, for example, may be directed at the text per se (e.g. in a critical review task of a writers’ argument), or it may be that the student needs to refer critically to a variety of texts in the development of their own arguments (e.g. in an essay-style task).

The reference to genre above (e.g. critical reviews, essays and the like) suggests a further element in the way that the teaching of critical thinking can be integrated into programmes. On this issue, it needs to be remembered that critical thinking per se only has relevance, as Atkinson (1997) has suggested, as some kind of enacted discursive practice. In academic study, these practices find expression in the spoken

and written genres that characterise study in a discipline. Different genres typically entail different types of critical practices and judgements, and so at the core of any EAP programme needs to be the construction of a range of carefully selected assessment tasks – ones that give students an opportunity to be engaged in a variety of critical activities (critiquing a text; using a theory, developing an argument), and which also enable them to appreciate the diversity of practices implicated in the term's use.

As suggested in the previous section, a key part of this instruction is to help students to identify what in a task constitutes its essential critical element (what are the judgements to be made, and on what informed basis they can be made). An additional element, one suggested by the “language of evaluation” approach, is to demonstrate the discursive (linguistic) means by which these judgements are enacted.

6 Conclusion

In this chapter I have considered some of the challenges involved in arriving at a cogent understanding of the idea of critical thinking, and also how these might translate into curricula. The notion I have most wanted to stress is the variability of the concept, along with the attendant dangers of seeking to reduce the idea in some way. Variability and diversity is perhaps an idea that is not so easily presented to our students, especially when many, in their efforts to find their way through the system, seek a degree of certainty and predictability about such matters. It may be, however, that an appreciation and readiness to embrace such a notion – not only in relation to critical thinking, but also to many other practices they must negotiate in their studies and their lives – is one of the more important capacities we can encourage in our students, and also in the institutions that would nurture them.

Questions for Reflection on Future Teaching Practice

1. Given that critical thinking always means “thinking about something”, what *content* (topics, texts, issues) will you draw upon as the basis of your programme?
2. At the heart of critical thinking, is the idea of judgement. What types of *judgements* do you wish your students to make (e.g. more evaluative ones, more interpretive ones)? And how, in your teaching programme, can you enable students to make these judgements in assured and informed ways?
3. It is all well and good for students to be critical thinkers, but they also need to develop and communicate these critical thoughts as coherent and structured texts. In developing a programme, what *genres* of critical thinking will you introduce to students (e.g. essays, critical reviews etc.) and what will you do to assist them to engage effectively (even critically) with such genres?

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Promoting Critical Cultural Awareness in the International University

Ruth Breeze

Abstract Critical cultural awareness is an essential component of critical thinking, and is increasingly necessary in order to build effective relationships in today's globalised world. This chapter reports on a project carried out with a group of international and local journalism students, involving rewriting and refocusing local news stories from the students' home countries for an international readership. This task brought students face to face with the need to communicate about familiar subjects to readers who would share little background knowledge. They had to construct a working theory of what the "international reader" would be likely to understand, and develop strategies to achieve comprehension. This also involved refocusing the story, highlighting different aspects of it for a new readership. The project generated considerable interest among the students, and sparked discussion of cultural topics and topoi that provided material for further research and reflection.

Keywords Critical thinking • Critical cultural awareness • Academic literacy • News writing • Genre • Dialogicality

1 Introduction

As Tim Moore explained in his introductory chapter to this section, "critical thinking" is a term which is ubiquitous in education, but which has no single definition that can cover all the ways in which it is used. The broadest use of this term is to refer to the general ability to question what we are told or taught, as in the healthy scepticism which leads students to consult different sources before reaching a conclusion, or to weigh up the merits of different solutions before making a decision. The more extreme end of the "critical thinking" continuum covers aspects such as the capacity to "unpack" assumptions and interpretations in terms of their

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ideological basis, often in order then to “reframe” these in terms of some other ideological framework (as in the case of critical interpretations which explain the workings of patriarchy through the lens of feminism). Ironically, the educational culture of English-speaking countries often regards the need for critical skills (of the former or latter kind) as self-evident, thereby betraying a curious lack of critical self-awareness (Vandermensbrugge 2004). For students from countries where education is understood as the mastery of a body of received knowledge, and where teachers command great respect and exercise considerable authority, the transition to an educational system where the validity of sources or received ideas is questioned and teachers position themselves as guides rather than gurus may prove traumatic (Byram 2008).

One of the aspects of critical thinking that is not explicitly addressed by Moore’s account, but which certainly interweaves with it at different points along the continuum from “soft” to “hard” critical thinking, is that of critical cultural awareness. In the most obvious sense, critical cultural awareness means learning to be careful with ideas, procedures or assertions that are part of “received knowledge” in a particular culture. This would incorporate some aspects from the “general” end of the critical thinking continuum, such as defining terms clearly and developing an awareness of the sources of the ideas and information we use. However, it would also include aspects that come close to the more specific type of critical thinking, in that it would mean developing a reflexive awareness of one’s own cultural assumptions and learning to interpret symbols and behaviours from other cultures. It is clear that critical cultural awareness would – ultimately – encompass the acquisition of those attitudes, knowledge and skills that will enable students to participate in meaningful relationships with people from other cultural backgrounds. To do this, students might begin by questioning their own preconceived notions about the more tangible aspects of culture, but as they go on, they may find themselves being challenged more deeply in those (vast) areas of the cultural iceberg that lie beneath the surface. This would lead them progressively to develop some critical distance towards their native culture and learn to “unpack” some of its components in order to compare them with phenomena that are rooted in other cultures. One important facet of this type of learning is the ability to stand aside from one’s own cultural experience, values and concepts, and try to see the world from someone else’s point of view – in other words, to decentre.

The importance of developing critical cultural awareness in order to build effective intercultural relationships is undisputed in today’s globalised world. Yet there is little consensus on the way in which it is to be achieved. According to Byram (1997, 2012), it is helpful for students to explore cultural awareness issues in the classroom, so that they can begin to develop critical thinking skills in a controlled environment, and become familiar with examples of how they can be applied to real-world issues. Moreover, since language itself plays a significant role in intercultural encounters, it is helpful for language-related elements to be accorded their true importance in the way intercultural awareness is presented and experienced in educational contexts (Byram 2012). Classes with a language or communication-related

focus therefore ought to provide the ideal venue for introducing intercultural learning and promoting critical cultural awareness.

In the present chapter, our explorations focus on a practical project designed to promote critical thinking skills with a cultural dimension. The activity described was intended to help students operationalise the type of general capacity to compare, refocus and reformulate ideas or concepts, which is strongly encouraged in the educational system of many English-speaking countries, but which may not be regarded as a priority elsewhere. However, it also encouraged students to reflect on their own culturally-embedded knowledge, experience and attitudes, and to develop ways of communicating them to people from other backgrounds. It thus functioned on two levels, which reflect the more general and more specific aspects of critical cultural awareness. In what follows, both of these levels will be analysed in more detail. After this, the experience itself will be outlined, and the results discussed in terms of critical learning.

1.1 Refocusing for a New Readership

Rewriting texts from a new perspective or in a new genre is a technique that is occasionally used to promote students' sensitivity to the writer's point of view, or to generic conventions (Barone and Taylor 2006; English 2011). Although one of the subsidiary goals of this case study was to sensitise students towards writing conventions in English-language journalism, the main focus of the pedagogic task was to promote students' awareness of audience in an international and intercultural perspective. Experience with courses in intercultural communication had suggested that students often find it difficult to stand back from their own cultural experience, and abstract discussion of cultural differences is frequently less illuminating than might be hoped. For this reason, we decided to centre this task on a concrete writing activity framed within an intercultural setting, so that students would have to deal with achieving communication on a concrete issue. The rewriting activity was thus explicitly set up as a task of communicating local to global: of rewriting and refocusing a news story from a very local context in such a way that it is interesting and comprehensible in an international context, within the epistemological and axiological framework of the mainstream English-language media.

In this, my analysis of the interface between critical thinking and student writing is strongly coloured by the classic work of Scardamalia and Bereiter (e.g. 1987), which brings out the difference between "knowledge-building" and "knowledge-telling" in education and, more specifically, in student writing. Knowledge-building involves conducting an inquiry into a specific topic, and coming to a deeper understanding through interactive questioning, dialogue, and continuing improvement of ideas and skills. In a very real sense, the problem develops as the questioning process proceeds. By tackling what is, in its origin, a rhetorical problem, students are confronted with flaws in their preconceived ideas and have to exercise creativity and think harder in order to reestablish coherence. Moreover, mature writing also

evinces a more sophisticated theory of the reader – whereas novice writing is “writer-based”, reflecting the writer’s train of thought, mature writing is more reader-friendly, reorganising and reformulating information according to reader needs. As Lillis (2001, p. 44) points out, addressivity is central in meaning-making, and if we take a strong view of addressivity, we will see that all attempts at meaning-making draw on the meaning-making of others: the voices (wordings, beliefs, knowledge, ideology) that are available within any socio-cultural context. Addressor and addressee are involved in a longer, historically situated “chain of speech communication” (Bakhtin 1986, p. 91). In Bakhtin’s words (1986, p. 93):

The topic of the speaker’s speech (...) does not become the object of speech for the first time in any given utterance (...) The object has (...) already been articulated, disputed, elucidated and evaluated in various ways. Various viewpoints, worldviews and trends cross and diverge in it.

In fact, developing a concept of audience or reader reception is one of the least explored areas of student writing research, despite the fact that knowing how to address a particular audience is essential to communicative success in writing (Hyland 2002). Some early research examined whether focusing on readers while revising writing influenced the quality of the end product (Roen and Willey 1988). Other researchers used protocols and interviews to probe writers’ mental representations of their readers while they write (Wong 2005). However, perhaps the strongest strand in the bibliography is that initiated by Ramanathan and Kaplan (1996, p. 28), who critiqued the received notion of “audience” in academic writing, as it is often posited in advice to student writers. They pointed out that international students’ success at academic writing is likely to hinge on their ability to imagine the idealised “inscribed reader” of disciplinary discourse, and that students who do not (yet) share the “world-view” of a particular discourse community are likely to have difficulties working out what needs to be stated, what can be taken for granted, and what has to be carefully hedged around because it is controversial in nature. In this case, the intercultural context and the emphasis on the “international reader” at the very least requires students to make culturally embedded phenomena accessible to a wider readership, and on a higher level, to decentre in order to visualise an aspect of their own world from a new perspective.

For all these reasons, the issue of addressivity in student writing is particularly interesting in international and intercultural contexts: students need to grapple with the highly abstract notion of the “international reader”, and try to formulate their text in such a way as to ensure maximum communication and comprehensibility.

1.2 Frameworks for Communication and Reflexivity

Since the writing task for the present case study was shaped by the need to raise students’ awareness of audience, it seemed appropriate that its design should incorporate some channels of communication for reader response. In other words, although it was obviously important for students to build a theory of what the

international reader might or might not be able to comprehend, it was also evident that it would also be useful for students to give and receive real feedback on their writing. In this, the task design owed something to the type of web-based collaborative tasks sometimes used in higher education (Bruns and Humphreys 2005), which matches well with the learning style and habits of the Facebook generation. Such tasks activate rich learning experiences, encouraging involvement and learner autonomy (Argüelles 2009). Such writing tasks complement traditional classes or lectures, since they allow learners to interact and share their ideas in an online space, while permitting the teacher to maintain a controlled environment (Breeze 2014). In general, students find it motivating to know that they are writing for a real audience of peers, as well as for the teacher. Moreover, their interest is heightened when peer feedback options are available, since other students' comments are a stimulus that prompts them to develop better writing skills and improve their language and content knowledge (Dabbagh 2002; Davoli et al. 2009). At the same time, students generally accept the idea of publication more readily if they know that the teacher will help them ensure that their work meets a certain standard. For this reason, teachers need to make it clear how much guidance and correction they are going to provide, and at what point in the task this will happen, since students often feel insecure about making their work public, and about commenting on their classmates' work. The outline of the case study below explains how audience response and teacher support/feedback were incorporated into the task design.

2 Case Study: News for the World

This project has been carried out for several years as part of the three-credit course "Communication skills for journalists" at the University of Navarra, Spain, a course which attracts a large proportion of international students, including many from Asia and Latin America, as well as many local ones. The project involves various metacognitive writing skills, including genre awareness, rewriting and refocusing skills, but has a particular focus on the ability to try to retextualise written texts for readers from other cultural backgrounds. The task thus requires writers to try to detach themselves from their background culture, build a theory of their "international" addressees, and make assumptions about what these idealised addressees are likely to know, or be interested in.

2.1 Task Description and Procedure

For the purposes of this task, the students start from a culturally-embedded text, which is a local or national news story from the students' own country, published in their first language. The aim is to rewrite this article in English for an international readership. However, since this is a challenging task, and the aim is to ensure that

students learn from it, the task has to be structured carefully to promote maximum learning. First, the course material provides an introduction to the structure and style of news articles in English. The “reverse pyramid” structure is usually familiar to most students from their previous studies, since it is widely used in journalism across the world. However, the peculiarly condensed style of English-language news writing, in which the first sentence of the article generally contains the “who, what, where, when” of the story, does not usually prove easy to replicate in a second language. Moreover, the language of headlines is also very challenging, and so students are sensitised to its potential rather than expected to produce original examples.

Once the students have been introduced to the genre of news writing in English, and have drawn any useful comparisons with the genres and styles usual in their first language, they move on to the second stage of the activity. Here, they look at an authentic news story from an English-speaking country, and identify all the aspects that they, as non-natives of that country, find difficult to understand. This obviously includes language features, but with some prompting, students are usually able to identify problems with content knowledge and cultural background which impede full comprehension. Particular sources of difficulty include names of people, places and institutions, ongoing situations and discourses. Students reading a story about transport problems in London, for example, may not know what “the tube” is, or “crossrail”, or “oyster cards”. The concept of commuting may not be familiar to them. Moreover, they are unlikely to have heard of Boris Johnson (at this time, the mayor of London), and probably will not pick up references to his cycling (or other) exploits. Usually, a brief news article on a culturally-embedded topic such as this is enough to enable students to work together to develop a preliminary theory about what kind of information is difficult for “outsiders” and what degree of explanation might be needed.

In the next stage of the activity, the students use the internet to identify a news story from their own country that might be interesting for an international readership. The choice of the story usually sparks some debate, and the more controversial options are projected onto the screen so that the teacher can moderate class discussion as to why these stories might, or might not, be interesting for international readers. Here, issues such as news values (Meissner 2015) arise, which are in themselves a topic for critical analysis, and which provide useful criteria for text selection. However, it is important also not to allow this phase of the activity to last too long, since the main objective is for each student to decide on a news story with international relevance to write up in English.

Once the students have identified their story, they use that article as a basis in order to draft a short news item in English. While they are doing this, they are told to pay special attention to any culturally embedded aspects within the article (names, places, institutions, customs, etc.) and any other background information that an international reader might lack. The students then publish their first drafts on the class blog.

If the drafting stage is the one that students find most difficult, the next stage in this activity is the one which the students state that they enjoy most. In this phase,

the students are all requested to read at least two of their peers' news articles, and to write comments on them. It is recommended that the comments should include some positive evaluation, and some points for further improvement. Moreover, language should not be the main focus of these suggestions, since the students are informed that the teacher will also read the published articles and post comments regarding the language and style of the text. Rather, students are encouraged to explain what aspects of the article they do not understand well, and suggest what further information is needed.

The final stage of the activity involves rewriting the article in order to take into account the comments and questions made by peers, and the language issues raised by the teacher.

2.2 *Results and Discussion*

In the first draft of their articles, the students all made some effort to reformulate the story in English for a non-specific "world" audience, to varying degrees of success. Although it is arguable that the use of a construct like "world audience" is a pedagogical fiction, in reality, since they were familiar with their classmates and knew that they would be the real readers, their real recent experiences in the multicultural "Erasmus" community probably shaped their expectations and helped them to construct a preliminary concept of what "international readers" would understand easily. However, as the comments on the first drafts showed, their expectations were often inadequate. It was often in the second stage of writing that the students finally overcame the challenge of decentering and writing for the "international reader". Students were then asked to comment on the responses using the same "comment" option. In what follows, different aspects of the students' writing are analysed in terms of themes that arose from the corpus of articles, comments and responses.

2.2.1 *Explaining Names and Places*

One student produced a well-illustrated article about the German anti-Islamic group PEGIDA (*Patriotische Europäer gegen die Islamisierung des Abendlandes*). The student who read this article obviously had not heard of this group, and although she was able to surmise that it was a right-wing extremist movement, she felt that she needed more information, particularly an explanation of the name itself:

I would divide the news in paragraphs, and also, I don't know what PEGIDA means: if it is an abbreviation, I would add the complete name of the organization, and if it is the name, I would not put it on capital letters. The title was very clear and the news had a lot of context that helped me understand it.

Along similar lines, another student wrote about an issue with an Argentine Airlines flight over the River Plate:

The flight, which carried 300 passengers, had to circle around the Río de la Plata for two hours while leaking fuel before returning to Ezeiza airport.

On this, a classmate commented: “I would describe what the “Río de la Plata” is. For me it sounds like the local river of Buenos Aires, but probably it isn’t.” In the second version of the text, the first student rephrased this as “the estuary that goes from Buenos Aires to the sea”. Even though the option “River Plate” exists in English, she felt that this was not likely to be accessible to the wider audience she had in mind.

A Croatian student experienced difficulties putting her cultural reality into English, and opted to invent an English word for the inhabitants of Zagreb:

From now on, *Zagrebers* who use public transport will be able to check online on maps.google.hr the exact arrival time of the trams and buses to their stations, whether some of them are delayed and the schedule of suburban trains.

Another student commented on this choice, which she felt was not particularly transparent for the Spanish speaking reader:

Are people from Zagreb called “Zagrebers”? This might be confusing for some people. Perhaps you should keep to the (boring) version – “people from Zagreb” or “citizens of Zagreb”.

Some other strategies intended to provide explanations of names and places appeared somewhat peremptory, and the readers were able to pick up on this and propose solutions:

In a context of dispute with foreign hold-outs (Argentina’s sovereign debt), high levels of inflation and limits to both importations and exportations, the cabinet chief of Argentinian government, Jorge Capitanich (spokesman of Argentinian government), stated today in a press conference in Casa Rosada (Argentina’s national government headquarters) that there is no macroeconomic problem that could prevent the revitalization of Argentina’s economy growth rate.

One comment on this contribution was:

This sentence is a bit too long for me. Also I think it is strange to put all the explanations in brackets. For example, maybe for us it is not important to know that they were speaking in the Casa Rosada, so you could leave that out.

2.2.2 Managing Cultural Knowledge

Since the activity took place in Spain, it is perhaps understandable that many of the students from a local background seemed to have had high expectations of what international students would be able to comprehend. Thus one student wrote:

The mayor of Barcelona, Ada Colau has announced this Tuesday that Catalonia will receive in November 1,200 refugees as part of the EU plan. Approximately 600 of them will remain in Barcelona and the rest to other points of Catalan territory.

Although this student probably felt that she had made considerable concessions to the “international reader” by explaining who Ada Colau is, one of her readers responded asking for more information in order to situate these data: “Really good story, good to understand and really interesting. One thing that would be interesting is how big the catalonian area is .. just to have a better impression.” This student commented “I really took for granted that other people would know this. Of course, it is important in order to understand the number of refugees in relative terms.”

A student from Hong Kong had a similar problem, in that she assumed that the international students would be aware of her homeland’s peculiar political situation. She wrote:

On October first, thousands of protesters took to the streets in major districts of Hong Kong to demand universal suffrage. The protests, which began in late September peaked on October 1st; China’s 65th National Day. Large concentrations of the protesters are students who have occupied the bustling regions of Admiralty and Mong Kok, commercial centers of Hong Kong. The protest, originally called, “Occupy Central with Love and Peace” is a non-violent movement which aims to achieve the right to vote and choose their candidates.

Another student commented on this as follows:

I think that for an international reader it would be better if you included a little bit more about the background of the problem, meaning that you explain more the actual political agreement that Hong Kong and China have in terms of rights and elections. Also, I would add a bit more about how many students are protesting and describe if they are using other means to protest besides marching in the streets; for example usage of social media.

In other cases, the student-readers were appreciative of the efforts that the writers had made to reformulate the information from Spanish. One student decided to write about sport. His first attempt represented a considerable degree of adaptation from the original article, including background information about recent attacks in the media which was not included in the Spanish article because it was taken for granted that the readers would know about it:

For the first time since the critics started, Real Madrid’s goalkeeper, Iker Casillas, talked in an interview about the situation he has been living the last couple of years. Casillas, one of the most important footballers in Spanish history, has been criticized in the last years by the press and fans. The prestigious journalist, Iñaki Gabilondo, was the one in charge of making Casillas talk.

The student who responded obviously felt that it was not necessary to explain “Real Madrid”. However, he appreciated the other explanations: “The focus in the first two sentences is vital for readers to understand the article. It’s also good that you explain who Gabilondo is, for example.”

2.2.3 Refocusing

In some cases, the issue was not so much whether or not the writer had estimated correctly the amount of cultural knowledge his/her readers would share, but whether or not the writer had refocused the contents appropriately for an international readership. This appears to be particularly manifested in the way the story is framed at the very beginning, through the headline or the first sentence, which “introduce” the story and supply the rationale for its place in the newspaper. In the following case, the issue of genre clearly overlaps with a question of focus. A student from Colombia wrote an article about a boating accident on the Amazon which began:

Last Thursday at 4:40 in the morning, the student María Camila Velandia Prieto died because two boats collided in the Amazon’s river.

A student from Germany offered the following comment, which addresses the need to situate the story in the first line for a non-Colombian readership:

The tragedy is well explained. Regarding the first phrase, I would change the order of its content to give it more impact: A Colombian student died after a boat collision in the Amazon river last Thursday night.

Along rather different lines, a local student began her article on the launch of a new Catalan edition of the classic Spanish newspaper *El País* as follows:

Global media newborn: elpais.cat

Elpais.cat made his first steps yesterday. El PAIS launched a new edition from Catalonia, in addition to the other versions of the daily in Spanish, English and Portuguese. Elpais.cat is global, digital and written in Catalan. It has been made by a young, independent and linked team. It has everything anybody needs to be informed about Catalonia and the world anywhere.

Commenting on this, a student from Colombia clearly felt that the headline was not helpful enough for the non-local reader to situate the story and appreciate its importance:

I think it was a good article because it explains what will be the purpose of El Pais’s newest edition, it also explains what is El Pais and besides it talks about its founder. I would just change the title because it isn’t very easy to understand what it is exactly referring to and also I would specify why El Pais is doing this with Catalonia and not other region of Spain, I would go deeper in terms of explaining the controversy surrounding Catalonia so that way an international reader would understand why Cebrian is taking the time to support an edition focused solely on that region.

In other words, in addition to the extra information that this non-Spanish reader needed in order to be able to situation the article, she also felt that the headline was too opaque for the non-Spanish readership. Moreover, she felt that the “issue” of Catalonia needed greater foregrounding in the article, as foreign readers were not likely to appreciate the full political significance of this story. Responding to the same article, a student from Argentina commented:

The news of the week in terms of Spanish media. I would add one or two phrases at the beginning that refer to the political context in which this ‘birth’ takes place.

He also evidently perceived a need for greater “foregrounding” in terms of textual content and organisation, which was then (partly) supplied by the author in her rewrite, which began:

Elpais.cat made his first steps yesterday. El PAIS, *the most read daily in Spain*, launched a new edition from Catalonia, in addition to the other versions of the daily in Spanish, English and Portuguese.

2.2.4 Evaluation and Appreciation

It was interesting that students expressed their appreciation not only of the content and focus of these stories, but of the experience of rewriting for a specific audience. The students’ positive comments covered aspects such as the style and structure of the article:

I found your article really interesting and easy to understand even if you are not from Spain.

But they also responded to the contents of the article and the insights they had received into the culture of the other country:

I liked your article because it’s good news that Colombian people still prefer their coffee over Starbucks, and it shows their pride for their national products.

Importantly, their evaluation also extended to the nature of the activity itself, and to the need for high-quality informative news reporting:

If media revised its work in this manner, journalists would have a better image.

3 Conclusions

In the Bakhtinian sense, all writing is dialogic: all uses of language are in some way a response to previous uses, while at the same time they are always addressed to a present or future “audience” in anticipation of its response. Proficiency in writing implies the ability to refocus and reformulate texts for different types of reader, and to make connections with the “viewpoints, worldviews and trends” (Bakhtin 1986, p. 93) that these readers bring with them to the act of reading. A writing task such as the one described here is challenging precisely because it is not clear what those worldviews contain, or what knowledge can be taken for granted. The students had to build a construct of the “target reader”, based on their experience with their international classmates as well as their previous knowledge, and reshape the information so that those people would be able to understand it. The task of writing about the local for the global proved to be an interesting way of prompting students to think critically about their own cultural knowledge and attitudes, and to decentre sufficiently to communicate effectively about highly culturally embedded topics. Future developments of this type of project could include other written genres,

including feature writing, film reviews or interviews based on culturally specific themes.

Questions for Reflection on Future Teaching Practice

1. How do I present culturally embedded themes and topics in my classes? Do I provide a space for students to reflect on these constructively?
2. To what extent do I help students to understand that they are writing to be read? Can I use technological affordances (email, blogs, wikis, etc.) to ensure that their work is read, and that they receive constructive peer feedback on it?
3. Do the writing tasks I set actually foster the acquisition of more proficient L2 literacy skills? Do I provide enough support and feedback for this?
4. How far do I explicitly encourage critical thinking and creativity in the writing class?

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Critical Thinking, Language and Problem-Solving: Scaffolding Thinking Skills through Debate

David Rear

Abstract With a growing number of international students attending universities in the West, the development of critical thinking skills for students from non-native English backgrounds has emerged as a top priority concern for many Western institutions. This chapter introduces a debate course taught at a university in Japan to students of intermediate English ability who had had little prior experience with critical thinking tasks. It aimed to teach critical thinking in an explicit and systematic manner, drawing a connection between the taxonomies of thinking skills drawn up by Ennis (1987) and Facione (1990) and step-by-step problem-solving strategies commonly applied in business and technical contexts. In the course of preparing, performing and evaluating a pair of complex debates, the programme took students through a six-stage process, showing them how to clarify the nature of a problem, gather and organise relevant information, evaluate the reliability of that information, analyse the information to draw conclusions, express those conclusions logically and persuasively, and finally appraise their preparation and performance for future improvement.

Keywords Critical thinking • Problem-solving • Pedagogy • Debate • Second language • Facione

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1 Introduction

This chapter outlines a method for developing the critical thinking skills of students from non-English speaking backgrounds. In an era of internationalization, in which Western universities are actively seeking students from around the globe, helping international students to develop the skills necessary to thrive in this intellectual environment has emerged as a top priority concern for many institutions (Davies 2001). Students from Asian backgrounds are said to have particular difficulty in adapting to the demands of the Western academic tradition, with educational background and insufficient language skills commonly cited as the most significant factors (Moore 2011).

This chapter introduces a debate course taught at a university in Japan to students of intermediate English ability who had had little prior experience with critical thinking tasks. It aimed to teach critical thinking in an explicit and systematic manner, drawing on the taxonomies of thinking skills drawn up by Ennis (1987) and Facione (1990). In doing so, it took up a middle position in the generalist versus disciplinary debate outlined by Moore in this volume: that is, although we cannot assume that thinking skills will transfer to any context, it is unlikely that they will need to be developed from scratch each time (Ballard and Clanchy 1995).

The course drew a connection between taxonomies of critical thinking and step-by-step problem-solving strategies that can be applied in real-world contexts. A critical thinker solves a complex problem by raising vital questions, gathering relevant information, determining findings, and communicating effectively (Paul and Elder 2006). In the course of preparing, performing and evaluating a pair of complex debates, the programme took students through a six-stage process, showing them how to clarify the nature of a problem, gather and organize relevant information, evaluate the reliability of that information, analyse the information to draw conclusions, express those conclusions logically and persuasively, and finally appraise their preparation and performance for future improvement. At each stage, students were taught specific language patterns that would help them to read critically and express their own thoughts in a persuasive manner. While no single course can ever prepare students to succeed in academic life, participants came out with an increased awareness of critical thinking and a set of linguistic tools that should be transferable to a range of different contexts.

The chapter is organised into six sections. It begins by introducing some definitions of critical thinking, drawing out three main aspects common to most conceptions of the term. It then discusses how it might be taught, exploring what use can be made of taxonomies of critical thinking skills. The longest part of the chapter explains how these taxonomies were put to use in the six stages of the debate course, with a dual focus placed on both thinking skills and language. It ends with some conclusions and thoughts on critical thinking teaching as a whole.

2 What Is Critical Thinking?

A concern with critical thinking as an aim of modern education can be traced back a hundred years to the American philosopher and educational reformer John Dewey. Dewey termed it as “reflective thinking”, defining it as follows:

Active, persistent, and careful consideration of a belief or supposed form of knowledge in the light of the grounds which support it and the further conclusions to which it tends (Dewey 1909: 9).

Dewey’s definition points to two crucial aspects of critical thinking that have been emphasised by theorists since. First, critical thinking involves an “active, persistent, and careful” approach towards any given issue or problem. Judgements should not be made rashly, but only after a thorough consideration of the issues involved. Rather than a matter of raw intelligence, critical thinking can be regarded, therefore, as an *approach* or *attitude* towards one’s thinking. Second, critical thinking involves the *evaluation* of beliefs and claims through an examination of the grounds upon which they are based. Knowledge claims, even those well-established within society, should not be accepted blindly. A critical thinker should have both the ability and the disposition to challenge beliefs that are not properly supported by verifiable evidence.

Looking at other well-known definitions of critical thinking since Dewey, we can see these two aspects emphasised repeatedly. For Ennis (1987, p. 10), critical thinking is “reasonable, reflective thinking that is focused on deciding what to believe or do”. McPeck (1981, p. 7) calls it the “appropriate use of reflective scepticism within the problem under consideration”. Gieve (1998, p. 126) says that critical thinkers must be able to “examine the reasons for their actions, their beliefs, and their knowledge claims, requiring them to defend themselves and question themselves, their peers, their teachers, experts and authoritative texts”.

Out of this notion of questioning authority and beliefs comes a third aspect of critical thinking. That is, the responsibility of people to use critical thinking to promote a fairer, more rational and more civilised society (Barnett 1997; Wass et al. 2011). Benesch (1993, p. 546), for example, sees critical thinking as “a search for the social, historical, and political roots of conventional knowledge and an orientation to transform learning and society”. Paul (1984), meanwhile, makes a distinction between critical thinking “in the weak sense” and critical thinking “in the strong sense”. By the former, he refers to the development of cognitive skills only for “vocational” or “technical” purposes. The latter, however, implies “emancipatory reason” and an inclination for people to “free themselves from the self-serving manipulations of their own leaders” (Paul 1984, p. 5).

3 How Can Critical Thinking Be Taught?

Despite the large number of definitions given for critical thinking, there is considerable overlap between them. We might even go so far as to say they are different ways of saying essentially the same thing. Furthermore, although some scholars have become frustrated by the failure to agree on one single definition (Johnson 1992), few dispute its importance as an overarching aim of education.

The question, then, is how can or should we go about developing critical thinking in our students? Over this question, there is much less agreement, as Moore (2007, 2011) has written about in detail. On one side of the debate are advocates of a generalist or *generic approach*, which “attempts to teach critical thinking abilities and dispositions separately from the presentation of the content of existing subject-matter offerings” (Ennis 1989, p. 2). On the other side are those who see critical thinking as *specific* to each academic discipline: “Thinking, by definition is always thinking about something, and that something can never be ‘everything in general’ but must be something in particular” (McPeck 1981, p. 4).

In second language contexts, we are often constrained both by the linguistic level of our students and by the conventional aims of a language course. Although many courses nowadays aim to teach language through content, particularly to higher-level learners, this content is not always the kind of specialised subject matter envisaged by proponents of the disciplinary approach to critical thinking. In these situations, we are almost forced to adopt a position closer to the generalist approach advocated by Ennis and others.

There is, however, also a middle ground between the two modes of thought, which Moore (2007, p. 14) has called a “weaker, relativist position”. This holds that while a generic skill like critical thinking is best developed within specific contexts of knowledge, once learned “it does not have to be learned totally anew in each context of knowledge” (Ballard and Clanchy 1995, p. 164). Although when entering a new academic field one often has to learn a new discourse, the thinking skills developed over years of schooling can still be put to good use.

In a language course, we cannot realistically expect students to become “critical thinkers” after a single course of study, any more than one could achieve this in a first-language setting. However, there is value in teaching students explicitly what is meant by critical thinking and in providing guidance on how they can apply it both in an academic setting and in their everyday lives. This returns us to the definitions with which this chapter began, in which critical thinking was conceived of as an “approach” or “attitude” towards one’s thinking, rather than a simple matter of intelligence or acquired knowledge. Teaching critical thinking explicitly does not mean teaching without *context*. Moore (2007) is rightfully sceptical of general critical thinking textbooks that seek to teach concepts of argumentation, such as inference or logical fallacies, through invented texts void of any authentic content. Arguments in real-life texts are rarely so straightforward as the syllogisms employed in these kind of textbooks, and it is hard to see how students could transfer such knowledge to other contexts.

In the approach outlined in this chapter, students gather, evaluate and analyse *authentic* texts in the process of preparing for debates. They apply thinking skills, therefore, to specific subject matter, even if it is not part of the specialised content of a particular academic discipline.

4 Teaching Critical Thinking as a Problem-Solving Process

If we accept that there is value in teaching critical thinking as a course in a language classroom, how might we go about doing so? The definitions of critical thinking given above only provide a guide as to what critical thinking is; they do not provide much help in how we might teach it. For pedagogical purposes, it is useful to turn to the taxonomies of critical thinking skills drawn up by theorists such as Bloom (1956), Ennis (1987), Facione (1990), and Anderson and Krathwohl (2001). Although these taxonomies have been criticised by some scholars for the lack of empirical psychological evidence behind their formation (Norris 1992), they provide a framework for how critical thinking might be taught in a systematic manner.

Bloom's seminal work of 1956 identified six major categories of thinking, ranging from the simplest, or "lower-order", skills at the bottom to the most complex, or "higher-order", at the top. Beginning with what he labelled 'knowledge', good thinkers must be able to master the progressively more complex skills of *comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation*. Ennis (1987) drew up a more detailed list, identifying 12 key abilities: *focusing on a question, analysing arguments, asking and answering questions of clarification, judging the credibility of a source, observing and judging observation reports, making and judging deductions, making and judging inductions, making value judgements, defining terms, identifying assumptions, deciding on an action, and interacting with others*.

For the purposes of this course, however, it is the taxonomy drawn up by Facione (1990) that is most practical. Organising a consensus (or, perhaps more accurately, compromise) of expert opinion, he proposed six broad categories of *interpretation, analysis, evaluation, inference, explanation, and self-regulation*. Each category was further broken down into sub-skills to form the following list (Table 1).

Facione's taxonomy is useful because the six broad skills it lists can be regarded to some extent as a *process* moving from interpretation at the beginning to self-regulation at the end. Although the reality of real-life thinking tasks will rarely be as clear-cut as this, there is value in teaching it that way in order to offer students a systematic approach to their academic work. Indeed, there is a resemblance between Facione's list and six-step problem-solving methods recommended in business and technical settings. Typically, such methods proceed as follows:

1. Identify and define the problem
2. Collect information and data regarding the problem
3. Analyse and assess the data
4. Develop and plan a solution
5. Explain and implement the solution
6. Evaluate the results

Table 1 Consensus list of critical thinking cognitive skills and sub-skills (Facione 1990, p. 6)

Skill	Sub-skills
1. Interpretation	Categorization, decoding significance, clarifying meaning
2. Analysis	Examining ideas, identifying arguments, analyzing arguments
3. Evaluation	Assessing claims, assessing arguments
4. Inference	Querying evidence, conjecturing alternatives, drawing conclusions
5. Explanation	Stating results, justifying procedures, presenting arguments
6. Self-regulation	Self-examination, self-correction

By combining Facione's taxonomy with this problem-solving method, we can devise a framework for guiding students through the process of preparing, performing and evaluating debates while simultaneously offering them instruction on the nature and application of critical thinking skills. In the next section, this framework will be outlined in the context of a debate course for learners of English as a foreign language.

5 Overview of the Course

Debate is a popular method for teaching critical thinking in both first and second language settings (see, for example, Dickson 2004; Proulx 2004; Vo and Morris 2006). In theory, it fulfils all three of the aspects of critical thinking drawn out from the definitions above: encouraging an active and careful approach to an issue; generating a questioning attitude toward knowledge and beliefs; and stimulating learners towards a critical view of the world around them. It also provides space for the teaching of language. Giving instruction on the language of critical thinking – discourse markers, argument indicators, expressions for evaluating, accepting and refuting claims, and so on – has been shown to lead to immediate improvements in the ability of students to critically analyse argumentative texts (Davies 2013).

Where this course differed from other debate courses is the explicit approach it took to the teaching of critical thinking. Many debate courses, even those that give a nod towards taxonomies of critical thinking (for example, Scott 2008), do not set out to teach critical thinking expressly; rather, they take for granted that in the process of carrying out a debate students will automatically develop thinking skills and subsequently transfer them to other contexts. While there is no guarantee that taking a more explicit approach will be more successful, participants will at least finish the course both knowing what critical thinking means and recognising its role in academic tasks.

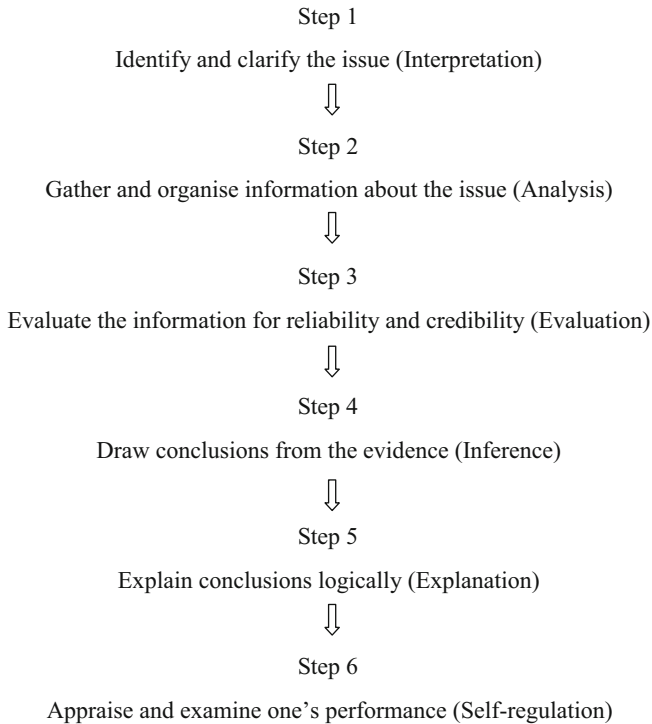


Fig. 1 Development of the six components of critical thinking

The course was conducted at a middle-ranking private university in Japan to a class of 20 students in their third and fourth years. The students had a range of abilities in English, from pre-intermediate to high-intermediate, and were split evenly between males and females. The course ran for one 13-week semester, meeting for 90 min twice a week. The students prepared and performed two debates during that time. The topic of the first debate was chosen by the instructor, and they were given 8 weeks to prepare for it. For the second debate, they chose the topic themselves and were allotted 5 weeks for preparation. This lengthy preparation time was deemed necessary in order to allow the students sufficient time to research, evaluate and analyse the topics thoroughly, as well as practise for the debate itself.

For each debate, the students were guided through a six-stage process, which reflected both Facione's taxonomy and the six-step problem-solving method (Fig. 1).

5.1 Step 1: Identify and Clarify the Issue (Interpretation)

The course began with an introductory lesson on critical thinking itself. The students were asked to imagine that the university administration had come to believe that students were not improving their English sufficiently. They had tasked the students with investigating the issue in more detail in order to come up with solutions. The students were now to have their first meeting in which they would form a plan of action for their investigation. They did not have to come up with solutions in this meeting, but simply think how they would approach their investigation.

Through this activity and follow-up discussions, the students were introduced to the idea of step-by-step problem-solving, particularly the notion of gathering, evaluating and analysing data. From there, they learned about critical thinking itself. They were prompted to check on the internet just how pervasive the term was and how it was generally conceived. From here, they were introduced to the notion of debate and the content of the course itself.

The topic of the first debate was: “Do violent movies, television shows and video games lead to violent behaviour?” This issue was chosen for several reasons. First, it is a topic that is familiar to people in Japan, even if the precise arguments on each side are not well-known. As Western educators, we have to be careful not to assume that students of non-English backgrounds share a similarly high sense of awareness of the same issues we do in the West. In Japan, for example, the issue of abortion is rarely discussed as a moral or ethical problem and is less likely to provoke strong opinions than it might, say, in the United States. A failure to have a well-reasoned opinion on an unfamiliar issue should not be dismissed as a lack of critical thinking. The second reason for the choice of this topic is that a large amount has been written upon it in everything from research papers to newspapers, magazines and blogs. Some of the arguments presented on each side are based on strong, convincing evidence; others, however, tend to be weak, contradictory or arise from emotional reactions to certain events. It was hoped that through their work on the course, students would learn to judge one from the other effectively.

Having been assigned the topic, the students were asked to brainstorm their initial thoughts. In particular, they were prompted to discuss whether they felt the question was straightforward or whether it was ambiguous or unclear in some way. Many of the students struggled initially, but eventually certain suggestions were made, most pertinently concerning the precise meaning of the word “violent”. How does one define whether a movie or video game is “violent” or not? Is a war movie automatically violent? How about a real-life documentary on war? A Tom and Jerry cartoon? In this way, the students began to see that the issue was not as straightforward as it first appeared, and that one important step when approaching a question was to clarify meaning and define key terms. Such a step can be applied to a great many contexts, and is often the first thing students must do when tackling questions posed in an academic essay.

5.2 Step 2: Gather and Organise Information (Analysis)

The second stage began with the students forming groups of four in which they would prepare and perform the debate. Two students were required to take each side of the debate, either based on their personal opinion or by playing devil's advocate. In terms of learning objectives, this stage had three major aims:

1. Planning: making a plan to gather information
2. Gathering: collecting information from the internet and other sources
3. Analysis: organising information into arguments and supporting evidence

The Planning stage involved the students working within their team of two to formulate a series of questions they felt they needed to answer in order to understand the issue of violence in the media more thoroughly. They were also asked to brainstorm sources of information where the answers to these questions might be found. Unsurprisingly, the internet came out at the top of that list, and in the Gathering stage the students were given advice on how to collect reliable information from the net.

The concepts of reliability and credibility would be returned to in Step 3 of the debate process (evaluation), but it was important to introduce the terms here in order to help the students direct their research. The students were given a list of potential sources of information – factual newspaper articles, editorials, blogs, academic papers, wikipedia, social media posts, twitter feeds, corporate homepages – and asked to rate them as either *reliable*, *unreliable* or *unsure*. The idea of *expertise* was introduced through this activity, and the problem of *bias* through a brief discussion on newspapers and their political leanings. In addition to reliability, the students were also taught techniques of gathering information, including the functions provided by search engines like Google (such as Google Scholar) and the various databases that could be accessed through their university account.

For the Analysis stage, the students were given a short introductory article on the subject of violence in the media taken from an authentic source and tasked with breaking it down into its principal *arguments* and each argument's *supporting evidence*. To assist them with this task, they were first given an exercise on discourse markers and other expressions that can be used in arguments to indicate inferences, reasons and support. While some of these expressions were already familiar to the students – *therefore*, *consequently*, *since*, *proves*, *shows*, *thus*, *that is why*, and so on – others were new to them. They were taught expressions such as *it follows that*, *from which we can infer that*, *if... then*, *it implies that*, *can be deduced*, *on account of* that they had rarely encountered in texts before (Fisher 2011).

Equipped with some fundamental knowledge of both how to search for information and how to break texts down into their arguments and supporting evidence, the students were then given time to gather and analyse as much information as they could that was relevant to the topic. Their aim at this stage was not to construct the overall arguments of their case, but simply to analyse and make notes on each text they had collected in order to facilitate the inferencing work they would carry out

later in the process. Once they had collected and organised their texts, the students were ready to move on to the third step of the process.

5.3 Step 3: Evaluate Information for Reliability and Credibility (Evaluation)

For the evaluation process, the class adopted a motto – “Be Suspicious!” – arguably a convenient rallying cry for critical thinking as a whole. The students were encouraged to ask the following questions of the texts they had collected:

- Does the text come from a reliable and credible source?
- Can it be expected to be biased or one-sided?
- Is it written by someone with expertise on the topic?
- Is the argument based on well-supported reasons/evidence?
- Is the evidence up-to-date and transparent?
- Have the reasons been sufficiently explained?
- How certain is the argument claimed to be?
- Can the argument be supported (corroborated) by other sources?
- Are there any other relevant arguments that strengthen or weaken it?

Before they approached the texts they had gathered themselves, they were given practice in evaluating a text provided by the teacher. Given that this was the students’ first experience of this kind of exercise, the text was simplified to illustrate how the nine questions could be applied. Evaluating the texts they had collected was a harder exercise; however, with the assistance of the teacher they began to find the strengths and weaknesses of the evidence they had gathered.

5.4 Step 4: Draw Conclusions from the Evidence (Inference)

The fourth step involved planning the debate itself, which was conducted with three speeches on each side: the opening address, the attack and rebuttal, and the summation. Using the texts they had gathered, analysed and evaluated, the students wrote out their opening address in full, creating three or four strong arguments supported by reliable and credible evidence. Further language work was done at this point, concentrating on textual organisation. The students were shown how to structure the overall framework of a persuasive speech and how to organise each paragraph internally, incorporating expressions to signal topic sentences, reasons, supporting evidence and inferences. The finished speeches were then given to the teacher, who gave advice on the strength of the arguments and the clarity of the language.

Following this, each team was required to pass their speech to the opposing side, giving them the opportunity to probe it for weaknesses. Although in a real debate the opening addresses would be kept secret, forcing the opposition to think on their

feet, this was not deemed a realistic expectation for learners of this language level. Moreover, giving them time to read their opponents' speeches afforded them another chance to apply the evaluation techniques they had learned in the previous step. As they began work on their attack speeches, they were given more help with language, consisting of semi-technical terms such as *consistent*, *contradiction*, *counter-example*, *valid*, *significant* and *hypothetical*, and phrases for evaluating a claim, including *fair/biased*, *concise/oversimplified*, *misrepresents the position/represents the position fairly*, *is subjective/objective*, *is vague/imprecise/ambiguous* and so on (Fisher 2011). The attack speeches themselves were kept secret, requiring the students to defend their arguments impromptu as the debate progressed.

5.5 Step 5: Explain Conclusions Logically (Explanation)

The main focus for the fifth step was on presentation skills and formal debate language. First, the importance of eye contact, voice control, word stress, gestures and posture was emphasised, along with the need to tailor performance and language to the specific audience being addressed. Second, the students were given advice on creating and presenting appropriate visual aids. Since some of the evidence they would present consisted of numerical data, they were encouraged to create the right kind of graphs and figures to represent the information clearly. After this, they were given instruction on the conventions of debating itself and provided with a list of phrases commonly used in formal debates for attacking, refuting and summing arguments. Finally, they performed the debate itself over two class periods, with each of the five groups allotted around 20 min.

5.6 Step 6: Appraise and Examine One's Performance (Self-Regulation)

This left the sixth and final step: the students' critical self-appraisal of their own performance. Crucially, the term "performance" was not limited merely to the debate itself but to the entire process of research and preparation. The students were asked to examine what they had found easy or difficult about each stage of the process and what they felt their strengths and weaknesses had been. Four separate categories were considered: *collecting information*; *analysing and evaluating information*; *teamwork*; and *debate performance*.

The results of the students' self-appraisal, combined with a similar appraisal from the teacher, were incorporated into the second and final debate the students carried out on the course. For this debate, the students were free to choose their own topic within their group and were given more independence as they worked through the same six steps as before. They had to manage the time themselves, ensuring that not only their two-person team but also their four-person group completed each task

on time. At the end of the debate, they produced an academic essay based on their overall argument, which gave them the opportunity to reflect on the debate and review the language they had learned during the course.

6 Discussion and Conclusions

This chapter has aimed to make a twofold contribution to the pedagogy of critical thinking in a second language context. First, it has advocated the use of taxonomies of skills, such as those of Ennis and Facione, to teach critical thinking in an explicit and systematic manner. The advantage of such an approach is that students end the course with a clear understanding of what critical thinking entails and how it can be applied to their work both within and beyond their academic studies. This is particularly important in a country such as Japan. Schooling in Japan tends to be geared towards university entrance examinations, which, due to a desire to ensure fairness and objectivity in marking, are based overwhelmingly on factual, multiple-choice questions (Amano 1999). Although the situation is changing gradually, critical thinking is not always viewed as a fundamental aim of education within secondary education and is infrequently used as a term.

The second contribution is its emphasis on language skills as an integral part of critical thinking ability. The importance of language ability is often underestimated in discussions of critical thinking for non-native students, often lumped together, without careful thought, with cultural or educational background. Giving intelligent, critical opinions on complex topics in a foreign language is an immensely difficult task. While giving instruction on the language of critical thinking – discourse markers, argument indicators and so on – can only help to a certain degree, it can at least give students the basic linguistic tools with which to express themselves in spoken or written form.

As a pedagogical method, debate enables both thinking and language skills to be developed side-by-side. The question, of course, is whether the skills students learn will transfer to other contexts. This question has not been answered as yet, and is perhaps unanswerable. The best we can do as educators is to give learners the opportunity to learn about critical thinking, and teaching them about it explicitly might give them the best chance to apply the lessons elsewhere. After that, it is up to them.

Questions for Reflection on Future Teaching Practice

1. What value is there in making conceptions of critical thinking explicit to students? What are some ways in which we can do so?
2. What special challenges are there in teaching critical thinking to students whose first language differs from the language of instruction? What extra assistance do such students need?
3. To what degree can we conceive of critical thinking as a *process* through which to approach specific tasks as well as learning in general?

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Indexicals and L2 Learners' Metadiscursive Awareness

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Abstract This chapter deals with L2 learners' critical awareness of how indexicals function in extended English texts in terms of analysis and production. Its goal is to encourage L2 English teachers to raise learners' "metadiscursive awareness" levels, by engaging them in text- and discourse-structuring activities in which these expressions assume the major heuristic role. It begins by drawing a key distinction amongst *text*, *context* and *discourse*, and argues that indexical reference (context-bound pointing), though grounded in a variety of textual cues, is basically determined by discourse-level factors, mediated by context. Advanced L1 French learners of English, however, often make erroneous connections between parts of a written text and consequently misinterpret and hence distort the discourse created thereby. This is partly a function of certain models to which they are exposed in their learning experience, which tend to favour describing indexical reference in terms of matching segments of the co-text.

To remedy these erroneous conceptions within learners' metadiscursive awareness, a set of standard guidelines was devised for analysing the discourse associated with non-literary texts. These encourage learners to approach the text from its most general aspect (its rhetorical "super-structure") up to its most specific (the "topic chains" developing two of the major discourse referents within it), via a breakdown of the discourse invoked into its essential parts. This approach entails not only a sensitivity to each stage in the discourse reached by the co-references corresponding to each main link, but also a grasp of the specific types of indexical expression capable of fulfilling each discourse-referring function.

Keywords Context • Discourse • Indexical reference • L2 learners • Metadiscursive awareness • Text

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1 Introduction

Indexical expressions (context-bound markers such as demonstratives, third person pronouns, definite and possessive noun phrases and so on) are particularly important both in terms of textual comprehension and production: after all, the choice by a speaker or writer of one or other type of marker reflects a delicate appreciation on the text producer's part of the stage reached by the receiver in processing and understanding the message being communicated, at the point of use (in this respect, see Bell 1984 on the crucial notion of "audience design"). Fostering critical thinking about indexicals is crucial to both comprehension and meaning making:

- As already mentioned, it helps develop sensitivity towards audiences, which demands the application of critical thinking at different levels: at the level of *national culture* in that different languages have different degrees of tolerance of indexical distance between the indexical marker and the introduction of its referent, and of repetition; at the level of *disciplinary culture* because different fields of human activity may refer to a similar phenomenon, entity or event from different indexical perspectives; at the level of *communicative situation*, because different communicative goals (e.g. persuasion in general and specifically promotionalism, a more or less pedagogical tone, etc.) also affect the distribution and type of indexicals; and finally at the level of *personal idiosyncrasy*, because individual preferences and positioning (i.e. more or less proximal—more or less involved) regarding the topic of communication play a role as well.
- Furthermore, paying critical attention to indexicals is useful for teachers and students alike and for interpreting and producing texts in any discipline and type of English-medium instruction: English as a foreign language (EFL), English as a lingua franca (ELF), content-based language learning (CBL), or content and language integrated learning (CLIL).

Now, recent work in linguistics, specifically in the fields of discourse analysis and indexical reference procedures (deixis, "anadeixis" and anaphora), has a direct bearing on moves to improve L2 language learners' metadiscursive awareness, and stemming from this, their ability to produce as well as comprehend extended text (two fundamental language abilities). This is precisely what I shall be attempting to demonstrate in this chapter. After presenting and analysing several advanced L2 learners' textual analyses as well as productions in English, I will try to suggest ways in which such users may be induced to appreciate the principles lying behind the fluent production and comprehension of cohesive and coherent text in their non-native language (here English), and hence to improve their mastery of these abilities. The L2 learners concerned were advanced third year "licence" (B.A.) French-speaking students of English, and the classes referred to were conducted within the context of an obligatory Linguistics part of their programme. Their main field of study was literature. So we are dealing here with a largely English-medium teaching and learning context.

But first, let me sketch the framework within which this study will be conducted: the basic three-way distinction amongst *text*, *context* and *discourse*, and the nature and discourse functions of the indexical referring procedures *deixis*, “*anadeixis*” and *anaphora*.

2 Preliminaries: *Text, Context and Discourse, and the Indexical Procedures Deixis, “Anadeixis” and Anaphora*

2.1 *Text, Context and Discourse and their Harnessing in Indexical Reference*

In characterizing utterance-level, context-bound phenomena such as the use of pronouns and other indexical expressions, it is useful to start by drawing a three-way distinction amongst the dimensions of *text*, *context* and *discourse*. What I am calling *text* covers the entire perceptible trace of an act of utterance, whether written or spoken. It includes paralinguistic features of the utterance act, as well as non-verbal semiotically relevant signals¹ such as gaze direction, pointing and other gestures, and in the written medium, punctuation, underlining, layout, images etc., i.e. not just the purely verbal elements. *Text* in this conception is basically linear, unlike *discourse*: for *discourse*, under this conception, is the ever-evolving, revisable interpretation of a particular communicative event. Discourse is jointly constructed mentally by the discourse participants as the text and a relevant context are perceived and evoked (respectively).

As for the *context* in terms of which the language user creates discourse, partly on the basis of text, it comprises at least the following aspects: the *domain of reference* of a given text (including of course the local or general world knowledge that goes with it), the surrounding *co-text* of a referring expression, the *discourse* already constructed prior to its occurrence, the *genre* of speech event in progress, the *socio-cultural environment* assumed by the text, the *interactive relationships* holding between the interlocutors at every point in the discourse, and the specific *utterance situation* at hand. The context is subject to a continuous process of construction and revision as the discourse unfolds. It is the context of utterance of each discourse act that is the most central of these aspects: this functions as a default grounding “anchor” for the discourse being constructed as each utterance is produced. See Widdowson (2004), Haberland (1999), Renkema (2009), and Auer (2009) for similar distinctions amongst the three dimensions of language use.

Now, exploiting this distinction, my hypothesis is that there is a complex interaction between the dimensions of *text* and *discourse*, mediated by *context*, in the

¹ See in particular Clark (1996, Chap. 6) on non-verbal signalling.

operation of indexical reference. What I call the *antecedent trigger*² contributes the *ontological category* or *type* of the anaphor's referent; but the actual referent itself and its characterization are determined by a whole range of factors: what will have been predicated of it up to the point of retrieval, the nature of the coherence/rhetorical relation invoked in order to integrate the two discourse units at issue, and the particular character of the indexical or "host" predication.³ All these factors come under the heading of *discourse*, under the above definition.

So contrary to the classical conception of discourse anaphora whereby each indexical expression in a text has to be brought into relation with an appropriate co-occurring textual antecedent, whether the referent retrieved via a given indexical (anaphor or "anadeictic", see below) has been directly and explicitly evoked in the surrounding co-text is neither a necessary nor a sufficient condition for its existence. For the natural language user, there is no simple "matching" process to be carried out between two separate co-textual expressions (textual antecedent and indexical), independently of their respective semantic-pragmatic environments, as under the traditional account. Instead, it is the entire "host" or indexical predication which is integrated with a salient discourse representation available in working memory, as this will have evolved since its introduction via a relevant antecedent trigger (see note 2). The indexical expression picks up a topical referent within this discourse representation, or may be actually instrumental, together with the host predication, in introducing it into the discourse model.

2.2 Deixis, Anaphora and Anadeixis

As far as deixis and anaphora are concerned, these are essentially attention-coordinating, discourse-management devices entailing the tacit cooperation and involvement of both speaker and addressee.⁴

Deixis serves prototypically to direct the addressee's attention focus to a new object of discourse (or to a new aspect of an existing one) that is derived by default via the situational context of utterance—whose centre point is the "here and now" of the speaker's verbal and non-verbal activity in cooperation with the addressee. Deixis is context-creating in that its use invokes the utterance-level parameters which need to be set afresh for particular values, as a function of the roles that are assigned of current speaker and current addressee, time and place of utterance, as well as source of point of view.

Anaphora, on the other hand, is a discourse-referring procedure designed to maintain the existing attention focus established hitherto: so the referents of (weakly

²An utterance token, a percept or a semiotically-relevant gesture—all falling under the dimension *text*.

³That is, the clause or phrase containing the indexical expression, as a whole.

⁴Cf. Jones's (1995, p. 38) characterisation of deixis as being essentially "sociocentric" rather than "egocentric" solely in terms of the speaker, as classically conceived.

stressed, phonologically non-prominent) anaphors will be assumed to enjoy a relatively high degree of psychological salience or attention focus level for the addressee at the point in the text where they are used. Anaphora, according to this view, plays an essentially integrative role in the creation of discourse.

Yet the relationship between deixis and anaphora is asymmetrical: these are by no means “absolute” or autonomous indexical referring procedures. Lyons (1975) convincingly argued (cf. also Bühler 1990/1934) that anaphora is derivative upon deixis, both ontogenetically, in the child's evolving mastery of its native language, and phylogenetically, in terms of the evolution of language forms and constructions throughout history. So deixis is the more fundamental referring procedure. The real relationship between these two indexical procedures may be characterized in terms of a cline or continuum, with a medium term: this intermediate, hybrid level has been termed “*anadeixis*” by Ehlich (1982).

But before developing this “intermediate” indexical procedure, let us look briefly at some basic properties of the context-bound (indexical) expressions which help to realize the indexical procedures of deixis, *anadeixis* and anaphora.

Regarding *the demonstratives*, proximal *this (N)* is the marked (i.e. “special”) member of the pair *this (N)/that (N)*, whereas distal *that (N)* is the unmarked (“basic” or “normal”) one. When used in context, proximal demonstrative NPs present the information conveyed within them as non-presupposed of the intended referent. Rather, their head noun serves to *classify* the intended referent in terms of the speaker/writer's subjective conception of the entity at issue: so this classification does not simply transpire by default from the external properties of the object of reference itself. By hypothesis, the use of *proximal* demonstrative forms (*here, now, this (N)*) constitutes a signal of the speaker's personal, subjective involvement with the referent at issue; whereas that of the *distal* forms (*there, then, that (N)*) presupposes either the speaker's personal dissociation with regard to the intended referent, or an alignment between speaker and addressee in this respect, where the entity targeted is construed as already-negotiated information, in interactional terms.

As for head nouns within *definite* or *possessive NPs*, the category of entity which these indexical expression types denote is indeed normally presupposed of their referent by the speaker/writer, and this property means that this type of indexical is better suited to the expression of *anaphora* than to (*ana*)*deixis*, though the latter uses are indeed possible. Moreover, definite expressions refer “inclusively”, whereas demonstratives do so “exclusively”: their use entails that there are *other* entities of the same type which are *not* included in the set of entities which they denote (cf. Diessel 1999).

Finally, the use of *third person pronouns* carries the assumption that their intended referent is currently at the forefront of the communicators' attention: hence there is no need for the understander to engage in a cognitive search procedure in order to locate it. Such indexicals, then, are markers of discourse continuity as well as integration.

Now, to return to *anadeixis*, this is the type of indexical reference which combines the anaphoric and deictic procedures to different degrees: the indexical expressions which realize it (mainly demonstrative-based ones) are *anaphoric* in the sense that their referent is already—potentially—present in the discourse representation

assumed by the speaker to be shared by speaker and addressee at the point of occurrence, and is retrieved or created via this reference; however, that referent may be less than highly salient, psychologically, at the point of use, unlike the situation which prevails with canonical anaphora. This is why the *deictic* procedure is a contributory factor in such references. See Cornish (2011, pp. 757–60) for further discussion.

I distinguish three major subtypes of anadeixis, namely:

- “*Strict*” *anadeixis*: the subsequent reference to an entity which may have been evoked earlier in a discourse, but which is no longer—or is not yet—topical at the point of use: the referent which is targeted exists in the surrounding discourse, but is not immediately highly accessible—hence the involvement of the deictic dimension (see (1) below for a typical illustration);
- *Recognitional anadeixis*: the indexical reference to an entity—often an event, sometimes stereotypical—that is presumed to be shared within the participants’ long-term memory: here, the referent targeted also exists independently of this indexical reference; but it is even less accessible than in the previous subcase—hence the primacy within this subtype of the deictic dimension, and,
- *Discourse deixis*: the act of cognitive pointing towards a discourse representation in working memory, and the creation from within it of a partly new discourse entity via an inference: the deictic dimension thus performs an even more dominant role in this type of indexical reference—hence its name. (2) below is an attested illustration.

Since the discussion in Sect. 3 below adduces only examples illustrating the first and third of these three subtypes (in addition to pure deixis), I will restrict exemplification to these two, as follows:

(1) ‘*Strict*’ *anadeixis*: ...The journalist (...) gets hold of a copy of the tape [a “cursed” videotape said to bring death to anyone who watches it] and (...) traces it to its source. *This* turns out to be a stable on an island... (Extract from Review of the film “The Ring” by Andrew Collins, *Radio Times* 7–13.08.04, p. 41)

In (1), the referent of the (“strict”) anadeictic proximal demonstrative pronoun *this* in line 3 is introduced in the initial sentence of the extract via an “oblique” expression, the prepositional phrase *to its source*. This is part of the new information conveyed by the verb-centred expression (*and*) *traces it to its source* (line 2). The demonstrative could not be replaced felicitously by a simple third person pronoun (*It*), as in *#It turns out to be a stable on an island* (the crosshatch # indicates the unnaturalness in context of a potential utterance). This is because the referent at issue (“the source where the copy of the videotape in question is located”), although previously mentioned, has not yet been installed as a topic in the reader’s mental model of the discourse currently being constructed: so it needs a stronger indexical reference for this to be achieved: the proximal demonstrative pronoun *this* fits the bill admirably here. Note also the subjective, intensity-inducing effect of the use of the proximal demonstrative variant, which is consonant with the use of the present

tense of the verb (*turn s out to be...*). The possible use of distal *that* instead would be more natural if the tense were the preterit: *That turn ed out to be...*

(2) **Discourse deixis:** ...“Lack of magnesium causes constipation, high blood pressure, depression, leg cramps, PMS, insomnia and tiredness” [writes Gillian McKeith, nutritionist]. So think before blaming the stresses of modern life if you suffer any of *these symptoms*... (“Eat your greens”, Geoff Ellis, *Radio Times* 7–13.08.04, p. 35)

In (2), the reader's interpretation of the proximal demonstrative noun phrase *these symptoms* in line 4 requires him or her to draw an inference, to the effect that the medical conditions listed in the first sentence (lines 1–2) are in fact “symptoms” that point to some more general cause, rather than just “conditions”. This would explain the use of a (proximal) demonstrative NP to refer to these conditions under this guise (i.e. as “symptoms”, rather than as simply “physical conditions” per se). The use of a definite noun phrase, or of a third person pronoun, in its place would not have resulted in a felicitous reference to the conditions at issue *qua* “symptoms” (viz. ...#*if you suffer any of the symptoms/them*). This is because the fact that these conditions may be conceived as “symptoms” cannot be presupposed as known or given by the reader at the point of use. So as in example (1), we are dealing here with an instance of “anadeixis”, and not with straightforward “anaphora”.

3 Advanced L2 Learners' Handling of Indexical Procedures in Producing and Comprehending Extended Text: Pure Deixis, Discourse Deixis, 'strict' Anadeixis and Canonical Anaphora

3.1 Advanced Learners' “metadiscursive” Awareness of the Contribution of Indexicals to Textualisation

Let's look first at what we might call advanced L2 learners' “metadiscursive knowledge”, in particular as regards the textualizing functionality of the various English indexicals. This awareness is of course reflected in their written and oral textual production, a sample of the former of which we will be observing shortly; but it is most evident in their analyses of non-literary, journalistic texts as part of a discourse-analysis task, or of their answers to analytical questions based on a twentieth century literary text in end-of-semester written examinations. The extract given in (3) and the discussion below relate to the latter category:

(3) ...Immediately below them there was a peach tree in first flower, the buds a deep rose colour. The plot of ground marked out by Cecilia for her kitchen garden had been turned over for them by a man on a tractor from the nearby village. (...)

Cecilia turned to him [‘Harold Chapman, Cecilia's husband’] a face delicately glowing. ‘Darling, look at *that patch the man turned over for us*. It has dried from the deep brown it was at first. It is a reddish ochre now, the true Umbria colour.’ (...)” (Barry Unsworth, *After Hannibal*, 1996. Harmondsworth: Penguin Books, pp. 3–4).

Now, a majority of students, when asked to analyse the form, meaning and referential function of the determiner *that* in the demonstrative NP *that patch the man turned over for us* (line 5), wrote that it is “anaphoric” in reference (since the intended referent, “the plot of ground marked out by Cecilia for her kitchen garden” introduced in line 2, has already been evoked via the subject NP *The plot of ground marked out by Cecilia for her kitchen garden* in line 2).⁵ But this is to confuse two levels of discourse: the **narration** (in which this referent was first introduced) and the **dialogue** (see Benveniste’s 1974 distinction between “*histoire*” and “*discours*”, respectively).

The first level, narration (Benveniste’s “*histoire*”), is where the discourse participants are the narrator as locutionary source and the reader as “addressee” or intended recipient; and the second, a direct speech segment (“*discours*” in Benveniste’s sense), involves Cecilia as utterer and Harold as addressee. This latter situation is a *deictic* frame. Note the vocative, attention-attracting noun *Darling* that precedes the indexical predication: the use of this noun signals to the person so addressed that he is being cast in the (deictic) role of “addressee” by the speaker.

There follows an imperative sentence *Look at that patch the man turned over for us*. In communicative terms, this represents an invitation to the addressee to turn his gaze towards the patch of land at issue—a patch visible from the room in which the interlocutors are situated. The use of the verb *look* is also a clue that it is a question of evoking something new, and not of maintaining some item of information already established in the prior discourse. In addition, the indexical NP *that patch the man turned over for us* is an expanded, not reduced expression—unlike anaphoric markers in general. The reduced restrictive relative clause (*which*) *the man turned over for us* serves here precisely to help the addressee identify the intended referent, using the context of utterance in order to do so. The distal demonstrative determiner *that* is used in order to establish a joint attention focus on a discourse-new (though no doubt hearer-old) object of discourse.

Those students who classified the reference of the distal demonstrative NP as “anaphoric” were no doubt simply relying on the “objective” situation being evoked via the text as a whole, independently of any metacommunicative frame involving the discourse participants. But it is clearly deictic here.

On another occasion, such students, having been taught the conventional (text-based) account of anaphora stemming from Halliday and Hasan’s (1976) classic work on cohesion, were required to analyse the word *that* (in italics in (4) below, line 5) in an extract from James Joyce’s (1994) *The Dead* (Ed. D.R. Schwarz. New York/Boston: Bedford Books of St. Martin’s Press, p. 21). The passage evokes the arrival of the guests for the Misses Morkans’ annual dance in Dublin.

(4) ...Lily, the caretaker’s daughter, was literally run off her feet. Hardly had she brought one gentleman into the little pantry behind the office on the ground floor and helped him off with his overcoat than the wheezy hall-door bell clanged again and she had to scamper along the bare hallway to let in another guest. It was well for her she had not to attend to the

⁵Of course, it is not *that* by itself that has a reference in this context, but the whole expression which it ‘determines’.

ladies also. But Miss Kate and Miss Julia had thought of *that* and had converted the bathroom upstairs into a ladies' dressing room...

The students were asked to analyse this distal demonstrative pronoun by indicating its syntactic category, referential function and interpretation in context. Now, the vast majority of answers (see the representative sample below) were in terms of the static, text-based account of anaphora, completely missing the (coherent) interpretation signalled in context by the pronoun *that* within the indexical clause in line 5 of this extract.

The students had been taught that there are basically two varieties of anaphora: “(co-)textual” or “endophora”, subsuming “anaphora” in the strict sense, where the antecedent precedes the anaphor in the co-text, and “cataphora”, where the anaphor precedes the antecedent; and “situational” (so-called “exophora”). The preponderant interpretation indicated by the examinees was that the referent of the “textual antecedent” of this pronoun (namely the proposition expressed by *It was well for her she had not to attend to the ladies also* in lines 4–5) corresponded to that of the demonstrative pronoun, evidently taking the host verb *thought of* in the indexical predication as meaning “cognized”.⁶ In reality, this verb means something similar to “anticipated” in this context—a rather different interpretation.

The small selection of student responses to this question given below clearly shows the extent to which their understanding of “anaphora” involves simply “matching”, by bringing them together, two segments of co-text—the indexical and its “antecedent trigger”, in my terminology—and mentally copying the latter’s literal interpretation onto the indexical, often irrespective of whether this interpretation fits in with that of the host segment. Here, then, are three highly representative answers to the question:

- “the lexeme “that” is a demonstrative pronoun. It replaces an idea that has been mentioned before. It refers to the fact that Lily does not need to attend to the ladies. It has an anaphoric value.”
- “(...) Its referential function is that of a proform which picks up Lily’s words (sic), “It was well for her that she had not to attend to the ladies also.” That also has an anaphoric and endophoric value.”
- ““that’ (...) is a deictic proform (...) which [is] anaphoric, since it picks up the entire preceding utterance: “it was well for her that she had not to attend to the ladies also.” In some sense, this utterance is pronominalised by ‘that’ itself.”

Evidently, the interpretation evinced by these students would not be coherent when the indexical clause is integrated with its discourse context: “#But Miss Kate and Miss Julia had thought of (= ‘cognized’) the fact that it was well for Lily not to have to attend to the ladies also and had converted the bathroom upstairs into a ladies’ dressing room”. If Miss Kate and Miss Julia thought it was well (a good thing) that Lily should not have to attend to the ladies, then it is unclear why they should have felt the need to “convert the bathroom upstairs into a ladies’ dressing

⁶As in “Think of a number. Multiply it by 7 ...”.

room” (i.e. the relationship between these two factors appears completely unmotivated, even self-contradictory).

All the answers given above characterize the reference of *that* here as purely “anaphoric” (even though the third one states that it is a “deictic proform”). None of them picks up the fact that there is also a deictic dimension to this reference, which would come under the category of “anadeixis” which we saw in Sect. 2.2. It is in fact even a “discourse-deictic” reference,⁷ since in context, its operation creates via an inference on the basis of a negatively-specified proposition (“Lily did not have to attend to the ladies also”) a quasi-modal referent characterisable informally as “the *need* to attend to the ladies who had been invited to the Misses Morkans’ annual dance in Dublin”. The inference is derived via the following causal connection: “If Lily did not have to attend to the lady guests as well as to the gentlemen, then no provision would have been made to welcome the former category”. But this discourse object is not represented explicitly in the co-text; it is only available via an inference from the latter.⁸ This analysis evidently falls under the heading of “discourse”, and not uniquely “text”, as defined in Sect. 2.1 above.

The students’⁹ analyses of the indexicals in extracts (3) and (4) above show that they have difficulty in distinguishing between the indexical procedures of *deixis* and *anaphora*, and that they assume an extremely broad, undifferentiated conception of the latter (which subsumes in their understanding, but does not overlap with, the former). In particular, it is evident that in general, they do not place the instances of deixis or anaphora which they pinpoint in given texts within the particular interpersonal communicative frameworks which each procedure presupposes. Their analyses also evince a literalistic, strictly text-based approach to these discourse-referring procedures. This approach clearly leads them astray in terms of discourse understanding, as we have seen.

A recent study of the distal demonstrative’s marked proximal counterpart, *this*, as used in thesis summaries (Bordet 2011, p. 14) also fails to recognise its potential “anadeictic” use in discourse, characterizing its functioning as either “exophoric” or “anaphoric”. Revealingly, in the latter case, one of its “endophoric” functions as a determiner is claimed to be as follows (I translate): “*this* and the term it determines retrieves a term used earlier in the text.”

⁷ See the definition given in Sect. 2.2 above as well as the illustration in (2).

⁸ See also the analysis of *these symptoms* in example (2) above.

⁹ Note that there were two distinct cohorts of students at issue in each case.

3.2 Evidence from Text Production: “Strict” Anadeixis vs. Canonical Anaphora

The evidence that may be gleaned from text production (textualizing) strongly corroborates the conception derived from the text analyses of learners' metadiscursive awareness as characterized in Sect. 3.1. That is, deixis as well as anadeixis tend to be “ground down” to the level of anaphora. Anaphora is then for these learners the default indexical procedure.

Here are several examples of the use of an anaphoric pronoun (*it*) at a point where a native writer would use a strict-anadeictic indexical (a demonstrative-based expression).

(5) a. [Extract from an essay entitled (by the student!) “Journalists don’t write articles. They write stories”] (...) In our Western societies at least, people tend to show too much trust and confidence in the news of the written press. I think #*it* is, in some ways, dangerous...

b. (...) Here we are clearly very close to the family because of the use of nicknames. Indeed, normally we use nicknames in our private circle, for friends, or for a beloved daughter. #*It* is precisely what the writer wants to do, he wants the reader to feel compassion for the family who has overcome such an event...

c. (...) In this example the reader is obviously led by the writer on a path which depicts Prince Charles in an ironical way as an experienced actor while in fact, he is not (see the 5th paragraph which clearly shows #*it* is not the case).

The infelicitous uses of *it* in (5a-c) (line 3 in each extract) to refer back to the proposition evoked in the preceding sentence or clause may well be due to interference from the writers' L1 here (French), since a neuter clitic demonstrative pronoun (*ce*) might well have been used to express this in their native language (viz., respectively, ... *c'est dangereux*, ... *c'est précisément ce que l'auteur cherche à faire*, and ... *que ce n'est pas le cas* ...). Note that the demonstrative clitic pronoun *ce* as subject of the copula *être* “be” is not a potentially “anadeictic” expression; its clitic as well as neuter status means that it realizes a purely anaphoric functioning in discourse.

However, the contexts in (5) clearly require a “strict” anadeictically functioning indexical to achieve the retrieval felicitously. This is a frequent textualization error in French L1 speakers' written production of English text. Clearly, a native English writer would have used a demonstrative pronoun here, most likely the proximal pronoun *this* in each case, since the referent at issue is a proposition (i.e. an abstract, conceptual entity) and not a 1st-order concrete entity. As such, its intrinsic level of potential topicality is lower than that of referents of the latter type; consequently, it requires an anadeictic rather than anaphoric retrieval, in order to raise it to a topical status.¹⁰ The proximal demonstrative pronoun *this* is perfectly suited for this task in these instances, though not the ordinary pronoun *it*.

¹⁰ See also the attested example (1) above in this respect, where a proximal demonstrative pronoun is used in this very type of context.

Demonstratives are recognized and used in all the students' essays on the same topic, but, frequently, the distal member of the pair is wrongly used where the proximal one would be called for. (6a–c) illustrate:

(6) a. [Extract from same source as example (5a)] ...Articles are condensed and somehow closed whereas literary stories are open to the world and its mysteries, and therefore, give place (sic) to imagination and escape from reality. The first are rational writing (sic), the second are fictional, #*that's* precisely what brings (sic) them apart. ...

b. [Continuation of same essay] They also could make use of other speech but don't depend on it. #*That's* not the pillar that will sustain the novel...

c. [Different essays on the same topic. Two articles on the same issue (from two British tabloid newspapers) are being compared] (...) Basically #*those* two articles deal with the same "issue" but they do not use the same method to name the people involved and so, we do not see it in the same way.

In (6a, b) a native English writer would have used proximal *this* in place of the occurrences of *that* as used by the students, and in (6c), *these* instead of *those*. The reason is (by hypothesis) that the referent at issue is at the forefront of attention at the point of use, hence the utterer is still personally involved in it; it is not being distanced, psychologically speaking, by the writer (a value which one use of distal *that* would entail: see the characterisation of the use of *this* vs. *that* in Sect. 2.2).¹¹

4 Possible Ways of Remediating Learners' Deficiencies in Handling Indexical References in Discourse: Some Proposals

There are three aspects to the problems outlined in Sect. 3: first, the "metadiscursive" conception of anaphora, deixis and anadeixis as advanced learners envisage it. This understanding is often vitiated not only by factors relating to points of potential interference from their L1 (here French), but also through their experience at university level in being exposed to descriptions of the phenomena which are idealised models that in fact lead learners astray when confronted with stretches of extended text in the L2.¹²

The second aspect is learners' grasp of the various indexical procedures together with the appropriate context in which each is used, as well as the range of indexical expressions, each with its distinctive indexical properties, that are capable of realizing them in understanding texts. And the third is their use of these in text production, paying attention to their intended reader's perspective. Both the second and the third of these aspects are directly determined by the first, clearly the more fundamental factor.

¹¹ See also Cornish (2001) on what I call "modal" *that* in English.

¹² The "Cohesion" model proposed by Halliday and Hasan (1976), though in wide use in language teaching at the present time, is one such, as we have seen.

In my own teaching at first degree level (third year of undergraduate study), I used the following set of standard guidelines, which were explained and practised in class using a variety of short non-literary texts:

1. Indicate, motivating your judgment, the type of rhetorical “*super-structure*” you believe the author of the following text has adopted.
2. Establish the *discourse structure* that might be associated with this text, by making explicit the broad stages in its development.
3. Isolate the following *topic chains*, as a function of the indexical expressions used in each: [The names of two major discourse referents that receive some development in the text presented for analysis are cited here]. Specify which indexical or other expressions constitute the Head (L1), the second link (L2) and the third (L3). Distinguish between the *anadeictic* and purely *anaphoric* uses of the indexical expressions, as the case may be.

As can be seen, the overall task which students are asked to perform is a discourse analysis of the text presented.¹³ Beginning with instruction 1, they are first required to indicate the “super-structure” the writer has assigned to his/her text (“Problem-Solution”, “Cause-Consequence”, “Parallel Contrast”, and so on). Once established, this super-structure will then motivate the division of the text into major as well as minor discourse units (instruction 2), which in combination will be able to implement that super-structure. Finally, instruction 3 asks them to establish the “topic chains”, which correspond to structured sequences of references developing a single (topical) discourse referent within a text. There are major, “macro-topical” chains, and more minor, subsidiary ones, termed “micro-topical” chains. By definition, macro-topical chains are developed both in major discourse units as well as in minor, supporting ones throughout a text, whereas micro-topical ones tend only to occur within background units.

Each topic chain involves up to three links: *An initial, introductory link* (L1) which serves to present the referent within the discourse. This initial link is normally expressed via a contextually-autonomous referring expression (i.e. one that does not require appeal to context for resolution); then *a second link* (L2), whose purpose is to confirm the installation of this referent as a macro-topic within the addressee/reader’s mental discourse model. This second link, which may only be needed when the discourse referent is a macro-topic within the discourse as a whole, is often expressed via an anadeictically-functioning indexical—often demonstrative-based; and finally *a third link* (L3), which may be filled by multiple occurrences of indexical expressions. These purely anaphoric expressions serve simply to maintain the high saliency of the topical referent at issue. See Cornish (2006) for further development as well as illustration of “topic chains” within discourse.

The value of this approach lies in the fact that indexical reference is apprehended in terms of discourse structure, as well as in terms of its functionality in relation to the purpose of the reference in question, relative to the particular discourse-cognitive

¹³ See Cottrell (2005) for similar text-structuring exercises, as well as the “Sample [class] activities” and experimental protocol reported in Hashemi and Ghanizadeh (2012).

stage of processing and understanding that the reader or addressee has reached: setting up a representation of a discourse-new entity in the latter's mind in the case of chain heads; where relevant, reconfirming the discourse importance (macro-topical status) of this referent; and, once this is achieved, maintaining its high discourse salience or topicality via the use of dedicated anaphoric expressions.

A selection of preparatory exercises might be as follows: presenting the learners with a text containing a variety of types of indexical reference (deictic, anadeictic and anaphoric) and asking them to recognize each type, justifying their assignments in terms of the context in which each instance occurs. Another such exercise would consist in presenting a similar text, but systematically removing each indexical reference within it (with a variant type proposing a choice amongst two or three alternative indexicals proposed for each such gap). The learners could then be asked to insert the appropriate indexical expression in each gap in the text, again justifying it in contrast to the other alternatives.

In these ways, learners can come to appreciate the distinctions amongst new-referent introduction within a discourse, anadeictic reference back to erstwhile (or not yet) topical referents, and purely anaphoric, topic-maintaining retrievals within internally coherent spans of discourse. This will in principle enable them to grasp the essential semantic-pragmatic differences amongst the various indexical expression types in English capable of realizing each of these major discourse functions. At the same time, they may be brought to appreciate and act upon the all-important distinction between *linear text* and *hierarchical discourse*, where indexical reference partakes of *both* dimensions, and does not simply involve the co-text alone.

5 Conclusions

Two major, mainstream conceptions of indexical reference in extended texts which are widely used in language teaching and learning need to be called into question and significantly revised and overhauled.

They are, first, that anaphora as well as cataphora (both subsumed under the more general banner of “endophora”, i.e. text-internal reference) may best be apprehended solely in terms of the text, and involve a simple matching process between a textual antecedent (characteristically, a referentially autonomous expression) and an anaphor or cataphor (a context-dependent, indexical expression, unable to refer completely on its own). This view is most centrally represented in Halliday and Hasan's (1976) Cohesion model, which is widely adopted as a teaching and learning model in this field. But see in particular the telling criticisms of this model given in Brown and Yule (1983), as well as my own arguments against the “textualist” model of discourse anaphora more generally (Cornish 2010). See also Cornish and Salazar Orvig (2016: pp. 59–60). The commentaries on certain advanced L2 learners' analyses of extracts (3) and (4) show the significant drawbacks of adopting such a conception within a pedagogical perspective. Indeed, it actually has negative consequences in inducing a false conception of the discourse management

procedures that are deixis, anadeixis and anaphora. As the discussion of students' analyses of extract (4) in particular showed, it is the absence of the crucial dimension of "discourse" (in my sense of the term: see Sect. 2.1 above) which is the missing link in the equation.

Second, the "spatial" conception which is purported to regulate the use of demonstrative expressions both within the context of utterance and as extended to the textual domain, in temporal terms. This holds that proximal form types are restricted to use in reference to objects which are relatively *near* the speaker, whether spatially in the context of utterance or temporally in terms of relative recency of mention; and that distal form types are limited to use in targeting objects relatively *far* from the speaker, or that are relatively less recent in terms of mention. Yet as shown by a large number of scholars (Cheshire 1996; Kemmerer 1999; Cornish 2001, to name but a few), this is another idealisation which does not correspond to the ways in which demonstratives are actually used in English (and in many other languages as well).

In the above, we have seen ample evidence that advanced L2 learners mishandle demonstratives, both in terms of text comprehension and analysis¹⁴ and production.¹⁵ Again, it is the more "discourse"-oriented conception in terms of the speaker's personal involvement vs. relative lack of involvement or psychological distancing with respect to the intended referent that is the crucial factor lying behind their perspicuous use, rather than a purely formal, textual or perceptual one.

Questions for Reflection on Future Teaching Practice

Several suggestions for future applications of the themes outlined in this chapter suggest themselves:

1. The key concern here is the need to develop students' awareness of the fact that most indexical expressions may have *different* discourse-referring functions in contexts of use. Namely,
 - (a) demonstrative expressions (pronouns or noun phrases), but also definite NPs, may realise *deixis*;
 - (b) demonstrative expressions and definite NPs may also realise *anadeixis*: reduced definite NPs are restricted to realising "*strict*" *anadeixis*, while definite NPs extended via a restrictive relative clause may well realise "*recognitional*" *anadeixis*—though not *discourse deixis*. All these subtypes of *anadeixis* may be expressed via demonstratives.
 - (c) zero forms, third person pronouns and reduced (unaccented) definite or possessive NPs may realise *anaphora*.

Relevant text-based exercises can be constructed in order to develop learners' awareness of this flexibility (i.e. where tokens of the *same* type of indexical realise *different* indexical referring procedures or functions in discourse).

¹⁴ See examples (3) and (4), together with the discussion of students' analyses of the extracts in Sect. 3.

¹⁵ See examples (5), where demonstratives were called for but not used, and (6), where the contextually appropriate member of the demonstrative pair was not used.

2. By priority, exercises should be set up which develop students' sensitivity to *topicality* in texts: *macro-topics*, *micro-topics* and *subtopics*. What are the textual clues that make it possible to recognise each of these subtypes of topic? Both anaphora and anadeixis are sensitive to these distinct subtypes.

In this regard, it is necessary to set up certain exercises in *textual analysis* (see Cottrell 2005, for some useful models in this connection). These would enable students to structure the texts concerned (chosen from different genres and sub-genres) in terms of the constituent parts of the message being conveyed, and the ways in which they relate to one another. Again, this will prove essential for a proper understanding of the discourse functioning of both anadeixis and anaphora.

3. Regarding the three major indexical referring procedures themselves, exercises are needed in order to sensitize students to the *interpersonal frames* and the *recipient's attention state* that distinguish anaphora, anadeixis and deixis:
 - (a) For *deixis*, select a number of relevant dialogues involving situational uses of *this/these (N)* and *that/those (N)*, drawn from novels or from spoken corpora (BNC, COCA etc.). Ask students to characterize the *interpersonal frames* underlying these utterances, determining the specific values for each of the deictic parameters: identity of speaker and of addressee, speaker's communicative intention with respect to the addressee and their social relationship, the place, time and occasion of utterance, and the source of viewpoint. Ask them to characterize the speaker's and addressee's *attention state* both prior to and following these deictic acts of reference.
 - (b) For *anadeictic* references (mainly realised via demonstrative expressions), set up exercises requiring students to pinpoint the *interactional relationship* holding between speaker/writer and addressee/reader at the points in a text containing such references. As far as both "*strict*" *anadeixis* and *discourse deixis* are concerned, these exercises should also ask students to determine the *discourse-structural relations* holding between prior references to a given entity and subsequent ones (see in this respect the discourse-structuring type of exercise suggested in 2) above). Again, the recipient's *current attentional state* with respect to the indexical's referent should be determined.
 - (c) Finally, regarding *anaphoric* references, texts containing these should be selected from a variety of (sub-)genres. Exercises could be constructed around them requiring students to characterize the *interactional relationship* holding between speaker/writer and addressee/reader prior to the occurrences of the indexical markers involved (zero forms, third person pronouns, or reduced definite or possessive NPs). What is the source of the viewpoint involved? What assumptions are likely on the speaker's/writer's part with respect to the addressee's/reader's *current attention state* with respect to the referent of these indexical markers?

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Examples

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Part II

Creativity

In Search of Creativity

Alan Maley

Abstract Creativity is widely regarded as a valuable attribute. It is at the centre of learning. Sadly, it is rarely at the centre of education, where it is often suppressed by institutional constraints. The chapter has five sections: (1) What is Creativity? This comprises a review of attempts to define creativity. (2) Why is it valuable? Emphasis is placed on the survival and motivational value of creativity. (3) How can we foster it? This includes a discussion of how new ideas are generated. (4) Examples of creative activities. These include activities to promote linguistic, methodological and classroom creativity. (5) Challenges and constraints. This reviews issues such as the challenge of technology, institutional constraints and fear of change.

Keywords Creativity • Learning • Constraints • New ideas

1 Introduction

Creativity is widely regarded as a desirable and estimable quality in many domains, including the arts, literature, science, architecture, technology – and in finance and business. There is a firm belief that creativity is essential for our technological, economic, cultural and even personal survival (Robinson 2001).

There is, however, a tension, even a paradox, within the educational domain. Creativity is at the heart of learning. But it is rarely at the heart of education. Institutionalized education depends on control, measurement and conformity. Creativity (rather like its close relative, Critical Thinking) is anathema to systems based on control. However much they claim to be promoting creativity, institutions are dependent on a control paradigm, and thus resistant to anything which threatens that control.

There are essentially two main conceptions of education. One views education as a natural process which can be guided but not controlled. The function of the teacher

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in such a view is to act as a stimulus and support for learning. The other views education as an institutionalized process which can (indeed must) have predetermined outcomes. The function of the teacher in this view is to act as a technician ensuring that the “delivery systems” function. Eisner sees this as a factory and assembly-line metaphor of education:

Such an image of education requires that schools be organised to prescribe, control, and predict the consequences of their actions, that those consequences be immediate and empirically manifest and that they be measurable. (Eisner 1985, pp. 356–7)

Like education in general, the foreign language teaching field, on the whole, rates rather low on creativity. Teaching is, by its very nature, a conservative profession. The institutionalization of teaching into regular classroom hours encourages the development of relatively comfortable routines. Examinations further encourage conformity. And, in the present global economy, market forces tend to discourage publishers from taking creative risks. This is not to deny that ELT in particular saw some significant instances of creativity and innovation in the last quarter of the twentieth century, including the paradigm shift from structural-situational to communicative approaches. But creativity, though ostensibly desirable, is in practice widely discouraged.

One of the major benefits creativity can bring to language education, then, is to counter the currently prevailing, so-called “scientific”, approach to language learning, with its emphasis on objectives, detailed curricular prescription, predictable outcomes, testing and assessment, bureaucratic control, and the rest.

2 What Do We Mean by Creativity?

One of the problems with buzz-words such as “creativity” (“communicative”, “culture” and “identity” are similar in this respect) is that they acquire a large number of different meanings through widespread and often indiscriminate use. It is therefore worth attempting to winnow out the core components of the concept of creativity. What is clear from the literature is that creativity is not a simple, unitary concept: “...a clear and sufficiently detailed articulation of the creative process is not yet possible” (Amabile 1996, p. 33). Generally we are able to recognise creativity readily when we meet it but we are less able to describe it. For this reason, it perhaps makes better sense to adopt Wittgenstein’s idea of a “family resemblance”, where any given instance of a complex phenomenon may share some but not necessarily all of a cluster of characteristics (Wittgenstein 1958, pp. 31–2).

3 Some Features of Creativity

An analysis of some of the vast literature on creativity theory yielded the following ten semantic clusters, which help us get closer to a clearer definition of this elusive term.

1. **“Newness”**: original, innovative, novelty, unusual, surprising. When we call something creative, we recognize that something new has been brought into being. Yet all creative ideas owe a debt to what has gone before. It is their ability to use the past to frame the present in a new light which characterizes creativity. We also need to distinguish between mere novelty and true creativity (see 9 below).
2. **“Immediacy”**: sudden, flash, illumination, spontaneous. This is sometimes described as the “Eureka” moment. Many creative geniuses report that their insights came to them in a flash of sudden clarity. However, it is rare that an idea comes fully worked out. The initial flash of insight usually needs to be worked on and elaborated before it is fully realized. Michelangelo may “see” the statue hiding inside the block of marble but he has a lot of chipping to do before it emerges fully.
3. **“Respect”**: awe, wonder, admiration, delight, aaah! The truly creative act usually evokes feelings of pleasurable recognition on the part of others. A typical reaction would be, “Why didn’t I think of that?” Or in the case of coming upon one’s own work at a later date, “Wow! Did I really write that?”
4. **“Experiment”**: exploration, curiosity, preparedness, tacit knowledge, puzzle, problem-solving, play, heuristic. Creativity usually seems to involve some kind of “playing around” with things, with asking the question “What if . . .?”, and the ability to think outside the box. But curiosity alone is rarely enough. Being prepared, in the sense of well-informed, about an area is an essential prerequisite. As Louis Pasteur (1854) reminds us, “Fortune favours only the prepared mind”. This state of preparedness is often based on “tacit knowledge” (Polanyi 1967; Schon 1983) or “mastery”, which expert practitioners seem able to call upon effortlessly. In fact, such expertise is based on multiple past experiences, which have been internalized, and can be effortlessly retrieved. Often heuristics are used to save time, heuristics being general procedures or rules of thumb such as “consider the negative”, “do the opposite”, “make it bigger/smaller” “start from the end”, etc. “Heuristics are used to prune the search tree. That is, they save the problem-solver from visiting every choice point on the tree by selectively ignoring parts of it” (Boden 1990, p. 98). Such playing around is done within a given conceptual space. “In short, nothing is more natural than ‘playing around’ to gauge the potential – and the limits – of a given way of thinking. This is not a matter of abandoning all rules, but of changing the existing rules to create a new conceptual space” (Boden 1990, p. 46). This playful attitude seems to be one of the essential characteristics of creativity, and is especially important when applying creativity to teaching and learning (Carter 2004; Cook 2000).

5. **“Divine”**: intuition, insight, imagination, inspiration, illumination, divine spark, gift, hunch, mysterious, unconscious. The belief that creativity is a mysterious, unknowable gift from God is widespread and ancient. Very few contemporary writers on creativity would subscribe to this idea, however, preferring instead to investigate how creative acts actually come about. There is, however, broad agreement that much creative activity is largely unconscious.

The belief that creativity is a God-given quality encourages the unhelpful idea that only a few, chosen, people are endowed with this gift. A more reasonable and humane view is that everyone is capable of creativity in varying degrees. It is true that H (Historical) creativity, which involves producing something no one in history has ever created before, is the stuff of genius, as with Mozart, Hokusai, Picasso, Einstein, Tolstoy, Shakespeare, Berners-Lee. But P (Personal) creativity is available to everyone; it involves individuals making creative discoveries which are new to them, if not to history. Carter rightly claims, “linguistic creativity is not simply a property of exceptional people but an exceptional quality of all people” (Carter 2004, p. 13).

6. **“Seeing relationships”**: connections, associations, combinations, analogies, metaphors, seeing in a new way, peripheral attention, incubation, reconfiguring. There is general agreement that an important component of creativity is the ability to make new connections, often between apparently unrelated data. Koestler (1989) called this *bi-sociation*. The surrealists used it as a principle for generating new artistic creations. It has also been used by some writers on teaching, such as Gianni Rodari (1973) and Jacqueline Held (1979). In order to see new relationships, however, it may be necessary to suspend conscious attention, so that material which is on the periphery of our attention may gain access to the unconscious layers of mind. The idea that these ideas are stimulated by a period of incubation, while the conscious mind occupies itself with other things, is a constant theme of writers on creativity.
7. **“Unpredictable”**: randomness, chance, serendipity, coincidence, spontaneity, chaos. It is a paradox of creativity that it cannot be predicted, or consciously invoked. It apparently comes about partly through chance happenings. Crick and Watson’s double helix, Fleming’s discovery of penicillin, Newton’s apple and Archimedes’ bath are all instances. Yet chance discoveries are usually only made by those able to recognize what chance has put in their way. There is a sense too in which we can only discover or create something when the time is ripe for it. This perhaps explains the phenomenon of simultaneous discovery, when the same creative event happens at about the same time in different places (as with Darwin and Wallace and the Theory of Natural Selection). With respect to language, the unpredictable nature of the teaching event and the need to find a creative, spontaneous response to it (Underhill and Maley 2012) are particularly significant.
8. **“Constraints”**: borders, discipline, limits, economy. Creativity is not about “anything goes” or “letting it all hang out”. On the contrary, creativity loves constraints. “Those who think outside the box need a box to think outside of” (Houstmans 2014). It seems that when we are forced to work with limited

resources, or within a rigid set of rules, we are stimulated to find creative solutions. This is nowhere more true than in language. We need only think of tweeting, where we are limited to just 140 characters. Or in poetry, where some of the greatest works are those with the greatest formal constraints, such as sonnets. Without the net, there is no game of tennis. One reason that constraints help creativity is perhaps that they provide a framework which also acts as a support. And this is particularly true in language learning.

9. **“Acceptability”**: recognition, relevance, significance, value. However innovative a creation may be, it is unlikely to be taken up unless it is recognized as relevant to the field in which it occurs. It is not enough for an idea to be innovative or surprising. Going to class without any clothes on would certainly be strikingly innovative but it would probably not be considered creative in any but the most trivial sense. Creative ideas must therefore be historically apt and relevant, as well as merely novel. “Even P-creativity requires that systematic rule-breaking and rule-bending be done in domain-relevant ways” (Boden 1990, p. 254). It is also true that some ideas are simply too difficult to implement because the infrastructure which would support them is not yet in place. Leonardo da Vinci designed an aeroplane and a submarine but the materials available at the time were insufficient to realise them, and the fuel they needed to function had not yet been discovered.
10. **“Flow”**: relaxed attention, effortless effort, being “in the zone”, absorption. It is claimed that creativity is facilitated by being in a particular mental state, which has been called “flow” (Csikszentmihalyi 1988, 1990). Flow states are characterised by an effortless, total absorption in the task in hand. When we lose ourselves in a book, or in a piece of writing, or in playing or listening to music, or in playing a game, in painting or making a sculpture, or in a conversation, then we are in a state of flow. For as long as it lasts, we are unaware of anything except the intense engagement in a timeless present. People engaged in creative activities often exhibit this quality. And, if we can find ways of establishing flow states in our classrooms, creative outcomes are more likely to ensue.

4 Some Approaches to Creativity

Creativity has long attracted the attention of theorists. Gardner (1993), picking up on Francis Galton’s nineteenth-century work on geniuses, has investigated biographical aspects of creativity in a number of H-creative people, hoping to find common factors among them. Significantly, he has chosen geniuses from all seven of his types of intelligence (Gardner 1985). His concentration on H-creativity may not help us very much, however, if our main concern is creativity as a widely-distributed attribute in the human population.

Csikszentmihalyi (1988) takes a multidimensional view of creativity as an interaction: individual talent, operating in a particular domain or discipline, and judged by experts in that field. This helps to explain why some ideas, though creative, do

not emerge until the time is ripe, as in the example of Leonardo da Vinci given above. Csikszentmihalyi also has interesting observations about the role of “flow” in creativity: the state of “effortless effort” in which everything seems to come together in a flow of seamless creative energy (Csikszentmihalyi 1990). He further explores creativity through analysing interviews with 91 exceptional individuals, and isolates ten characteristics of creative individuals (Csikszentmihalyi 1997).

Both Koestler (1989) and Boden (1990) have sought a cognitive psychological explanation for creativity. Koestler (1989), in his monumental *The Act of Creation* – takes up Helmholtz and Wallas’s idea of creativity as a four-stage process. Given a “problem”, “puzzle” or “conceptual space”, the creative mind first prepares itself by soaking up all the information available. Following this first Preparation stage, there is a stage of Incubation, in which the conscious mind stops thinking about the problem, leaving the unconscious to take over. In the third stage, Illumination, a solution suddenly presents itself (if you’re lucky!). In the final Verification stage, the conscious mind needs to check, clarify and elaborate on the insights gained. Koestler cites many examples, especially from science, to support his theory. He goes on to suggest that the process operates through the bi-sociation of two conceptual matrices, not normally found together. The juxtaposition of hitherto unrelated areas or factors is held to facilitate a sudden new insight.

By contrast, Boden (1990) takes an AI (Artificial Intelligence) approach to investigating creativity. She asks what a computer would need to do to replicate human thought processes. This leads to a consideration of the self-organizing properties of complex, generative systems through processes such as parallel distributed processing. For her, creativity arises from the systematic exploration of a conceptual space or domain (mathematical, musical, linguistic). She draws attention to the importance of constraints in this process. “Far from being the antithesis of creativity, constraints on thinking are what make it possible” (Boden 1990, p. 82). And she goes on to say that:

It is the partial continuity of constraints which enables a new idea to be recognised, by author and audience alike, as a creative contribution. The new conceptual space may provide a fresh way of viewing the task domain and signposting interesting pathways that were invisible – indeed impossible – before. (Boden 1990, p. 83)

Chaos theory (Gleick 1987) tends to support her ideas. Boden’s approach is richly suggestive for language acquisition and materials writing, in that both are rooted in complex, self-organizing systems. Some of the implications of complexity theory for language acquisition have been explored by Larsen Freeman (1997).

Amabile (1996) approaches creativity from a social and environmental viewpoint, claiming that previous theories have tended to neglect the power of such factors to shape creative effort. Her componential theory rests on three main factors: domain-relevant skills (i.e. familiarity with a given domain of knowledge), creativity-relevant skills (e.g. the ability to break free of “performance scripts” – established routines, to see new connections, etc.) and task motivation, based on attitudes, intrinsic motivation, extrinsic constraints and rewards, etc. The social and environmental factors discussed include peer influence, teachers’ character and

behaviour, the classroom climate, family influence, life stress, the physical environment, degree of choice offered, time, the presence of positive role models, and the scope for play in the environment. These factors clearly have relevance for language learning too.

One of the most recent attempts to offer a comprehensive overview of the whole field of creativity is Kaufman and Sternberg's, *Cambridge Handbook of Creativity* (2010). Their final chapter, *Constraints on Creativity*, is an admirably concise summary of the factors which come in the way of creativity. They are particularly critical of the way academic education, with its emphasis on conformity, and learning measured through tests, has a negative effect on creativity:

Academic knowledge and skills as taught [...] will be inadequate to meet the needs of a rapidly changing world [...] creativity is more important than ever. [However] the greater the emphasis is on high-stakes assessment, the less is the emphasis on creativity. (Kaufman and Sternberg 2010, p. 475)

Much the same point is made by Ken Robinson in *Out of Our Minds* (2001), and it is a chilling reminder of the institutional obstacles put in the way of any attempt to introduce creative ideas in the educational domain.

5 Why Is Creativity Important?

1. It is *psychologically* inevitable, given the nature of the human mind, which, as a complex system, is predisposed to generate new ideas. What distinguishes humankind from other genetically similar species is precisely the ability to make creative adaptations and discoveries and to pass them on to succeeding generations.
2. It is *necessary for survival*. The context in which language teaching and learning take place is constantly evolving under the pressure of other forces: changing demands, changing technology, changing economic needs, etc. We are obliged to respond to this by changing ourselves, and at an ever-accelerating rate (Gleick 1999; Robinson 2001). Creativity tends to accompany change, as we seek adaptive solutions to new opportunities and constraints.
3. It is also *inevitable historically*. As Kuhn (1970) has shown, any given domain tends to follow a cyclical pattern of development. After a period of dominance by one paradigm, accepted by all, with knowledge and procedures routinized, there comes a period of questioning, the discovery of new insights and ideas, which then supplant the old paradigm. The cycle then continues. In language teaching, we can consider the nineteenth-century Reform Movement as one such paradigm shift, and the Communicative Approach in the 1970s and 1980s perhaps another. Creative adaptation to the new technologies may well prove to be yet another.
4. Creativity *stimulates and motivates*. Teachers who actively explore creative solutions tend to be more alive and vibrant than those content to follow a routine. Students given the opportunity to exercise their own creativity tend to respond

positively. Their self-esteem is enhanced as they realise how much they can do on their own. In a creative classroom, students are more deeply engaged in their learning. The materials writer who approaches the job creatively is likely to produce more interesting materials (Pugliese 2010).

5. *Language use – and language learning – are inherently creative processes.* Several recent books (Carter 2004; Cook 2000; Crystal 1998; Lecercle 1990) have drawn attention to the fact that much natural language use is not merely utilitarian and transactional, nor merely interactional. People indulge in vast amounts of creative language play, through punning, riddles, jokes, spoonerisms, insults, deliberate ambiguity, metathesis, unusual collocations, mixed metaphors, mimicry, games with names and irreverence. Likewise, children learning their first language play around with it a great deal, constantly testing its limits creatively: “not all play is creative but all creativity contains play” (Gordon 1961, p. 121). I would argue that these features should at least be given some space in teaching materials. Literature is the supreme example of linguistic playfulness, and along with drama, clearly has a key revitalizing role to play here.

6 How Can We Foster Creativity?

6.1 Heuristics

Heuristics are basically simple “rules of thumb”. They work by asking the question, “I wonder what would happen if we...?” The best-known heuristic in our field was provided by John Fanselow in his book *Breaking Rules* (1987). He urges us to “do the opposite.” If we want to bring about change in our classroom practice, we should do the opposite from what we currently do, and observe the results carefully. For example, if we habitually conduct our class from the front of the room, we should try teaching from the back. If students always sit in the same place, we encourage them to sit with someone different in each lesson. If we use a predominantly cognitive style, we try some affective activities instead. Fanselow (2014) argues that it is only by systematically breaking the unwritten rules (or habits) in our classrooms that we can discover new and possibly better ways of doing things. This is indeed a powerful heuristic, and highly generative of new ideas – some of them worth retaining.

There are of course other possible heuristics which can be applied. For example, “reverse the order”. To offer two illustrations of how this might work, consider dictation and reading. Normally, in dictation, the students only get to see the text after the dictation. If we reverse the order, they could be given the text before the dictation. It would then be taken away during the dictation, and given back afterwards. In reading, it is normal to read a text from beginning to end. An alternative, working on the “reverse the order” heuristic, would be to read the text from the end backwards towards the beginning (something which experienced readers often do).

Other heuristics might include “change the pace”, “change the mode/manner”, “combine unrelated items randomly”, “repeat differently”, or “withhold information”.

Heuristics have played and will doubtless continue to play an important role in generating new ideas and activities by stimulating us to look anew at the activities we use and the ways in which we use them.

6.2 *Re-explorations*

A second major source of new ideas is the re-exploration of well-established or traditional practices with a view to finding new, different, more effective, more motivating ways of conducting them.

One of the best examples would be dictation. Dictation is still very widely practised, however, it is also commonly regarded as a boring and tedious task with dubious learning pay-off. Yet Davis and Rinvoluceri (1988) managed to find 74 variations on the practice of dictation, thus bringing alive an activity long regarded as retrograde and semi-moribund.

A more recent example would be homework. Like dictation, homework tends to be regarded as a necessary evil – a chore for the teacher and the student alike. Yet by submitting it to careful examination, Leslie Painter (2003) offered 101 activities for making homework both more motivating and more effective.

Other re-explorations to date include letter-writing (Burbidge et al. 1996), storytelling (Heathfield 2014; Wright 2008; Wajnryb 2003), vocabulary teaching (Rinvoluceri and Morgan 2004), pronunciation (Underhill 1994), and reading (Bamford and Day 2004).

Areas ripe for re-exploration could include: repetition, questions, translation, rote-memorisation, textbook dialogues and drills (Maley 2013), and improvisation (Johnstone 1999; Underhill and Maley 2012). Helgesen (2012) offers us some engagingly new ways of looking at dialogues and drills.

6.3 *Feeder Fields*

“Feeder fields” are areas of inquiry outside ELT which have a potential for exploitation within ELT. A good example of this would be voice training for the theatre. The disciplined training of the voice can be a fertile source of “new” activities in the classroom. It transcends mere pronunciation and offers the students a resource they can carry into their lives in any language (Maley 2000).

Other feeder fields which have been harvested for new ideas would include NLP (Neuro-Linguistic Programming et al. 2005), Multiple Intelligences (Gardner 1985) and Drama (Maley and Duff 2005; Wilson 2008). There is also increasing interest

in ways of applying work in critical thinking to language teaching (Clandfield and Robb Benne 2010).

Fields which have not yet been tapped to a great extent include music. I am not referring here to the use of pop songs, but to the rhythmic and melodious qualities of music. Music is of course, integral to Suggestopedia as a medium for changing the brain waves of students. The rhythmical qualities of music have also been used by Carolyn Graham in her *Jazz Chants* (Graham 1976, 2006). A great many ideas are beginning to emerge applying music to language teaching (Hill and Rouse 2012; Paterson and Willis 2008).

The same can be said of Art. Again, I am not referring here to the use of visuals/pictures, which are in common use already. Rather, I am referring to the potential of “serious” art for building language teaching activities (Grundy et al. 2011; Keddie 2009), and for the arts in general (see Goldberg 2006; Maley 2009, 2010).

Other fields which suggest themselves would include Chaos Theory (Gleick 1987), Creativity theory (Carter 2004; Pope 2004), Memory studies (Baddeley 1993; Bilbrough 2011; Winston 2003), the Psychology of Consciousness (Damasio 2010; Dennett 1991; Ramachandran 2003, 2005), Philosophy (Cohen 1999) and Extra-sensory phenomena (Sheldrake 2003). Though some of these may seem far-removed from language teaching concerns, they are all rich fields worth at least considering if we wish to generate “new ideas” for teaching. Hopefully, we can break out of the self-imposed isolationism of ELT and benefit from the rich array of ideas to be found in other disciplines and fields.

6.4 *New, Developing Areas*

I am referring here to areas which are in some cases already included within our ELT perimeter but which continue to unfold and develop as we probe them more deeply.

One of the most topical of these areas is information technology – encompassing everything from computer-based corpora to the use of the Internet for research, on-line publications, and the many varieties of on-line interaction (e-mail, chat-groups, discussion forums, etc.) (Crystal 2001; Dudeney and Hockley 2007; Stannard 2015). Corpus studies are already yielding new information about the nature of the language, which can be incorporated into new types of materials (Hoey 2005; McCarthy 1991; McCarthy and Carter 1995). There are many challenges – ethical, technical, logistical and pedagogical – related to the effective use of this rich resource. There can be no doubt, however, that we shall see a number of “new ideas” emerging from this area.

Other content-related areas are also a fertile field for exploration. Literature, for long the Cinderella of ELT, has made a comeback (Lutzker 2007). Ideas continue to be generated as we probe the limits both of texts (including, for example, the “new literatures”, with their complex array of cultural issues), and of techniques for exploiting them. The extent to which literary devices and “playfulness” permeate

“ordinary” language is also being revealed and exploited as never before (Cook 2000; Duff and Maley 2007). The related area of creative writing with students is also being belatedly developed (Spiro 2004, 2007).

A second content-related area is Global Issues. Here too the opportunity to give a relevant content to language teaching is being taken up enthusiastically. Increasingly, Global Issues are being seen as a way of raising awareness of some of the blatant inequalities brought about by so-called “free markets”, and of introducing critical thinking in a concrete way (Jacobs et al. 1998; Sampedro and Hillyard 2004). One of the attractions of Global Issues as a resource for generating new ideas is that this field links to almost everything – the Internet, a great variety of text-types, including literature, TV and film, music and folklore, history, geography, philosophy... the world we live in, in fact.

One last area I would earmark for development is that of “atmosphere”. Classroom atmosphere has long been recognised as an essential element in generating motivation and successful performance (Maley 1996). Relatively little has been done however to investigate exactly which elements contribute to “flow” experiences (Csikszentmihalyi 1990, 1997). One recent exception is Dörnyei’s (2001) work on motivation. If we were to take the creation of “flow” (or positive atmosphere) as a focus, it is certain that a number of new ideas would emerge. This offers a project for aspiring materials writers and a rich area for action research projects.

7 Concluding Remarks

In this chapter, I have tried to clarify what creativity is, and why it is so important. I have also given a few pointers to ways it might be implemented. More concrete ideas can be found in Maley (2006, 2009, 2001).

To conclude, let me address two areas, one positive, one negative:

1. We should think of creativity as *permeating every aspect* of what we do. It is not confined to wacky new activities. We can think of more creative ways of managing the class (for example, making students responsible for some of the teaching, finding new ways to transfer learning out of the classroom, bringing the world into the classroom through local speakers with expert knowledge, even new ways of taking the attendance register, etc.). We can create new patterns of group dynamics (Dörnyei and Murphey 2003). We can focus on developing creative responses to what is happening in the present, unpredictable moment in class (Brown 2013; Underhill and Maley 2012; Underhill 2014). We can find new ways to set homework assignments (Painter 2003), give feedback and conduct assessment (Phuong 2014; Stannard 2014). We can experiment with new ways of motivating our learners (Dörnyei 2001). We can explore innovative ways of using time and space (Almond 2007, 2013). And, of course, there is technology, though we need to ensure that we use it to solve learning problems rather than simply being mesmerised by its technical wizardry – and develop an understand-

ing of its potentially negative effects (Carr 2010) as well as its undoubted positive advantages (Dudeny and Hockley 2007).

2. There are many *enemies of creativity*. These include the control paradigm inherent in many institutions, fear of change among administrators and teachers alike, teacher training programmes which prepare teachers only for the predictable features of their work (Brown 2013; Underhill and Maley 2012), conservatism, apathy, settling for less than 100 % (Scrivener 2014). So embracing creativity requires courage, enthusiasm, effort and persistence. It will never be an easy thing to achieve. But that does not mean we should give up!

Questions for Reflection on Future Teaching Practice

1. How free do you feel to introduce and implement creative ideas in your teaching? Which institutional constraints most often prevent you from doing so?
2. What for you are the most important features of creativity? How would you define them?
3. In your own context, how would you justify the inclusion of an element of creativity in your work?
4. Can you think of concrete instances when you have implemented creative ideas in your class? How successful were you?

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Teaching Creatively and Teaching for Creativity

Teresa Cremin

Abstract In order to prepare today's students to engage with tomorrow's world, governments, schools and universities need to prioritise creativity in education – both creative teaching (teacher centred) and teaching for creativity (learner centred). Creativity is a life skill; it can help students learn to live with uncertainty and use their personal creativity to thrive. This chapter examines students' and lecturers' conceptions of creativity, their creative engagement in teaching and learning, and the nature of creative pedagogical practice. In so doing, it argues for a fuller consideration of the possibilities and potential of teaching creatively and teaching for creativity. It highlights in particular the significance of motivation, passion, and recognizing one's own creativity, and argues that increased attention urgently needs to be paid to creative teaching and learning in the academy.

Keywords Creative teaching • Teaching for creativity • Conceptions of creativity • Passion • Motivation

1 Introduction

In the context of the European University Association's (2007) initiative on creativity in higher education, which sought to “promote a culture which is tolerant of failure and thus encourage the members of the university community to question established ideas, to go beyond conventional knowledge and to strive towards originality” (EUA 2007, p. 7), this chapter considers research evidence on the nature of creative teaching and teaching for creativity. Though closely interrelated, the former is arguably teacher centred whilst the latter focuses more on increasing creativity in general and fostering students' creativity. In England, the National Advisory Committee on Creative and Cultural Education suggests creative teaching encompasses teachers making learning both more interesting and more effective through

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using imaginative approaches in the classroom. They suggest teaching for creativity means teachers identifying the creative strengths of the learners in order to build on these and foster their creativity (NACCCE 1999, p. 90). In exploring the relationships between these foci, Jeffrey and Craft (2004) observe that teachers in all sectors may teach for creativity and also teach creatively in response to need, and sometimes do both simultaneously. Furthermore, teaching for creativity often arises spontaneously and is more likely to arise in contexts where teachers are teaching creatively. Thus it is feasible to argue that creative teaching includes attention to teaching for creativity. But to what extent does this describe teaching in Higher Education?

In responding to this issue, Barnett and Coat (2005) question whether the emphasis on skills in Higher Education prepares today's students to engage with tomorrow's world, and contend that in order to achieve this goal governments need to prioritise creativity and creative teaching in education. Others also perceive that schools and universities need to nurture creativity as a life skill in the twenty-first century (e.g. Craft 2011; Sawyer 2006; Livingston 2010), ensuring that students are enabled to learn to live with uncertainty and to use their personal creativity to thrive. Boden's (2001) concept of personal creativity is aligned with little-c creativity, the democratic life-wide creativity of the everyday (Craft 2001), in contrast to Boden's (2001) historical (or Big-C creativity) evidenced for example by innovators such as Einstein and Picasso. Nonetheless, both involve working imaginatively and encompass the processes of exploration, combination and transformation (Boden 2004), though unlike personal creativity, historical creativity is seen to be domain changing (Csikszentmihalyi 1997). Kaufman and Beghetto (2009) additionally distinguish between mini-c creativity (personal meaning-making) and what they see as little-c creativity (everyday creativity shared with others). They also conceptualize professional creativity (pro-c creativity), and suggest this reflects the construction of professional knowledge and understanding. In exploring creative teaching in Higher Education, this chapter focuses on personal, little-c creativity, whilst also acknowledging that creativity is social and collaborative (John-Steiner 2000), involving emotion as well as cognition (Sawyer 2006).

Despite the desire to nurture and inspire creativity in students, research suggests that multiple constraints inhibit the development of creative teaching and teaching for creativity in Higher Education (Gibson 2010; McWilliam et al. 2008; Tosey 2006; Cheung et al. 2003). Creativity, the natural capacity to work imaginatively and purposefully in all subjects, to make new responses to problems, and judge the value of contributions (one's own and those of others), can be seen in tension with the need for university systems and structures, and the pressure towards efficiency and effectiveness, as well as increased personal accountability. It may also be in tension with the sector's central role of knowledge production, with its rigour and respectability, which is often framed as an objective activity independent of creativity, although as Boden (2001) has argued "knowledge and creativity are two sides of the same coin, not opposing forces" (p. 99).

Assessment systems and prescribed learning outcomes can serve to inhibit creativity (Crème 2003; Simmons and Thompson 2008), as can lecturers' and students'

misconceptions about the nature of creativity and its application in diverse disciplines. Additionally, the incessant pressures upon staff to ensure high student achievement can mean that lecturers perceive creative teaching as an unnecessary extra, requiring more time, effort and resources than are readily available (Chao 2009). Furthermore, as Jackson (2006) notes, historically the creativity of university lecturers as educators has not been systematically rewarded or celebrated, nor has it been subject to extensive study. It is also argued that lecturers tend to be reticent with regard to teaching creatively, using their creativity to “converge and control” (Tosey 2006, p. 35) rather than to improvise and imagine alongside their students. This may be due to the fact that Higher Education lecturers have succeeded in an education system that commends conformity (Gibson 2010) where the value of teaching creatively is not recognized (Clouder et al. 2008; Dawson et al. 2011). In order to nurture student creativity and respond to the needs of those who may have suppressed their creativity through schooling (Sternberg 1997), it is argued, university educators need to re-consider their pedagogy and practice and the application of creativity in different disciplines (Robinson 2006; Jackson et al. 2006).

In examining students’ and lecturers’ conceptions of creativity, their creative engagement in teaching and learning, and the nature of creative pedagogical practice, this chapter argues for a fuller consideration of the possibilities and potential of teaching creatively and teaching for creativity. It highlights in particular the significance of motivation, passion, and recognizing one’s own creativity and suggests that increased attention needs to be afforded creative teaching and learning in the academy.

2 Students’ Views of Creativity

Regardless of the creativity of their lecturers, students’ creative engagement in their studies may be held back by their understanding of the concept, their experience of it in schooling/life and their resulting sense of identity as creative individuals. Some studies have focused upon students’ conceptualizations of creativity. For example, in a cross-disciplinary case study of 25 university students, Oliver et al. (2006) found that both 18–21 year olds and mature students were confused by the notion; drawing on multiple discourses, they often presented contrasting and even internally inconsistent views about creativity during their interviews. In a not dissimilar manner, the 1,500 student teachers drawn from several universities within the Teacher Education Achievement Network (TEAN) also revealed that they found the concept confusing and unclear (Walsh et al. 2012). Whilst students in both studies often connected creativity with the imagination, with a sense of freedom, independence and agency, they found it hard to define or capture, and additionally some saw it as personal and innate, others perceived it could be nurtured, and yet others suggested that although they believed it could be nurtured, they also saw an upper limit to an individual’s capacity for creativity. Such conceptualizations have significant

consequences for pedagogy. If students see creativity as the special gift of some people – as innate – there is little point in seeking to foster it. Such studies serve to reveal some of the myths and misconceptions about creativity which students may hold, including, for example, it being related only to the arts or to named geniuses in particular fields. In contrast, Dineen's (2006) research with 113 students and 20 lecturers at two art and design institutions, studying/teaching fine arts, ceramics, graphic and industrial design, revealed that they all viewed creativity as unproblematic, collaborative, contextual and a key aspect of their identity as learners. Their definitions, which align with Robinson's (2001) perspective that creativity is at the heart of what it is to be human, tended towards a view of creativity as ubiquitous, linked to notions of self-actualization.

In all three studies, whilst questionnaires and follow up interviews were commonly used to elicit students' understandings of creativity, diverse foci were employed. For example in Oliver et al.'s (2006) research, students were invited to identify individuals whom they deemed to be creative and to offer examples of their creativity outside the context of their studies (which intriguingly they found easier to identify than examples within the curriculum). In Dineen's (2006) research, students were asked to select a project they had undertaken and assess their creative development within this. In both these studies, the myriad of examples given of the students' own creativity beyond the academy highlighted the significance and value they afforded it in different contexts, and its relationship with extrinsic as well as intrinsic motivation. Amabile (1998) argues intrinsic motivation is a prerequisite for creativity, and that rewards and extrinsic motivation tend to constrain creativity, especially if students view their learning in instrumental terms – as something to be “completed”. The importance of adopting a positive stance and mood as well as the perceived significance of the problem to be solved are also seen to be influential in fostering creativity (Amabile et al. 2005; Hennessey and Amabile 2010). In the TEAN study, following the initial survey, different, arguably more creative, strategies were used to reveal the students' perceptions: one group developed a Bayeux tapestry reflecting their individual understandings (adding to this over time), and another created visual metaphors (from their own photographs and magazines) to reflect their collaboratively achieved understandings (Smears et al. 2011; Walsh et al. 2012).

In relation to creative teaching, research suggests that students tend to conceive of creative teaching as different from more conventional forms (such as rote learning, independent study, exams), as a set of techniques which foster interaction, or as creative qualities embodied by particular lecturers (Walsh et al. 2012; Newton and Beverton 2012). Such qualities, noted by students in HE, include: self-confidence and the ability to inspire; the use of metaphor and analogy to make connections (Grainger et al. 2004); valuing students and fostering their risk-taking through engaging them emotionally and affectively (as well as cognitively); and a sense of conviction and deep passion for their subject, (Grainger et al. 2004; Craft et al. 2014; Dineen 2006). In yet another study, students' perceptions of creative teachers were characterized as either “innovative-types” – interested in igniting a passion for their subject, or “facilitator-types” – interested in students' ideas and attending to their multiple views and voices (Sousa 2007).

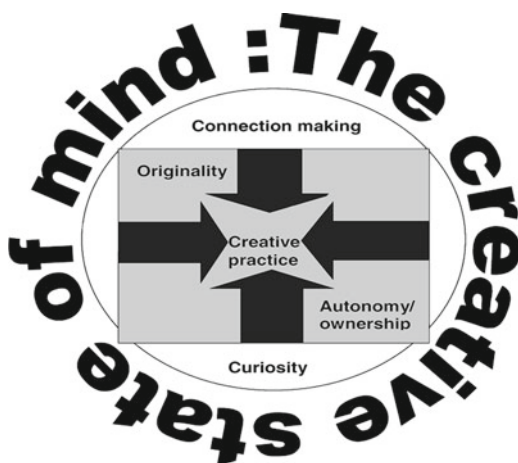
Whilst students in higher education may be unused to discussing creativity, many voice frustration at the lack of creative opportunities afforded them and perceive limitations in relation to assessment and disciplinary hierarches, so it is nonetheless valuable to create opportunities for them to share their perceptions of creativity and creative teaching across and within disciplines and in their own lives. Their views represent a useful starting point for exploration and development, particularly in contexts where lecturers too seek to consider their own creativity, personally and as pedagogues.

3 Lecturers' Views of Creativity

To avoid education becoming a routine endeavour, delivered through over-regularized courses of study, lecturers too need to engage in self-reflection regarding their understandings of creativity, and to recognize and nurture their own creativity. The complexity inherent in students' conceptions of creativity is mirrored in research documenting the views of academics (Oliver 2002; McGoldrick and Edwards 2002; Edwards et al. 2006). These studies highlight the multi-layered, often contested, understanding held by lecturers working in different disciplines. Although many academics personally believe creativity is central to their discipline, they do not perceive it is fully recognized in their own disciplines (Jackson and Burgess 2005; Jackson and Shaw 2006). Thus whilst creativity may be seen to be ubiquitous in higher education (Dawson et al. 2011; Livingston 2010), its presence may not be as embedded as it is assumed, since it cannot be condensed into a few easily operational ideas. Common academic perceptions of creativity tend to foreground: 'newness' (judged consensually by academics within the discipline), purposeful exploration, synthesis, making sense of complexity and communicating new meanings, ideas or insights in diverse disciplinary ways (Jackson 2006). However, none of these characteristics affords a simple pragmatic way forward in terms of course design or delivery. Additionally, some studies highlight the perceived significance of the tutor-student relationship in fostering each individual's creative pathway (Dineen 2006; Craft et al. 2014; Sousa 2007).

Recognizing and exercising one's personal creativity appears to be an important part of creative teachers' professional and personal meaning-making (Prentice 2000; Csikszentmihalyi 1997; Dineen 2006; Craft et al. 2008). Those who play with new ideas and ways of teaching, who are curious and reflective, are, it seems, most likely to foster student creativity (Tanggaard 2011). In the context of formal schooling, creative teachers have been documented as seeing the development of creativity and originality as the distinguishing mark of their teaching (Cremin et al. 2009). In this research, which involved observation of highly creative UK professionals working with pupils from the early primary phase through to the end of secondary teaching, the creative teacher was seen as "one who is aware of, and values, the human attribute of creativity in themselves and seeks to promote it in others" (Cremin 2014, p. 44). Such creative teachers, it is argued, have a creative state of mind which

Fig. 1 A model of creative practice and a creative state of mind (Cremin et al. 2009)



is actively exercised and developed in practice through the core features of creative practice (see Fig. 1). They model, demonstrate and foster a questioning stance, the making of connections, show a marked degree of autonomy and ownership, and in the process value and nurture originality and the generation/evaluation of ideas (Cremin et al. 2009). Through such practice, creative teachers seek to develop the creative dispositions of their students. In Higher Education also, lecturers can choose to teach creatively and for creativity, capitalizing upon their own passion and curiosity about their subject and searching for an appropriate pedagogy.

4 Creative Pedagogic Practice

There has been considerable research into creative teaching. Some of this focuses on people's perceptions of creative educators, and tends to result in extended lists of particular character traits and propensities which such teachers possess, including, for example: flexibility, curiosity, independence in thinking and judgement and the tendency to be focused, preoccupied and persistent (Fryer 1996; Beetlestone 1988). In reviewing key personality characteristics noted in research studies, Stein (1974) additionally includes characteristics such as: the capacity to be constructively critical, openness to emotions, achievement within domains and a tendency to be less formal/conventional. Other research, mostly, but not exclusively in the context of schooling, makes use of close observation and analysis of creative teachers, resulting in case study accounts of individuals' classroom practice (Jeffrey and Woods 2003; Cremin et al. 2006; Craft et al. 2013; Perone 2011; Peters 2014). Studies of "possibility thinking", deemed to be at the heart of creativity, suggest that the core pedagogical strategies employed by creative primary and early years teachers include: affording time and space for imagining and playing with possibilities, profiling the agency of young learners and "standing back" to observe

closely and reflect deeply about learners' ideas in a way that highlights the importance of "what ifs" or possibilities in the creative learning process. Standing back in this way also appeared to allow the teachers to notice unexpected actions, suggestions and behaviours on the part of the children and to build sensitively on these (Cremin et al. 2006; Craft et al. 2012). There are lessons to be learnt from these studies and intriguing parallels in research documented in Higher Education. Oliver (2002) for example also found that space and sustained time in a course is needed for creative endeavour, and Dineen (2006) and Jackson (2004) found that students' agency and ownership of their learning was central to nurturing creativity. Additionally, Peters (2014) found that open attitudes and questioning were key, and Jackson and Shaw (2006) that problem-finding/solving is central to teaching for creativity. As Jackson notes:

While the nature of problems and the way they are visualised and addressed varies from discipline to discipline, finding, formulating, exploring, interpreting and finding solutions to complex concrete or abstract problems is the key focus for creative thinking and action in all disciplinary contexts. (Jackson 2006, p. 211)

Although disciplines and institutions vary in the extent to which they embrace creativity and allow creative practice to develop and permeate, recent examples which exemplify creative pedagogy in higher music education (Burnard 2014) and in interdisciplinary contexts (Craft et al. 2014) afford rich evidence of its potential. The former draws together the work of multiple international scholars, and indicates the value of practices which nurture collaborative creativity, performance creativity and creative assessment practices, whilst also arguing that "the reshaping of the working environment of Higher Education teachers and learners is a necessary precondition for a more creative professional learning context" (Burnard 2014, p. xxviii). The latter draws upon data from Higher Education institutions in England, Malaysia and Thailand, and focuses upon the lived experience of creative teaching from the perspectives of lecturers and students. It reveals that in this research, passion for the subject was the "over-arching driver" of creative pedagogic practice (p. 96). This was documented in a range of discipline areas, which spanned the arts, humanities and STEM – science, technology, engineering and mathematics. The project employed a wider than usual range of data collection methods to ascertain the features of creative teaching, including: a questionnaire, interviews, conceptual drawings, digital images, creative learning conversations (Chappell and Craft 2011) and significantly, observations. Subject passion was seen to encompass personal enthusiasm and commitment and a deep-seated desire to make the subject so interesting, engaging and vital that students too developed their own subject fervour. The lecturers' subject passion appeared to drive four sensitively-tuned pedagogical strategies which aimed to: respond to the students' perceived perspectives about creativity and relationships; foster independent thinking; develop equality through conversation and collaboration; and orchestrate the construction of new knowledge (Craft et al. 2014).

An earlier study, based on data drawn from 240 Higher Education students (which made use of observations and did not rely upon debatable staff or student

self-reports), also recognized the complexity involved (Grainger et al. 2004). These researchers posit that creative teaching in Higher Education is a multifaceted art form, a kind of “cocktail party”, encompassing: (a) the session content (the cocktail ingredients), (b) the teaching style (mixing the ingredients in a cocktail shaker) and (c) the learning experience (the party itself) (Grainger et al. 2004). Whilst these categories overlap and interface with each other, it is argued that the “session content” involves placing current trends in a wider context and using metaphor and analogies to make connections. Creativity has commonly been seen as making connections between two previously unconnected frames of reference (Koestler 1964), and studies in neuroscience have also shown that mental models and analogies aid understanding (Smith 1996; Adey 2001). The “teaching style” comprises not only style and pace, but the tutor’s confidence and ability to inspire through sharing passion for their subject. Examples are given of lecturers reflecting their passion with enthusiasm and also sharing a desire to learn, questioning their own understandings and voicing ambiguities. The vignettes from this study, exemplify what Claxton (1998) refers to as the “confident uncertainty” of creative teachers who combine secure subject and pedagogical knowledge, but leave space for uncertainty, risk taking and the unknown. The third element of the “cocktail party”, the “learning experience”, includes engaging students affectively and physically, as well as challenging them to reflect. One of the significant features of creativity as noted earlier is that it is not a purely intellectual activity; feelings, intuitions and a playful imagination are an equally important part of the process. As Craft observes:

The sources of creativity are not always conscious or rational. The intuitive, spiritual and emotional also feed creativity – fed themselves by the bedrock of impulse. (Craft 2000, p. 31)

Through humorous asides, personal anecdotes, the use of emotive narratives, provocative music and video footage, the lecturers in this study involved their students aesthetically, emotionally and physically in their sessions (Grainger et al. 2004). Taken together, these various elements combined to support new thinking and offered examples of lecturers engaging creatively and modelling passion for their subject. As Prentice (2000, p. 151) argues, creative teachers “continue to be self-motivated learners – they value the creative dimensions of their own lives and they understand how creative connections can be made between their personal responses to experience and their teaching”.

However, the pressures associated with the current performative educational culture in the West (Ball 1998), and the marketized context of higher education, can drive out such passion, and constrain the creation of alternative possibilities and playfulness in teaching and learning. It is thus important that lecturers consider ways to share their subject passions and support one another in the process. This can render visible their creativity and the creative potential inherent within their subject, as well as foster student creativity and make an impact upon learning (Donnelly 2004). In seeking to become creative teachers, lecturers will benefit from reflecting upon their own creativity, exploring imaginative approaches and widening their repertoires of engaging activities that can be employed to develop the students’

capacity for original ideas and action. They will also benefit from exerting their professional autonomy, acting as creative role models and learning to be more responsive to different learners with diverse conceptions of creativity and creative identities.

Myriad sites and guide books afford suggestions for developing the art of creative teaching (see for example Oliver 2002; Jackson and Burgess 2005; Jackson 2004), though whilst such strategies can be helpful, they do not preclude the need for academics to take risks, flexibly trial alternative approaches and foreground reflection upon their own and the learners' creative states of mind, simultaneously paying attention to personal characteristics, pedagogy and the ethos created in their classrooms. As designers and facilitators of creative learning, educators in Higher Education need to build open trusting environments where students are protected from ridicule, enjoy strong relationships of trust and respect, and a high degree of emotional security, in order that they too are enabled to take risks as they problem-solve their way forwards.

5 Conclusion

In this era of rapid technological growth and innovation, creativity is recognised as a vital quality for the future, and its development deserves to be paid increased attention in schooling and higher education. McWilliam (2008) argues that creative educators, are neither the “sage on the stage”, nor the “guide on the side”, but are more appropriately described as “meddlers in the middle”; educators positioned in the midst of the learners, sharing their subject passion through full engagement in the learning context. A meddler, she suggests, affords less time to transmission and more to problem solving activities in which he/she too is involved, and seeks to design, edit and assemble knowledge, prioritizing experimentation, improvisation, risk-taking, co-learning and critical collaboration. Whilst this remains a challenge in different disciplinary contexts and institutions, it is surely imperative that the sector reconsiders its responsibilities and enables its staff to teach creatively and teach for creativity.

Questions for Reflection on Future Teaching Practice

1. What are your students' views of creativity? Do they believe it is possible to develop their creativity?
2. What is your own understanding of creativity, and in what ways do you seek to nurture your own creativity?
3. In what ways might you share your passion, personal commitment and desire to make your subject interesting in order to foster students' own passion and curiosity?
4. How might you more overtly act as a creative role model and be more responsive to different learners with diverse conceptions of creativity and creative identities?

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Creativity and Digital Literacies in English for Specific Purposes

Christoph A. Hafner, Lindsay Miller, and Connie Kwai Fun Ng

Abstract The affordances of networked digital media to easily create, publish and share content have provided an environment within which creative practices have flourished. A “participatory culture” has emerged, empowering individuals to be involved in the amateur creation and sharing of culture. In addition, the resources available for text creation have expanded to include new, multimodal and hypertextual forms of representation, frequently combined in creative, hybrid ways. As a result of these changes, some language and literacy scholars have called for the development of pedagogies taking “digital literacies” into account. This chapter examines how digital practices might be leveraged in order to promote creativity in the context of higher education. It refers to a creativity enhancing learning environment, an English for science course at a university in Hong Kong. On this course, second and foreign language learners were engaged in an “English for science” project and created a digital video, shared through YouTube, as well as a more traditional text type, a written scientific report. The chapter examines students’ perceptions of these two tasks as they relate to creativity and suggests that, in order to promote creativity, both a “context for creativity” and “resources for creativity” are required.

Keywords Creativity • Digital literacies • Participatory culture • Multimodality • Online learning • Language learning and technology • TESOL • Project-based learning • Digital video

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1 Introduction

In his book, *Cognitive Surplus: Creativity and Generosity in a Connected Age* (2010), the writer Clay Shirky describes how networked digital media facilitate unprecedented creative and productive activity. Thanks to the internet and other digital tools, creating, publishing and sharing has never been easier. Some see the associated proliferation of collaborative activity as an economic resource for businesses to leverage (Tapscott and Williams 2006). Others see it in terms of a participatory culture, which empowers individuals to be involved in the amateur creation and sharing of culture (Jenkins 2006; Lessig 2004). They point out that much of this amateur creative work occurs in new kinds of informal spaces online, that Gee (2004) calls passionate “affinity spaces”: Wikipedia and fan communities are good examples. So, in the age of digital media, more people are creating and they are doing so informally, skirting around the institutions that have traditionally controlled the creation and dissemination of culture.

At the same time, the affordances of digital media have greatly expanded the repertoire of communicative resources available to people. New forms of representation, such as hypertext and multimedia, allow people to creatively construct emerging genres which are non-linear, multimodal and highly collaborative in nature (Hafner 2013). Reading and writing now involves new kinds of “digital literacies” which contrast with and challenge traditional conceptions of literacy (Jones and Hafner 2012). As a result, literacy scholars have called for the development of pedagogies that take these changes into account (New London Group 1996). This chapter focuses on the creative potential of these new forms of representation as observed in the kind of online affinity spaces described above. It considers whether the creativity seen in such informal contexts can be harnessed for educational purposes and “imported” into English language courses at university.

Recently, there has been a reconceptualization of the notion of creativity. Traditionally, creativity has been associated only with exceptional individuals in art and science: Mozart or Newton, for instance. More recently though, the concept has become democratized and is now seen, as Ron Carter observes, as “not a capacity of special people, but a special capacity of all people” (Carter 2004, p. 13; as cited in Jones 2012). This notion of creativity recognizes the small acts of creativity common in everyday life – coming up with a witty remark in conversation or inventing a new way to work to avoid a traffic jam, for example.

A commonly cited definition of creativity is that of the cognitive scientist Margaret Boden. According to Boden (2004, p. 1), creativity can be defined as “the ability to come up with ideas or artefacts that are new, surprising and valuable”. What does it mean to say that an idea or artefact is new? Boden distinguishes two kinds of creativity: *psychological* creativity and *historical* creativity. Here, psychological creativity means “coming up with a surprising, valuable idea that’s new to the person who comes up with it” (p. 2). In contrast, historical creativity refers to a creative act that is new in all of human history: the composition of a symphony, the construction of a scientific theory or invention of a new technology. Others have

referred to this distinction as the difference between *small c creativity* (everyday acts of creativity) on the one hand, and *big C Creativity* (world-changing acts of creativity) on the other.

The notion of a “surprising” idea or artefact also calls for elaboration. Boden (pp. 2–6) notes that an idea can be surprising if it appears unlikely, unexpected or even impossible. These different senses of the notion of “surprise” relate to three different kinds of creativity. The first, *combinational creativity*, involves “making unfamiliar combinations of familiar ideas” (p. 3), as in poetic imagery, for example. The second, *exploratory creativity*, involves exploring a conceptual space or thinking style to come up with a new idea, which nevertheless fits into that existing space. As an example, Boden suggests that an artist may discover a new “trick”, which enables them to better present their subject, all the while fitting within their existing thinking style. Finally, *transformational creativity* involves a new idea that has the effect of changing the conceptual space, either through a minor tweak or more radically. This kind of creativity makes new ways of thinking possible, as when the artist breaks with existing conventions and discovers a whole new way of presenting the subject.

The question for this chapter is: how can creativity, in any of the forms described above, be fostered in higher education? We answer this question by examining one instructive case, an undergraduate course in English for science at a Hong Kong university.

2 Promoting Creativity: Principles and Implementation

One approach to fostering creativity in educational contexts holds that the teacher should seek to provide an environment within which creativity can flourish (Lin 2011). Because creativity is a multi-dimensional construct, this involves attention to a range of factors: *pedagogical*, *social* and *affective*. In the context of science education, Kind and Kind (2007) list some of the strategies that teachers may employ. They note that “creative teaching is associated with open-ended, student-oriented, exploratory and group-based learning strategies” (pp. 4–5). In this section, we describe the design of a discipline-specific English course, which utilized some of these strategies. After a general description of the course design, we focus on the key elements that appear to play a role in creating an environment that is conducive to student creativity.

The course in focus is a university course in English for science and technology at an English-medium university in Hong Kong. The course targets undergraduate science majors from a range of disciplines, which has grown over the years to include: Applied Biology, Applied Chemistry, Environmental Science and Management, Applied Physics, Architectural Studies, Surveying and Mathematics. These students are English as a Second Language (ESL) learners, with most having Cantonese as their native language, and so the course aims to both develop students’

knowledge of scientific genres and at the same time develop the English language skills that students need in order to communicate effectively in scientific contexts.

The course follows a project-based learning approach, with the course materials organized around the completion of an “English for science project”. In this English for science project, students work in teams of three or four in order to complete a simple scientific study. The simulated study includes critical reading of relevant sources, the collection of data as part of a scientific investigation, the reporting and disseminating of findings. Students present this study in two different ways: first, as a digital video scientific documentary (teamwork); second, as a written scientific report, similar to a lab report (individual work). In this way, students are engaged in the construction of two related, yet different genres. The first, the digital video scientific documentary, is a popular science genre meant for a non-specialist audience, which draws on various new forms of representation in digital media. Students are told that creativity is one of the criteria for judging their documentary. Students make this video available to a wide audience by uploading it to the course YouTube channel and sharing it publicly. The video is also embedded on the course blog where classmates can provide their comments. The second genre, the scientific report, is an academic genre meant for a specialist audience and draws on more traditional print-based resources.

Thus, the project involves two distinct phases: (1) the digital video; (2) the written report. In this way, the course “embeds” digital literacy practices alongside traditional ones (Hafner 2014). A similar amount of time is dedicated to each phase – seven weeks for the digital video and six for the written report. As suggested, phase one, the digital video, involves considerable collaborative work, with students working in teams in order to navigate the following process: (1A) Reading; (1B) Data collection; (1C) Scripting; (1D) Filming; (1E) Editing; (1F) Sharing. Sharing takes place both in an in-class sharing session, where the students’ videos are viewed and students can provide face-to-face feedback, and in the course blog, where students can review one another’s videos and leave further comments online. This course blog is also used as a site for reflection on the project process, with students posting regular comments about issues that are raised by the course leader. In phase 2, the written report, students work individually in order to present the data collected in phase 1, this time in written form. The process is comparatively simple and involves: (2A) Pre-writing; (2B) Writing; (2C) Reviewing.

The design of this project fulfils a number of the criteria for providing students with a creativity-enhancing learning environment.

- The task is designed to be *authentic and meaningful* (Cropley and Cropley 2009). The project goes beyond the usual remit for a course in English for Academic Purposes and involves students in a process of scientific discovery that is relevant to their disciplines and links classroom learning with “real world” experiences. The authenticity of the task is also heightened by the fact that students are asked to share their video through YouTube, breaking down the traditional walls of the classroom and connecting with an authentic online audience.

- The task is designed to *provide students with challenges* to be creatively overcome (Sternberg and Lubart 1999). As we will see, a key challenge is how to communicate effectively with a non-specialist audience.
- Students are explicitly *encouraged to be creative* in their presentation of their video projects and are rewarded for such creativity (Driver 2001). The use of a novel medium (digital video) which integrates spoken and written text with other semiotic resources, such as images and sound, affords many opportunities for students to be creative in this way.
- Students work in a *collaborative team* (Cropley and Cropley 2009). This allows them to pool diverse skills and expertise, with the potential to engage each other in different perspectives on the video project task.
- There are regular *opportunities for students to reflect* on their experiences (Dewett and Gruys 2007). The course blog provides students with a forum for weekly online discussions about concepts introduced on the course and how these relate to their projects.

3 Data Sources and Evaluation Method

The pedagogical approach described above was evaluated over the course of one semester (13 weeks, with one 3-h lesson per week). During the evaluation period a total of 67 students took part in the course: majors in Applied Biology, Applied Chemistry, Environmental Science and Management, and Mathematics. These students were 18–23 years of age, with a roughly equal mix of males and females. Most students took the course in their first year of university study but there were also a number of second and third year students as well. The overwhelming majority of students were of Hong Kong Chinese ethnicity, some were from Mainland China and one was from Burma. All students gave their informed consent to participate in this evaluative study. In the analysis, students' names have been changed in order to protect the privacy of individuals.

For the purposes of this chapter, the primary data sources are semi-structured interviews with a convenience sample of 21 students organized into twelve focus groups (two to five students per group) and students' comments to the course blog (a total of 62 students commented on the blog in the course of the semester, for a total of 378 comments). The analysis adopted a qualitative interpretive approach (Richards 2003). Based on repeated readings, the data was coded for emerging themes by the authors, drawing on grounded theory techniques as described in Hafner and Miller (2011). Qualitative data analysis software (MaxQDA: Belous 2010) was used to facilitate this process. A total of ten major themes emerged from this analysis, including the theme of creativity.

3.1 *Creativity in the Digital Video: Students' Perceptions*

In general, students agreed that it was important for them to be creative in their digital video projects. They reasoned that a creative video would both catch the attention of their audience and better meet course requirements.

I think creativity is important because it can attract the audience to watch our video. So in our video, we use a very little story, a dialogue between two people to start our video. (Focus group interview, Annie)

Creativity is important because, uh, in the assignment, creativity is mentioned. Uh, it will be a main factor. (Focus group interview, Colin)

Creativity was frequently linked to a need to attract the attention of the audience, as above. However, different students conceived of the audience in slightly different ways. Some students felt that, because the video was to be uploaded and publicly shared through YouTube, it was necessary to be especially creative in order to capture the attention of this critical yet non-specialist audience on the internet.

And also, maybe student find that the final product will be put onto – upload to YouTube and many people would see and so they've pay more efforts on making themselves more natural and making the video more attractive. (Focus group interview, Nancy)

Other students conceived of the audience in a more limited way, as consisting primarily of their classmates. Nevertheless, these students also felt that it was important to be creative in their videos, pointing out that such creativity would help their videos to stand out from the crowd.

Creativity is important because as I've mentioned before, a lot of group presenting the same topic. So if you want to make your own video special, you need to think of the way to – a special way to present it. (Focus group interview, Yong)

The student above is referring to the fact that there were only two topics for students to choose from. This led to competition between groups on the same topic, with students indicating that they used their creative abilities in an attempt to outdo one another. Another strong theme that runs through these comments is the perceived need to create something funny and interesting. As one student noted, "we are going to attract the audience or make it [the video] more funny and interesting" (Focus group interview, Dan). Sometimes students perceived this as a difficult challenge, as here: "I think that, uh, in my group, it is difficult to... present the information more creative or interesting" (Focus group interview, Tai).

Aside from the perception that demands of the audience required a creative response, there was a perception among some students that the documentary genre itself needed to be handled creatively in order to appeal to classmates.

As for most of our students, I think that when they watch the documentary, they will usually fall asleep. So as a way to solve this, I think that a good introduction is very important. (Focus group interview, Jack)

So far then, the analysis shows that the students perceived a need for creativity in the digital video task, especially as a way to attract the attention of the audience. As

one student noted in a post to the class blog, the challenge was to identify “where we can put in some interesting twists and tricks and what are they” (Blog post, Yong). When students describe their attempts to meet this challenge, they identify a range of different creative resources available to them, suggesting two main conceptualizations of creativity for the students.

First, students saw creativity in terms of the *creative manipulation of multimodal resources*, that is, the combination of text, moving images, and sound, to create an appealing video, knitting together multiple different forms of representation. In interviews and on the course blog students mention, among other things, the use of animation, multimedia, a variety of settings, sound effects, logos and text on screen, and even effective facial expression. Students perceive creativity in the multimodal combination of these different elements, as evidenced in the following comment:

In a scientific documentary, ... you can present the knowledge by pictures, by animations as well as by words and by songs... and this is what I call creative. (Focus group interview, Xen)

Second, students saw creativity at a higher level, in terms of the *rhetorical strategies* used in order to catch the attention of the audience. This includes the generation of innovative or unexpected storylines, embodied in a good script or storyboard, and in which students ‘bend’ the expectations of the genre. Among other things, students identified the use of stories, dialogues, roleplays and “live video” à la reality TV.

And the second [challenge] I think is to create the storyboard because we have to create storyboards, which is interesting and the scenario is [pause] this scenario can capture the people’s attention. (Focus group interview, Gao)

Thus, for students, creativity did not only reside in the innovative use of digital media, but also in the quality of the story that they were constructing. As one student noted, to create an interesting video “we need to learn some narrative skills” (Blog post, Fifi).

3.2 Creativity in the Written Report: Students’ Perceptions

In the course of delivering and evaluating the English for science course, during which the video project was the primary focus, we observed a number of interesting comparisons to the second, more “traditional” task, that of constructing a written report. In particular, as the course transitioned from digital video to written report there was a noticeable “change of gears” – although students were still engaged with the original data that they had collected for their English for science project, they were now learning to make an entirely different genre out of it. We discussed this shift with students in two posts to the course blog. The first, posted in week 9 (28 student comments), was entitled “Changing gear” and invited students to comment on the rhetorical differences between the scientific documentary and the written report. The second, posted in week 12 (19 student comments), was entitled “Lab

report drafts” and noted that students’ first draft lab reports seemed to lack visual content and draw on an “overly chatty style”. The post invited students to comment on the possible influence that the documentary task might have had on their report writing. The students’ responses to these blog posts provide insights into their perceptions of the report genre and the opportunities for creativity (or lack of them) that it afforded.

Comparing the two genres, without exception all of the students identified a clear difference in audience. Documentaries were seen as targeting primarily a non-specialist audience, while the written report was perceived to be aimed at disciplinary specialists. Again, a number of students pointed out the importance of the online audience, as illustrated below:

The audience of the video is the public, as the video is uploaded on the Internet, the famous website, YouTube. (Blog post, Jamie)

In contrast, students identified disciplinary specialists as the audience for their written report, including “professionals and pre-professionals”, “science students and teachers”, “professors”. With a few exceptions, most students also agreed that the purposes of documentaries and reports were different. On the whole, their comments show that they perceived both genres as performing the function of informing and explaining. However, in the case of the documentary, students perceived a range of additional purposes: “to educate”, “to arouse the public interest”, “to draw attention from the public”, among others. The consequences of these perceived differences in audience and purpose are evident in the following comment:

The aim of the lab report is not to interest the audience any more, it aims to share the academic source among the professionals. (Blog post, Bonny)

The perception reported here, that academic writers make little attempt to interest their readers, was occasionally echoed by others, who characterized the report genre as “boring”. In addition, the notion of sharing academic sources is picked up by a small number of students. These students commented that, in order to create an appropriate written report, it was necessary to draw on appropriate academic sources, like journal articles, for instance (see below).

For the written reports, more scientific articles should be included to give a greater support to our results and hypothesis in order to make the report precise and professional. (Blog post, Harry)

Students’ desire to adopt a “precise and professional” style, was also reflected in a general perception that a more formal register is required in the written report.

For lab report, the audiences are those who have discipline-related knowledge, the language and style presented should be more specific and formal, in order to deliver an accurate, precise and concise message to the audiences. (Blog post, Kang)

Students also associated the formal register of the report genre with a more “convincing”, “serious”, and “professional” style. This contrasted with the informal register of the documentary genre, which was perceived as “simple”, “easy to understand”, “relaxing”, “interesting”, and “friendly”. While there was clearly an awareness of the need to adopt a formal register in the report, students admitted that

their first attempts sometimes fell short of achieving this. A possible explanation for the “overly chatty style” identified in the blog post is summarized in the following student comment:

In the documentary task, we performed it in a informal and funny way. For example, we wrote the scripts for presenting the ideas in the video which is informal. Initially, some of our groupmate carelessly copied these scripts into the introduction and discussion part of our lab reports. (Blog post, Bo Lai)

Students’ comments about the use of multimodal resources in the written report reveal conflicting perceptions. As a preliminary observation, some students perceived that the report offers a more limited range of multimodal resources than the documentary.

A scientific documentary may contain animations, charts, words, drama, multimedia etc. while a lab report contains words and charts only. (Blog post, Tung)

In general, students appeared confused about whether and how to use such multimodal elements in their written reports. Some perceived advantages in doing so, noting that if they are appropriately used, such multimodal elements can promote effective communication. Others, however, pointed out that the use of multimodal elements should be limited because it could be seen as “less professional”, “unnecessary” or “misleading”. The conflicting perceptions are illustrated below:

I think the use of diagrams sometimes could be advantages (sic) in explaining the theory you are talking about in the introduction, however, sometimes it could also make the introduction seem less professional if inappropriate diagram was used. (Blog post, Gale)

For the student above, then, use of images is potentially useful, but also risky. Other students also noted this risk, with one commenting “I am worried that if I insert some diagrams, will I be considered as writing not enough words?” (Blog post, Shelley). A more extreme position was voiced by one student, for whom the use of “creative media” was simply not permissible: “we never and not allowed to do such thing in the reports, we have to follow harsh instructions” (Blog post, Jason).

4 Discussion and Conclusions

In summary, then, students’ perceptions of creativity vary with the task, either digital video scientific documentary or written report. Regarding the digital video, students see creativity as a necessary element to attract the attention of their audience. Here, students perceive creativity both in terms of the creative manipulation of multimodal resources that are made available in the digital video medium as well as in terms of innovative rhetorical strategies, for example, an interesting “storyline”. When doing their videos, students appear to feel that they have a license for creativity. In contrast, when it comes to the written reports, students do not appear to perceive creativity as either a necessary or allowable element. Indeed, they seem to perceive the written report genre as one that constrains creativity. Compared to the video medium, writing presents a relatively impoverished range of semiotic

resources. In addition, students perceive that their contributions are limited by the expectations of the specialist audience of the report. Comparing students' perceptions of these two tasks provides some interesting insights into pedagogical strategies for creativity.

With respect to the digital video task, students' perceptions highlight two factors related to task design. These could be called (1) a *context for creativity*, and (2) *resources for creativity*. First, the documentary task, involving the creation of a video for a YouTube audience, sets up a high stakes context within which creativity is positively valued as a means to attract audience attention. The findings show that students perceive creativity to be especially important, if they see themselves as creating for a wider, authentic audience. When they upload their videos to YouTube, students can be seen as participating in the kind of "attention economy" (Goldhaber 1997) that is commonly associated with digital media and revolves around the giving and getting of attention. In such an attention economy, creativity and originality is highly valued and students seem to intuitively understand this. As a result, in the videos, students playfully experiment with the scientific documentary genre, bending the genre (Bhatia 2004) by including innovative rhetorical techniques such as roleplay. Second, the video medium provides students with plentiful resources for creativity: visuals, soundtrack, sound effects, text on screen, narrative. Students therefore make use of digital tools to experiment with multimodal strategies designed to attract the attention of their audience.

In terms of task design, designing a *high stakes context* for creativity and selecting a *novel medium* with multiple semiotic resources for creativity seems to have had a positive effect on students' perceptions. By comparison, the written report task is one that arguably lacks these design features. In contrast to the videos, the reports are not shared beyond the individual writer and the class teacher. Understandably, students do not seem to value creativity as a means to get attention in this genre (they already have their teacher's attention, after all). In addition, as mentioned above, their perception of the medium is of one that is relatively impoverished in terms of the semiotic resources that it offers and constrained by the expectations of the audience. This perception comes across rather strongly: as one student noted, "we have to follow harsh instructions".

Students' conflicting perceptions about the role of images in the written report present an interesting case. Students appear to be picking up on the privileged role of writing in the academy. Nevertheless, studies of academic and scientific discourse (Lemke 1998; Molle and Prior 2008) show that the visual mode plays an integral role in such communication, which is characterized less as a written form, more as a multimodal one. The question here is not *whether to use images* as part of a scientific report but rather *how to use them*, including what kind of images to use. The students' sense that they are constrained by their audience is correct. Nevertheless, they lack an appreciation of the multimodal character of scientific writing, which relies on the visual mode for important aspects of communication. This use of visuals is, of course, conventional and so it is important to consider the range of visual expressions (e.g., diagrams, charts, formulae) that are possible and how these contribute to the overall message. Considering these conventions could lead to a discussion of the potential for small c creativity in this genre.

Students' general perception that creativity is not a necessary element of the report is also potentially problematic. Rhetorically, constructing a scientific report, even a modest one as on this course, ought to involve some element of combinational creativity (to use Boden's term). This is because authors must situate their problem within a body of knowledge, in a potentially original way that arouses the interest of the reader. Swales' (1990) genre analysis of the introduction to research articles (the CARS model: "Create A Research Space") provides a useful guide to how academics go about this. Because students appear to intuitively understand the need to get the attention of their audience in their videos, in our classes we have taken to presenting the CARS model as a set of strategies that academics use, also to *get the attention* of their audience. In fact, the model provides the conventional, generic moves within which academic writers can situate their research and thereby demonstrate the originality of their work. In this sense, creativity is always accompanied by the constraints of generic conventions: rethinking creativity in this way might lead students to perceive report writing a little differently.

As we have argued elsewhere (Hafner et al. 2012), the video project can act as a "motivational bridge", as students move from a familiar, popular genre to a less familiar, academic one. In this way, inexperienced academic writers first engage with a task that makes intuitive sense to them, before they progress to one that, perhaps, does not. At the same time, the video project can also serve as a lens through which academic literacy practices, including the role of creativity and multimodality, can be re-viewed and re-evaluated. In essence, the process of design that students go through when working on their videos resembles the process that they go through for their reports as well. In each case, a text is designed for a particular audience, drawing on available semiotic resources to meet audience expectations. This study shows that creative practices are clearly visible to students when it comes to designing their documentaries, but are not visible when they do their scientific reports. Students apparently perceive a different ethos for creativity if immersed in the digital environment: perhaps this is linked to the proliferation of creative practices mentioned at the outset of this chapter. The approach that we have outlined here attempts to draw on this ethos by embedding digital literacies in the syllabus, utilizing tasks that provide both the context and the resources for creativity.

Questions for Reflection on Future Teaching Practice

1. Consider a teaching and learning context that you are familiar with. To what extent can that context be considered a creativity enhancing learning environment? Pay attention to the following questions:
 - (a) Is the design of tasks authentic and meaningful?
 - (b) Do tasks provide students with challenges to be creatively overcome?
 - (c) Are students explicitly encouraged to be creative?
 - (d) Do students work in a collaborative team, that allows them to pool diverse skills and expertise?
 - (e) Are there regular opportunities for students to reflect on their experiences?

2. In your context, can you think of ways to embed digital literacies, i.e. tasks that engage students with new, digital forms of representation and allow them to share their work with authentic audiences online?
3. How might embedding digital literacies lead to enhanced student creativity?

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Towards a Corpus-Attested Definition of Creativity as Accessed through a Subtextual Analysis of Student Writing

Marija Milojkovic and Bill Louw

Abstract This chapter offers a corpus-attested view on linguistic creativity, which is here tested in an L2 context. The theory employed is Contextual Prosodic Theory (CPT), developed by Bill Louw, with particular emphasis on the subtext of grammar strings. The major premise explored in the article is that grammar strings in the language, which is represented by a reference corpus, collocate with certain lexical items more frequently than with others. A non-native user, however, may offer a lexico-grammatical combination that does not exist in the language at all. Native creativity, then, is viewed as a deviation from the language norm that is still endorsed by reference corpus findings. In an L2 context, this principle helps to distinguish native-like creativity from non-native deviation from the norm. After a brief theoretical discussion, a case study follows. Its findings lead to working definitions of native vs. non-native deviation from the norm from the point of view of subtext, and single out *prospection* (Toolan, Narrative progression in the short story: a corpus stylistic approach. Benjamins, Amsterdam, 2009) as the ability of subtext to point to later developments in texts.

Keywords Corpus stylistics • Contextual prosodic theory (CPT) • Semantic prosody • Subtext • Creativity • Native and non-native deviation

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A new scientific truth does not triumph by convincing its opponents and making them see the light, but rather because its opponents eventually die, and a new generation grows up that is familiar with it.

(Max Planck 1949, p. 33)

1 Introduction

The innovative analysis of meaning through lexico-grammatical relationships in language, described in this paper, originated in the philosophy of language and as such is based on comparing individual usage with raw frequency in reference corpora and the context of situation in both sources of comparison. It is termed ‘corpus-derived subtext’ because it adds to the analysis of the hidden meaning of stretches of text which is opaque to intuition. The application of this corpus stylistics methodology need not be confined to literary stylistics. It can be used to investigate discourse in university settings, which is not necessarily native discourse. Prospection, building up recipients’ expectations of the main points which are to follow, ought to play a considerable role in such investigations.

This chapter promotes the view of creativity as a native, as opposed to non-native, deviation from the language norm, represented by general reference corpora. This view originates from the distinction between logic (grammar) and metaphysics (vocabulary) fostered by the Vienna Circle. It is on this school of thought that the notion of corpus-derived subtext (i.e. the most frequent lexical collocates of a grammar string) was founded. After the main premises of the Vienna Circle have been made clear to the reader, this chapter will describe an experiment with third year Belgrade students of English in order to propose an innovative view of creativity in language.

2 An Example of Novelty: Along the Lines of the Vienna Circle

The use of the principles of the Vienna Circle as corpus-attested forms of science enables us to grade our own creativity against the external world. If the reference corpus is viewed as a sample of the world, and the possible worlds of our creation depart from it, then we would like to measure scientifically the extent of that departure. Contextual Prosodic Theory (CPT), developed by Louw, connects situational contexts to the linguistic means through which they are expressed. Corpus-derived subtext, in particular, splits what the Vienna Circle considered as indivisible as an atom: the lexico-grammatical collocation. Grammar (viewed by philosophers of language as logic) becomes separated from its surrounding vocabulary (viewed by philosophers of language as metaphysics). However, the seven principles of the Vienna Circle set out below ensure that the departure from the native and mundane

Table 1 The validity of logical positivism within corpus stylistics

The validity of logical positivism within corpus stylistics	
Item number	Significance for corpus stylistics
1.	Agreed
3.	Natural language logic is empirical (Louw 2010). However, it is opaque to intuition
4.	Agreed in <i>analogue</i> terms. However, in <i>digital</i> terms computational empiricism re-casts concepts to the point of falsifying them
5.	Agreed and borne out by corpus-derived subtext
6.	Agreed as empirically verifiable
7.	Agreed as computers reveal the lexical collocates of the natural language logic of each sentence of a target text as these interact with and dominate the lexis of the target sentence as a ‘possible world’

(native creativity) or from the native as such (non-native deviation) is expressed in measurements that are scientific and not intuitive, as stated in Commitment 1 below.

If we examined the requirements that the Logical Positivists would prescribe for a corpus stylistics of the Vienna Circle, they would look like this:

Logical positivists had the following basic commitments:

- (1) Science is the only intellectually respectable form of inquiry.
- (2) All truths are either: (a) analytic, *a priori* and necessary, in other words tautological, or (b) synthetic, *a posteriori* and contingent.
- (3) So far as knowledge goes, it is either purely formal and analytic, such as mathematics and logic, or it is a kind of empirical science.
- (4) The purpose of philosophy is to explicate the structure or logic of science. Philosophy is really the epistemology of science and analysing concepts.
- (5) Logic is to be used to express precisely the relationships between concepts.
- (6) The *verifiability criterion of meaning*: a statement is literally meaningful if and only if it is either analytic or empirically verifiable.
- (7) *The Verification Principle*: the meaning of a non-tautological statement is its method of verification; that is, the way in which it can be shown to be true by experience. (Ladyman 2002, p. 151)

Now, it will be immediately apparent from the list of conditions above that although they are intended for use within philosophical logic, they also work up to a point within the logic of natural language. Where there is a substantial mismatch, this will also be indicative of the differences between these two different but related forms of logic. We find that this is only the case in respect of item (2) out of a list of seven scientific conditions.¹ Short notes deal easily with all six of the others (Table 1).

So, we may ask: ‘Where is the revolution? Are we ready for it?’

Well, suppose we *apply* the corpus techniques we have derived from the Vienna Circle to a simple ‘concept’ such as J.R. Firth’s view of meaning as collocation. As we do so, we need to remember that the sentence which follows occupied huge amounts of discussion time during Sinclair’s OSTI research (Sinclair et al. 2004):

One of the meanings of *night* is its collocability with *dark*... (Firth 1957, p. 196)

¹ Corpus empiricism has discovered that some areas of the *a priori* are empirical (see Louw 2013).

Suppose that instead of proceeding from the metaphysics of *vocabulary*, we decide instead to search a reference corpus (in this case, the British National Corpus or BNC). Here is our search line. Note that it contains no items of vocabulary:

is its *with *.

Note also that our new method (Louw 2010) is based upon Russell's assertion that a perfectly logical natural language has a grammar but no vocabulary at all (see Pears 1972). Here is the result:

MicroConcord search SW: is its * with *

80 characters per entry

Sort : 1R/SW unshifted.

1 er in section 3.6. </p> <p> One is its association with the
rather questionable

2 er feature of the rural economy is its relationship with urban
labour markets. T

3 everal attractive features. One is its con-sonance with what is
generally ac

4 has come through to the public is its preoccupation with sex. The
idea that dre

5 inguishing feature of the model is its concern with the secular
development of t

6 e developed from these sketches is its **interaction** with social
forces – literall

7 ion). At the deepest level this is its **symmetry** with the social
order within whi

8 eat strength of 123 For Windows is its **compatibility** with all the
earlier versio

9 mathematically, but that, such is its **concern** with the quantita-
tive aspects of

10 along a bay. What sets it apart is its **situation**, with the mas-
sive range of the

11 set the TG100 apart. The first is its **conformity** with the General
MIDI Specific

12 p> A common image of later life is its **association** with resi-
dential care and ins

13 integral part of Eo's strategy is its **partnerships** with the
companies, it says,

14 st strength, on the other hand, is its **compatibility** with
Windows. It's a streng

15 n important feature of research is its **concern** with the nature
of the event unde

Source: BNC

In the concordance above, only the vocabulary in the first lexical slot is highlighted: while the second lexical slot is filled with lexis of situational importance, the first vocabulary slot contains lexis that is relational – akin to ‘collocability’ in the quote by Firth.

It was common cause that during analysis in philosophy no factual information was added to the proposition being examined. But as we see in this concordance there is enough empiricism to differentiate collocation from all other phenomena and relationships: the concordance points outside language. But collocation alone is not transcendent – it is immanent and hence situated within discourse. This insight alone could not have been obtained by arguing from the metaphysics of vocabulary. It is born of close scrutiny of the collocates of the logic in all of the instances. It is a product of shared logical form.

3 Corpus-Derived Subtext Defined

As shown in the concordance above, the *corpus-derived subtext* (sometimes referred to as ‘subtext’ further in the text) of a grammatical string is the list of its most frequent lexical collocates (termed *quasi-propositional variables – QPVs*), located within or around the string. In native use, the author’s lexical choice sometimes deviates from the standard norm found in the corpus. This deviation can point to a hidden meaning (Louw and Milojkovic 2014), or, if found in the first line of a poem, it can *prospect* further developments in the text (Louw 2013). What follows is a small-scale study of corpus-derived subtext in non-native academic writing in a university setting. Prior to this study, corpus-derived subtext had only been studied in poetry and fiction.²

4 Corpus-Derived Subtext and Prospection in the First Lines of English Non-Native Academic Essays: A Small-Scale In-Depth Study

4.1 Aims of the Study

While corpus-derived subtext has been explored in the study of poetry, especially of first lines of poems, and of characterisation in prose fiction (Milojkovic 2013), this chapter offers, for the first time, to use it in the investigation of the first lines of English non-native academic essays. While looking at the corpus-derived subtext found in these lines, the study will attempt to answer several research questions:

²The initial findings of the study were presented at the PALA 2014 conference (Kalanj and Milojkovic 2014).

- (a) where is the empirically recoverable fine line between non-native and creative native usage? What is a native deviation from the norm as compared to non-native deviation?
- (b) what is the mechanism of creative, albeit native, deviation from the language norm?
- (c) what is the mechanism of non-native deviation from the norm?

In this chapter, these research questions will be addressed by using corpus stylistics methodology.

4.2 Methodology and Background

In order to answer these research questions, the study presented in this chapter first needed to assess whether the first lines of the students' essays carried subtext that corresponded to the language norm found in the reference corpus. If this proved to be the case, we investigated if the lexical slot(s) in the grammar string under study is/are filled with more or less frequent quasi-propositional variables. These were connected with the context clues in the first sentence of the essay and the ideas expressed further in the text, especially in the conclusion. Particular attention was paid to the question of whether the subtext of the first lines in the students' writing *prospected* (Toolan 2009) the content of the whole essays, in the same way in which the first lines of certain poems have been found to prospect the rest of the text (Louw 2013).

The focus of the investigation was the first lines of the subjects' essays entitled 'What constitutes academic achievement?' To complete the essay writing task, the subjects were to express their own views, while giving two or three short quotations from a few articles they had read on the topic. The word limit was from 250 to 350 words. The essays taken into account were all composed in one sitting and under exam conditions, in December 2013.

As subjects of the study, the researchers chose Groups E and F of the third year of students at the English Department, University of Belgrade, in the 2013–2014 academic year. In terms of language proficiency, this cohort of 35 students may be considered approximately representative of the current generation, and was comprised of students whose performance could be described as excellent, average, and below average for that generation.

Although the subjects had not chosen the topic, it was judged that it was sufficiently close to home for them to have developed opinions of their own that had become part of their personal world.

It stands to reason that the searches for grammatical strings were carried out for each example, as no generalized findings from reference corpora could have existed. The study had to answer the question of what could be considered the native norm in subtext. For example, if a student used a lexical variable which was not found on the frequency list for that string in the reference corpus, it could still be native use.

Such questions were solved for each case, taking into account the context of situation and whether the student's choice could be viewed as belonging to the semantic field of a lexical variable that was present on the frequency lists.

In these conditions, large-scale research was ruled out in favour of an in-depth study of a specific group of 35 students. If a student used a nonexistent grammar string, it was relatively easy to establish the fact. But, given that the cohort consisted of non-native speakers, situations might have arisen where creative usage of lexis within grammar strings needed to be distinguished from non-native usage using corpus tools. This demanded a thorough analysis of frequency lists and each context of situation. Also, since the study posed the question of the presence of prospection, each essay needed to be read from start to finish. Generally, the initial assumption was that the more proficient students would employ lexico-grammatical collocations whose lexis would be found at the bottom of frequency lists rather than at the top, because a high level of proficiency entails using a wider range of structures and vocabulary than is used at a lower level.

The choice of reference corpora in the study of subtext needs explaining. The researchers used the BNC (2004–), COCA (Davies 2008–), and the Google Books UK/US corpora (Davies 2011–). The reader may wonder why Google Books corpora were considered representative enough, given that the genre under investigation was academic essays. In fact, grammatical strings take much longer to develop their *auras of meaning* (these are computationally recoverable tendencies of lexical items, grammar strings or their combinations to be used in certain types of contexts) than lexical items (Louw and Milojkovic 2016). Also, as shown above, grammatical strings embody the logic of the language, and therefore do not change their semantic auras depending on the genre. The reader may still reply that, even so, is it not more scientific to use a corpus belonging to the same genre, in order to safeguard against possible eventualities that we may not be aware of? For example, might the lexical items within grammatical strings not have specific semantic auras depending on the genre? Here practical considerations step in. To study longer grammatical strings properly – and the longer they are, the rarer – we need a really large reference corpus, such as Google Books. Besides, according to Louw (Louw and Milojkovic 2016), grammar, and not vocabulary, is paramount in establishing the meaning of a lexico-grammatical collocation. In practice this means that when analyzing such a collocation, the study of logic (grammar) ought to precede that of metaphysics (vocabulary).

4.3 Findings of the Study

In the course of the investigation, six subgroups were differentiated according to the subtext of the grammatical strings in their first lines. As was stated earlier in the chapter, subtext is defined as the most frequent lexical items appearing in place of the wildcarded lexical items in the given, a string that with its wildcards provides the search line to be used in extracting the line's subtext from a large reference

corpus. These lexical variables are effectively collocates of the grammar string appearing within or next to it in the reference corpus. The difference between the vocabulary of the given and the most frequent lexical variables is that the latter read the given and interpret it. Relying on the philosophy of language, these most frequent variables are termed ‘quasi-propositional variables’ – QPVs. The reason for this term is the fact that in philosophical logic there are propositions, and what corresponds to logic in natural language is viewed as quasi-logic – therefore, the language variables are termed ‘quasi-propositional’. The description of the subgroups which emerged at the end of the investigation are given below.

Subgroup 1: prospection

Proportion of subjects: 31.43 % (11 students)

Summary of findings: native subtext, less frequent QPVs, prospection

Eleven students, or almost 31.5 %, started their essays with a clause whose grammatical string prospected the developments in the text. Three examples of prospection are described in detail below.

An ideal case was the essay by Student 5, starting with the words ‘As our society switches from rural to urban...’ The point her essay made was that knowledge is a goal unto itself and not a means to an end (e.g. passing exams or enhancing one’s job prospects). The subtext of the grammatical string ‘as our * *es’ was found to be ‘as our knowledge increases’ (for a detailed account of how this subtext was extracted, see Louw and Milojkovic (2016)). The first line of the essay obviously prospected further developments in the text.

Student 1 started his essay with ‘Academic achievement may be tricky to define...’ The string ‘may be * to *’ was searched in the reference corpora. His chosen lexical word, ‘tricky’, departs from the corpus data in the direction of negativity: the BNC and COCA data prospect a constructive attitude, with the QPV ‘able’ in the first lexical slot, and the QPVs ‘help’, ‘get’, ‘have’, ‘be’, ‘do’, ‘give’, ‘use’, ‘find’ in the second lexical slot. Interestingly, the Google Books UK and US corpora suggest an aura of conjecture rather than a constructive one, with the QPVs ‘said’, ‘due’, ‘related’. This aura of conjecture corresponds to the phrasing ‘tricky to define’ in its lack of certainty. In any case, the aura of constructiveness projected by the string’s subtext found in the BNC and COCA did not agree with the author’s chosen variable, ‘tricky’. In the conclusion Student 1 states: ‘The road to academic achievement may be long, winding and even exhausting at times, but we should never give it up. As long as we enjoy the major we have chosen, I believe that we should try and pursue a possible career in that academic field.’ It is obvious that the constructive aura of the string in the first line, shown by the BNC and COCA findings, prospects the author’s optimistic conclusion. As for the Google Books corpora, their aura of conjecture was in agreement with the actual thought expressed by the author: ‘tricky to define’, rather than prospecting the main point of the essay.

Student 6 started off with this long sentence: ‘Even though there are a plethora of phrases or definitions we can recite about what academic achievement actually is, for me it probably means being able to say that you are a well-educated, fulfilled man who is able to properly do the job he is qualified for, who is able to use that

hard-earned knowledge which he gained during his studies and who can think for himself and completely rely on things he learnt during his academic years.' The sentence, despite the insecurity expressed by 'probably', provides a well-rounded statement of the author's idea of academic achievement. The searchline 'even though there are *' yielded only one QPV in the BNC ('a few'), and three in the COCA ('a few', 'a number', 'a lot'). The QPVs 'a few', 'a number' and 'a lot' are in the semantic field of 'a plethora', the latter being the extreme point on the scale. We would stop there if it was not for a very particular semantic aura of this string in both the BNC and COCA which we would never hope to arrive at intuitively. All contexts from both corpora follow:

BNC

'Even though there are a few'

1 French staff say they're glad to get the opportunity to work here. Even though there are a few language problems . The chefs and waiters will work here for

2 sale is creating a lot of interest with people who want a bargain, even though there are a few skeletons in the cupboard . Male speaker A house is just

COCA

'Even though there are a lot'

1 deals with making decisions for a particular resource area even though there are a lot of uncertainties.

2 I've been here now for 40 years. Even though there are a lot of uncertainties , and there were uncertainties in the past...

3 rather than going into one asset class, full storm ahead, that even though there are a lot of people questioning whether the strategy of diversification still works.

4 isn't it odd you can hear the crickets chirping in the background, even though there are a lot of people in Montana who believe in Second Amendment Rights?

5 But I know at times the system doesn't work even though there are a lot of safeguards. "

6 which was illegal before the Patriot Act was passed. The airline security, even though there are a lot of bumps in the road , have made air travel and

7 here's always going to be fear of some kind of disruption, even though there are a lot of stabilizers in the system to help

8 They welcome you with open arms, and even though there are a lot of students, yours is treated as an individual .

9 people who have got the Ph.D.' s are getting the jobs, even though there are a lot of them?

10 has been an amazing experience - I'm sure you would agree. But even though there are a lot of small issues , a lot of other issues, a

'Even though there are a few'

1 of the reorganization, which, on balance, I think is good, even though there are a few problems .

2 All five species of these coastal and freshwater grass shrimps greatly resemble one another, and even though there are a few places on the Gulf Coast where all five may be found in close proximity, one easy way to separate them for identification is to examine the differences in the shape of the rostrum, the long spine projecting outward between the eyes.

3 Hurricane Andrew, as it makes its way towards Louisiana's southern coast. Even though there are a few stubborn holdouts, millions of people have packed up and are

'Even though there are a number'

1 Even though there are a number of measurement problems related to student evaluations, the research does

The data from the BNC and the COCA suggested a clear aura of obstacles and difficulties. Out of the 16 lines, 12 (75 %) mention problems and issues, even though not necessarily through words like 'problems' or 'issues' to the right of 'of'. It is now time to say how the conclusion to the essay by Student 6 begins: 'All in all, I believe that students are the victims of educational systems'. Although the conclusion, after its first sentence, proceeds in a more optimistic vein, the first line of the essay obviously prospects problems that get a mention later.

These examples make it possible for the reader to arrive at a definition of prospecting: it can be defined as a corpus-attested deviation from the subtextual norm, prospecting a transition in the authorial text.

A short summary of the findings related to the grammar strings in this subgroup may be found in Table 2 below:

As this short summary shows, all prospecting QPVs were also found to be native – that is, in accordance with the language norm found in the reference corpora. The exception is the first case, that of Student 1 – the lexical variable ('tricky') departed considerably from the corpus data ('able', 'said', etc.). Otherwise, the 'nativeness' was determined by the fact that the lexical item was present on one of the frequency lists yielded by reference corpora, or that it belonged to the semantic field of one of the lexical items present on the list. As for the terminology used in the summary, if a word was close to the bottom of the list or belonged to the semantic field of such a word, it was pronounced 'not very frequent'. The case of Student 1 and Student 9 was deemed 'infrequent' because it was not reminiscent of anything found in the frequency tables, but was nevertheless thought to be native-like. This points to the insufficient development of corpora, and not to the arbitrariness of the analyst's decisions: the absence of a lexical variable in the corpus, without other pointers, can be a statement of its infrequency but not of its non-nativeness. However,

Table 2 The first subgroup of first lines

Student sample	QPV features	Example
1	Native, infrequent; the most frequent QPVs prospect constructiveness, authorial choice departs from corpus data into negativity	'tricky' – 'able', 'said'
2	Native, not very frequent; the most frequent QPVs 'prostitute' and 'block' in the first lexical slot and 'punishment' in the third lexical slot prospect frustration; the most frequent QPVs 'cite' and 'attribute' in the first lexical slot prospect arbitrariness	'reduce' – 'prostitute', 'block'; 'cite', 'attribute'; 'good grades' – 'punishment'
3	Native, frequent; the semantic aura of the grammar string prospects a positive need for clarifying	Constructive SP in the corpus, emphasis on clarification
4	Native, not very frequent; the most frequent QPVs in the first and second lexical slots prospect an ongoing debate in COCA	'placed in the foreground' – 'reported/criticised/discussed in the literature'
5	Native, not very frequent; the most frequent QPVs in the first and second lexical slots prospect the idea of education in which knowledge is its own reward	'society switches' – 'knowledge increases'
6	Native, infrequent; the semantic aura of the grammar string prospects problems, issues	SP in the corpus, emphasis on problems, issues
7	Native, not very frequent; the most frequent QPVs prospect a pro-active aura (BNC); the passive aura is confirmed by the most frequent QPVs in Google Books – UK	'experienced' – 'started', 'visited', 'watched', 'announced' etc. (BNC); 'received', 'suffered', 'incurred' (Google Books)
8	Native, infrequent; the semantic aura of the grammar string prospects criticism of a lack of honesty	'idealistic' – 'easy', 'simple', 'good' SP of deceptive appearances, as in 'not as easy as it looks'
9	Native, infrequent, very rare grammatical string; the semantic aura of the grammar string prospects conflict	'change' – 'take place', 'infiltrate', 'choke', 'dump', 'lobby'
10	Native, moderately frequent; the QPVs in the reference corpus clearly prospect the presence of serious questions and doubts	'opinions' – 'questions', 'concerns', 'doubts'
11	Native, not very frequent; there is another group of QPVs ('used') in the reference corpus, clearly prospecting pragmatism	'viewed' – 'used'

in these cases the judgement of several native speakers is necessary to pronounce a lexical choice native, and this should be stated in the findings.

The summary above also shows that almost all prospecting QPVs shared the quality of *not* being found at the top of frequency lists. That stands to reason, because, in order to prospect further developments, the chosen lexical variable needs to deviate from the string's subtext. Without deviation, there can be no prospecting, because interpretation resides in the difference between the frequency of the lexical item chosen by the author and that of the most frequent QPVs in this lexical slot found in the reference corpus. Such examples constitute Subgroup 2, described below. In particular, Student 13 started his essay with: 'In a world where everything is advancing fast...' The search string 'in a * where everything' yielded 'world' as the most frequent QPV in the BNC and in Google Books – UK. This is the example from the BNC: 'The reason doubt is valuable lies in a distinctive peculiarity of reality after the Fall. We are no longer in a world where everything is perfect, but neither are we in a world where everything is evil. Instead, reality after the Fall has a curious ambiguity, a strange double-edged aspect.' The use of this string in the Google Books – UK corpus has a similar tendency: not negative exactly, but rather a call to face reality. The essay by Student 13 adopts a similar measured approach, stating in the conclusion: 'Each author supports a different approach to the school system, but in my opinion both of them have the same aim which is practicability of what was learnt [...] I think that the balance of both would contribute the most.' While the reference corpus data are borne out by the conclusion, prospecting occurs as the semantic aura of the sequence 'in a world where everything' because it connects what is in the text and a transition which is to come. Still, within the string 'in a * where everything' the lexical word is the most frequent QPV and there is no prospecting. This example marks the borderline between Subgroup 1 and Subgroup 2.

As far as prospecting was concerned, the major determining factor was whether the subtext of the first line was in accordance with the sentiments expressed further in the text. Although by *subtext* we ideally mean the most frequent quasi-propositional variables within or around a grammatical string, sometimes the QPVs were insufficient to determine a string's subtext. In these cases the contexts in which a certain grammatical string appeared in the reference corpora were taken into account. This made it possible to determine the semantic prosody [SP] of the grammar string in the corpus. Semantic prosody can be defined as 'the consistent aura of meaning' which a form receives from its most frequent collocates in a reference corpus (Louw 1993). SP was found to ensure prospecting in 3 essays out of the 11 (27.27 %), while in the remaining cases prospecting was found to be due to the quasi-propositional variables (QPVs) of the author's grammar string.

Subgroup 2: standard QPVs, no prospecting

Proportion of subjects: 28.57 % (10 students)

Summary of findings: native subtext, standard QPVs, no prospecting

The second subgroup, consisting of ten students, accounts for 28.6 % of the whole group. Half of these students used either the only QVP found in the reference

corpus, or the one found close to the top of the frequency list. As this implied no deviation from the subtext of the grammatical string used, there could be no prospection.

For example, Student 12 starts his essay with: ‘Nowadays, academic achievement is more sought after than ever before throughout the globe...’ The search string ‘is more * after than’ yielded ‘sought’ as the only QPV in both Google Books corpora. There is nothing in this combination that prospects the conclusion: ‘To summarise, the fast pace at which we live today leaves terrible consequences on the young and their education, because traditional education is outdated and decadent, and the new solutions for replacing it are flawed’.

At the outset of the research, the initial supposition was that third year students might use the most frequent QPVs if their level of proficiency (judged by their Integrated Skills grade) is slightly lower, and less frequent but still retrievable QPVs if they are more secure and creative in writing. Student 12 was at the very top of his class, especially at writing. However, on average, students whose first lines make up Subgroup 2 may certainly be described as less proficient than students in Subgroup 1, whose first lines contain prospection. As for the grammatical string chosen by Student 12, he probably could not have used a less frequent QPV simply because ‘sought’ was the only variable found in the corpus.

The other half of the subjects in this subgroups used lexical items that were not at the very top of the reference frequency lists; however, these items were significantly frequent and the grammar strings that they were part of did not prospect the text that followed.

Subgroup 3: frequent QPVs with subtext partly pointing to prospection

Proportion of subjects 11.43 % (4 students)

Summary of findings: frequent QPVs, but a group of QPVs or a semantic aura in the reference corpus points to prospection

These subjects share several characteristics. Their general writing skills could be described as ranging from average to below average. Their essays for the most part either expressed very general views or could be considered off topic, especially when it came to their conclusions, and the grades scored on these essays were 8, 7.5, 7 and 6.5 out of 10 (for various reasons). However, in three essays out of the four (75 %) there surfaced a group of QPVs that pointed to another aspect of meaning. This meaning could be generally connected to thoughts expressed in the body of the essay. Had that meaning been clearly stated in the conclusion, these essays would belong to Subgroup 1.

In one essay out of the four (25 %) the semantic aura of the chosen string, and not a group of QPVs, could be connected to the general spirit of the essay. The semantic aura was that of impossibility in at least half of the contexts yielded by the corpus; the sentiment expressed in the essay was that it is difficult not so much to attain a high level of knowledge, but previously to choose a discipline that a student feels natural propensity towards.

Subgroup 4: native and less frequent QPVs but no prospection

Proportion of subjects 11.43 % (4 students)

Summary of findings: native subtext, less frequent QPVs, no prospection

Although the members of this group used less frequent but native QPVs, which were spotted far from the top of frequency lists, their essays showed no prospection. This is significant when compared to the three times larger Subgroup 1 whose members employed prospecting grammar strings. While there is no accounting for this difference, we can still remember that some students may not have been interested or inspired enough, and thus produced statements that did not completely reflect their personal opinions. For example, one of the students in the subgroup, whose English was described by native speakers as native, pointed out in an email that, on the scale from 5 to 10, her level of inspiration at the time of writing was 6 or 7. This is only one possible explanation, but worth pursuing in the future. This result also supports the assumption that more proficient students, being more confident, might use less frequent QPVs.

Subgroup 5: ‘telling’ subtext but no prospection

Proportion of subjects: 5.72 % (2 students)

Summary of findings: subtext native, but at odds with the message

These two students, whose English was also deemed very proficient, came up with first lines that actually contradicted the message of their essays. We will call this phenomenon ‘reversed prospection’. Student 30 asked: ‘What is it that makes an individual academically accomplished?’ The QVP is very standard, and the aura of the grammar string ‘what is it that *s’ in the BNC and COCA is definitely positive. Nevertheless, this essay was critical of the education system rather than positive.

Student 31 wrote: ‘A vast knowledge of facts and theory is often regarded as a standard of academic achievement’. The searchline ‘a * * of *’ betrayed a subtext of practicality in the BNC (the corpus data were plentiful enough, so the bigger corpora were not checked at this initial stage). The third lexical slot yielded the following most frequent variables: ‘time’, ‘life’, ‘money’, ‘people’, ‘work’, ‘information’, ‘effort’. When the second grammatical string was checked, namely, ‘is * *ed as a’, the most frequent QPV in the second slot by far was ‘use’. This combination of data points to a practical aspect that the student’s essay does not mention. Whether this occurred through a lack of inspiration or as a subconscious doubt, or for a different reason altogether, we cannot tell.

Subgroup 6: non-native subtext

Proportion of subjects: 11.43 % (4 students)

Summary of findings: non-native lexico-grammatical collocation

These four students’ first lines illustrate what advantage can be derived from studying non-native lexico-grammatical use from the point of view of ELT. Student 33, otherwise sufficiently proficient, chose a grammatical string which was wrong for her lexical variable. ‘...the author poses a question, why...’ wrote the student,

whereas the grammatical string should include the definite instead of the indefinite article. Thus, the subtext of her string clashed with her message. The subtext of ‘*s a * why’ in Google Books UK and US turned out to be ‘suggests a reason why’ and similar expressions. The only exception are the phrases ‘remains a mystery why’ and ‘remains a puzzle why’, which are not infrequent but firmly contradict all other evidence (the reason must be that these expressions will never be preceded by a human agent, unlike ‘poses the question why’). In her essay the student calls the education system ‘mindless’, which means there can be no ‘reason suggested’. In GB – UK we find 63 examples of ‘poses the question why’, and none of ‘poses a question why’.

Student 34 wrote: ‘Academic achievement is in high regard in today’s world.’ There was no grammatical string in any reference corpus which could be said to underlie the student’s first sentence. The two remaining students showed lower proficiency overall during their studies, and produced combinations where their chosen grammatical strings contained lexis not found in the language norm.

These cases illustrate how Contextual Prosodic Theory can contribute to ELT and FLT: by showing that a certain lexical item never collocates with a certain grammatical string, and by pointing out that a grammatical string used by the student does not exist in the corpus at all.

4.4 *Conclusion to the Study*

While the first lines of 31.5 % of the essays showed prospection, native subtext was found in 88.57 % of the first lines. While these findings call for further research of native and non-native academic writing, it is to the credit of students in Belgrade that their general command of the language is often very close to that of native speakers. As the study shows, corpus-derived subtext may be taken as one of the indications of ‘nativeness’ of a foreign student’s production.

The empirically recoverable fine line between the native and the non-native deviation from the norm was shown to reside at the bottom of a reference corpus frequency list: if the author’s grammar string contained a lexical item that was found on the frequency list of the lexical items collocating with this string in the reference corpus, or if the author’s lexical item belonged to the semantic field of one that was found in the reference corpus, the subtext of the studied grammar string was considered as conforming to the language norm.

From the sample of the essays chosen for this study it appears that there are three ways in which authorial lexical choice may deviate from the most frequent lexical collocates of the author’s grammatical string that are found in the reference corpus. These three mechanisms of deviation are set out below in order of the degree to which they are represented in the sample of essays under study:

1. The grammar string of the author’s choice *prospects*, through its most frequent quasi-propositional variables [QPVs] and/or its semantic prosody [SP], an idea

conveyed further in the text (this relationship must be verifiable through context clues);

2. The grammar string employs an infrequent lexical collocate, which is to be found at the bottom of the frequency list for that grammatical string, or it is semantically related to an infrequent lexical collocate of the string in question;
3. In some cases the semantic prosody [SP] of the author's grammar string contradicts the tone of the text, or the author's lexical choice within the given string points to an additional layer of meaning that the context clues in the remaining part of the text do not support.

As for non-native deviation, in reference corpus terms it may be defined as an improbable lexico-grammatical collocation, although it must be noted that an additional analysis of lexical co-occurrence and the contexts of situation in the corpus may be necessary.

5 Conclusion

The paper has shown how creativity can be explored from the point of view of lexico-grammatical collocation. The method is helpful as part of evaluation of non-native speech and writing as a way to distinguish between native and non-native linguistic creativity, and may also be used by teachers when they have difficulty explaining to their students why a certain phrasing 'sounds wrong'. Moreover, corpus-driven perception of language may be taught to language students, as well as those in other disciplines, who will then explore possible lexico-grammatical collocations and their contexts of situation in the reference corpora. It is hoped that, in the process of reading various existing contexts, students and teachers alike will become aware of 'hidden meanings' as manifold semantic layers across all genres and registers, and that non-native and native speakers alike will be able to broaden and re-adjust the range of collocation they employ in speech and writing. It is not inconceivable that, in a not too distant future, a student will receive the following computer-assisted report on her essay: 'Your creative engagement with the subject matter of your essay is high. Your introduction speaks to your conclusion both structurally and unwittingly. Well done!'

Questions for Reflection on Future Teaching Practice

1. 'The truth of a proposition is the method of its verification' (the Vienna Circle). When we investigate the subtext of a grammar string, what is the nature of the truth that is revealed by the investigation?
2. If the subtext of the grammar string prospects the conclusion of the essay, is that a sign of better coherence? Should it be rewarded by a higher grade?
3. If the subtext of a grammar string or the semantic prosody of a lexical item reveal a meaning that the author may not have intended at the moment of writing, is that alone a sign of creativity? Or should creativity be graded in relation to overall coherence? Does creativity as such deserve special recognition in the genre of academic essays?

4. Not every student will be inspired by the essay topic, and that is bound to be reflected in the use of subtext/semantic prosodies. Forced writing is the inevitable consequence of lack of inspiration. How can this be minimised or prevented during the teaching process or when setting exam questions?
5. When teachers and students become aware of language mechanisms (such as subtext and semantic prosodies) that underlie their written or oral input, how can this assist them both in refining the students' production?

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Part III

Autonomy

Three Versions of Learner Autonomy and their Implications for English-Medium Degree Programmes

David Little

Abstract This chapter outlines and discusses three versions of the concept of learner autonomy. The first, central to the Council of Europe’s project on adult education in the 1970s, embeds “self-learning” in the interactive, dialogic processes of group work. The second version, elaborated by Henri Holec for the Council of Europe’s parallel project on adult language learning, is closely associated with the first but is exclusively cognitive-organizational and individual in its orientation; and it treats the development of learner autonomy and the growth of proficiency in the target language as separate processes. This version had a major impact on universities’ understanding of autonomous language learning: students working on their own in a self-access centre, probably a language laboratory. The third version of learner autonomy is concerned with classroom language learning. Developed by Leni Dam as a set of practical procedures, it shares with the first version the view that learning is a social-interactive as well as an individual-cognitive process; and because from the beginning the target language is the principal medium of classroom communication, it sees the development of learner autonomy and the growth of target language proficiency as inextricably linked. The chapter concludes by considering the implications of these three versions of learner autonomy for English-medium programmes at non-English-speaking universities.

Keywords Learner autonomy • Self-learning • Self-direction • Logbook • Interaction • Collaboration • Reflection • Evaluation • Feedback

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1 Autonomy in Adult Education: A Council of Europe Project

It is generally acknowledged that the concept of learner autonomy was first introduced to the world of language teaching and learning by Henri Holec in his report *Autonomy and foreign language learning*, published by the Council of Europe in 1979 (the report is cited here as Holec 1981). However, although Holec is explicitly concerned with adult language learners, discussion of his arguments has rarely referred to the broader adult education context in which they took shape. It is important to know something about that context because it promoted ideas that are highly relevant to the concerns of the present chapter but were only partly taken over by Holec. My source for what follows in this section is the report *Organisation, content and methods of adult education*, compiled for the Council of Europe project of the same name by Henri Janne (1977). The views that for brevity's sake are attributed to Janne are those of the project group as a whole.

To begin with, as Janne explains (1977, pp. 13–14), adult education was important to Council of Europe member states for the contribution it could make to economic reconstruction in the aftermath of the Second World War. But unprecedented economic growth in the 1960s caused decision-making processes to become more complex, leading to the alienation of those affected by the decisions; while what Janne calls a “crisis of civilization” at the end of the decade helped to prompt a challenge to “the arbitrary division of human lives into ‘slices’ – work, leisure, family, community” (Janne 1977, p. 15). As a consequence, it was no longer possible to see adult education simply as “a remedy for a momentary imbalance in the ‘vocation-education’ relationship”; it assumed an altogether more complex role as “an integral part of the process of economic, political and cultural democratisation” (Janne 1977, p. 15). Adult education, in other words, came to be seen as “an instrument for arousing an increasing sense of awareness and liberation in man and, in some cases, an instrument for changing the environment itself. From the idea of man [sic] ‘product of his society’, one moves to the idea of man ‘producer of his society’” (Janne 1977, p. 15). This view is fully harmonious, of course, with the Council of Europe’s foundational values: human rights, democracy and the rule of law.

According to Janne, a central goal of adult education was to bring about improvement in the quality of life. This depended on the achievement of four objectives: equality of opportunity, responsible autonomy, personal fulfilment, and the democratization of education (Janne 1977, p. 17). The last of these objectives was understood to be a matter of giving adults the opportunity to compensate for deficiencies in their schooling, but also of “fostering a new type of cultural production by taking the real problems of everyday life into account in carrying out the educational process” (Janne 1977, pp. 17–18). This is a rather oblique way of saying that adult education should be responsive to learners’ needs and should acknowledge the contribution that learners’ existing knowledge, skills and experience can make to the educational process.

The exercise of responsible autonomy entails self-management, which means that the educational process must be based on “self-learning”, a process that is guided and supported by a teacher working in an institutional framework (“self-learning” is contrasted with “self-teaching” [Janne 1977, p. 53], which dispenses with teacher and institution). Self-learning “generally refers to the practice of working in groups, and to the choice by participants of objectives, curriculum content and working methods and pace” (Janne 1977, p. 27). Group work may serve “as the basis for the entire educational process, from definition of needs to evaluation” (Janne 1977, p. 31). It “enables every individual to take part and, better still, to learn how to take part” (Janne 1977, p. 31), and it “implies the possibility of dialogue (in other words, self-learning must be the result of an interpersonal dialectical dialogue)” (Janne 1977, p. 53). “The actual work of learning, the acquisition of subject-matter and content, implies a personal contribution (past experience, previous knowledge) which is pooled in the group, as well as the help and assistance of a teacher” (Janne 1977, p. 53). The teacher’s assistance “should increasingly become the servant of self-evaluation, an aptitude which must be one of the greatest gains in any adult education process (autonomy)” (Janne 1977, p. 20).

With this ideal of adult education in mind I turn now to a brief consideration of Henri Holec’s contribution.

2 Henri Holec’s Contribution: Learner Autonomy as Cognitive and Organizational Self-Management

Holec’s definition of learner autonomy has been fundamental to discussion of the concept since his report was first published: “the ability to take charge of one’s own learning” (Holec 1981, p. 3). This, he explains, entails responsibility for “fixing the objectives; defining the contents and progressions; selecting the methods and techniques to be used; monitoring the acquisition procedure; evaluating what has been acquired” (Holec 1981, p. 9). The Council of Europe’s first modern languages projects were carried out under the aegis of the Committee for Out-of-School Education. Accordingly, in his introduction Holec establishes the link between his report and the Council’s adult education project, quoting what Janne has to say about “arousing an increasing sense of awareness and liberation in man” and contributing towards “the improvement of the quality of life” (Holec 1981, p. 1). There is, however, a major difference between the two reports. As we have seen, Janne associates self-learning with group work and “interpersonal dialectical dialogue” (Janne 1977, p. 53). Holec, on the other hand, defines the autonomous learner in individual terms, and his account of the exercise of self-management in learning is entirely cognitive-organizational. There is no mention of interaction or collaboration with other learners, and no mention of the knowledge, skills and experience that any adult learner brings to the language learning process.

Janne argued that the democratization of adult education has consequences for the kind of knowledge that is acquired (“a new type of cultural production” [Janne 1977, p. 17]), and Holec made a similar argument in relation to autonomous language learning. If learners themselves determine the goals and content of learning, “objective, universal knowledge is [...] replaced by subjective, individual knowledge”: “the learner is no longer faced with an ‘independent’ reality [...], to which he cannot but give way, but with a reality which he himself constructs and dominates” (Holec 1981, p. 21). Holec’s use of the verb “construct” evidently refers to explicit procedures rather than implicit processes, to learner initiative, choice and control rather than the unconscious and involuntary workings of cognition. But elsewhere in his report he notes the understanding of language learning that was beginning to emerge from empirical research at the end of the 1970s: “an active, creative operation by means of which the learner converts into acquired knowledge information provided for him in an organised manner (teaching) or in non-organised form (‘natural’ untreated information)” (Holec 1981, p. 23).

According to Holec, the ability to take charge of one’s own learning is “not inborn but must be acquired either by ‘natural’ means or (as most often happens) by formal learning, i.e. in a systematic, deliberate way” (Holec 1981, p. 3). This leads him to identify two quite distinct objectives for language teaching: to help learners to achieve their linguistic and communicative goals on the one hand and to become autonomous in their learning on the other. He notes: “This raises the problem of how far the methods adopted to achieve the first objective and to achieve the second objective are compatible” (Holec 1981, p. 23). He envisages, for example, that “programmed instruction” might help learners to “acquire a knowledge of a language” but “would nevertheless place [them] in a position of dependence and irresponsibility such as would immediately conflict with [their] aim of achieving autonomy” (Holec 1981, p. 23). For Holec, developing proficiency in a foreign language and becoming an autonomous learner are evidently separate processes. The teacher’s task is always to promote learning of the target language; and when learner autonomy is part of the overall learning objective, the teacher acquires a second task, to help learners make the transition from *teacher-directed* to *self-directed* learning.

At the end of the 1970s Holec’s notion of “a learning structure in which control over the learning can be exercised by the learner” (1981, p. 7) coincided with the need to respond to the challenges and potential of emerging technologies and helped to stimulate a rapid growth of interest in self-access language learning, especially in universities. His strongly individualistic conception of learner autonomy perfectly fitted the technology available at that time. Especially in universities, autonomous learning quickly came to be understood as something that took place in a language laboratory: individual learners wearing headphones sat in booths and worked with audio recordings of various kinds, sometimes supported by printed materials. This view still predominates in many quarters, though language laboratories have long since been replaced by computer networks. Holec’s view of learner autonomy as one organizational option among others lives on in the notion of “readiness for autonomy” (e.g., Cotterall 1995; Chan 2001; Ming and Alias 2007); while those interested in measuring learner autonomy independently of target language

proficiency (e.g., Benson 2010; Lamb 2010) follow him in assuming that language learning and becoming an autonomous learner are separate, or at least separable, processes.

Learner autonomy as a determining characteristic of classroom language learning presents a very different picture, as a consideration of Leni Dam's contribution will show.

3 Leni Dam's Contribution: Learner Autonomy in the Language Classroom

Leni Dam's version of learner autonomy (Dam 1995) also began to take shape in the 1970s with young Danish teenagers learning English, and superficially it has much in common with Holec's. Within the framework provided by the official curriculum, her learners set their own goals, choose their own learning activities and materials, monitor the learning process, and evaluate learning outcomes. There are, however, three significant differences. First, learners are required to manage their own learning not in order to be able to dispense with their teacher, but because *self-direction* produces the most effective learning. From first to last the teacher has an indispensable role to play as expert guide and manager of the learning environment and its three-phase work cycle – making plans, implementing them, and evaluating outcomes (cf. Janne's notion that self-learning requires expert guidance). Secondly, language learning is seen not only in individual and cognitive terms but also as a social phenomenon grounded in *interaction* and *collaboration*. Group work is fundamental, and the developing proficiency of each member of the class is a resource available to all other members (this recalls Janne's "interpersonal dialectical dialogue" [Janne 1977, p. 53]). Thirdly, from the beginning the target language is the principal medium of *all* classroom communication: discussing and agreeing on learning goals, selecting and carrying out learning activities, evaluating learning outcomes. In other words, from the beginning the target language in its metacognitive as well as its communicative function is the channel through which the learners' agency is required to flow. The development of their autonomy is thus inseparable from the growth of their *target language proficiency* (for a detailed description of Dam's classroom practice, see Dam 1995).

Dam's approach is underpinned by two pedagogical tools, logbooks and posters. Learners use their logbook (a plain notebook) to record the agenda and content of each lesson, plans for homework, and words and phrases that they need to memorise. The logbook is also the place where they write short texts of various kinds and regularly evaluate learning outcomes (the longer texts produced by group projects are kept in a portfolio). Over several years learners fill a number of logbooks, which provide a cumulative record of their growth as learners but also as users of the target language. It is by no means the least important function of the logbook that it helps

to overcome the inescapably fragmentary and episodic nature of all classroom learning.

Whereas the logbook supports individual learning, posters (written on large sheets of paper and pinned to the classroom wall) support the learning of the class as a whole. They are created by the teacher in interaction with the class and serve a wide variety of purposes. For example, they may be used to accumulate words and phrases needed to evaluate the learning process and its outcomes; to list ideas for learning activities and homework; to capture the results of a whole-class brainstorming, perhaps on ways of learning vocabulary or reasons for learning a foreign language. There are two arguments for using posters rather than the blackboard or interactive whiteboard. First, they can be retained for as long as their content is relevant and then stored for possible future reference; and second, most classroom walls can accommodate posters whose total area, and thus information content, greatly exceeds the area of the blackboard or interactive whiteboard. In due course, learners themselves use posters to support the management of project work, for example by listing the roles and responsibilities of the various project members and recording progress.

Learning activity in the autonomy classroom has two main focuses: the creation of target language texts that reflect learners' interests and thus give learning a here-and-now purpose and relevance; and the production of learning materials (word cards, dominoes, board games, etc.; for further information see Dam 1995), which encourages intentional, analytic learning and helps to develop awareness of linguistic form. Both kinds of activity are managed by the learners themselves, but with guidance from the teacher and regular evaluation. Especially when learners have ceased to be beginners, it is often difficult to maintain a clear separation between intentional learning activities and creative text production (cf. the ambitious vocabulary learning project, based on one of the Harry Potter novels, reported by Thomsen [2003]); and because everything that happens in the autonomy classroom happens in and through the target language, the skills of listening, reading, speaking and writing develop in interaction with one another.

A language learning environment that seeks to implement this version of learner autonomy assigns a key role to learners' identity; understands that we respond to the motivational problem by exploiting learners' intrinsic motivation; makes use of their existing linguistic knowledge and communicative competence; insists that from the beginning they exercise agency in and through the target language; develops their metacognitive proficiency in the target language through reflection and evaluation; recognises that learning is not all inside the head – it is a social and physical as well as a cognitive phenomenon; and uses logbooks, posters and a wide variety of target language products to construct and maintain a narrative of individual and collective learning. This understanding of learner autonomy assumes that proficiency in any language gradually *emerges* from communicative and metacognitive language use, and that language *development* is a matter of autopoiesis, of spontaneous, autonomous unfolding and self-organization. In recent years these assumptions have become increasingly prominent in theories of second language acquisition (see, e.g., Larsen-Freeman 2011; Verspoor et al. 2011).

As a theoretical construct (see, e.g., Little 2007) this version of learner autonomy has been nourished by extensively documented classroom practice that goes back to the 1970s (e.g., Dam 1995; Dam and Lentz 1998; Thomsen and Gabrielsen 1991). It has also been the focus of longitudinal research that explored the development of a group of autonomous Danish learners' proficiency in L2 English over 4 years from a variety of perspectives, including the acquisition of vocabulary, target language grammar, and pragmatic competence. In each of these dimensions the Danish learners outperformed a control group of German learners who were being taught English using a "communicative" textbook (see, e.g., Dam and Legenhausen 1996, 1999, 2010, 2011; Legenhausen 1999a, b, c, 2001, 2003).

In principle, Leni Dam's radical approach can be adapted to the needs of language learners in any environment, regardless of their age and proficiency level. It has, for example, been successfully applied to the design and delivery of foreign language modules in Trinity College Dublin's institution-wide language programme (Little and Ushioda 1998) and intensive English language courses for adult refugees admitted to Ireland (Little 2009). The next section of the chapter suggests some reasons for the success of the approach, focusing in turn on motivation, goal-setting and feedback, interaction and reflection, and the role of writing.

4 Learner Autonomy in the Language Classroom: Why Does It Succeed?

Autonomy is central to human experience from a very early stage, as Salmon (1998, p. 24) has pointed out:

To parents, even babies seem to have a will of their own; they are hardly passive creatures to be easily moulded by the actions of others. From their earliest years, boys and girls make their active presence, their wilful agency, their demands and protests, very vividly felt. In every household that has children, negotiations must be made with young family members: their personal agendas have somehow to be accommodated.

This helps to explain why, according to self-determination theory, autonomy is one of three basic motivational needs that we must satisfy in order to achieve a sense of self-fulfilment. Deci (1996, p. 2) argues that we are autonomous when we are "fully willing to do what [we] are doing and [we] embrace the activity with a sense of interest and commitment". The other two basic needs are for competence and relatedness. We have a feeling of competence when we confront and successfully overcome "optimal challenges" (Deci 1996, p. 66); and we experience connectedness when we love and are loved by others (Deci 1996, p. 88). According to self-determination theory, then, the freedom that autonomy entails is confirmed by our competence and constrained by our dependence. Applied to classrooms, the theory predicts that learners who are autonomous will be fulfilled and thus motivated learners. It also predicts that their autonomy will be undermined if they do not

feel that their learning effort is worthwhile for its own sake and as a contribution to the progress of the class as a whole.

Worthwhile learning is a matter of setting and achieving appropriate goals. Csikszentmihalyi has put the matter thus: “A goal is necessary so that we may get feedback on our actions, so that at any given moment we know how well we are doing in terms of the goal. Without a goal, there cannot be meaningful feedback, and without knowing whether we are doing well or not, it is very difficult to maintain involvement” (1990, p. 129). As Hattie and Timperley remind us (2007, p. 82), in order to serve a learning function “feedback needs to provide information specifically relating to the task or process of learning that fills a gap between what is understood and what is aimed to be understood”. In practical terms, it needs to answer three questions: Where am I going? How am I going? Where to next? (Hattie and Timperley 2007, pp. 88–90). In the autonomy classroom, where learners share responsibility for generating feedback with the teacher, the same three questions drive the recursive cycle of planning, implementation, and evaluation. The first and third phases of the cycle are explicitly reflective, while the second is accompanied by reflection in the form of continuous monitoring. At the same time, all three phases entail interaction – between the teacher and the whole class, the teacher and groups of learners, the teacher and individual learners, and learners working in pairs or groups. All this interaction takes place as far as possible in the target language: although reflection may end as thought in the individual learner’s head, it starts as exploratory talk. This practice brings together two strands of pedagogical theory that are supported by a substantial body of empirical research. One strand is concerned with general pedagogy and emphasises the communicative basis of learning and the importance of engaging learners in talk that enables them to explore, understand and appropriate new knowledge (see, for example, Barnes 1976; Mercer and Littleton 2007; Mercer and Hodgkinson 2008; Wells 2009). The other strand is concerned with language learning and attributes a key role to interaction and the negotiation of meaning in second language acquisition (e.g., Long 1996; Mackey 2012; Mackey et al. 2012).

If communicative and metacognitive use of the target language is the first-order tool that we use to create an autonomous language learning environment, the second-order tools by which we mediate the first-order tool are logbooks, posters, learner-created learning materials, and learner-generated texts (for further discussion from a Vygotskian perspective, see Little 2013). The skilful introduction of these second-order tools, all of which entail writing, is what makes it possible for learners to be agents of their own learning *through the target language* from the very beginning. Logbooks in particular play a key role. Maintaining a logbook is itself an act of learning; at the same time, logbooks are a manifestation not only of their owners’ developing proficiency but of their emerging identity as users of the target language. More generally, sustained use of logbooks and posters entails a continuous shuttling back and forth between writing and speaking: written notes provide a basis for speech, and in the early stages of learning help to compensate for the limitations of short-term memory; posters are produced by interaction between the teacher and learners, and the collaborative talk that constitutes group work can

be used to generate written text. Writing in order to speak and speaking in order to write are the means by which autonomous learners construct their proficiency in the target language, both as individuals and as a learning community.

In other words, the third version of learner autonomy depends on the same interactive, communicative and metacognitive processes that, according to general pedagogical theory, are apt to develop responsible, reflective and self-managing learners in and through their first language. In many parts of the world, however, the language of schooling is a second language for large numbers of learners, so that mastery of curriculum content and the development of proficiency in the language of schooling are two sides of the same coin. The same is true for the majority of students who opt to take English-medium degree programmes at non-English-speaking universities. This consideration provides a bridge to the final section of the chapter.

5 Learner Autonomy and English-Medium Degree Programmes

The trend for universities in non-English-speaking countries to teach degree programmes through the medium of English prompts the question: If students are non-native speakers of the language through which they are pursuing their studies, what kind of language support should they receive? One answer to the question might be to provide them with modules in English for Specific Purposes in order to develop their proficiency relative to the content of the curriculum they are following. Universities that still associate learner autonomy primarily with self-access language learning might also provide students with opportunities for supplementary self-study. But the first and third versions of learner autonomy discussed in this chapter demand an approach that is altogether more radical.

The first version of learner autonomy associates “self-learning” with interaction and collaboration, and assumes that learners in adult education are active and responsible agents whose knowledge, skills and experience are directly relevant to the learning process. According to this view, the most effective way of meeting the needs of adult learners is to secure their full engagement in all aspects of the learning process – “objectives, curriculum content and working methods and pace” (Janne 1977, p. 27). Universities, however, define their activities in terms of academic disciplines, which to begin with are likely to be virgin territory for students, even when their chosen course appears to be continuous with one or more of the subjects they took at school. The idea that students should be involved in negotiation of objectives, curriculum content and working methods may thus seem wholly unrealistic. In the relevant research literature there is nevertheless widespread agreement that the most effective and successful students are self-regulating: “Even though there is disagreement over the precise definition of student-centred learning, the core assumptions are active engagement in learning and learner responsibility

for the management of learning” (Nicol and Macfarlane-Dick 2006, p. 200). This invites the question: What steps should universities take to secure their students’ active engagement and their willing and explicit acceptance of responsibility for their learning?

John Biggs’s concept of “constructive alignment”, most recently elaborated by Biggs and Tang (2011), offers one answer to this question. Biggs has developed a powerful heuristic for constructively aligning university curricula, teaching/learning activities, assessment tasks, and assessment criteria. Intended learning outcomes – the competences students are required to develop – are defined at four levels: the best outcomes that can reasonably be expected, highly satisfactory outcomes, moderately satisfactory outcomes, and minimally satisfactory outcomes. Verbs are used to define the competences for each level (among those for the highest level, for example, we find *hypothesize, reflect, relate to principle*); the objects of these verbs define curriculum content; assessment tasks are designed to elicit the processes captured in the “competence” verbs; and task performance is rated according to criteria related to the different competence levels (for a schematic overview, see Biggs and Tang 2011, p. 105).

This necessarily brief summary of constructive alignment serves to remind us that knowledge is inseparable from the communicative processes by which we acquire and express it; and within higher education there is a wealth of empirical research to support the view that successful learning is an interactive process rooted in “interpersonal dialectical dialogue” (Janne 1977, p. 53). Much of that research is in the tradition that I referred to briefly in Sect. 4 (for further references see, e.g., Biggs and Tang 2011), and it points to an approach to learning and teaching that is closely similar to the one developed by Leni Dam for her teenage learners of English: an approach that engages directly with what students already know, finds ways of exploiting and building on their intrinsic motivation, requires them to accept responsibility for the management of their learning, ensures that curriculum content is delivered interactively, and encourages group as well as individual reflection within a framework of regular evaluation and formative assessment. Dam’s learners achieved high levels of proficiency in English partly because they were co-responsible for planning, implementing, monitoring and evaluating their learning – processes that were at once interactive and reflective, communicative and metacognitive – and partly because writing was used to support these processes in ways that enabled the learners to channel their agency through the target language.

The implications of this argument for English-medium programmes are twofold. First, it is not enough simply to “translate” existing courses into English. English-medium programmes need to be designed from the bottom up paying particular attention to: (i) the role that language plays in expressing, accessing, critically scrutinizing, and further developing knowledge of all kinds; (ii) the modes of linguistic communication in which these processes are to be enacted; and (iii) the kinds of support that non-native speakers of English will need in order to participate and benefit to the maximum of their potential. Secondly, because most university departments are not used to thinking about the courses they teach in these terms, specialists in language teaching/learning should be fully involved in the design of

English-medium programmes to ensure that they meet the pedagogical criteria I have summarized; for only thus will they be in a position to design and deliver appropriate supplementary and remedial language support.

Questions for Reflection on Future Teaching Practice

1. Theories of learner autonomy emphasize the importance of exploiting the knowledge, skills and experience that learners bring with them. How do you aim to do this in your teaching?
2. Some theorists assume that the development of learner autonomy is separable from the development of L2 proficiency, whereas others argue that the two processes are in fact one and the same. Which view do you find more convincing? And how does the view you favour impact on your teaching?
3. The success of autonomous learning environments has been attributed to systematic use of the target language for metacognitive as well as communicative purposes. How do you support your students in the metacognitive use of their target language?
4. Documentation of the learning process is fundamental to learner self-management. In Leni Dam's practice individual learners use logbooks to record their learning, and posters created collaboratively by teacher and students capture the learning of the group as a whole. How do you respond to the challenge of documentation in your teaching?
5. It is generally agreed that feedback plays an essential role in any effective teaching/learning process. In autonomous learning environments learners share with their teacher the responsibility for generating and exploiting feedback. How do you generate and exploit feedback in your classroom?
6. It is fundamental to the concept of learner autonomy that learners are fully involved in setting objectives, selecting curriculum content and deciding on working methods. How do you involve your learners in these processes?
7. To what extent does your approach to teaching
 - engage directly with what your students already know;
 - find ways of exploiting and building on their intrinsic motivation;
 - require them to accept responsibility for the management of their learning;
 - ensure that curriculum content is delivered interactively; and
 - encourage group as well as individual reflection within a framework of regular evaluation and formative assessment?

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Listening to Local Voices: Teachers' Representations on Learner Autonomy

Faiza Bensemmane-Ihaddaden

Abstract This exploratory study is situated in a context of educational changes in which learner-centered pedagogy and learner autonomy were introduced in response to the reform in the university curriculum. The study is interview-based and was conducted with seven female teachers in order to explore how teachers view learner-centered teaching and learner autonomy, how they implement these principles in practice, what constraints they meet and how they respond to them.

The qualitative, interpretive method of analysis based on a sociocultural perspective reveals insights about how teachers learn to teach and to become autonomous in the absence of a framework for professional development. Despite their difficulties, which are largely related to the students' deeply rooted preference for relying on the teacher or the person who knows better, the teachers were committed to implementing this educational innovation, and understood it as something in the making, in construction, in action. They “re-invented” and “domesticated” the concept, adjusted their old practices and co-constructed their own autonomy by involving their learners in classroom activities that they enjoyed doing. Therefore the apprenticeship for autonomy was carried out simultaneously with and through their peers and with their students. The new curriculum and the innovation it has brought resonated in these teachers and was perceived as “ecologically appropriate” to their needs and aspirations.

Keywords Reform • Higher education • Learner autonomy • Teacher autonomy • Co-construction • Professional development • Transformation • Curriculum

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1 Introduction: Is Autonomy a Universal Concept?

The post-independence era is currently transforming our societies in the context of globalization. Algeria, like many developing or emerging countries in Africa, is witnessing powerful forces of integration into the so-called “global” world, characterized by “shrinking space, shrinking time and breaking down borders” (Karamavadelu 2003, p. 6). It seems that the concept of learner autonomy is not “shrinking”; rather, it is expanding as more teachers and learners are “experimenting” with the learning and teaching practices of autonomy all over the world (Irie and Stewart 2012). Over the last four decades, autonomy has become a central pre-occupation in second language pedagogy and an important educational goal all over the world, but it is a concept that is not easy to define and still problematic. The present study is exploratory. It was conducted in the department where I am teaching and was motivated by my experience of initiating, coordinating and supporting the teachers who try to work out how autonomous learning can be applied to our learning and teaching environments.

According to Little (1991), autonomy is a specialist term that it is essential to understand when one is dealing with teaching and learning. It is axiomatic that autonomy is not “a self-explanatory concept” (Schmenk 2005) and its meaning is gradually changing, through a process of reflection by applied linguists and teachers who are helping to clarify it (Benson 2007). In 1981, Holec stressed the importance of learner self-management and defined autonomy as “the ability to take charge of one’s own learning” (Holec 1981, p. 3), such as determining the learning objectives, defining the contents of learning, selecting the methods to be used, and evaluating what has been learned. He used this concept in relation to adult education and self-access facilities, but self-access centres soon became an issue as learners did not know how to look into themselves to find the resources to learn by themselves, and not to rely on external conditions. Little (1991, p. 4) also viewed autonomy as “individual” and defined it as “a *capacity* for detachment, critical reflection, decision-making and independent action” (author’s emphasis).

In the 1990s, learner autonomy was (re)interpreted and practised in specific contexts, and some experts began to ask whether the principles and practice underpinning “autonomous” and “self-directed” learning schemes are ethnocentric (Riley 1988). Language learning in isolation was challenged by learning environments and the role of the socio-cultural context of the learner (Benson and Voller 1997). Language learning was no longer seen as the acquisition of an unchangeable amount of content, but as actively constructed by learners. The large number of studies on learner autonomy in a variety of contexts testifies that autonomy is multidimensional and may take different forms according to the individuals and their contexts, although there is a risk of overlapping with related ideas such as learning strategies and motivation, or with “rival ideas” such as self-regulation (Tseng et al. 2006; Benson 2011).

Little (1999, p. 22) suggested a theory of learner autonomy which can be “universally applicable to formal language learning” though its implementation “must always be sensitive to the context”. This requires learner empowerment, learner reflection and learner appropriation of target language use. What is worth stressing

is that this “globalized concept” is now subjected to local interpretations and re-conceptualized by teachers who can give it a specific “wrap” in their terrain of practice, taking into account their own understandings of learner autonomy as well as their students’ culture of learning (Palfreyman and Smith 2003). The socio-cultural perspective emerging from the interaction between teacher and learners (Dam 1995; Little 2009; Benson 2001, 2011; Palfreyman and Smith 2003) has gradually replaced the individual one (Holec 1981, 1988; Little 1991). As Schmenk (2005, p. 107) rightly remarks, “(...) accepting the cultural embeddedness of autonomy may facilitate negotiating its potential meanings and importance with respect to diverse local environments, instead of simply promoting it in non-Western contexts”, as self-directed learning is something alien to students not accustomed to self-study, who are more inclined to study and learn aided by the teacher or their peers.

Little (1999) distinguished between two types of autonomy:

- Proactive autonomy which regulates the direction of a task without the help of the teacher and for which the learners set their own agenda for learning.
- Reactive autonomy which regulates the direction of a task initiated and instructed by the teacher. In this situation, it is the teacher who sets the agenda for learning, as is the case in traditional teacher-centered teaching.

In some educational contexts, there is a stage of interdependence when the learner moves from dependence to independence that can only be reached through a great deal of cooperation with the group of learners, the group being “the people in the room”, which of course, includes the teacher (Thornbury 2012, p. 264).

But learner autonomy requires teacher autonomy, as the learner still depends on the teacher to a great extent (Benson 2001). The autonomous teacher must be flexible and be able to create new situations never encountered before. This implies transformation of both learner and teacher, and becoming empowered through this transformation (Lamb 2000). But this is the weakest link in education, as for fear of change or loss of security, many teachers take refuge in old habits and behaviours. As Freire (1970) rightly remarks, an autonomous teacher has the capacity to transform the reality in which he/she lives, rather than reproduce a system, provided he/she is able to interpret situations and events. Jimenez et al. (2007, p. 1) also argue that the teacher should develop as: “a self-determined, socially responsible and critically aware participant in (and beyond) educational environments, within a vision of education as (inter)personal empowerment and social transformation.”

This study is situated in a context where learner-centered pedagogy induced by the higher education reform in Algeria (2004), the LMD system (Licence-Master-Doctorat), inspired by the Bologna Process (Khelfaoui 2009) is currently replacing the “classical” one in force since the 1970s. The philosophy advocated by the reform is essentially to develop the critical capacities of the learners to enable them to know themselves through self-reflection, so that they become active and confident learners who can think for themselves and learn how to learn.

The reform agenda was intended to re-examine the university curricula said to be obsolete for many users in the light of the changes occurring in the world in all

domains, in order to enable students to adapt to these changes. The major change relates to instructional methodology. The universities have taken up the issue of learner autonomy as an important educational goal and a crucial outcome for students: teaching should be centred on the student who is expected to become an autonomous learner through metacognition and interaction, and to study on his/her own much more than in the “classical” system. This sort of Copernican revolution happening within the institution aimed to create in both teachers and students a learning culture where students will position themselves as knowledge seekers rather than examination learners.

But, as Candlin (1997) rightly remarks, autonomy cannot be “legislated”. Defining principles should be embedded in the actions of teachers and learners because traditions are hard-lived. Indeed, the new curriculum is currently raising issues and challenges. Problems have emerged with its implementation as the traditional roles of the teachers need to be re-assessed from knowledge-giving to equipping learners with efficient learning skills and life skills. The process of training teachers is long, slow and costly, and they have received little information about how to implement the reform in the classroom, how to engage their learners in autonomous learning, how to monitor their learning, how to assess it, etc. Many teachers felt they had no alternative than to fall back on or revisit old practices. Although the new system was bringing change into their professional lives, the notion of autonomous learning soon became an issue.

However, because the new curriculum was associated with improvement in student performance, many teachers were ready to attempt this experience. It is in this atmosphere that I undertook this research on the teachers’ representations of autonomy.

2 The Interview-Based Study

How do teachers view learner-centered teaching and learner autonomy brought in by the reform? How do they implement these principles in practice? What constraints do they meet and how do they respond to them?

To investigate these questions, I conducted a discourse-based research project with seven female teachers teaching language, skills and content courses in the department of English. Their names have been changed to preserve confidentiality. I will refer to them as: *Aida, Hana, Lamia, Nora, Rima, Sonia* and *Zohra*.

The study involves semi-structured interviews with little intervention on my part and much storytelling. Researchers report that storytelling has an “emancipatory” role (Webster and Mertova 2007) because it can help to give meaning to the participants themselves and to their world. As a matter of fact, the teachers interviewed confessed that they were largely unaware of the phenomena they were describing in their narratives, but they became meaningful to them through the process of narrating them.

I used a socio-cultural perspective, with a qualitative and interpretive method of analysis, to describe the process of change in this social context, focusing on the

meanings that teachers give to things and events, their personal stories, experiences, viewpoints and practices.

The interviews were transcribed and analysed. Each emerging theme is presented, discussed and highlighted by quotations from the teachers' responses, in the subsequent sections.

2.1 Grappling with the Concept of Learner Autonomy: Appropriating the Metaphors

All teachers soon started to grapple with the concept of learner autonomy, questioning its applicability, adaptability, teachability and assessability while acknowledging the difficulty of "grafting" a conceptual approach to a context likely to reject it (Miliani 2011).

Aida The main thing I understood is that learners must take part in their learning, must be responsible. They are not only recipients of knowledge ... because I am not the absolute truth. They must be active participants to this knowledge.... I learned about autonomous learning ... mainly through reading about teacher centeredness and learner centeredness.

Lamia When you teach at university, you never stop reading or consulting research works and conclusions from research..., I have a number of convictions that comply with constructivist theory.

Zohra Learner autonomy...it implies new roles for both teacher and learner. The teacher is no more the owner of knowledge... he is now a guide, a facilitator ... the students are no more considered as tabula rasa. They are active participants...they are here not to accumulate knowledge ... not considered as bottles to be filled with knowledge.

Nora ... Teaching ...it should be student-centered. .. because we are preparing them for the market world.

However, some autonomy-related concepts such as student accountability and critical thinking do pose problems: the interviewees consider it is the teacher's responsibility to "transmit" these notions to students and to ensure that they apply them properly. But what happens in the classroom is often difficult to control as the teachers do not seem to have mastered the "techniques" for translating these notions into classroom practices:

Lamia With regards to home assignments, I always checked that they all did it ... At the beginning, only a few completed the assignment ... and then toward the end, everybody came with their assignment.... Accountability is teachable and you can inculcate that, you explain to them why you are checking...you have an eye open on the students.... Without having an eye open on what they are doing, those who don't write, etc....you can't be sure that this development is their own and is due to their own contribution.

Nora Critical thinking... Are we not asking them too much then, to know... It's a problem, isn't it? They know, and I tell them that the kind of questions they have for the exam will not ask them to reproduce my lecture, but to be critical, to produce something personal.

Sonia ... even if some have this critical skill, they don't seem to be able to do it in English ... they can do it in Arabic, but not in English... They seem to be more critical, to give their opinion, freely, outside the classroom, but when in the classroom, in front of other students, and I force them to speak only in English, they are not able to do it ...to express themselves critically.

In addition to reading the relevant literature on autonomy, it is through collaboration with other teachers that they managed to get some degree of empowerment which helped them find solutions to their difficulties.

Aida ...-We have informal discussions with my colleagues...that the students are not autonomous, some are not even active in class... and about what to do....

Sonia -We kept consulting each other, the colleagues... always something to ask...

Lamia I have worked with a team, with colleagues who are very much interested in autonomous learning... this is important.

For one teacher, this peer interaction was cathartic:

Hana Meeting my colleagues and discussing problems always gives me hope...when I feel I am bad...not up to the level, worried, anxious, I share it with other teachers to get comfort

2.2 Reflecting and Adjusting Autonomy to the Context

The teachers stated that they were continually reflecting through action and reflecting on action. They confessed that they liked this experience of “teaching to help learning”, and found it both enriching and transformative.

Some teachers were quite satisfied with what they were doing. But generally they all had a practical and acute sense of what works and what does not work, and were ready to share it as long as it could serve other teachers (Hargreaves 1994):

Lamia I would like to be able to exploit the new perceptions that derive from practice... these innovative survival experiences...I try and put into practice things that... there is a change in my way of thinking, in my way of trying to improve things.

Hana I always start with brainstorming because the starting point of any lesson or activity should be the student, not me... Then they discover what the lesson is about, gradually... for example, for the lecture on The Origin of Language...the verse about Adam and Eve in Arabic ...because Linguistics books refer to the Bible, not the Quran ... the students feel more involved... they feel like ‘we have our own explanation, therefore we exist’.

Sonia I use handouts... I ask my students to prepare for the next session, and those who are interested in the topic always do research before coming; when the next session comes, they start speaking about the topic without me asking them any question. They feel more involved..

Lamia what I wanted most is that all the students should benefit from the activities I designed. My attempt was to get them involved in grasping abstract grammar rules. So they completed the tasks at home, by listening to the media; they watched BBC or El Djazira in

English, even some channels that I wasn't aware of, which are in English... and they came with authentic instances of how these forms were used. They loved it

Sonia actually, the new curriculum has opened the doors to challenge, to create, to do things we could not do in the old system.

2.3 The Autonomy of the Group

Teachers always worry about how much content to cover in their course. But this idea that learner autonomy can free the teachers from the burden of classroom control and give them the opportunity to detach themselves from the students is quite unrealistic. The view of the teacher as guide, always present to instruct and monitor, is quite dominant in the teacher discourse and action. There is also the group which often serves as affective support and intellectual scaffold for student learning. The students love group work and teachers know this, and they believe that this support will eventually lead to their autonomy. The group can serve to empower the individuals:

Aida I do a lot of pair work, group work...they like it... they like sharing...some don't really know how to work efficiently in the group work...they chat with each other and sometimes they become really...irrelevant; but they like it.

Nora I've realized that in a heterogeneous class, working in groups can really help the ones that are weaker than others

Rima the students don't always understand the purpose of working in pairs or in groups of three... they work a little and then start chatting, joking but when you explain, they like exchanging information, views... and those who are better can explain to the weaker.

2.4 Transformation: The Teacher as Guide and Co-learner

The teacher is viewed as a guide, but her burden can be shared with students

Aida I think of myself as a guide, as someone who must guide the students to construct themselves and... this is helping me to construct myself as a teacher... and I am also a learner

Hana I see myself as a guide, not a teacher- knower... I am close to the students ...and this has made me discover who I am ... I discovered myself as another person with different attitudes and behaviours... but deep inside, I still feel like a student, learning to become autonomous myself.

Aida I am learning from teaching... from the students... I am becoming autonomous... just like the students (laugh)...and I am also a researcher... I am always questioning myself... I have gained from this double identity.

Rima ... we are always learners. We, older or younger teachers, we are always developing ... Monitoring pair and group work, it's a new way of teaching that I have learnt and that I am still learning.

2.5 *Dealing with Dilemmas*

Most teachers expressed dilemmas regarding their pedagogical choices and their difficulty implementing autonomous learning.

How can the teachers engage their students in autonomous learning when the latter are accustomed to totally relying on the teacher to set directions to tasks, deal with the tasks in class, prepare for examinations or explain homework and home assignments?

Lamia but we teachers, we feel a bit frustrated, restricted because there isn't much change we can bring into our classroom, because ... when you have 80 or 70 students attending..., I teach skills modules, writing, oral, etc., it is difficult with so many...

Other teachers would integrate the demands of the new curriculum with their customary or "old" teaching habits, for security or apprehension, or because they were unconsciously resisting the change.

Aida but the students are not aware that they must take charge of their learning ... because they are used to traditional teaching where the teacher gives ...

Hana I even tried to treat my students as colleagues... But it was difficult and sometimes I think you must have several personalities: the cool and flexible teacher... also the tough teacher to deal with discipline, to impose order inside the classroom; and also the teacher who is not an encyclopedia and when I make mistakes, they laugh and I laugh with them... so they understand that I am not a knower of everything, and I tell the students: I am also expecting things from you and ... I am learning from you...we are learning from each other...

Aida I like this change... new approach... but it is not easy to teach... I always tend to do like I was taught... like my old teachers did... I am aware that I should not replicate this form of teaching... it was not learner-centered but maybe it was easier to teach ... with this method of teaching.

Nora to be sincere with you, I don't know much ... I have worked very much by instinct, intuition ... I'm ashamed to say that.

Zohra we can't be idealistic. We don't have enough time. We have a programme to cover... So, sometimes, we teach in the old way because the students are too many ... they are used to learning by heart, so we accept this. The most difficult thing is to teach them how to think, how to learn, how to transform knowledge... it's very hard to change the students' mentalities. They just wait for you ... you know everything and they know nothing and they are here to get knowledge. This is the reality.

Nora when I asked them to do a presentation, I could easily see it was downloaded from the internet, not personal work... although I warned them about plagiarism.

Rima for autonomous learning, the ICT module is essential. The difficulty is that there was no material for that, no infrastructure for teaching it. Also, when it was a small group of students, it worked well.

Sonia when I had few students, I had enough time to do many things with each student, so I could see how each student improved and I could take time working with each student...

3 Conclusion

This interview study has revealed interesting insights about how teachers learn to teach and to become autonomous in the absence of a framework for professional development. Despite their difficulties, they were committed to implementing this educational innovation in the curriculum, and came to consider it as something in the making, in construction, in action. Their approach could help them “re-invent” the concept and adjust their old practices. But learner autonomy is still a difficult goal to attain because the students are accustomed to teacher-centred education and the deeply rooted idea of relying on the teacher or the person who knows better.

Interestingly, the teachers seemed to be co-constructing their own autonomy by implying their learners in classroom activities that they enjoyed doing, such as pair and group work. But they all suggested the setting-up of a teacher professional development programme to “domesticate” this concept. They generally reject the transmission approach to teaching and support the assumptions and practices associated with the socio-constructivist approach underlying the notion of learner autonomy, but they often meet with so many obstacles that recourse to old practices involving much ready-made knowledge giving and transmission appears to be inevitable.

The teachers' narratives seem to have “liberated” their voices. They appear to be gradually taking power and control of their class in an invisible way, a sort of political assertiveness through pedagogy. The apprenticeship of autonomy is done simultaneously with and through their peers and with their students. The new curriculum and the innovation it has brought resonates in them and is perceived as “ecologically appropriate” (van Lier 2007) to their needs and aspirations. It is open to their own interpretations and allows space for their own perception of learner autonomy. But this study has only scratched the surface of an issue which also connects with others such as: the low achievers, who are they? Why do they fail? Who are the good achievers? Are they autonomous learners?

I have also noted the enthusiasm and positive atmosphere that transpires from many of them. They seem to enjoy what they are doing, and this positive thinking is viewed as essential, even vital, to their experiential learning of autonomy and to their growth as autonomous teachers.

Questions for Reflection on Future Teaching Practice

1. To what extent can a “traditional” teacher foster autonomy in her/his learners?
2. What kind of “cultural embeddedness of autonomy” can you think of in relation to your own learning/teaching context?
3. What are the advantages and drawbacks of the “autonomy of the group”? As teacher, would you encourage group autonomy? Why?
4. What classroom (or outside) activities are likely to involve the teacher both as a guide and a co-learner?

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Reevaluating the Roles of the Stakeholders in Language Education: How Student Autonomy Is Promoted through Projects in English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP) Courses

Miriam Symon

Abstract Students' ability to develop their English and function without assistance from teachers during their academic studies and professional lives is an objective within the context of language learning in higher education, especially in an English Medium Instruction setting. This chapter aims to show, with practical examples, how projects customized to students' specific needs in various disciplines, at the end of advanced level English for Specific Academic Purposes courses, can promote student autonomy. By working through the project process, which enables students to choose their topic and materials, synthesize skills and strategies from the course and apply diverse resources in a learner-centred approach, students are engaged in challenging tasks which allow them to practise language skills in a natural setting. Furthermore, projects can increase effectiveness of the course by utilizing new technologies and encouraging autonomy, through self-access, self-monitoring and collaboration in real-life tasks, thereby placing more responsibility on the student. In light of shifting language needs in the academic and work environments, the roles and responsibilities of the language instructor and student should be reevaluated, considering more student-centred approaches for preparing undergraduates with language skills for their studies and for the workplace.

Keywords English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP) • Student autonomy • Project-based learning (PBL) • Attitude to language learning • Authentic communication • Learner-centred learning • Blended learning

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1 Introduction

In view of changing language needs, with the growth of English Medium Instruction (EMI) at university even in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) contexts, and the acceptance of English as the lingua franca of the global workplace (Charles 2007), students need to attain some degree of autonomy in order to become effective language users (Nunan 1997). Accordingly, higher education should adapt from traditional input-driven teaching to focusing on the learners and the learning outcomes (Raisanen and Fortanet-Gomez 2008). Indeed, the Council of Europe's (1998) Recommendation R(98)6 concerning modern languages encouraged teaching institutions to foster the development of student autonomy to enable independent life-long language learning. This chapter explores how project-based learning in English courses develops student autonomy, by examining specific examples of projects in an EFL context, and considering the role of the stakeholders in enabling them to achieve that objective.

In this chapter I am building upon the well-known "Bergen definition" where,

Learner autonomy is characterized by a readiness to take charge of one's own learning in the service of one's own needs and purposes. This entails a capacity and willingness to act independently and in cooperation with others, as a social, responsible person (Dam et al., 1990, p. 102).

This definition firstly highlights the need to develop students' capacity by formal learning, thus enabling them to become more autonomous. It also focuses on willingness, or attitude to language learning, which can range on a scale from dependent (i.e. teacher-directed) to independent (i.e. learner-directed), where a learner is completely responsible for making decisions and implementing them, and a student could be functioning at any point on this learning continuum before embarking on the path to LA (learner autonomy) (Chan 2001). Furthermore, the definition relates to social interaction and collaboration, and not just self-study. Whilst the "Bergen definition" assumes that learners are aware of their needs and purposes, I concur with Nunan (1997) in that most learners at the start of their learning process may not know what is best and should follow a programme where LA is implemented in stages. The process should first enable students to identify and assess their needs, then choose and apply their preferred learning styles or strategies, eventually leading to self-directed learning (Peñaflorida 2002).

For students to be prepared for an EMI tertiary environment, their capacity to function independently of English teachers needs to be developed, since it is generally not logistically feasible for them to be accompanied by an English teacher throughout their studies. However, as most students are not autonomous learners at the outset of their language learning, pedagogical procedures are needed to develop this autonomy. Moreover, whilst some degree of autonomy is required for learners to become effective language users in EMI university contexts, the extent to which it is nurtured could be constrained by personal and environmental factors. In fact, a fully autonomous learner may even be an ideal rather than a reality (Nunan 1997),

and thus Reinders (2010) focuses more on developing autonomous learning or self-directed learning as a process.

For the purposes of this chapter, I view autonomy as an objective which enables language learners to function without assistance from teachers during their academic studies and professional lives. It is my contention that students should first develop their capacity for autonomous learning during their EFL courses, before they embark on EMI courses, to enable them to take control of their language learning in an EMI context. Helping students to work independently on a project in the second half of their EFL advanced course in a more learner-centred pedagogic approach, once they have sufficiently practised skills and strategies, should increase students' ability to function afterwards in an EMI environment.

Learner-centredness is characterized by a movement away from language teaching as the transmission of a body of knowledge ('the language') towards language learning as the active production of knowledge ... supported by approaches that emphasize the role of learners as active agents in their own learning (Benson and Voller 1997, p. 7).

According to Ciekanski (2007), three factors are attributed with fostering a growing interest in autonomous learning and a shift to more learner-centred learning. Firstly, the *ideological argument* identifies the students' right to exercise their own choices rather than that of the institution. Moreover, the *economic argument* assumes that students must be able to provide for their own learning needs in life-long learning, and not just rely on society to continue providing a high level of instruction, especially considering technological changes. Thirdly, the *psychological argument* claims that students learn better when they are responsible for their own learning due to the cognitive, social and affective aspects involved in the learning process, such as memorization and motivation. In addition to these factors, changes in the global work environment and developments in technology have changed the landscape and contributed to endeavours for more autonomous learning approaches.

Just as the personal computer empowered workers in the 1980s and 1990s and revolutionized work processes in the business world, it is my belief that we are now at the cusp of a revolution in the world of education. Indeed, the personal computer may have assisted in the first stage of student autonomy in education, with the advent of self-access centres. More recent advances in information and communication technology (ICT) have empowered students, and enabled a less controlling role for teachers, who can facilitate learning through learning management systems (LMS), such as Moodle (<https://moodle.org/>).

Blended learning, which integrates an LMS with face-to-face teaching, provides greater flexibility, allowing self-paced study and collaborative learning, and changing the power structure of the classroom (Snodin 2013). Not only can the Moodle LMS be used as a repository, it also has far greater potential with additional tools enabling self-correction and monitoring, thereby freeing up a teacher's time traditionally spent in reviewing answers, as well as allowing other kinds of classroom activities. Furthermore, students today enjoy greater independence through mobile digital tools such as tablets and mobile phones, which provide instant access to the

vast array of readily-available resources on the Internet, and the teacher is no longer the sole provider of resources. Web-tools also enable more collaboration (Wikis, Google Docs) and self-correction in writing (see for example, www.grmr.me; <http://www.paperrater.com/>), plus access for self-study on the web, which all facilitate LA.

It is my contention that these revolutions change the roles of students, teachers and institutions, and technological elements are an essential factor in providing students with the potential for greater autonomy and shaping collaboration. Nevertheless, the role of the teacher has not become dispensable, with some form of blended learning being advocated, especially since technology is a tool rather than an end in itself, requiring appropriate pedagogy (Snodin 2013). The following section considers the pedagogy of project-based learning (PBL) as an effective way of promoting autonomy.

2 How Project-Based Learning Fosters Autonomy

Projects offer a framework to promote and develop LA, since they facilitate authentic communication, student involvement and cooperative learning in a move away from teacher-dominated instruction (Stoller 2002; Iakovos et al. 2011). They enable the transfer of control and choice to students, so that they can control and choose what, when, where, how, and who with (Ciekanski 2007). Furthermore, projects increase effectiveness of courses by encouraging autonomy through self-access, self-monitoring and collaboration in learner-centred, real-life tasks, thereby placing more responsibility on the student. McCarthy (2010) even suggests that integrating a PBL approach into the EFL curriculum seeking LA may be the “new paradigm shift” in EFL.

Students cannot realistically be expected to immediately take responsibility for their learning and autonomy, but rather need a structured approach with preparation to develop skills and support for successful autonomous learning. Whilst I believe that teachers can develop autonomy in their learners, projects work best with higher-level students who appreciate the challenge (McCarthy 2010) and have reached a level where they also have the capacity to manage autonomously. Semi-structured projects are defined and organized partly by the teacher and partly by students, in terms of topic, materials, methodology, and presentation (Stoller 2002). Even though the projects described here are fairly structured, and many of the decisions have already been made, they leave room for students’ initiative, and even the teachers’ instructions do not contradict self-direction, but rather are used to develop it. Generally, students need to be developed into autonomous learners and the projects are based on implementing the communication skills and strategies learnt in earlier stages of the program and integrating ICT tools, as discussed earlier.

Projects prepare students to learn content materials from a variety of informational sources through the English language, which is excellent training for an EMI context, especially since they simulate the intellectual challenges of the content

courses, with authentic integration of skills and information processing from different sources, yet within a sheltered environment (Beckett and Slater 2005; Stoller 2002). Projects fulfil Cotterall's principles for course tasks, because they provide preparation, practice and feedback for the type of meaningful, real-world communicative tasks the learner can expect in the future to participate in, and "such 'transparency' of course content is the hallmark of courses designed to foster learner autonomy" (Cotterall 2000, p. 111).

It is not just the final product, in our context an oral presentation and written report, which gives the project a purpose, but also the process of working towards that end product (McCarthy 2010; Stoller 2002). In what follows, I describe two practical examples of projects and the process involved, beginning with a brief overview of the context.

3 The Context

Although most instruction is conducted in Hebrew, EMI at tertiary level in Israel is a growing trend (Symon and Weinberg 2013) and students in many institutions are expected to take some EMI courses. Therefore, whilst the context has traditionally been defined as EFL, the role of English in Israel, as elsewhere in the world, is changing, and could even be described as ESL in some contexts.

The current focus of the English courses which students take in their first year of higher education in Israel is on reading comprehension. Some tertiary institutions do not include presentations and writing skills, and therefore these students are less prepared for EMI courses, exchange programs, and professional life in a global workplace (Symon and Broido 2014). This gap is presently being addressed within the TEMPUS ECOSTAR project (<http://tempus-ecostar.iucc.ac.il/>).

In my context at IDC Herzliya, 25 % of the students come from over eighty countries to study a degree wholly taught in English in IDC's RRIS International School. These international programme students function in an EMI environment and submit all their written assignments in English, requiring a higher level of English proficiency, with an adjustment of the project for the non-native speakers who need to take preparatory English courses. The projects within the English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP) courses, described in the rest of this chapter, apply to both the EMI and EFL contexts, whereby the writing aspect is more emphasized in the EMI context with the international students, whereas the reading aspect is stressed more in the EFL context with the Israeli students. For Israeli students, the project is the final stage of the English programme, after which students may register for EMI courses. The Israeli students are generally expected to take two elective EMI courses.

The projects described here are a result of collaborative work with other teachers in the EFL Unit of IDC Herzliya and have been shaped by feedback, including informal interviews, from students over the last 10 years. Incremental improvements have been implemented throughout the whole period, based on student and

teacher feedback; nonetheless, it is still work in progress, incorporating changing technology.

4 The Project Process

The objective of this semi-structured project process is to assist students in becoming more independent in setting goals, selecting learning strategies, and evaluating progress through achievable targets with deadlines rather than just one final product. Students are encouraged to personalise their project on a topic of interest to them, choose the members of their group, select their own readings and other materials, process that information through collaboration in groups, and present information orally and in written reports. These tasks incorporate skills which help them develop, not only as autonomous students, but also as autonomous members of their future working environments. To encourage autonomy, students need to document achievement at each stage, as part of a process which includes formative and summative assessment. Rather than simply completing exercises during the course, the project culminates in an oral presentation and written report, which can be shared with others, thus giving it a real purpose.

We have devised projects that are modified to students' specific needs in the different disciplines. A customized framework was designed for each school's English project, reflecting the short and long term needs of the students, which was worked out in collaboration with the deans and content lecturers in each school and with consideration of course syllabi. The following description of the final projects, assigned in the highest level English course in the Psychology School and the Business School, both illustrates the project procedure and highlights the divergences in order to address the specific needs and interests of each student population. They differ not just regarding topic, but also in sources of information and data collection techniques, and the style and format of the final reports. Both are research projects, although the psychology project also includes a survey element.

The English for Psychology project is structured as a mini-research project, wherein students choose a psychological issue of interest to them, and then build a short research article around their topic, starting with a literature review, then conducting a questionnaire survey and analysing the results, and finally connecting their findings with previous discussions on the issue. In groups of two or three, students think of an issue in the real world which interests them, rather than a topic selected by their teacher, and then they each have to find a research article which explores this topic. Applying the principles from the strategies taught during the first half of the semester, they are expected to note the hypothesis, method, main findings and conclusions from the article. By synthesizing previous findings from all the group's articles, plus what interests them on this issue in their context, they are expected to develop a research question. Using models from readings in class, students write up their first draft of the introduction, including the literature review and their hypothesis. The next stage requires the students to develop a questionnaire;

the first draft is sent to the teacher for language and content feedback, and the final approved version is administered to participants on a small scale (ten per student). They write up the method, making sure that they correctly use the vocabulary learnt in class (for example, *tool*, *procedure*, *sample*, *participants*). Students identify the general trends in the responses and try to look for patterns, whilst avoiding deep statistical analysis, keeping it as an English course rather than a Statistics course. Students write up the results and discussion sections and add their references. Throughout the project, students use research articles as a model for the structure and style of their report.

Likewise, the English for Business Administration project is developed in a process, leading to an analyst report, regarding whether it is worth investing in a specific company. The business students collaborate in groups of four and select a company, about which they need to find out information from business sources such as analyst and financial reports, annual reports, business magazines and journals, and company websites. They need to identify reasons for the company's success or failure, based on a commonly utilized tool in the business field, a SWOT analysis, which identifies strengths and weaknesses of the company, and opportunities and threats in the environment. Students write up their report as though they are consultants for an investment company. Reporting on whether the company is a worthwhile investment, explaining factors for the company's success or failure, and focusing on financial data using the language of trends learnt in class, is training for the business world. The group also present their findings orally to the class, highlighting the company's corporate social responsibility strategy, and viewing their audience as potential investors.

The project process described below builds upon previously suggested frameworks (Stoller 2002; Beckett and Slater 2005; Reinders 2010), with adaptations to the local context and needs, and on the basis of feedback from students who have experienced the project process. We have found that students need to monitor their learning progress with goals set, to make sure that all students contribute within the group, and to motivate them with a process grade ensuring that students work throughout and do not procrastinate until the end of the semester. Reaching milestones in the stages of their research project and monitoring their work using strategies taught in class encourages student responsibility, which is seen as a measure of autonomy (McCarthy 2010).

Step 1: The teacher sets out the general guidelines and key submission dates

The teacher assigns tasks in a process to foster autonomy, corresponding to Stoller's (2002) semi-structured approach. This coincides with Nunan's (1997) first level of autonomy implementation, *awareness*, wherein students are made aware of the objectives of the project.

Step 2: Students choose their own group members

It is motivating for students to self-select groups, helping them feel comfortable working on the path to autonomous study, despite the disadvantage whereby teachers cannot mix ability levels, which could result in the formation of some weak groups. Students control the pace, and decide how, where and when to

meet with other members of their group. They brainstorm in their groups to select an issue/company and determine roles in gathering information, according to their strengths and interests. The task allocation within the group should build on students' different strengths, whether it is in terms of managerial (leader/motivator), linguistic (proofreading work of others), or technical skills (preparing visual aids).

Step 3: The teacher shows students how to gather information

The teacher leads a discussion regarding trustworthiness and objectivity of information found on the Internet using a Google search, compared with the use of databases which include academic journals. The ability to search independently and effectively in English is an important skill for students to apply to their other academic courses.

Step 4: Students gather information

Within guidelines regarding acceptable journals, length of article, and type of sources, students select articles for purposeful reading. Requiring recent articles helps ensure the originality of students' work. Students practice guided note-taking by completing forms on their chosen article and submitting them to the LMS as part of the process. These generic forms include biographical information, the topic and main idea, and the article's contribution to their chosen issue.

Step 5: Students share and analyse information

Instead of set homework assignments, students work independently and collaborate with their groups during and outside lessons, allocating roles in information analysis and processing. This stage of collaboration and interaction coincides with Nunan's (1997) second level of autonomy implementation, *involvement*, wherein learners make choices from a range of options. Students' engagement with the project is demonstrated when they stay collaborating in their groups, even when they are free to leave for their next lesson; they are elevated from the confines of traditional teaching. Moreover, PBL enables the teacher to work directly with each group, helping students in their tasks, and answering questions as they work.

The type of information gathered and analysed at this stage depends on their disciplines' specific needs. In English for Business, the teacher introduces the language of trends and how to describe visual information (bar charts, pie charts, etc.). Psychology students are required to write and administer a questionnaire; so the teacher prepares students in forming questions and structuring the questionnaire. Students send in the first draft for approval.

Step 6: The teacher introduces referencing guidelines

Students are shown how to reference and format a bibliography. This should be according to the style adopted in the discipline (for example, APA in Psychology).

Step 7: Students write their first draft of the final report

The recent introduction of a Writing Centre means that the learners have another address, aside from their teacher, for support and guidance. The Writing Centre assists students at every stage of the writing process, without directly editing or proofreading, and thus also contributes to the students' development as autonomous writers. Furthermore, allowing a first draft gives an opportunity for

formative assessment, which students appear to learn more from than the summative assessment, when the main concern is the grade, and the course is finished.

Step 8: Self, peer and teacher evaluation on written report

Students evaluate their work in class using the teacher's grading rubrics by peer-assessment and self-assessment to encourage independence, and online tools so they can learn for themselves how to correct their mistakes, and then submit.

Step 9: Preparation of an oral presentation

The teacher prepares students with guidelines on how to give an effective presentation and recommends websites and videos on the LMS for further self-study. In the meantime students prepare their final presentations, and are encouraged to record their individual presentation on the cell-phone in order to give each other feedback. Students are given the rubric in advance so that they know the criteria. The teacher meets each group, to monitor their progress, since a key to becoming a self-directed learners is regular feedback to help students become aware of their strengths and weaknesses, and target specific areas for improvement (McCarthy 2010).

Step 10: Students deliver their presentation

After students deliver their presentations, they evaluate themselves, followed by peer-evaluation and finally teacher-evaluation during the same lesson. The oral presentation is graded on a rubric consisting of content, delivery and structure, in addition to language elements, which highlights how even students whose English is not fully proficient can still successfully communicate and function in an EMI environment.

Step 11: Students submit a written report

Students should use the summative assessment as indicative of areas where they need to be more cautious in their future use of English, to guide subsequent efforts in EMI courses. The rubric, which they can access beforehand to use as a guide, focuses on grammar and mechanics, sentence and paragraph structure, and content, including development of ideas with a clear introduction, body and conclusion.

Step 12: Students evaluate the project process

Student feedback and suggestions have enabled the project to evolve. These final stages approach Nunan's (1997) highest level of autonomy implementation, *transcendence*, in that learners become teachers in their ability to evaluate themselves and their peers and even link the classroom to their real world.

5 Reevaluating the Roles of the Stakeholders

The nature of the assistance students require from their teachers is changing, especially in light of the ever-growing provision of language learning technological tools. Autonomy can be regarded in terms of a redistribution of power in the construction of knowledge and the participants' roles (Thanasoulas 2000), since the

language teacher is no longer the gatekeeper on access to knowledge and needs to relinquish control to a looser framework wherein the student is more empowered. In fact, *facilitator* or *adviser* is a more apt description, with the teacher providing guidelines rather than controlling all aspects of student learning. The teacher's role as a resource person for providing content or language input will probably continue to diminish with the growth of the *flipped classroom* (Bishop and Verleger 2013), which promotes group-based problem-solving activities in the classroom and builds on students' access to online language and content input outside the classroom.

The five pedagogical postures adopted by lecturers, as identified by Ciekanski (2007) in her analysis of advising sessions, are also relevant to our project context:

- *Advising posture* to enhance the learner's capacity to control and take decisions.
- *Tutoring posture* to enhance the learner's capacity to manage his/her learning.
- *Teaching posture* to enhance the learner's capacity to solve language problems.
- *Companion posture* to enhance the learner's capacity to engage himself/herself in the learning process and maintain motivation to reflect on his/her learning.
- *Accompanying posture* to enhance the learner's capacity to develop his/her own personal and individual learning approach (Ciekanski 2007, p. 122–3).

Each of these postures forms part of the facilitators' pedagogical resources and could be adopted by the facilitator at different stages of the project. At the beginning stages, the teacher is still focusing on knowledge, in teaching and tutoring modes, using scaffolding strategies to assist language learning. However, in later stages, the learners lead the process, and would accordingly be conceived differently, "as recipients (tutoring, teaching), as leaders (advising, accompanying), or as companions" (Ciekanski 2007, p. 123). The companion, advising and accompanying postures of teachers ought to be the predominant modes adopted throughout the process, although they may switch between multiple pedagogical roles, requiring greater flexibility and awareness on the teacher's part. However, some students still depend on their teacher's guidelines; indeed, the same student could require varying levels of instruction at different stages, and therefore a balance is needed between teacher-centredness and learner-centredness (Chan 2001). The students' role is also evolving in terms of their involvement in the learning process, particularly in selecting learning tasks and activities (Chan 2001; Illés 2012), and as they become more involved in peer-assessment and collaborating in groups.

According to Reeve (2002), autonomously-motivated students reach greater achievements and thrive in their educational context more than control-motivated students, and these educational benefits are more likely to be attained with autonomy-supportive teachers. Together with his colleagues, Reeve sought to identify specific autonomy-supportive teaching behaviours and discovered that autonomy-supportive teachers give students more time for independent work, and motivate students through interest rather than pressure. He claims that any educator can learn to be autonomy supportive, by considering the "students' perspective to encourage initiative, nurture competence, and communicate in ways that are non-controlling and information-rich" (Reeve 2002, p. 190). Benson (2012) also states that language teachers have a responsibility to foster personal autonomy, in addition

to teaching language knowledge and skills, even though the strength of the pedagogy for autonomy depends on the setting and age of the students.

I concur with Voller (1997), who believes in three basic assumptions as teachers' roles vary in the path to autonomy, whether LA is viewed as a right or a distant objective. The first is that *control must be transferred* to the student in an autonomous learning approach. Secondly, teaching practices should be based on a *process of negotiation* with students, and finally teaching needs to be *self-monitored*, with reflections on the teaching strategies used. The project process described above allows for these changing roles of teachers and students.

6 Conclusion

Taking these changing roles into account, the project design and tasks described above could be transferable to other settings; in fact, the basic design for the EFL context is adapted for our ESL context. Iakovos et al.'s (2011) list of the fundamental features of PBL, which are illustrated in the project process described earlier, are transferable to other contexts and promote LA. They include taking students' interests and language needs into consideration, presenting real choices in terms of topic selection and group responsibilities, engaging learners in challenging tasks which enable them to practice language skills in a natural setting, and providing feedback, both during the project and at its conclusion. Building a project with these features should enable the promotion of LA.

As stated earlier, I believe that we are on the brink of change led by new technologies. Despite the fact that advocates of LA during the 1980s and 1990s sought to distance themselves from individualised learning (Benson 2007), a renewed focus on individual differences and technological advances may mean that individualized learning paths could be built for each student, based on their mistakes and automatic correction and feedback. This potential for divergent learning processes, within PBL or similar student-centred approaches, could strengthen the future development of LA.

Questions for Reflection on Future Teaching Practice

1. This chapter focuses on projects assigned in English courses for psychology and business students. Consider the needs and interests of a different student population (e.g. law, engineering, etc.) and outline a project process for these students.
2. In what ways could the assessment stage of the projects be adapted to give additional autonomy to students?
3. How have technological developments changed the roles and responsibilities of both the language instructor and the student? How have they changed your roles and responsibilities?
4. In addition to fostering student autonomy, how do you think the projects described in this chapter contribute to creativity, critical thinking and motivation?

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Learner Autonomy and Awareness through Distance Collaborative Group Work in English for Academic Purposes

Elisabet Arnó-Macià

Abstract Learner autonomy is considered to be both an important skill and attitude of learners, which involves responsibility for and control of the learning process. A key notion in autonomy is interdependence, developed through collaboration which results in heightened awareness. Precisely this concept lies at the core of technology applications, which facilitate interaction and collaboration at a distance. With a growing number of online ESP situations, more attention needs to be paid to virtual classrooms and the development of learner autonomy through collaboration. In the context of a distance EAP course, this chapter examines how students carry out a collaborative language awareness task, considering that peer interaction can be an appropriate setting to develop language awareness, whether in face-to-face or online situations. Based on the framework of ‘community of inquiry’ (Garrison, D. R., Anderson, T., & Archer, W. (2000). Critical inquiry in a text-based environment: Computer conferencing in higher education. *Internet and Higher Education*, 2(2–3), 87–105), this study looks at how group members interact through forum posts and wiki edits, showing how students initiate, manage and carry out the task, together with the social, cognitive, and meta-cognitive processes that are generated. Given the nature of the task, creating a language learning activity, special attention is paid to students’ focus on and discussion of topics related to language and learning. From these observations we can derive implications for online language teaching and materials design.

Keywords English for Academic Purposes (EAP) • Language awareness • Peer interaction • Online collaborative task • Wiki • Forum

1 Introduction

Learner autonomy has received central attention in language learning from multiple perspectives, as both a skill and an attitude of learners, who make decisions on and monitor their learning (e.g. Holec 1981; Little 1991). A key notion is

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interdependence, based on collaboration and heightened awareness (Dam 1995). In online environments, Ding (2005) referred to ‘collaborative autonomy’, and Schwienhorst (2008) identified the principles of awareness, interaction, and experimentation.

Language and learner awareness are essential elements in autonomy. Awareness is understood as promoting learners’ reflection, as a process of exploration and discovery starting from one’s experience of language use (Carter 1990). An appropriate tool to develop language awareness is group work. Peer interaction promotes reflection on language and learning, whether in face-to-face (Kowal and Swain 1994; Sato and Ballinger 2012) or online situations (O’Rourke 2005), with the potential of text-based interaction for planning, reviewing, and reflection.

Peer interaction becomes a space for reflection, exploration, and development, in which learners can perform different actions (e.g. initiating interaction, assigning tasks and roles, evaluating) that in classroom situations would be directed by the teacher, deploying the social and cognitive strategies necessary to manage and organize the task (Cots et al. 2007). Through the foreign language, peer interaction also provides a context for meaningful communication, integrating the responsibility involved in learner autonomy with target language use (Little 2007).

In the context of an online course focusing on learner autonomy and EAP, this chapter examines how students organize themselves in groups to carry out a collaborative language awareness task, using a forum and a wiki. Specifically, it focuses on the social and cognitive processes that students deploy during the activity, as well as those language topics that they reflect on.

2 Development of Learner Autonomy in an Online EAP Course

This study is set in an online EAP course, *English for Academic Purposes: learning English through the Web* (Barahona and Arnó 2001), designed to promote learner autonomy and EAP skills through the exploration and use of internet resources. It was part of the *Intercampus* programme (consisting of the joint offer of elective courses via the internet to students from all Catalan universities), and thus was open to students from different universities and degrees, and was not set at a specific level, but learners could adapt it to their needs. The course ran between 2001 and 2012 (the years of the *Intercampus* programme). The course and its approach to autonomy are described in Arnó et al. (2003) and Soler et al. (2005), together with an analysis of students’ autonomous behaviour in the development of individual tasks and participation in classroom debates. This course was designed in such a way that it could be adapted to students with different levels of English and different disciplines, offering a variety of learning routes through flexible materials. With explicit instructions and study guides, students could choose the activities that they wanted to work on (e.g. focusing on certain skills or language topics, or applying general EAP tasks to relevant discipline-specific texts).

The course consisted of practical activities and discussions on language and academic topics. At the end of each module there was a tangible task related to EAP and autonomy (e.g. a classification and evaluation of web resources or a self-study plan for language learning). The final tasks for the first three modules were individual, while those in Modules 4 and 5 were collaborative: a classification and analysis of computer-mediated communication resources for language learning and the design of a language learning activity for fellow students. Group tasks involved online collaboration through Moodle, and students were responsible for the activity. This study analyzes the last course task, “*Module 5. Designing a language activity*”.

The rationale for group tasks, considering that they were carried out entirely online, included the creation of a wiki for the co-construction of the text, in combination with a forum for task management and discussion. This research looks at the wiki and forum contributions for one of the collaborative tasks. Wikis have been identified as appropriate spaces for creation and collaboration within new university paradigms of active, autonomous learning, to enhance social and instrumental competences (Mancho et al. 2009). The potential of wikis for student authorship and active involvement has led to the creation of English for Specific Purposes courses that make use of them (e.g. Rodríguez-Arancón and Calle-Martínez 2014). Wikis can raise students’ awareness of key issues in academic writing (Kuteeva 2011). They are flexible spaces that students can adapt to their own needs, and they contribute to the development of a collaborative attitude (Kessler 2009; Kessler and Bikowski 2010).

3 The Study

3.1 *Setting and Participants*

This study is based on one of the collaborative tasks done in the course *English for Academic Purposes: Learning English through the Web* during the academic year 2010–2011. It was the last activity in the course (*Module 5, Activity 14, Designing a language learning task*), in which learners were given a “teacher” role. They had to choose an authentic internet resource not intended for language learning, and design a learning activity based on it. Since it was the second collaborative activity, students were expected to have some experience in this type of task.

The course instructors formed the virtual groups by randomly assigning students, who came from different universities and disciplines and therefore had not met before, so the total of 40 students enrolled in the course were assigned to eight groups of five students each. They were expected to work collaboratively, and entirely online, on the collaborative task in Module 4. The same groups were kept for the collaborative task in Module 5. Therefore, students were expected to learn to work together at a distance. Group activities were based on student interaction alone, and the instructors only participated in activity design and giving instructions. A general guiding message was posted on Moodle and instructors were available for consultation by email, but did not participate in the group discussions, as the aim of the activi-

ties (and of the course itself) was that students would be responsible for organizing and managing their learning. On the other hand, the activities and their accompanying study guides had been carefully designed in order to facilitate and support learning. Besides, as both these collaborative activities were end-of-module activities, they drew on previous activities that had already appeared in the module.

Data were collected at the end of the fall term of 2010–2011 (January 2011), by the author (one of the instructors). A general message was sent to students explaining the purposes of the study (guaranteeing confidentiality), and asking for permission to collect the data from the wiki and forum.

3.2 *Aims*

This study takes a qualitative approach to analyzing students' independent work on a collaborative language awareness task, which involves the collaborative design of a language learning activity. Specifically, this study aims at finding out how students collaborate at a distance, using a forum and a wiki, to reflect on language and learning. Thus, attention is paid to students' focus on topics related to language and learning as each group organizes and manages the task through forum discussions and wiki edits, in the process of co-constructing the task (making their own contributions and reacting to those of others).

Specifically, the research questions posed for this study are the following:

1. How do students organize and manage the task? Do they collaborate through online interaction? Do they use a combination of wiki and forum to accomplish the task?
2. What cognitive, metacognitive, and social strategies do students use to accomplish the task?
3. Is there reflection on language and learning? What do students reflect on and how do they carry out this reflective activity?

Given that this study focuses on students' interaction over a learning activity in the online classroom, it was considered that an appropriate framework of analysis was Garrison et al.'s (2000, 2001) model of the online 'community of inquiry', which is based on the interrelation of the social, cognitive and teaching dimensions of 'presence', which should lead to meaningful learning. Social presence is of crucial importance in online learning, as it is through written interaction that participants have to make themselves 'present', i.e. 'project their personal characteristics into the community, thereby presenting themselves to other participants as "real people"' (Garrison et al. 2000, p. 89). Social presence, i.e. how participants express themselves, collaborate and create group cohesion, supports the central element of cognitive presence, which refers to how participants engage with the materials (and with the ideas presented by others) for the appropriation of meaning. As these authors point out, 'cognitive presence is a vital element in critical thinking, a process and outcome that is frequently presented as the ostensible goal of all higher education' (Garrison et al. 2000, p. 89). Through discussion, participants engage in

the process of critical thinking, which thus relies on the relationship between cognitive and social activity (Garrison et al. 2001). This process takes place in four stages, so that after a 'triggering event', or identifying the problem, there is a stage of exploration, which connects individual and shared views, followed by integration (assessing and connecting ideas, constructing meaning), which leads to task resolution. The third dimension in the model, teaching presence, includes the functions of designing and organizing the activity (often associated with the teacher role) and facilitating learning, i.e. 'to support and enhance social and cognitive presence for the purpose of realizing educational outcomes' (Garrison et al. 2000, p. 90).

The community of inquiry model has been widely used to research interaction in online classes, looking at how students create a social space at a distance, which allows them to solve the task at hand through text-based interaction (see e.g. the review in Swan and Ice 2010). In this study, the community of inquiry framework seems suited to the analysis of autonomous groups that are based exclusively on asynchronous text-based communication. Another particular feature that distinguishes the setting studied in this chapter from other online classes is that we are dealing with peer interaction, so that the communities are, in fact, groups of students who must collaborate to organize themselves and complete the task. Therefore, students in this situation need to show great levels of autonomy and awareness, that is, to apply their metacognitive skills, which are crucial for distance language learners (Hurd 2000; Soler et al. 2005). In a sense, metacognition can also be related to the teacher presence (Garrison and Arbaugh 2007), so that by gaining greater awareness, students can be pushed towards higher-order thinking. Metacognition is inextricably linked to autonomy and awareness, whereby students reflect on their learning and make decisions, even more so in a group work situation, as they are fully responsible for the process and outcomes of solving the task. Precisely because of this peer interaction context, the teacher presence within the framework of the community of inquiry is less applicable, although some of the facilitating functions can be performed by fellow learners, like encouraging others or assessing ideas presented (Garrison et al. 2000). In this study, the teaching presence is also associated with peers, as students collaborated with their partners using the instructions and prompts given by lecturers.

A similar study of online peer interaction applying Garrison et al.'s (2001) model is that by Arnold and Ducate (2006), who also looked at the social and cognitive dimensions of collaborative work. As in the present study, Arnold and Ducate's teachers did not participate in the discussions, so that the teaching presence domain was not relevant except for the category of 'instructional management' (planning activities, etc.). Arnold and Ducate thus studied the transcripts produced by students in group discussions (bulletin board discussions), including both cognitive and social activity. The transcriptions were coded by using categories derived from Garrison et al.'s (2000, 2001) indicators of social and cognitive presence. For example, social presence can be indicated by (i) emotional expression, further subdivided into humor and self-disclosure (i.e. 'sharing of feelings/attitudes/experiences/interests'), (ii) open communication, further subdivided into mutual awareness (i.e. reacting to other students' messages) and 'recognition of each other's contributions'

(e.g. encouraging others, expressing agreement), and (iii) group cohesion (i.e. keeping the group together, encouraging participation and collaboration). On the other hand, cognitive presence in students' contributions can be indicated by means of the recognition of a problem (triggering event), information exchange or discussion of ambiguities (corresponding to the exploration stage), connecting ideas or creating a solution (integration), and applying new ideas (resolution). Regarding teaching presence, although it is not directly relevant to this study in terms of teacher intervention, the indicators merit attention on the grounds that teacher presence can be linked to metacognition (as mentioned before), given that students have to organize, plan and direct their own learning. Thus, categories under teaching presence, such as 'instructional management' (which includes 'defining and initiating discussion topics'), 'building understanding' (with 'sharing personal information') or 'direct instruction' (with 'focusing discussion') are worth considering, since these actions may be undertaken by students as they take responsibility for managing the task.

3.3 Analysis

Combining the records of forum and wiki activities, this study aims at capturing the breadth of students' online collaborative work on a task on language and learning. The spaces used for collaboration were a wiki, the space that students edited collaboratively to complete the task, and the forum, the space that they used to communicate with fellow group members. The analysis of the wiki can offer insights into how students collaborate and the richness of such collaboration. Information about the process of task completion can be gathered from the number of versions of the wiki and the variety of participants that contributed to it, especially looking at how students inserted their contributions by building on other students' work.

In the forum, each group created a debate, initiated by one of the group members, to discuss guidelines, task management, and organization. Like the wiki, the forum was entirely managed by students. Instructors' participation included only a general message opening the forum and inviting the groups to start work.

The process of data analysis started with a general overview of the forum messages and wiki versions, in order to capture the extent of the collaboration and to have a starting point for analyzing the social and cognitive/metacognitive processes that each group deployed to solve the task. Then the focus of analysis moved to the spaces for each of the groups, the forum and the wiki. For the forum, the messages were analyzed to identify those segments of text in which students contributed to the activity through social or cognitive/metacognitive processes. Each segment was coded by the researcher by assigning it a social function when it came to sharing ideas or dealing with affective factors (for example, asking for consensus or praising others) or cognitive/metacognitive when it came to making sense of the ideas proposed or organizing the activity (e.g. analyzing elements of the activity and proposing a solution, or planning steps to be taken towards solving the task). The point of departure for analysis was the general framework in Garrison et al. (2000, 2001) and Arnold and Ducate

(2006). Like the latter study, teacher presence was not considered, since we were dealing with student-student interaction. The analysis of the messages aimed at identifying the different steps (i.e. initiation, exploration, resolution, etc.) that students followed to solve the task, and the more in-depth analysis of the segments yielded specific indicators that showed the social and cognitive/metacognitive processes used. This being an exploratory study, the process of analysis was mainly inductive, that is, deriving specific categories from the data (though inspired by the general categories in the online community of inquiry framework). Then, through a recursive inductive-deductive process, the different segments were coded according to whether they were indicators of a certain social or cognitive/metacognitive process.

On the other hand, the analysis of the wikis focused on the different versions that students produced, in order to find out how students co-constructed the task, making their own contributions and modifying previous ones (made either by themselves or by others). Like the forum, the analysis started with a general overview of student participation, looking at the number of students who contributed to the group wiki and the number of wiki versions produced. These numbers were an indication of greater collaboration (i.e. the higher number of students contributing to the wiki) and of depth of the activity (i.e. a higher number of versions). Since the wiki analysis was aimed at finding out the extent to which students showed evidence of reflection on language (either explicitly or implicitly) in the actual development of the activity, it focused on the detail of the different versions (retrievable from the wiki history page) scrutinizing what changes were made that indicated metalinguistic reflection. For this in-depth analysis, the wikis selected for analysis were those that showed greater activity, either because there were more students participating or because more versions were produced. Therefore, a total of three group wikis were analyzed, comparing subsequent versions to identify those edits that focused on language either because there were corrections (implicit reflection) or because students explicitly talked about language.

3.3.1 General Overview of Task Completion

Students' use of the wiki and forum to complete the task is summarized in Table 1. Each group had five members, and the first step of the analysis involved counting the wiki versions, considering that they reflect the progress of task completion, and the number of forum posts, showing students' participation in the discussion. 'Activity authorship' indicates the number of students participating in each group wiki. Apart from the dropout rate that may appear in online contexts, the end-of-term dates of the activity (December-January) were not the best timing, since the activity expanded over holidays and different exam periods at the students' universities. This situation may explain why some teams only had a few students really involved in the activity (Groups A, B and G, with only two students doing the task). In the case of group C, the group did not do the activity. One student posted a message to the forum (similar to how the interaction started with the other groups), but he did not receive a reply, which is why the activity was not completed. It may have been the case that the rest of the students in the group had either dropped out of the

Table 1 Participation in forum and wiki

Groups and members	Wiki versions	Forum posts	Activity authorship
Group A 5	11	10	2
Group B 5	14	9	2
Group C 5	1	1 (inviting students to participate, no reply)	1, task not done
Group D 5	14	16	5
Group E 5	16	45	3
Group F 5	27	49	3
Group G 5	7	12	2
Group H 5	26	7	4

course or been involved in exams and thus disregarded this particular activity (or a combination of both). In terms of assessment, all course activities were assessed, but one student could miss a particular activity (and obviously get no mark for it, thus getting a lower overall course mark) and still pass the course. Therefore, this being the last activity in an elective online course, it is not unlikely that some students decided to put their effort into the exams and assignments for other subjects and skip this task, which may explain the low participation in some cases (and no participation in group C). All in all, given the large number of groups and students, we can see that the response rate is quite high.

As can be seen from the table, the degree of activity varied across groups, both in number of wiki versions and amount of student participation in forum. In particular, this small exploratory study looks at both forum interaction and wiki versions to identify the cognitive, metacognitive and social processes that students used to solve the task collaboratively.

3.3.2 Forum Analysis

The analysis of the forum shows how students solved the task through peer interaction. As they were responsible for the task, they could adapt the space to their own needs and all participants had equal opportunities to initiate topics and contribute to the discussion. One group member initiated the debate, starting the process. Below are two different initiation messages. In the first one, the student posted task instructions, asking for reassurance that fellow learners are ‘there’ (in the virtual space), and inviting contributions.

Hey!

Who is from this group???

We should start the activity! For doing it, we have to follow these steps:

(...)

Does anyone have any useful resource? (B)

The second message gives evidence of work done – choosing a resource – and invites action from other members, either examining the proposed resource or suggesting other materials. In both cases, the ‘triggering event’ is the task instructions.

Hi,

I have been looking for some interesting resources and I have found that the web of ABC or BBC could be interesting for the activity because you have too many ways to learn English while using these websites.

Take a look at them and if you think that they meet the requirements of the activity we can start working on it.

If not, you can add more interesting resources and we decide which is the best. (G)

All but one of the initiation messages received responses, and there was a single debate for each group, which means that all group members followed the same thread. They stayed on track, and all contributions related to the task, indicating a collaborative attitude. Task discussions followed these general phases:

- Initiation: proposing materials or referring to instructions.
- Contributions to the task.
- Occasional asides (checking deadlines for other activities, social references to holidays or exams).
- Completion of activity.
- Follow-up (second part of the activity, individual, which involved sharing activities at class level).

Although the wiki was intended for task development and the forum for discussion, sometimes students included discussions in the wiki and activities in the forum. Other students alerted them, and redirected action:

Hello! I've seen that X posted her proposal on the Wiki, but I think we should discuss that here in the forum, because here we can send our answers without editing the original post. I paste here X's contribution (I hope you don't mind, X [smiley]) (A)

Forum messages reflect the social and cognitive processes used to complete the task – thus showing the underlying rationale and decisions – beyond the process of co-construction that can be observed through wiki edits. Students build on own and others' contributions, with reflections that move between individual and shared spaces. Accordingly, analysis of forum messages pays attention to social, cognitive, and metacognitive processes. Categories were derived from the data through an inductive process, taking as a point of departure the frameworks by Garrison et al. (2001) and Arnold and Ducate (2006). Such (meta)cognitive and social processes were intertwined, which sometimes made it difficult to assign a single category to a stretch of discourse. As an initial exploratory study, this aims at identifying what processes students use to build a common socio-discursive space to solve the task. Tables 2 and 3 show the social, cognitive, and metacognitive processes identified.

Table 2 Summary of social processes

Social processes	
Praising	Hi again, I think X that you've done a really good job and that this video is a very good activity for English learners!-G
	X I have seen your wiki and i love it, it is very clear and organized-D
Asking for consensus	I'm doing now another activity, so if you agree, I will ask you later what do you think about it-G
Expressing agreement	I agree with you X and I prefer "Improving your speaking skills"-D
Apologizing and reacting to previous students' contributions	I'm sorry X I didn't have internet yesterday and I couldn't connect but I've read the information that you have written about TATE museum and it sounds good-F
Social, community, personal touch	Merry Christmas and a Happy new Year!!! -F
	Kisses!
	(LAUGHTER), JAJAJA
Complaining about other students' lack of participation	The deadline is coming, we need the contributions of the other members of the group! everybody is in exams period but this is not an excuse-D

The tables above show the wide range of processes that students engage in to solve the task. They take an active role in monitoring the activity, derived from their sense of responsibility. For example, they 'steer the activity', if they see that it is not going in the right direction. The forum is used together with the wiki – with explicit references to it – so as to move the task forward through a variety of cognitive processes. Some of them, like 'analyzing/evaluating resources', appear to derive from the task (starting with the selection of a resource). These (meta)cognitive processes cannot be separated from the interactional processes through which students co-construct meaning, like announcing an action, eliciting reactions, or reacting to previous contributions. The following extract is the reelaboration of the student's own contribution, specifically a self-correction. It is a rare category, since this process goes implicit with wiki edits, but by using the forum, this student is sharing her thinking process.

I've been thinking in my proposal and I would like to do some changes. Instead of recording and listening ourselves, maybe we can practice reading and writing because we don't have the resources to record, and the final step of this task is doing another task designed by another group... so, nobody could do our task... I've thought we can propose that each student chose 2 news and mixed them like if they were only one. Then the student should post his/her writing and the rest should discover which news did he/she use. What do you think?-A

Participants appear to be collaborative, with references to other students' work, which indicates their reliance on social processes, like praising other contributions, asking for and expressing agreement, mitigating one's contribution ('if you agree', 'you can change it'). Cognitive and social processes are highly interrelated, as collaboration is mainly a social activity – for example, suggesting contents and asking for consensus. Some social messages (not directly related to the task) contribute to creating a sense of community, of solidarity among peers (references to holidays or

Table 3 Summary of (meta)cognitive processes

Cognitive and metacognitive processes	
Analyzing/evaluating resources	It's in the web of national geographic and on it there's a lot of activities to do and a lot of interesting articles. There's also educators resources and one of them is for English learning language where combines a communicative approach to learning English with National Geographic images, video and content-F
References to work done on wiki	I have added the list of the language aspects that we can work on this topic. If you want you can add or modify the information-H
Suggesting contents	As a previous knowledge we can add basic knowledge about internet communication by web cam? Or with social networks?-D
Expressing judgements	I think that blue zones can be very interesting but it is a very specific resource because there you can only learn about this theme. I have chosen BBC's website because you can find different kind of themes. For example if you explore the web you can read the latest news, you can connect to all BBC's tv channels and you can also learn english with its-H
Reelaborating one's or others' contributions	The rest of ideas that you posted in the forum before I have to say that I completely agree with you so I'll think about them and how to post them in the wiki-D
Announcing action	I agree with the topic, I'm going to search more information and complete the steps-H
Asking for evaluation of work done	I don't know if this is ok, because of that I haven't continued. If you see errors correct them! I'm waiting for your responses! (<i>referring to a version attached to a forum message, not wiki</i>)-F
Analyzing and inviting reaction	I've been thinking about step 4... what type of exercise you do prefer to do?-F
Steering activity	Hi girls! I've been reading your notes and I think that they're good. But I've read the teachers instructions too and they said this...F

exams). Students pay attention to politeness, with face-saving strategies (and hardly any face-threats), like in the following disagreement, which is mitigated.

I find both proposals great, but perhaps could be more interesting focus in one topic, like blue zones, with different sources, than focus in one source, like BBC web, with a lot of topics, because we can be more specific with the objectives of the activity. Besides, in the BBC web there is a lot of material to learn English and if I'm not wrong, the exercise ask to use resources which aren't designed to learn English-H

3.3.3 Wiki Analysis

While the forum shows the processes for task completion, the wiki is the space for collaborative work. Each wiki started as a blank page for students to use and adapt. Work on the wiki can be traced through the history page, which shows the number

of versions and author of each. A particular version can be retrieved with a click to see the changes made, with additions and deletions marked with a plus (+) and a minus (-) sign, respectively.

From the previous general overview, attention is paid to specific wiki edits, in particular, to those that indicate some kind of reflection, usually implicit, rather than mere text formatting. This edit, for example, of a previous version by the same student, indicates a metalinguistic activity of self-correction, focusing on spelling.

- Learn more about pronunciation and expand your vocabulary and colloquial expressions.
- +Learn more about pronunciation and expand your vocabulary and colloquial expressions.

Therefore, wiki analysis focuses on contributions that indicate students' reflection – although a certain focus on language and learning could be expected given the metalinguistic nature of the task. The wiki data analyzed was narrowed down to the three groups (D, F, and H) that showed greater activity, as shown in Table 1 above. Attention was paid to the topics that students focused on and to collaborative task completion. As in the case of the forum, the written record on the wiki revealed the process of co-construction of the text through students' use of a variety of cognitive and metacognitive processes.

Group D progressed on the wiki as participants discussed the task in the forum. Sixteen wiki versions were produced, with the participation of all five students, although one made substantial contributions, and the rest made minor changes. They decided to focus their task on speaking and intercultural skills. They start the wiki with some 'forum-like' messages, organizing the task, until one participant notes that the discussion should take place in the forum.

- Hello, I am X. I agree working with Skype, because although it is a communication tool between friends and relatives, it could be a great experience to further use it in order to develop speaking fluency. So then, we should complete the following steps...
- I'm with you girls skype it is a good way to learn english
- I think we should talk about these points on the forum and write here only our work.

This forum-like discussion then changes into a brainstorming of ideas to include in the activity, until one group member suggests organizing the information according to the template, as a comment to a previous contribution (in bold below, different color in the original). These contributions show students' awareness of task requirements and the ability to monitor each other's activity.

- Dating with your skype friend some days a week at the same time, speak about how you have done in that day, speak about topic you can watch the news and talk about them.
- (this I think that should go to the table in tasks)**

They co-construct the wiki dialogically, including the draft contents – based on forum discussion – which they develop according to the template. These edits exemplify such expansions, in which students add a learning objective and an expected outcome.

- +Not feel ashamed to speak in English.
- +This activity will help you to improve your speech and vocabulary in English by making new friends and having fun

As they work through the task, they focus mainly on content, although there is some focus on form through self-/other-corrections and reformulations:

(Earlier version)	(Edited version)
Improve listening as you are having a conversation	Improve listening as you are having a conversation with another person
Meet people of other countries	Meet people of other countries which allows you to be familiar with other cultures and religions
Lose the shame of speaking English	Not feel ashamed to speak in English

Group F also use early versions of the wiki for brainstorming contents, and they provide a detailed list of language skills and strategies, to be applied to a general resource (BBC).

- Grammar (tenses, reported speech, conditionals, articles, etc.)
- Vocabulary (vocabulary from the news)
- Pronunciation (to learn about pronunciation, to pronounce the sounds of English, to practice with quizzes, etc.)
- Spelling (different kinds of activities, for instance, doubling final consonants)
- Punctuation (commas, colon, semi-colon, etc.)
- Reading (tips for reading and readings about different topics)
- Listening (tips for listening and listenings about varied topics)
- Writing (tips for writing and writings about different topics)
- Speaking (tips for speaking and differents kinds of speaking practice).

In addition to providing such lists of contents, part of the brainstorming done by the group in the wiki is in the form of short conversational texts (which look like forum messages) in which participants make suggestions, present and discuss opinions and elicit actions from partners, as seen in the extracts below:

The resource we have chosen is <http://www.bbc.co.uk/>.

Writing: you can post in Students Blog (on BBC learning English)

I think that you don't practice speaking skills in this page, well at least I don't find anything.

I agree with the lists you have posted. But I don't know what else we could add. I don't know how to practice speaking skills, too. Also, I can't find the activities designed to practice pronunciation.

Please, show us how to find these sections and, in my opinion, we should elaborate the final list.

These early wiki drafts are accompanied by active discussions and exchange of attached documents in the forum. It is then mainly one student who puts the information into the template.

On the other hand, students in H start working on the wiki by following the template. A student develops a fairly elaborated proposal, "Blue Zones", through 13 versions and giving a detailed description of it. This work on the wiki is parallel to a lively forum debate (between "blue zones" and "BBC website"). In the following wiki version, another student makes a succinct proposal of an alternative activity (based on BBC), and suggests that the rest of the points can be completed if the new

proposal is accepted. She refers to the forum for further details, thus showing the interrelation between both tools.

+ [STUDENT'S NAME] Resource BBC

1. Introduction

This resource offers to the learner different kinds of knowledge because you can read about all the news, you can read about culture, entertainment, science and you can also learn English and other languages. So this resource can be useful if everyday you explore the web during a few minutes, because you will find all about the actuality in one website.

2. Specific objectives
3. Previous knowledge
4. Related activities
5. Expected results

Summary

If finally we choose bbc as a good resource we can complete the rest of the points. (READ THE FORUM)

Corrections and reformulations include changing personal references to impersonal/collective ones, so that a draft individual exploration – with personal reflections that justify the ideas submitted – becomes an impersonal, more finalized version to be submitted by the group. While attention is paid to the tone of the text, errors go uncorrected.

-I study nursery, so the target of my career is make people live healthy. I thought that the information given in this interview would be very interesting; so that, I have chosen for the activity fourteenth a kind of report or task writing on the Blue Zones on Earth. Will see that the first step for health is having good habits

+We thought that the information given in this interview would be very interesting; so that, we have chosen for the activity fourteenth a kind of report or task writing on the Blue Zones on Earth. Will see that the first step for health is having good habits

After having worked on the contents, students focus on language learning, brainstorming ideas (and web resources) for their activity.

What are the language aspects that we can work on this resource?

Grammar (learning about phrasal verbs, verb tenses, learning about the word order, questions...) You can see it in this website <http://www.bluezones.com/about/>

Vocabulary (with this topic you can learn new vocabulary).

Pronunciation (with these listenings <http://www.npr.org/templates/story/story.php?storyId=91285403>, <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Zp0lguR6z2A>, <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=W92F-iTImG4&feature=related>, you can learn about pronunciation in English).

(...)

This brief picture of wiki activity shows how through the interrelation of wiki and forum, students develop the task. Taking different approaches, the groups collaborate on their wiki as they reflect on language and learning (focusing on topics like learning strategies, skills, practising different language areas, etc.), which, after all, constitute the contents of the task given. Going over different versions of the text (both their own and those of others) gives them the opportunity to modulate it for

coherence, tone, and accuracy, which indicates a certain reflective activity, albeit implicitly.

4 Discussion and Conclusions

The analysis of the wikis and forums shows that students are able to organize and manage their work and that they use both tools in an interrelated manner. They are committed to the task and participate in lively forum discussions, bringing and developing ideas that are then posted and co-constructed through the wiki. As part of a course focusing on learner autonomy, such collaborative tasks provide a space for students to take responsibility for their own learning and to obtain tangible results. More specifically, the research questions posed at the beginning of this study can be answered as follows:

1. How do students organize and manage the task? Do they collaborate through online interaction? Do they use a combination of wiki and forum to accomplish the task?

Students take responsibility for the task and adopt a collaborative attitude, although they take different approaches to the task. This collaborative attitude is shown through the tone of their messages, solidarity among peers, and the use of face-saving strategies (acknowledging others' work or presenting their contributions for approval). Since all communication is written, special attention is paid to the tone of the messages. Online interaction offers students the opportunity to practise politeness through real on-task communication in the foreign language.

Students use a combination of forum and wiki, showing awareness of task requirements. They monitor each other and point out if somebody does not comply. Both wiki and forum are complementary, allowing students to express and share their thoughts through the forum, which allows them to reach consensus on the work done, and, in turn, they elaborate on it to feed the co-construction of the wiki. Since all the work is done online, all the processes are usually explicit, as for example, when a student contributes to the wiki and sends a message to forum explaining that contribution.

2. What cognitive, metacognitive, and social strategies do students use to accomplish the task?

Especially through forum discussion, students deploy a wide range of strategies to develop the task, although some of them (analyzing/evaluating resources, making judgements) seem to derive from the objectives of the activity. Students build up a social space, creating a sense of community at a distance. Social activity (including students in the group, praising others, etc.) is interrelated with action. In their messages, students connect their contributions to others', elicit responses, or indicate further steps. It is a reflective activity through which students link individual and shared views.

Analysis of the wiki shows that students integrate the contents discussed in the forum to construct the task. Wiki edits implicitly indicate metalinguistic reflection, especially showing awareness of task requirements.

3. Is there reflection on language and learning? What do students reflect on and how do they carry out this reflective activity?

As it is a metalinguistic task, it is not surprising to find explicit reflection on language and learning. Especially through the wiki, students focus mainly on content, although this is related to language and learning, in a process that starts with brainstorming or a discussion of the internet resources that will form the basis for designing their activity, accompanied by communication in the forum. As it is an open task, students can choose what to focus on. Some of those contents include speaking skills or thorough inventories of language areas (grammar, vocabulary, spelling, pronunciation). As they co-construct the task, students then elaborate on such language-related contents, but errors sometimes go uncorrected. Students strive for fluency (rather than accuracy) and communication, especially in the forum, but wiki edits indicate a certain awareness of writing issues, like expressing and connecting ideas, tone, or spelling.

This study has provided a snapshot of online collaborative work, through a combination of student-managed wikis and forums. Such tools allow participants to organize the task and be creative in the process of solving it. Through discussion and collaborative writing, students create an online community through which they co-construct their texts.

By observing student interaction in different types of online language learning contexts, we can derive implications for teachers to design materials and provide support for students to develop autonomy and awareness. The categories identified in this exploratory study can serve as a point of departure for refinement or validation through their application to other sets of data.

Within an online EAP course, this collaborative task was designed for students to be both authors and authority, so that they could adopt a variety of roles and undertake actions that would be difficult to find in teacher-guided situations. Online interaction over a purposeful task also provides the opportunity for real communication practice in the foreign language as, after all, today's university students need to learn to collaborate at a distance. Asynchronous communication tools allow them to collaborate without having to meet at certain times, while the use of text-based messages allows them to plan their responses, and read other contributions in detail, thus facilitating reflection and elaboration.

Questions for Reflection on Future Teaching Practice

1. What strategies can teachers use to encourage learner autonomy and reflection through student-student online interaction?
2. This study has focused on an activity done in a course that is entirely online, but how can a similar activity be integrated in a classroom-based course, so that students' autonomous online activity can be related to (and reinforced by) discussion with the teacher?

3. This study has analysed the use of a wiki and forum for a group task for developing learner autonomy and language skills, but how could this type of activity be done using other ICT tools (e.g. facebook, whatsapp, blogs, etc.)? What would be the advantages and disadvantages of each tool?

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Argumentation and Floor Management in Computer-Supported Collaborative Learning

Kenneth Keng Wee Ong and Sujata S. Kathpalia

Abstract Previous studies have demonstrated that floor management is determined by various factors – topic, communicative action and participants’ interpretations of the immediate interactional context (Edelsky, *Lang Soc* 10:383–421, 1981), institutional roles (Mehan 1979), sociocultural norms (Jones and Thornborrow, *Lang Soc* 33:399–423, 2004) and participatory structures (Jenks 2007). Jenks claimed that when discussants share the same task-based referential knowledge in two-way participatory structures, floor management is flexible and can go in any direction. However, correlates underlying floor variations despite shared referential information were not investigated. This study fills this research gap by analysing online knowledge construction in multi-party quasisynchronous chat (QSC) using Weinberger and Fischer’s (*Comput Educ* 46:71–95, 2006) multi-dimensional framework. Based on a QSC corpus consisting of online student discussions, the key finding is that argumentation influences floor management in a more predictive manner than shared referential information *ipso facto*. This association between argumentation and floor management provides a deeper insight into the dynamics of online discussions within a structured chat interaction among students.

Keywords Computer-supported collaborative learning • Floor management • Learner-learner interaction • Tasks • Argumentative knowledge construction • Conversational analysis • Computer-mediated communication

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1 Introduction

Research has demonstrated that collaborative learning, whether face-to-face or computer mediated, has a positive impact on student learning (Lou et al. 2001). The basic premise in collaborative learning, based on the socio-constructivist perspective, is that students should be given the opportunity to construct knowledge on their own and through discussions with their peers (Janssen et al. 2012). An offshoot of this kind of group learning is *computer-supported collaborative learning* (CSCL), which gives learners an online environment that facilitates sharing of ideas and the joint construction of knowledge on specific tasks. Such research has shown that CSCL, like face-to-face collaborative learning, improves the quality of discussions as well as student performance (Fjermestad 2004). However, research has also revealed that the CSCL setting does not always lead to effective and efficient learning as students may have problems engaging in meaningful discussions (Clark et al. 2007) or there may be conflicts between group members causing a breakdown in communication (Hobman et al. 2002). To understand how group members collaborate online, it becomes necessary to analyse the conversational strategies used by them to accomplish learning goals. One way of accomplishing this is through the study of floor movement strategies (Edelsky 1981; Jones and Thornborrow 2004; Jenks 2007) employed in multi-party student discussions based on a specific task.

In conversational analysis, according to Sacks et al. (1974), floor typically means that one person talks at a time. To describe her data corpus more adequately, Edelsky (1981) introduced the notion of a collaboratively developed floor (labeled F2) to distinguish it from the one-person-at-a-time floor (labeled F1), particularly to describe those parts of the conversation where it was difficult to determine who had the floor. Building on Edelsky's model of conversational floors, Coates and Sutton-Spence (2001, p. 511) defined a single floor as one where "one speaker speaks at a time" and a collaborative floor as one where "the floor is potentially open to all participants simultaneously". However, even this binary distinction posed some problems in the context of classroom discourse in terms of formality and participation. In contrast to the norms of friendly talk, classroom discourse is formal and asymmetrical, forcing researchers like Jones and Thornborrow (2004) to go beyond the binary oppositions between asymmetry and symmetry, F1 and F2, or collaborative and one-at-a-time floors. For a comprehensive analysis of classroom related discourse, they introduced the terms "constrained or tightly organized floor" and "a less constrained, loose floor". In their study, taking the register in the classroom represented a constrained or tightly organized floor, whereas going on a class outing (in a South London street) to evaluate aspects of the environment represented a loose floor with a fluid mix of speakers and multiple conversational floors. In their framework, conversational floor is expressed as a continuum from tight to loose, with classroom tasks incorporating different floor management styles.

Another aspect relevant to the concept of floor is that of task-based interaction and floor movement, particularly how participatory structures affect interaction

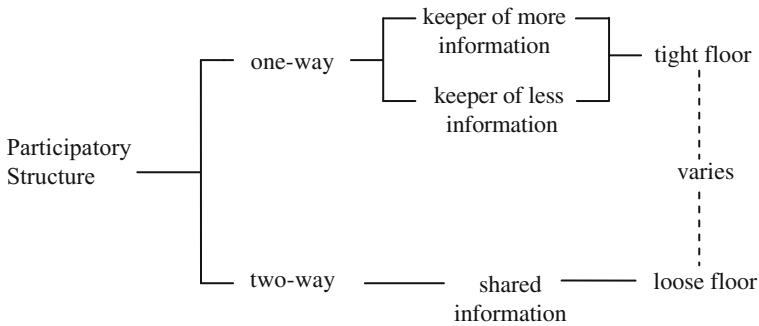


Fig. 1 Participatory structures and floor management framework (Source: Jenks 2007, p. 613)

(Jenks 2007). Participatory structures focus on how information is distributed among the interlocutors and the floor in turn is governed by the amount of information possessed by each. For instance, an interlocutor with unshared or superior knowledge will generally dominate the floor (van Lier 1984) but there will be more floor bidding among interlocutors with equal knowledge (Edelsky 1981). In the context of task-based interaction (TBI), Jenks (2007) maintains that the direction of the floor will be determined not only by the task objectives but also the interlocutors’ understanding of them, and the progress of the task will be constrained by the participatory structures. Therefore, in one-way participatory structures where interlocutors share unequal information, they will have to rely on each other to supply the missing information (tight floor), whereas in two-way participatory structures where interlocutors share the same information, the floor can move in any direction appropriate for task completion (loose floor). In order to distinguish between the two types of interlocutors according to their knowledge level, the phrases “keeper of less information” and “keeper of more information” were used in this framework. Jenks’s framework that represents the relationship between participatory structure and floor management is as shown in Fig. 1 above.

Edelsky (1981, p. 405) defines a floor as “what’s going on within a psychological time/space. What’s going on can be the development of a topic or a function (teasing, soliciting a response, etc.) or an interaction of the two. It can be developed or controlled by one person at a time or by several simultaneously or in quick succession.” According to Simpson (2005), the three types of floor include: the one-way tight floor, two-way loose floor and multiple conversation floor. These are defined as follows:

- A one-way tight floor or speaker-and-supporter floor is one in which the floor is fixed to specific referential points, where the floor holder, similar to a keeper of more information, has the responsibility of taking the floor in one direction while the others support the floor holder through the use of back channels and other short interjections.

- In a collaborative floor, interlocutors co-constructed knowledge which can go in any floor direction shaped by task completion.
- A multiple conversation floor has two or more floors existing in parallel. The two types include a main floor with side floors or two or more main floors, both displaying loose floor characteristics.

Conversational floors are basically the cohesive “glue” that hold the discourse together in the context of online discussions and they have three distinctive elements: the topic (the aboutness of the discourse); the communicative action (how things are being said in the discourse); and the participants’ perception (of what is happening in the conversation).

In past studies, it was claimed floor management is flexible and can go in any direction when discussants share task-based referential knowledge in two-way participatory structures (Jenks 2007). However, other factors underlying floor variations were not taken into consideration. An attempt will be made to analyse the online student discussions from the perspective of different floor patterns in order to show how floor management varies due to formal argumentation features in the context of shared task-based referential information. Specifically, the data will be analysed from four interrelated perspectives, namely the participation, epistemic, argument and social dimensions.

2 Materials and Method

2.1 Framework for Analysis

The current study adopts Edelsky’s (1981) definition of floor and Simpson’s (2005) classification of the three conversational floors for data analysis. To analyse argumentative knowledge construction, Weinberger and Fischer’s (2006) framework will be utilized. In a review of analytic frameworks for analysing dialogic argumentation, Weinberger and Fischer’s coding scheme was found to be most suited for describing online knowledge construction (Clark et al. 2007). The framework is based on the premise that there are four interrelated dimensions most relevant to collaborative learning – the participation dimension, the epistemic dimension, the argument dimension and the dimension of social modes of co-construction.

The first aspect, the participation dimension, reveals the contribution level of learners and the equality/inequality of participation among discussants, which relates to the concepts of floor holding, turn-taking and tight/loose floor. *The quantity of participation* is measured by the word count that interactants typed and sent to the chat interface. The participant who produced the most words is deemed the floor holder. The other indicator, namely *heterogeneity of participation* is indicated by standard deviation (SD) of individual contributions on the group level. Individual contributions are evidenced by the number of messages per participant. We sub-

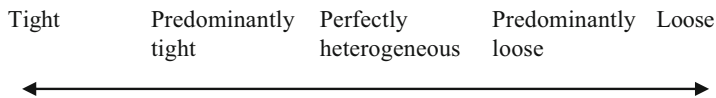


Fig. 2 Floor continuum between tight and loose floors

scribe to Tsui and Ki’s (1996) definition of a message on electronic textual discourse as a unit of analysis which is equivalent to the concept of turn in conversation analysis as defined by Sacks et al. (1974). This study concurs with Tsui and Ki’s (1996) turn-message synonymy. If the SD value is high, it reflects low homogeneity of participation, suggesting a tight floor. A low SD would correspondingly indicate high homogeneity of participation, suggesting a loose floor. In a group of four participants, a low SD value range is between 1 and 2, while a high SD value range is between 3 and 4. For a group of five participants, a low SD value range is between 1 and 2; high SD value range is between 3 and 5. A low SD value range for a group of six is between 1 and 3; a high SD value range is between 4 and 6. We propose a continuum between tight and loose floors to recognise floor types that are predominantly tight or predominantly loose. The continuum is illustrated in Fig. 2 above. The second aspect is that of formal argumentation. Toulmin’s model of argumentation (Toulmin 1958) will be applied to our corpus to analyse the elements of an argument (claims, warrants and qualifiers) to track specific sequences of arguments, counter-arguments and replies. According to the model, there are six specific categories for analysing an argument:

- Claim The statement you wish to convince others about.
- Data The evidence for the claim that you are making.
- Warrant The reasoning or assumption that links the data to the claim.
- Backing Further evidence to support the claim.
- Qualifier Expressing degree of certainty regarding the claim.
- Rebuttal Possible counter-arguments that refute the claim.

Based on these categories an argument could be expressed as follows, where it reads as “From D, and since W (given B), we can Q conclude C, unless R” (Inglis et al. 2007) (Fig. 3).

Following Clark et al. (2007), Toulmin’s categories of data, warrant, and backing will be combined into a single category of “grounds”, as it is challenging to distinguish the three categories in student discussions. Furthermore, Erduran, Simon and Osborne’s (2004) adaptation of Toulmin’s model as applied to dialogic argumentation will be employed to assess the quality of argumentation in our sample. Each conversational turn in the online oppositional episodes of student dialogue will first be analysed using the argumentative operations of: (i) opposing a claim, (ii) elaborating upon a claim, (iii) reinforcing a claim with additional data/warrants, (iv) advancing claims, and (v) adding qualifications (ibid). As for the quality of the argument, the following hierarchy will be applied to rank each oppositional episode (Table 1).

This analysis will demonstrate how strong the arguments are and how counter-arguments prompt learners to reconsider their initial positions, refine

Fig. 3 Toulmin’s logic
(Source: Inglis et al. 2007)

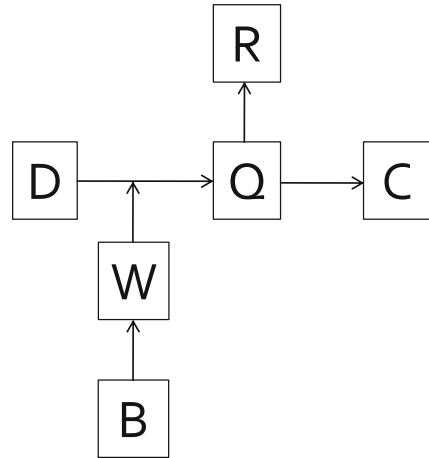


Table 1 Hierarchy of dialogic argumentation

Level	Description
Level 1	A simple claim versus a counterclaim or a claim versus claim
Level 2	Claims with grounds but no rebuttals
Level 3	A series of claims or counterclaims with grounds and an occasional weak rebuttal
Level 4	A claim with a clearly identifiable rebuttal
Level 5	Extended argument with more than one rebuttal

Source: Adapted from Erduran et al. (2004) and Clark et al. (2007)

their original arguments and converge towards a joint solution of a task-based problem.

The third aspect of Weinberger and Fischer’s framework is the epistemic dimension to distinguish the *amount of on-task discourse* in relation to the off-task discourse. This will involve identifying and measuring epistemic activities that promote knowledge acquisition versus non-epistemic activities that lead to digressions. Epistemic activities usually include discussion on task-based problems, their relation to theoretical concepts as well as application of relevant theory to resolve problems.

The fourth and final aspect that will be included in our analysis is the social dimension, which refers to the contributions of group members in a learning situation. Teasley’s scale of transactivity (Teasley 1997) will be used to identify the five social modes of co-construction of knowledge: Externalization (articulating thoughts), Elicitation (questioning others), Quick consensus building (accepting others’ contributions), Integration-oriented consensus building (integrating others’

perspectives) and Conflict-oriented consensus building (disagreeing, modifying and replacing others' perspectives). As transactivity within group discussions is positively related to knowledge acquisition, this analysis will give an insight into how members in a group contribute to learning, especially in relation to floor types.

Using the participation, epistemic, formal argumentation and social dimensions of learning, this paper will analyse how knowledge is actively constructed in a CSCL setting. The different dimensions of learning will be exemplified with examples from the student discussions along with a quantitative analysis of the chat data.

2.2 *Data for the Study*

The study participants were university undergraduates studying at a local university in Singapore. Their age range was from 19 to 23 years and they were self-professed savvy chat users who were experienced in employing chat lingo and Singlish expressions that embellish their online conversations. In cases where adjacency pairs were not clearly deducible, students were asked to clarify the turn-taking sequences, following the post-mortem procedure carried out by Ong (2011) via focus group discussions. As the online discussions were structured according to four discussion questions, the occurrence of disrupted adjacency pairs was greatly minimized. To observe confidentiality, each student name was replaced by an S denotation followed by an identifiable letter.

Multi-party quasi-synchronous (QSC) chat data were extracted from online student discussions based on a technical writing activity at a Singaporean university. QSC is synonymous to synchronous or "real-time" computer-mediated communication defined as messages that are visible to the receiver only when they are sent to appear on the chat interface with resultant and marginal time lag (Ong 2011). Examples of popular QSC platforms are Microsoft Network (MSN) Chat, Skype instant messaging, Twitter and Facebook Chat among others. The QSC data for this study was extracted from students' MSN chats which are uploaded to a Blackboard Learning System hosted by the University server. The corpus data consists of approximately 128,565 turns by 6 student groups ($n=27$), with group size ranging from 4 to 6.

Student participants were given a contrived writing sample consisting of a paragraph and a data table taken from a results and discussion section of a technical report on bio-fuels. This was an activity on describing research data, specially designed as an e-learning tutorial for a Technical Communication undergraduate course. The technical writing sample was extracted from a report titled "Is biodiesel a feasible alternative to petroleum fuel in cars?" It provided background information on the study's research question and scope as well as a data table comparing several properties of Biodiesel with Petroleum Diesel, including cost, safety in stor-

age and transportation, fuel efficiency and pollution. Students were required to analyse the data based on the following four questions:

1. How does the data table relate to the research question and the scope?
2. Are there any problems with the data table in terms of the position of the title of the table, the relevance of all the information presented, properties, or the data presented in the other columns, especially in terms of consistency?
3. Does the sample discussion paragraph represent the elements of introducing the table, presenting the most salient findings and commenting on the findings?
4. How would you rewrite the text and table to improve it?

Addressing these questions shaped the structure of the entire online discussion and each multi-party QSC is loosely structured according to these four discussion questions.

3 Results and Discussion

The analysis of various QSC excerpts in our study clearly demonstrates Simpson's three floor types and Jenks's participatory structures and floor management framework. The excerpts have been analysed from several perspectives, including the participation, argumentation, epistemic and social dimensions. The SD value of participants' contribution is also provided for the different floor types identified in the data. Although the calculations are based on entire group chat logs, only excerpts will be presented to exemplify findings.

In Chat Excerpt 1, the floor holder is SZ whose word count for the entire group chat log is 1134 ($n=3845$ words), the highest among the group members. SZ advanced an evidenced meta-analysis of the writing sample (lines 1–14), securing floor ratification from other group members. The key characteristic of a tight floor is a noticeable turn asymmetry – SZ's turn is significantly more substantial in length (lines 1–14) than turns submitted by other chat users. The floor can be said to be tight, as the floor holder dominated the floor and controlled the floor direction while visual-based back-channels and other supportive short interjections followed. In line 18, SZ submitted a blank turn to elicit SW's positive ratification which was the only pending one after SY and SX submitted their agreements. According to Ong (2011), blank turns as initial actions can be used to elicit responses. Structurally, this floor matches with Simpson's speaker-and-supporter floor type and Jenks's one-way tight floor pattern. The SD value of the participants' contributions is high at 3.96 for a five-member group.

Chat: Excerpt 1

1	SZ: Section 4.3.3 is a comparison made between Petroleum
2	and Bio Diesel so as to convince the readers that Bio Diesel is
3	a feasible alternative to Petroleum. It also relates to the
4	scope by tackling the 4 different points, cost, fuel efficiency,
5	pollution generated, and safety. In terms of cost, the table
6	shows that Bio Diesel (\$1.44) is cheaper than
7	Petroleum (\$1.80) .As for fuel efficiency, Bio diesel ignites
8	faster as compared to petroleum. n top of that, Bio diesel has
9	a lower pollution generation. As n from the table, it
10	biodegrades easily, and does not have high soot emission.
11	Last but not least, the safety hazard between two subjects
12	has also been discussed in the short sample paragraph, and in
13	the table; bio diesel is non-hazardous, non-flammable, non
14	toxic, and petroleum serves as a contrast.
15	SY: To the vote, I say a yes, it relates to the scope
16	SX: yup.. that is correct... so we can conclude that it relates
17	to the qn n scope
18	SZ:
19	SW: im ok wif it
20	SZ: set, 2nd question!
21	SV: i also agree that it relates

It is noted that although participants have equal access to task-based information, there are no floor mismatches or attempts to move the floor in different directions as predicted by Jenks (2007). Shared task-based information or information distribution may not be a constraining factor of floor management as claimed by Jenks. On the contrary, it is the substantiation of claims by participants that seems to constrain floor movement in this excerpt. At the argumentation level, it is evident that the excerpt matches level 2 description (Claim > Grounds) because SZ’s substantiated

claim is not refuted by the other participants. SZ began with a general-specific assessment fronted by a macroscopic interpretation of the major functions of the writing sample (lines 1–5) before moving to specific details that support the general claims (lines 5–14). Furthermore, the floor holder is not merely a keeper of more information or one who submits the most turns within a floor but one who exhibits critical thinking in substantiating his interpretation with sound evidence. The evidence of critical thinking as a major determinant of floor types is also evidenced in Chat Excerpt 2.

Chat: Excerpt 2

1	SM: do u think cetane number is imp?
2	SN: for safety...? O__O
3	SP has joined this conversation
4	SO: ya i think it'ss
5	SN: eh.. actually cetane number.. is something
6	like flammability, no? X__X
7	SM: cause if they never like store it under low
8	temp den it can ignite
9	SO: cos if it ignites easily then more
10	dangerous
11	SN: ok.. added it in
12	
13	

Chat Excerpt 2 can be described structurally as a predominantly loose floor. There is a fair distribution of turns among the four interactants without evidence of floor holding throughout the entire group chat log ($SD = 1.83$). SM posed a question (line 1). In response, a tentative claim was received from SN which is marked with a question mark functioning as a qualifier. SN later elaborated upon his claim with the concept of flammability (lines 5–6). The other participants supported SN's earlier claim that cetane number is important for safety. At line 12, SO supported SN's response by claiming that safety and flammability are complementary concepts.

However, SM disagreed with SN's claim, stating that these concepts contradict one another. At the argumentation dimension, it matches level 1 quality (Claim only), as claims were advanced tenuously by the participants, marked by the absence of supporting evidence. The claims were formulated without much elaboration or reinforcement by specific references to sources of evidence.

Chat Excerpt 3 is an example of a multiple conversation floor with two side floors. It can also be described as a predominantly loose floor in a five-member group, as indicated by a low SD value of 2.03. SS is the first to advance a claim (line 5), and elaborates upon the claim at line 6. SS's claim was ratified by the other group members between lines 7 and 13. Interestingly, a side floor developed (lines 14–19) when SV asked for the location of the research scope. The side floor ended with a claim advanced by SU regarding the advantages of the table (lines 20–21). However, a second side floor arose when ST asked the group to nominate or identify a compiler (lines 23–28). This excerpt is Level 1 (Claim only) in the argumentation hierarchy as the claims are not clearly substantiated.

In Chat Excerpt 4, SA and SB dominated the chat excerpt and the entire group chat log. Their quantity of participation is markedly higher than the other four participants (SA=902; SB=894; n=4301). Also, the floor is predominantly tight (SD=4.23). SA and SB can be seen as competing floor holders with superior knowledge. At the argumentation level, the discourse can be identified as level 5.

Chat: Excerpt 3

1	SR: so guys
2	SR: 1st question
3	SR: any comments?
4	SR: how does it relate to section 4?
5	SS: i think the table is used to substantiate the research question
6	SS: more like stating the main differences though
7	SR: since the title was
8	SR: whether bio diesel is more feasible than petrol
9	ST: yea its trying to show tt biofuel is "better"?
10	SR: actually can that the table and the small paragraph gives bio diesel a advanaged
11	ST: & the categories covered the scope oso mahs
12	SR: on top of that, its works acordingly to the scope
13	SR: h
14	SV: btw whereis the research scope stated?
15	SR: my email
16	SS: it's written in the question
17	SS: page 2
18	ST: yea
19	SR: question , followed by scope
20	SU: i think overall the table helps to illustrate clearer, and allow the
21	readers to be convinced
22	SV: IC
23	ST: anyways who is gonna compile our answers?
24	SR: (SV)
25	SV: Yup, I will copy and paste everything onto the edventure discussion board
26	SR: its not onto discussion board
27	SR: we discuss this later? come back to discussion?
28	SV: Ok
29	SS: ok, so, the table very explicitly tackles the points in the scope

Chat: Excerpt 4

1	SA: hey hey
2	SB: fuel efficiency
3	SA: guys
4	SA: not fuel efficiency
5	SC: yes~ because it contributes to the efficiency of the fual
6	SA: nono
7	SA: i disagree
8	SB: then?
9	SA: remb i tought u that the octane number?
10	SA: Shell 98
11	SA: 95
12	SB: ya
13	SA: if centane number is higher
14	SD: the higher the octane number the more expensive it is...
15	SB: ok..
16	SB: then?
17	SD: but for most cars only need 95
18	SA: it means that
19	SA: higher chance of having knocking in the engine
20	SA: this is undesirable for car engine
21	SA: we wan to hav smooth combustion within engine
22	SB: but under the page, it just says that cetane ignites faster

(continued)

23	SA: as not to lose fm the combustion
24	SB: and on top of that we get the price per litre of the fuel le
25	SA: ignite faster dosen mean is good
26	SE: eh....
27	SE: wait ah
28	SA: if it ignites faster
29	SD: i think smoother burning of fuel
30	SE: lets base the discussion on the table that is given
31	SF: yes i tot so too
32	SE: we assume we know nothing
33	SB: ya correct
34	SA: means higher chance of ignition before the engine ignition
35	SA: huh?
36	SA: then isit wrong?
37	SF: we are supposed to refer the datas from the table only...
38	SB: even in thermo lect, the lecturer says that in a otto cycle, the petrol
39	ignite faster ...its better for fuel efficiency
40	SA: ignition doesn mean burn better
41	SB: it does
	[Omission of turns]
88	SE: so only base on section 4.3.3
89	SE: soooo.....
90	SE: we cannot conclude
91	becos our knowledge is limited to this table
92	SE: can I assume so?
93	SB: ya ok I agree with [SE]
94	SF: yes
95	SA: ok

Analysis from the epistemic perspective showed that the online discussions were centred around the task with no evidence of digressions. In fact, the side floors in Chat Excerpt 3 are also related to procedural aspects of the task, with one orientating a group member and the other deciding on task-based roles. The reason for the lack of digressions could be due to the fact that the students were cognizant of their

interactions being monitored by their tutor. As for the social dimension, all five social modes of knowledge co-construction are evident in the chat excerpts, including externalization (e.g., Chat Excerpt 1, lines 1–15), elicitation (e.g., Chat Excerpt 2, lines 1–6), quick consensus building (e.g., Chat Excerpt 1, lines 15, 19, 21), integrated-oriented consensus building (e.g., Chat Excerpt 3, line 21), conflict-oriented consensus building (e.g., Chat Excerpt 4, lines 4, 6, 7, 22, 38–40). Although the analysis shows that transactivity within the online group discussions positively relates to knowledge acquisition, the social modes vary depending upon the floor types.

In a one-way tight floor with one dominant floor holder (e.g., Chat Excerpt 1), there is quick consensus building though agreement (lines 15, 16, 19, 21) and lack of elicitation. However, in a two-way tight floor with two dominant floor holders (e.g., Chat Excerpt 4), there is more conflict-oriented consensus building which leads to many disagreements between SA and SB (SA – lines 4, 6, 7, 25, 40; SB – lines 22, 38–39) as well as elicitation challenging each other (SA – lines 9, 36; SB – lines 8, 16). As for loose floors (e.g. Chat Excerpts 2 and 3), the commonly used social modes are elicitation seeking responses or clarifications (Chat Excerpt 2 – lines 1, 2, 5–6; Chat Excerpt 3 – lines 3, 4, 9, 10) and integration-oriented consensus building where participants not only complete each other's questions (e.g., Chat Excerpt 2 – lines 1–2) but also reinforce comments (e.g., Chat Excerpt 2 – lines 7–10).

4 Conclusions

The current study has provided important insights into the relationship between conversational floors and argumentation. The main conclusions drawn are as follows:

- Tight or semi-tight floors are associated with complete arguments with or without argumentation sequences. Although the presence of complete arguments alone may not always constrain the floor, substantiation of claims with empirical evidence has an additive influence.
- The floor holders are the participants who employ complete arguments, especially coupled with solid substantiation.
- Loose or semi-loose floors are associated with incomplete arguments or complete but poorly substantiated arguments and the absence of argumentation sequences.

The application of the four interrelated dimensions of collaborative learning, namely participation, argumentation, epistemic and social dimensions, provides a holistic account of participant and floor dynamics within a structured chat interaction. As floor management is closely linked to task completion and success, students should be made cognisant of Toulmin's model of formal argumentation so that

they can apply it to co-manage the floor and optimize epistemic productivity for the achievement of desired learning outcomes.

Questions for Reflection on Future Teaching Practice

1. How is this study on argumentation and floor management in the context of online learning different from past studies? Have the authors provided a convincing justification for the present study?
2. In your opinion, are Weinberger and Fisher's framework (2006) on online knowledge construction and Toulmin's model of argumentation (1958) suitable methods for the present study?
3. Compare the findings of the present study with those of Simpson (2005) and Jenks (2007). Identify the similarities and differences in relation to floor types, participatory structures and floor management.
4. The present study analyses online student discussions that show how floor management varies due to formal argumentation in shared task-based information. The emphasis is on analysing data from four interrelated perspectives (i.e. participation, epistemic, argument and social dimension). Are there any other dimensions that could be considered in future studies to take this research further?

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Rising Spirals and Virtuous Circles: The Interrelationship between Motivation and Learner Autonomy

Ruth Wilkinson

Abstract This chapter discusses to what extent and in what ways learner autonomy can enhance motivation and vice versa. More specifically, it focuses on the interrelationships between autonomy-promoting practices and affective variables such as anxiety, self-esteem, engagement and agency, examining how these in turn impact negatively or positively on motivation. Drawing on evidence from research with university English language learners, the chapter explores the impact on motivation of specific practices designed to promote learner autonomy.

The results of the study appear to confirm that greater learner control can, indeed, increase learner motivation. They also help pinpoint which practices seem to lead to this positive outcome. Nonetheless, some evidence suggests that such practices may occasionally have a de-motivating effect. Possible reasons for these reactions are discussed, together with solutions found and trialled in the present study.

The purpose of this chapter is to help teachers seeking to promote learner autonomy to harness the powerful affective factors in their favour, while being aware of the pitfalls which may be met on the way. Hopefully this will better prepare teacher-researchers for any negative reactions or resistance which may arise, and help them to provide the scaffolding learners need when transitioning towards a less teacher-dependent learning-style.

Keywords Autonomy • Learning to learn • Affect • Motivation • Anxiety • Agency • Engagement • Self-concept • Self-esteem • Scaffolding

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1 Introduction

Earlier chapters of this book have emphasized the importance of motivation in second language acquisition, and most practising teachers would surely concur with Tudor's (1996) view that, when learners are motivated, the whole process of education is more enjoyable for all concerned: the teacher enters the classroom with a lighter step, and learning is more likely to be retained. Consequently, when attending conferences on language teaching, I am not surprised to see the popularity of sessions on how to motivate learners. Typically, such sessions are "learner-centred", offering attractive and stimulating activities based on the teacher's close knowledge of his/her learners. However, in most cases, it is the teacher who decides on behalf of the students what will motivate them. If such activities create the idea that language learning is pleasurable, they should help to foster intrinsic motivation¹: but will such motivation be sufficient to *keep* the learner motivated even when tasks necessary to mastering the language are not quite so much fun? Perhaps, with Ushioda (1996), we should ask some slightly different questions – not only, *how can we, as teachers, motivate our learners?* but also "*how can we help learners to motivate themselves? [...] can we help learners to generate and sustain the appropriate kind of motivational behaviour that characterizes autonomous learning?*" (p. 2, author's italics). Indeed, Ushioda (2012) has argued convincingly that learner autonomy is the answer to just this type of long-lasting, self-sustaining motivation.

In this chapter I consider how and why learner autonomy can enhance motivation. In order to do so, I discuss the interrelatedness of a range of affective variables including anxiety, self-esteem, engagement and agency, and how these in turn impact negatively or positively on motivation. I go on to consider specific examples of practices designed to promote learner autonomy. Drawing on evidence from my own research with university English language learners, I examine the impact of these practices on their motivation.

The results of the study appear to confirm that greater learner control can, indeed, impact positively on learner motivation, and I pinpoint which practices seem to lead to this positive outcome. Nonetheless, there is also some evidence that such practices may have a de-motivating effect. I discuss possible reasons for these reactions and how they were tackled in the present study.

The purpose of this chapter is to help teachers seeking to promote learner autonomy to harness the powerful affective factors in their favour, while being aware of the pitfalls which may be met on the way. As a result, I hope that the teacher-researcher will be better prepared if negative reactions or resistance do occur and hence more able to give learners the support they need.

¹"It is presumably the subjective feeling of enjoyment that is responsible for the continuation of the activity; it is this feeling that constitutes the intrinsic reward." (Csizszenmihalyi 1978, p.213).

2 The Interrelationship between the Affective Variables and Autonomy

In this section I discuss the links between motivation and other affective variables.² I start by discussing anxiety, before looking at the connection between anxiety and self-esteem. This leads me on to the subject of engagement with learning and its relationship with motivation, which is likewise influenced by self-esteem.

2.1 Anxiety

Although anxiety about exam success may motivate learners to study harder, the most obvious effects of this emotion are overwhelmingly negative. Krashen's (1982) concept of the affective filter is helpful in visualizing how anxiety rises up like a barrier, acting as a block on effective learning, so that acquisition is significantly reduced and performance impaired. In everyday parlance, we might say that our mind goes blank, or we lose track of our ideas when we are experiencing excessive stress.

Under these circumstances, the learner will be resistant to change and to assimilating new ideas, which will be perceived as threatening. Unfortunately, language learning appears to generate particularly high levels of anxiety for many people, arising from factors such as the fear of making mistakes and the necessity of expressing ideas in a way which may seem hesitant or childish, particularly for older learners (Arnold Morgan 2007). If we add the additional pressure of asking learners to take on new responsibilities which are outside their normal experience, such as when promoting learner autonomy, it becomes doubly important to ensure that students experience relatively low anxiety levels.

2.2 Self-Efficacy Beliefs and Self-Esteem

The expression *self-efficacy belief*, coined by Bandura (1997), refers to a person's perception of their competence in a particular area. Self-efficacy beliefs may or may not be based on truth, but low self-efficacy beliefs tend to lead to under-achievement and avoidance strategies in the area of perceived weakness, hence reinforcing the negative self-belief. Weak self-efficacy beliefs may also lead to anxiety. For

²I use the term 'variable' advisedly: although a learner's personality may include a higher or lower level of anxiety or self-esteem generally, the levels of these feelings will vary depending on circumstances, and the learner's beliefs about him or herself.

example, if learners believe that they cannot pronounce correctly they will inevitably feel more anxious when called upon to speak in front of others (Arnold Morgan 2007).

Self-efficacy beliefs are just one aspect of the more general concept of self-esteem. According to Legenhausen (2008), self-esteem is a pre-requisite for developing learner autonomy, as learners will not take responsibility for their learning unless they believe in themselves. High self-esteem motivates the learner to attempt ever more difficult tasks with confidence, and will protect the learner from much of the negative impact of failure (André and Lelord 2008; Poletti and Dobbs 1998). Learners with low self-esteem, on the other hand, will tend to take fewer risks and avoid challenges due to the expectation of failure. Consequently, they will have fewer successful experiences, confirming their estimation of themselves as lacking in self-worth. According to Arnold Morgan (2007) “the negative beliefs about oneself, which are part of low self-esteem, make it hard for a learner to be fully on task, as energy is split between the task and excessive concern with one’s lack of ability, or worth” (p. 147). The low self-confidence associated with negative self-perceptions leads to poor motivation and low levels of effort (Ridley 1997).

Although the fundamental self-concept, that is, the image one has of oneself, is established in early childhood, self-esteem is nonetheless highly malleable (André and Lelord 2008) and can be influenced, for good or ill, by positive or negative learning experiences or relationships with significant others.

2.3 Engagement

In addition to taking steps to counteract the negative influence of factors such as anxiety and building healthy self-esteem, the teacher must foster the learner's engagement, or emotional involvement (van Lier 1996), if effective learning is to take place. Engagement encourages the deep-processing of new knowledge which is necessary to transfer language from short-term to long-term memory (Stevick 1976; Arnold Morgan 2007).

In this section we have seen how the affective variables can impact on each other negatively, creating vicious circles which will reduce the effectiveness of learning and tend to prove self-reinforcing. However, if we can enlist the help of these same factors in the learning process, these vicious circles can be inverted, leading to a rising spiral of positive influences which increase and sustain the learner’s motivation to take on fresh challenges. To enlist these factors in our favour we need a pedagogy which fosters engagement, minimizes anxiety, promotes healthy self-esteem and gives learners opportunities to extend their self-efficacy beliefs.

3 Integrating the Affective Variables through a Pedagogy for Autonomy

Ideally, a pedagogy for autonomy³ should meet the criteria just mentioned. If learners are communicating meanings which are relevant to them personally, about subjects which they are interested in, and over which they exercise choice, they are much more likely to be engaged in their learning (Deci 1980; Ushioda 2012; Williams and Burden 1997). Learning to exercise choice effectively and critically is also a vital part of developing autonomy (Macaro 1997; Ridley 1997). A pedagogy for autonomy implies that learners have opportunities to select and perform learning activities which are within their scope and where they will hence experience success, thus re-enforcing their self-efficacy beliefs. If learners are able to gradually extend into their Zones of Proximal Development,⁴ with the support of peers and teacher, their self-esteem is fostered, and they can be expected to extend their confidence in their capacity to take on new tasks, thus widening the scope of their self-efficacy beliefs. The key is optimum challenge (Arnold Morgan 2007; Csikszentmihalyi 1990).

Nonetheless, it is also widely acknowledged that progress towards autonomy can be slow, difficult and, at times, painful (Little 1991). In the rest of this chapter I examine evidence of the affective impact – both positive and negative – of my own attempts to implement aspects of a “pedagogy for autonomy”.

4 Participants in the Study

The data discussed in this chapter are taken from two case studies taking place over consecutive academic years as part of an action research project conducted at the University of Castilla-La Mancha, Spain. All the students involved were members of my own English Language classes, in the second year of the degree of English Philology. The activities were carried out during time-tabled classes with all students present on the occasion concerned (between 20 and 25 students), however data analysis was limited to those students who attended at least 60% of classes and completed all the questionnaires and interviews (14 students in the first study, 18 in the second).

In terms of their educational background, students had almost without exception been used to a very passive learning style, based on the rote-memorization of information presented to them, often in pre-digested form, by their teachers. There had

³Jimenez Raya et al. (2007) presents a helpful framework for developing such a pedagogy.

⁴The term Zone of Proximal Development (or ZPD) (Vygotsky 1978) refers to the zone or area between what the learner can presently do on his/her own, and what he/she can be enabled to do with the assistance of the teacher or more competent peers.

been little opportunity, even during their first year at university, for independent research, and they were not accustomed to questioning accepted methods of language learning, based on the routine completion of exercises from a set text book. Choice over subject-matter or learning materials was practically unknown.

The activities described below were planned, delivered and analysed by myself, their English Language teacher, as participant observer. The intervention took place over one academic year, in each case, although the second case study also included a follow-up phase, during the year after the intervention concluded.

5 Tasks Set

In both studies, I introduced a series of measures intended to help learners take greater responsibility for their own learning. These included self-assessment and goal-setting, choice of learning materials, peer-review of written and oral work, peer instruction, and the use of a learning-to-learn Portfolio, as well as periodic, structured reflections (described in Wilkinson 2010). Inspiration for the activities came largely from the work of Dam (1995, 2008), Legenhausen (2008), Little and Perclová (2001) and Wenden (1987), as well as the European Language Portfolio.

During the second study I introduced two series of group “learning to learn” tutorials designed to deal with some of the problems which arose during the intervention. Two series of activities proved to be of particular relevance to the theme of this chapter, namely, choice over learning materials, in this case, in the form of a personally-selected “set book”, and the self-assessment and goal-setting cycle. I will describe these processes in a little more detail below.

5.1 *The Set Book*

In the second-year course students traditionally studied a set modern novel, chosen by the teacher. This book then became an important focus for a significant part of class- and homework assignments. In order to foster students’ ability to select their own learning materials, it seemed logical to delegate the choice of this book to the students. Students were therefore asked to browse libraries, bookshops and the Internet for information on potential books, and write brief reviews, which were collated in a class “catalogue” to help guide their choice. During the year, students carried out various language tasks in relation to their chosen novel. All the tasks performed in relation to this novel had a genuine communicative objective since students were discussing books which neither their class-mates nor their teacher had read.

5.2 *The Goal-Setting Cycle*

At the start of the academic year, students evaluated themselves against the self-assessment grid from the Common European Reference Framework (CERF). They used this self-assessment to determine general goals for their learning, and through discussion with peers, went on to choose activities they could carry out autonomously to help them improve on their weak points. At first, students' goals were rather vague and sometimes over-ambitious. In the second study, I gave students, partway through the course, a very specific list of evaluation criteria for the final exams, in order to enable them to target their learning needs more accurately, and employ their time more effectively. I derived these criteria from insider knowledge of what my colleagues and I were actually looking for in evaluating students, although this information was not officially recorded anywhere at the time.

Subsequently, students laid out their goals and proposed learning activities in a simple learning contract (or individual learning plan), which could then be discussed with the teacher. The group tutorials in the second study allowed teacher and students together to refine goal-setting skills and share ideas in a safe, collaborative environment.

6 **Data Collection and Analysis**

Data were collected throughout both projects by means of a range of questionnaires, semi-structured interviews, and, in the second project, the transcripts and video-recordings of the group tutorials. These data were complemented with my own classroom observations, recorded in a research log, email communications, notes and transcripts from spontaneous conversations. Closed questions from the questionnaires were analysed statistically, and the open questions and interview transcripts were subjected to detailed content analysis (Dörnyei 2007; Richards 2003) to determine key themes and issues arising.

7 **Results**

Sifting through the immense body of largely qualitative data revealed four key areas concerning the relationship between autonomy and motivation:

1. The correspondence between usefulness and enjoyment.
2. The importance of sharing ideas.
3. The impact of choosing learning materials.
4. Mixed reactions to, and a developing "relationship" with self-assessment and goal-setting.

With regard to the first of these areas, there was a very close correlation between the activities which students reported enjoying, and those which they felt were use-

ful. The activity which scored by far the highest on both these criteria was choice over learning materials, especially with regard to the work with the set book. Researching and presenting topics and materials from the Internet was also popular, although some students felt it was less useful, as they tended to waste more time and get more easily distracted.

Reviewing each other's written compositions was also held to be very useful, as students considered it helped them become more aware of their own errors and improve the quality of their writing, a key to passing the all-important end-of-year exams. Students recognized that explaining grammar points to each other, rather than just listening to the teacher, helped them assimilate the rules better, although some discomfort was expressed at carrying out a task which they felt was really the teacher's job.

Students found it very encouraging to share their ideas about how to learn better. Comments emphasized the importance of realizing you know something which is helpful to someone else, a situation which builds self-confidence and a trusting, supportive classroom environment (both key factors in nourishing self-esteem – see Legenhausen 2013).

As already mentioned, the activities associated with the free choice of a modern novel received an outstandingly positive reception, as reflected in the comments below:

It seems to me more productive than reading a book chosen by others – if you have a special interest by a book or film, you learn faster. It encourages you to read more in the future.⁵

Choosing a book freely amazed me since I had always read a book out of a sense of duty without the chance of choosing the title of it.

The comments were often highly emotive, including expressions such as: “a special interest/encourages/amazed/delighted/enjoy”. (Although the students were in their second year of an English Philology degree, and had to read many books in English for their literature courses, I discovered that the majority of students had never read a book in English for pleasure and on their own initiative).

Self-assessment and goal-setting were found to help students focus their attention on their learning needs and gain many useful ideas from their peers about how to improve their learning. However a small minority of students appeared to find the process threatening or discouraging:

This activity only shows our deficiency in some points of English that we have to improve [...] I only know what problems I have.

In general I don't like thinking about goals because if you don't achieve them you feel frustrated. From my point of view it's better to work bit by bit, without persecuting big and sometimes impossible aims.

These reactions, one from one of the weakest students, and one from a very able, but perfectionist, student, warn us of the possible negative impact on students'

⁵All student quotes are given, verbatim, in the students' original words and have therefore not been corrected linguistically.

self-esteem of carrying out this type of self-assessment. The second student's reference to persecuting (presumably pursuing) "big and sometimes impossible aims" offers a useful starting point for the discussion on how to set appropriate, achievable goals which will serve as encouraging stepping-stones to help students measure and celebrate their progress.

In the second case study, using Learning Contracts and with the support of small group tutorials, goal-setting was developed much further. A number of students considered that referring to the very specific evaluation criteria provided had improved their confidence, by giving them a clearer idea of what they were aiming for.

IN⁶ When I did my autonomous learning contract I had to read this (*the teachers' evaluation criteria*), and I think I focussed on what I am worst at.

Int Is that a good feeling or a bad feeling?

IN It's good to know what you need to focus on, so you worry a bit more about those aspects, and then once, if you go to the exam knowing that you have focussed on what you are worst at, you feel more confident.

⁶Boxed extracts are taken from the group tutorials. The students are represented by their initials and myself, as interviewer/facilitator, by 'Int'.

On the other hand, several students expressed anxiety when first asked to set personal learning goals: "we are like kids. We need to be told what we have to learn, we are not able to decide what we need to learn". Others just found it "weird" because they had never thought about their goals before. Nonetheless, as we continued to review goals over the year, sharing ideas in group tutorials, some of the most outspoken students began to express different opinions on this subject.

Int Ok, so when I first asked you to do this, your reaction was, "it's a waste of time".

CLM Yes, at first. [...] But when we realise what is it, we find it very useful.

Int Are you saying that honestly? You do genuinely find it useful?

CLM Yes, I think so, I think we will need to do it in all the other things in life, having an order, what I want to do, what I need to do. [...] it's not just, *following* the educational system, it's just *think* about what you want, what you want to achieve.

PP At the beginning I hated it... (*the Learning Contract*)

Int Yes, good be honest.

PP No, no, that was at the beginning, because I can't explain why, maybe I don't like to be put in order, and this is some kind of an order, something I have to do, but then I talked to you, we talked, 2 weeks ago, and now I really find it, not only for our English classes, I find it useful, I've made my own life contract with goals.

A year later, in the follow-up interview, PP said the following:

I think I told you, I have made a life contract, with my own personal goals. Now I'm trying to make them true, to make them real. I try to be more specific, not to try to do the very best, not to be so perfectionist. Because I get very disappointed, if things are not perfect, then I stop, I don't finish. So I try to do things the way I can, and I'm more relaxed. It's completely different.

This was CLM's comment on the process of goal-setting, a year on:

It's like someone has opened you a new door. You just see new things, and new ways to analyse things [...] it's been a general change also in myself, not just in the way I see studies, in the way I see everything [...] because before I centred myself more on trivial things than on the important things. Now I'm changing, I'm in the process...

The comments of both these students, who initially felt very anxious about setting and pursuing their own goals, suggest that they had seen the relevance of this process, not only to their immediate studies, but also as a more general life-skill. This accords with Little's (1991, p.4) view that "the capacity for autonomy will be displayed both in the way the learner learns and *in the way he or she transfers what has been learned to wider contexts*" (my italics).

8 Discussion

Given that the participants were university students studying the degree of their choice, the correlation between enjoyment and perceived usefulness of learning activities is perhaps unsurprising: we might expect similar attitudes from any group of self-motivated adult learners. Amongst all the results, choice over learning activities stands out as the most intrinsically motivating activity. Students were more engaged in their work and specifically affirmed that they learned more because they were paying closer attention to the materials they had chosen. The agency which freedom of choice allowed appeared to be experienced as empowering and led to a greater sense of ownership of the work generated from these materials, all of which was unique.

The sense of threat which goal-setting evoked for a few students seemed to be related largely to their previous learning experience. Never before had they been asked to think about their own goals. At the start of the year, most students considered that all aspects of planning learning were the exclusive province of the teacher (see Wilkinson 2012). The impact of this belief on students' initial willingness to take greater responsibility for their learning can be explained by means of the concept of socially-mediated motivation (Ushioda 2003; Dörnyei and Ushioda 2011). Dörnyei and Ushioda suggest that motivation may be far more context-dependent than has generally been assumed and that it is therefore a mistake to think of a learner's motivation in isolation from his or her place in the society to which he or she belongs. In their view, the peer group, educational background, social and cultural expectations, etc., all help the learner to formulate a set of beliefs about what is right, "proper" and to be expected in carrying out an activity, such as learning a

language. These psychological constructs inevitably affect the learner's willingness (or motivation) to adapt to innovative ways of learning.

The belief that certain activities, like selecting learning goals and materials, were "the teacher's job", also appeared to combine with students' low sense of self-efficacy in these areas. As they had never been required to perform these tasks before, the learning curve was, at first, steep.

Fortunately, continuity with an innovative task, combined, in the second study, with group tutorials, seemed to offer the scaffolding students needed to overcome their initial reservations and enjoy the benefits of the new way of working. These results seem to confirm Little's (1991) analysis:

it is a common experience that attempts to make learners conscious of the demands of a learning task and the techniques with which they might approach it, lead in the first instance to disorientation and a sense that learning has become less rather than more purposeful and efficient. However, when the process is successful, it brings rich rewards (p. 21).

9 Conclusion

Introducing choice of learning materials proved so motivating for students that this would seem to be a good place to start if a teacher is wondering what first steps to take to promote learner autonomy. This is one of the simplest ways to hand over responsibility and to give learners a greater sense of agency. Through group or individual project work, choice can be central at any level of the education system, as long as suitable materials are accessible to learners. Thanks to the Internet, authentic and appropriate materials *are* universally available. By choosing the materials which will help them develop their skills, students start to feel ownership of their learning, which therefore becomes more relevant to them. Consequently they pay more attention, and are more likely to assimilate and apply the knowledge they are exposed to. With all these advantages, it is unfortunate that many teachers still continue to take the main responsibility for selecting learning materials for their students on the basis of what they think will be interesting or relevant for them. Although learners may initially need some guidance in determining what is most suitable, it is by exploring different resources that they gradually develop the ability to choose, which is surely one of the most important skills involved in autonomous learning.

Self-assessment, goal-setting, reflection and evaluation are key tools to help learners take greater control (Dam 1995; Dam and Little 1998). When carried out successfully and consistently, such tools have the potential to radically increase learners' sense of their own agency and control over their learning, whilst providing them with a vital life-skill which can be transferred to other areas of learning (Wilkinson 2013a, b).

At the same time, the anxiety which some students experienced when asked to take a more active role in their learning threatened at times to undermine their motivation and the success of the project. The reasons for these difficulties seemed to derive from the teachers' and learners' constructs or beliefs about the learning process and their role within it. This would appear to confirm Ushioda's (1996) view

that “[w]hat learners believe about themselves is crucially important to their capacity for self-motivation” (author’s italics) and, moreover, that “effective motivational thinking hinges on the preservation of a positive self-concept in relation to the activity in question” (p. 55).

If learners are to become more autonomous, they must take on tasks which they have previously considered were exclusively the “teacher’s job”. Should they have no experience of these tasks, they may doubt their competence to accomplish them. Such self-doubt can lead to their feeling anxious and threatened by the new requirements – a reaction which will create resistance, rather than cooperation. It is therefore important at all times to proceed with caution, taking into account students’ previous learning culture and beliefs about language learning.

Fortunately, if small steps are taken, with appropriate scaffolding from teacher and peers, and if learners are given choice and an increasing sense of control over the learning process, together with successful learning experiences, this should build a stronger sense of agency and a more positive self-image, which will, in turn, increase intrinsic motivation. Increased intrinsic motivation and improved self-efficacy beliefs create a rising spiral, or virtuous circle, of increased attention, improved focus, higher levels of effort and more effective learning, creating a win-win learning situation for all.

Questions for Reflection on Future Teaching Practice

1. According to Dam (1995, p. 79), “A prerequisite for developing learner autonomy is a feeling of confidence, trust, acceptance and respect on the part of teachers and learners alike.” How do you/could you promote such an atmosphere in your classroom, to help students overcome any anxiety they may feel both in learning the language and in taking on new responsibilities for their learning?
2. How can you ensure that learners experience success in managing their own learning, thus helping to create new self-efficacy beliefs which will help them counteract their conviction that “that’s the teacher’s job”?
3. How much choice do your learners have about learning materials, activities, objectives etc.? Could you give them more than they already have?
4. Many teachers say, “I’ve tried learner autonomy. The students don’t like it,” or “It doesn’t work,” and have given up. Bearing in mind the educational background of your students, how can you “scaffold” the transition towards autonomy, whether by introducing responsibility step-by-step or by explicitly discussing the rationale behind what you are doing?

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Part IV

Motivation

Motivation in Language Learning

Lindy Woodrow

Abstract This chapter provides an overview of theory and research in the area of language learning motivation. Theorizing into motivation has changed dramatically over the past three decades. The chapter provides a historical review of the development of theorizing in motivation from Gardner's socio-educational model to Dörnyei's process model. The chapter provides a picture of current thinking and research in the area of motivation. It considers motivation and its relation to self-beliefs and affect. In particular there is a focus on the situated nature of L2 motivation and the role of classrooms and teachers in motivating L2 learners. The chapter focuses on English, as this is a universally taught language and a lingua franca in many communicative situations in the world. Because of this, many of the traditional tenets of L2 motivation are not relevant. The conceptual development of L2 motivation has been matched by a methodological change that reflects an epistemological shift in the area. The chapter will address how qualitative longitudinal research is making a contribution to this area.

Keywords L2 motivation • Motivating L2 learners • Research methodology • L2 motivation • Affect • Motivational strategies • Socio-dynamic motivation

1 Introduction

This chapter follows on from the last chapter in addressing second language (L2) learning motivation. Wilkinson's chapter discusses the relationship between autonomy and L2 motivation of university level language learners. This chapter introduces the new section with an overview of theorizing and research in L2 motivation.

The chapter starts with a historical overview of theorizing in L2 motivation. Then it discusses current theorizing and research. This includes a discussion on the methodological shift that has occurred in L2 motivation research. The chapter is

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followed by four chapters about research in the area: Fukada et al. consider L2 as a Complex Adaptive System reflecting past, present and future perceptions of the target language; Paran et al. examine the effect of different supervisory alternatives in distance Master's courses; Jernigan focuses on contextual aspects of motivation, looking in depth at the importance of authenticity; and finally, Weinberg investigates the role of technology in L2 motivation.

Research into language learning motivation has been around for a long time, predating second language acquisition research. However, until recently L2 theorising has tended to generate its own theoretical bases, which differ from mainstream motivational research. This is probably because of the perception that language learning is a unique phenomenon. As is evident from the previous discussion in this volume, we use language to construct our identity defined by the personae we project to others. Thus in an earlier generation of research, L2 motivation was viewed as different from other types of motivation. However, current thinking views L2 motivation as a complex and multifaceted construct in which specific motivation concerning the L2 overlaps with other motivational issues. As a result of this, in recent years theorizing and methodological approaches to research in L2 motivation have diversified to reflect developments in motivation research in areas such as sport, work and education.

A good place to start this chapter is to define L2 motivation. There are many definitions of motivation: Kleinginna and Kleinginna (1981) list 102 definition statements (cited in Gardner 2010, p. 8). The basic tenet of any theory of motivation is that it is the energizing force by which an individual makes the choice to engage in an action, put effort into this action and maintain this effort. This can be rephrased as the *Why? How hard? And How long?* The "Why?" refers to learners' goals or purpose. So a person may be learning the L2 because they want to find a life partner in the target language group or to get a better job, or they may be learning English as a compulsory school subject. The "How hard?" refers to the amount of effort and the type of effort the learner exerts to learn the language. So a person may spend 60 h a week learning the L2 through systematic study, or may not engage in any study aside from classroom contact time. The "How long?" is a very important aspect of L2 motivation. It takes many years to learn a language, so successful language learners need to be persistent. It seems obvious to us today that during the language learning process, which may last over 10 years, attitudes may shift. However, this dynamic perspective in motivation, how it fluctuates over time, has only recently become the focus in L2 motivation research. Today it is a central theme in current theorizing and research.

The next section presents a historical overview of theorizing in L2 motivation. According to Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) there are four distinct periods in L2 motivation research: the *socio-psychological* period, the *cognitive-situated* period, the *process-oriented* period and the *socio-dynamic* period. This is a useful timeline for discussion about the emergence of current perspectives in L2 motivation as viewed from a socio-dynamic perspective.

1.1 *The Social Psychological Period*

L2 motivation research can be said to have started with the work of Robert Gardner in the late 1950s (Gardner and Lambert 1959). Today Gardner and his colleagues continue to research and publish in the area. Gardner's contribution to and influence on L2 motivation theory and research is immeasurable (Gardner 1985a, b, 1988, 2001, 2010). He took theorizing and research from its 1950s origins, firmly rooted in the behaviourist tradition, and reconceptualized motivation within a social-psychological paradigm. He proposed his socio-psychological model of language learning, rebranded in 1985 (Gardner 1985b) as the *socio-educational model* of language learning. This model comprises factors that influence language learning and reflects attitudes towards the L2 cultural group and the learning situation. The model has four distinct areas: *antecedent factors*, *individual difference variables*, *language acquisition contexts* and *outcomes*. Motivation is classified as an aspect of the individual and comprises three parts: *intensity*, *desire* to learn the language and *attitudes* toward the language. Perhaps the most influential and controversial aspect of this model is Gardner's concept of *goal orientations*. Orientations act as antecedents or drivers of motivation itself. These he classified as *integrative* and *instrumental* orientations. An instrumental orientation refers to a pragmatic reason for learning the language, for example for financial gain or job promotion. An integrative orientation refers to a positive attitude toward the target language group and a desire to be part of that group or to be assimilated into that group. While orientations do not appear in the core construct of motivation in many research projects in the twentieth century, some earlier projects use these orientations to replace the motivation construct itself, thus, according to Gardner, over-simplifying the theory (Gardner 1988). The best researched and most hotly debated aspect of Gardner's theorizing relates to the notion of *integrativeness*. In the Gardnerian model integrativeness is considered to be a powerful link to successful language learning and there is considerable research evidence to support this (Masgoret and Gardner 2003).

Gardner's theorizing led to much critical debate in academic journal articles in the 1990s (Dörnyei 1990; Oxford and Shearin 1994; Crookes and Schmidt 1991; Tremblay and Gardner 1995). One reason for this was that his theoretical framework was singularly dominant in L2 motivation research, which led to a need for diversification to provide alternative viewpoints. The second reason concerned the model itself: Gardner's research was conducted in bilingual Canada with learners of French, where learners typically have native-speaker-like competence as their language goal, and therefore integration as reflected in integrative goal orientation was obviously important. In other language learning situations, by contrast, integration may not be such a powerful motivator. For example, university student learners of English as an international language may not have a specific target community to which their integrative motive can be linked. Their main goal in learning English may be to pass the English exam, which is a requirement to graduate.

1.2 *The Cognitive-Situated Period*

The 1990s saw a call for the diversification of L2 motivational theory taking into consideration perspectives other than the social psychological one. Crookes and Schmidt (1991) are often said to have launched the discussion in their seminal article ‘re-opening the research agenda’. However there were a number of researchers thinking along the same lines (Au 1988; Oxford 1996; Dörnyei 1990, 1994; Oxford and Shearin 1994). This phase of motivational research aimed to reflect current thinking in mainstream motivational psychology. The situated aspect of this phase involves consideration of learning contexts rather than seeking to develop a single one-fits-all theory of L2 motivation. This discussion led to an increase in studies that used alternative conceptualisations of motivation, for example, *goals and expectancy* theory (Oxford 1996), *self-determination* theory (Noels 2001) and *attribution theory* (Williams et al. 2001).

1.3 *Self-Determination Theory*

Aside from Gardner’s socio-educational model, Self Determination theory (SDT) is one of the major motivational frameworks used in L2. This theory was put forward by Deci and Ryan in the 1980s (Deci 1980; Deci and Ryan 1985; Ryan and Deci 2000) and is widely used in education, sport and management (Schunk et al. 2008). In language learning the model has been applied incorporating aspects of the Gardnerian model of motivation, notably the integrative motive (Noels 2001, 2009; McIntosh and Noels 2004). The focus in SDT is on the extent to which an individual can regulate control over their environment. In SDT motivation is conceptualized as *intrinsic* and *extrinsic*. This internal and external focus is a recurring theme in motivational theory. Intrinsic motivation reflects an individual’s inherent pleasure or interest in the task, and is classed as the most self-determined. This is characterized by three types of orientations: a *quest* for knowledge; *accomplishment* referring to the satisfaction of successfully achieving a challenging goal; and *stimulation*, referring to enjoyment of the task (Vallerand 2000; Noels 2001). Extrinsic motivation is more instrumental in nature and reflects a willingness to engage in a task to achieve a specific outcome; it is driven by perceived *rewards* and *threats*, and classified according to the level of external regulation from introjected and identified regulation to an integrated regulation which reflects the most control-reflecting informed choice. An example of this would be making a decision to learn a language because it has personal value (Ryan and Deci 2000). While in language learning studies motivational research has focused on social *contact*, *needs*, *orientations*, *second-language use* and *non-linguistic outcomes* (Noels et al. 1999, 2001; Noels 2001; Pae 2008), SDT has facilitated the shift to more complex models of motivation that include *strategies*, *self-perceptions* and *autonomy*, which are aspects characteristic

of many current investigations into motivation (McIntosh and Noels 2004; Busse and Walter 2013).

1.4 *The Process Oriented Period*

Another significant move in motivational theorizing in the 1990s came from Williams and Burden (1997). They proposed a *social constructivist model* of motivation which, in the words of Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011), was an example of the ‘paradigm-seeking spirit’ of the 1990s (p. 53). The model was informed by a range of theorizing in mainstream motivation research, so it also includes aspects of SDT. The aim of the model was to move away from the conceptualization of motivation as a wholly individual characteristic and to try to account for the context in which the individual is located (Williams et al. 2013). Their framework included a detailed model of *internal* and *external factors* influencing motivation. Internal factors included intrinsic *interest*, perceived *value*, *agency*, *mastery*, *self-concept* attitudes and *affect* while the external factors included the *influence* of significant others, the nature of *interaction*, the *learning environment* and the broad *communicative context* of the language. Notable in this model was the attempt to focus on the *temporal dimension* of motivation. Language learning is a lengthy process with learners needing to engage in study for several years to achieve a workable level of communicative competence. In Williams and Burden’s model, the motivational process comprises three stages: *reason* for learning the language, making a *decision* to learn the language and sustaining *effort* over time in learning the language (Williams and Burden 1997).

Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) put forward the *process model* of L2 motivation designed to capture its dynamic nature. This was further developed in Dörnyei (Dörnyei 2000a, b, 2001). This complex model also has three stages: the *pre-actional* phase, the *actional* phase and the *post-actional* phase. The pre-actional phase reflects the activation of motivation. This stage includes goals and influences on intention leading to engagement with the task. The actional phase reflects executive motivational influences. In this stage, motivation is ‘maintained’ and ‘protected’ from distractions (Dörnyei 2005). The post-actional phase reflects evaluation of the action. In this stage, the learner evaluates the process, which then informs future goals.

1.5 *Socio-Dynamic Era*

Dörnyei’s fourth phase of motivational research reflects current thinking and research in L2 motivation. The central tenet of this paradigm is a move from a linear view of motivation to a more complex set of interrelated learning and contextual variables. Previous approaches to motivation viewed motivation and language

achievement as a cause-and-effect relationship, in which motivation leads to language learning. So by researching what motivates a group of language learners, the findings could be applied to enhance teaching and learning of a larger sample of learners. Such a view of research and application demands a quantitative research paradigm. Through inferential statistical analysis of quantitative data, generalizations can be made to the population of possible participants. But only a limited number of variables can be included in such research designs, and responses need to be quantifiable. Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) claim such an approach cannot possibly capture the complex nature of motivation with particular reference to the myriad contextual influences on language learning, such as setting and time. The 2000s witnessed the emergence of studies that take a more situated approach to motivational research, attempting to consider the instructional, cultural and social dimensions of language learning and use. Of note are Ushioda's (2009) *person-in-context relational view* of motivation, and Dörnyei's (2005) *motivational self-system*.

1.6 Ushioda's Person-in-Context Perspective

Ushioda proposes a view of L2 motivation that places the emphasis on the *individuality* of language learners within their *environment* rather than viewing motivation as an inherent individual characteristic. She presents the view of a language learner possessing other *identities* aside from that of L2 learner, for example professional and personal interest roles. She argues that motivation and identity are informed by this role complex. She views motivation as relational and classes it as organic rather than linear, since it is informed by the individual's unique persona and history (Ushioda 2009, 2012). However, researching this is challenging and to date there is limited empirical evidence. The move toward a more situated model of L2 motivation is slowly developing in current research studies and will be discussed below.

1.7 Dörnyei's Motivational Self-System

Characteristic of L2 motivation research in the current socio-dynamic era is Dörnyei and colleagues' work on the motivated self-system (Dörnyei 2005). The model is informed by L2 motivation research and research into self-constructs from psychology, notably the work of Markus and Nurius (1986). Central to the model is the notion of an individual's *perception of self*, with a present and future focus. Thus individuals set goals based on their perceived future self, what they would like to be. Dörnyei refers to real and ought-to-be selves which encapsulate affect, such as guilt, anxiety, and self-concept. The model comprises three components. The first is the *ideal L2 self*. If the language learner has a vision of a person who is a competent communicator in the L2, this can exert a powerful motivational force. The notion of vision is a very interesting new development in the field and is discussed below.

The second component is the *ought-to-be self*, which reflects what a person feels they ought to be to avoid possible negative outcomes. The third aspect of the model is the *L2 learning experience*, which reflects contextual issues such as the curriculum, teacher and peer group pressure. Dörnyei theorized that these are the three sources of motivation. So a motivated L2 learner would have a vision of him/herself as an effective L2 user, accept social pressure from the environment and have positive learning experiences (Dörnyei and Ushioda 2011). These three foci of motivation have greatly influenced current L2 motivation research.

1.8 Approach-and-Avoid Motivation

Motivation is not always positive. In educational psychology in the late 1990s, a multiple goals perspective was introduced, which included approach-and-avoid dimensions (Midgley 2002). In goal theory the internal/external distinction was conceptualized as mastery goals (also known as task goals) and performance goals. In a task goal, conceptualization learners are motivated by an interest in learning itself or the learning task. In a performance orientation learners are motivated by comparing themselves to their peers. A performance approach goal reflects a drive to be the best in the class and to outperform others, whereas a performance-avoid goal reflects a desire not to be viewed as incompetent. This conceptualization has been applied in language learning (Woodrow 2006; Cid et al. 2009).

2 Current Perspectives on Motivation

Current research into motivation is varied and attempts to provide an in-depth situated perspective on what motivates L2 learners and how this can be facilitated, a focus which was lacking in previous research.

Dörnyei's work on the motivational self-system has generated a lot of research and there is now considerable empirical evidence for his model. Taguchi et al. (2009) conducted a study that validated the system across three cultures:: Iran, China and Japan. Ryan (2009) conducted a study with English learners in Japan, the results of which support the motivated self-system model and provide evidence for the importance of the ideal self as a motivator. Henry and Cliffordson (2013) extended the concept of motivated selves and found an influence of gender on self-construal.

2.1 *Vision*

Emerging from research into possible selves, a central tenet of this theoretical model is the notion of *vision*. This is defined as “the sensory experience of a future goal state, or in other words, a personalized goal that the learner has made his/her own by adding to it the imagined reality of the goal experience” (Dörnyei and Chan 2013, pp. 454–455). Vision acts as a motivational force: a learner is spurred on to put in effort and sustain this effort by an image of a future self. Dörnyei and Chan (2013) found relationships between variables of vision and future self-identity. The notion of vision is appealing in a practical and pedagogical way, and the application of this theoretical framework to practice sits well with communicative and humanistic approaches to language learning. Dörnyei and Kubanyiova’s (2014) book aimed at language teachers addresses this from the perspective of both the teacher and the learner. Hadfield and Dörnyei (2013) provide a volume of teaching materials aimed at facilitating positive future selves and vision.

2.2 *Role of English*

Prior to the beginning of this century, motivational research did not differentiate between languages. Gardner’s research used English-speaking Canadians learning French, whose ultimate goal was to achieve native speaker-like competence. The notion of integrativeness was salient as it was assumed motivated learners identified with French speakers. Today language learning is not so strongly influenced by geographical location. The most widely learned language in the world is English, yet most learners will not live in English-speaking countries or interact with native English speakers. English plays a prominent role in the globalized world; it is the dominant language of the internet and academic publications. Children worldwide learn English from an increasingly early age and may have 10 or more years of formal institutional English language learning. Language learning is an essential element of a young person’s education. Passing an English exam is often a prerequisite for graduation. This puts English into a very different category from other languages. The role it plays obviously may influence the motivation of its learners. However, the pressure to learn English can have a negative effect leading to demotivation (Falout et al. 2009).

2.3 *Directed Motivational Current*

A very recent construct in motivation theorizing is the notion of *directed motivational current* (DMC), put forward by Muir and Dörnyei (2013). DMC is defined as “a motivational surge of energy which can focus action towards a specific target in

the future". Vision provides the direction and focus for motivation. DMC is relevant in all types of endeavours, for example, an athlete preparing for an event, or a student doing a PhD. This approach links well with the view of second language acquisition as a complex dynamic system, and can capture the link between the cognitive, social and environmental influences. Dynamic Systems theory is the major strand in a recent edited book about the dynamics of motivation language learning (Dörnyei et al. 2015) and promises to open future avenues of research.

2.4 Methodological Shift

Traditionally L2 motivation research has used quantitative methods. A questionnaire about personal motivational beliefs is typically given to participants and the data is analysed using inferential statistical methods, so generalizations can then be made to a wider population of language learners. In recent years, structural equation modelling has been favoured. This sophisticated analytical technique can generate causal models of relationships between a range of variables. This is useful because it is hard to isolate motivation from other related variables, such as self-efficacy and anxiety (Woodrow 2006, 2011). However, even complex structural models cannot account for the dynamic and contextually influenced nature of motivation. The how and why of L2 motivation fluctuate over time: learning a language takes many years and much persistence, thus to capture the contextual and situated nature of L2 motivation, different research methods are required. Since the beginning of this century more mixed methods and qualitative research have emerged, taking a more social-cultural view of L2 motivation. For example, Gao (2013) used retrospective narrative analysis of learner diary entries; Ushioda (2001) used content analysis of interview data to explore learners views on their motivation; Busse and Water (2013) used a longitudinal mixed methods design to investigate the changes over time experienced by students learning German.

2.5 Teachers Motivating Learners

In the move to address contextual issues in motivation research, attention has focused on how to facilitate motivation rather than merely describe learners' motivation. There are two main areas of focus: how teachers can motivate learners and how teaching approaches and practices can motivate learners.

The role of the teacher in the L2 classroom is hugely important. In many EFL classrooms the teacher may be the only model of the language the students encounter. The first consideration of the teacher's influence on motivating learners came from Dörnyei and Csizér (1998). On the basis of empirical research, they generated a list of 51 strategies clustered into ten macro strategies which describe the range of

ways teachers motivate learners. These were labelled as the ‘ten commandments’ for L2 teachers to facilitate L2 motivation. These are as follows:

1. Set a personal example with your own behaviour
2. Create a pleasant, relaxed atmosphere in the classroom
3. Present the tasks properly
4. Develop a good relationship with the learners
5. Increase the learners’ linguistic self-confidence
6. Make the language classes interesting
7. Promote learner autonomy
8. Personalize the learning process
9. Increase the learners’ goal-orientedness
10. Familiarize learners with the target language culture

Further empirical support for motivational strategies was provided by Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) with EFL learners in Taiwan; Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) with learners in South Korea; Sugita and Takeuchi (2010) with EFL learners in Japan; and Moskovsky et al. (2012) with EFL learners in Saudi Arabia.

Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) developed the Motivation Orientation of Language Teaching (MOLT) scheme, which is a classroom observation scheme (Guilloteaux 2013). This was further validated by Papi and Abdollahzadeh (2012) with English learners in Iran.

2.6 Content Based Learning (CBI) and Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL)

The other very important area in the contextualizing of motivation is that of what is taught. It seems common sense that the content of what is taught in language classes should be interesting and stands to influence motivation. This is particularly the case in formal school settings where research indicates that student motivation tends to diminish over time (Williams et al. 2001). One solution to stimulating motivation is to use Content-based Instruction (CBI) and Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL). These approaches combine the teaching of content through language. Banegas (2012) argues a strong case for these approaches to be used in English language teaching. Lasagabaster (2011) found evidence that CLIL facilitated motivation and achievement.

2.7 *Technology and the Digital Age*

With the rise of English as a lingua franca, English is often used in very different ways outside the classroom, as Henry (2013) found in his investigation of Swedish school age learners of English. Young people use social media, the Internet and on-line games in their leisure time, often in English. This indicates an authenticity gap between the in- and out-of-class language use settings (Henry 2013). Gee refers to the motivational energy generated by computer games (2008) which seems akin to Dörnyei's DMCs. Henry argues that computer games could be exploited to learn English.

In a similar vein, technology can enhance motivation in and out of the classroom. Computer based language learning (CALL) is not new. It has been around since the 1980s, but with the rapid development of technology and social media, new perspectives on this have emerged. Today new acronyms are becoming current, such as *mobile assisted language learning* (MALL), which utilizes smart phone and ipad technologies, or *technology enabled language learning* (TELL), which covers a wide range of technological applications. There is a huge array of technology-enabled possibilities that can be used in language teaching. Internet-based learning management systems, such as Blackboard, are used to implement and manage learning, while Twitter and Facebook connect communities in realtime and may be accessed by a range of devices from anywhere. There is a wealth of literature to support the use of these from a pedagogical viewpoint. However, there are issues from a motivational viewpoint. There is a novelty effect which the introduction of new technology undoubtedly produces, but still a great deal is to be considered about the relationship between motivation and technology and to date there is a shortage of research into their relationship, dealt with by Weinberg in this volume. Crucial research questions, for example, are how engagement can be maintained and with which type of technology (Stockwell 2013).

Motivation theory and research have developed very quickly this century and the future promises to follow in this vein as L2 motivation is conceptualized and researched in more complex and situated ways. This chapter has examined the emergence of and changes in thinking about L2 motivation to date. The following chapters explore some of the issues raised in this here in more depth.

Questions for Reflection on Future Teaching Practice

1. Think about ways that you can assess your students' motivation. How can you check whether your students are motivated? How can you find out what motivates your students?
2. Think about how each of Dörnyei's commandments for motivational teaching strategies could be implemented in your class.
3. What materials could you use to enhance your students' motivation?
4. What teaching methods could you use to enhance your students' motivation?

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Essential Motivational Group Dynamics: A 3-Year Panel Study

Yoshifumi Fukada, Tim Murphey, Joseph Falout, and Tetsuya Fukuda

Abstract Using the lens of Dynamic Systems Theory (DST) we look at longitudinal survey results over a 3-year period for EFL students at Japanese universities. This panel study measured motivational changes across single semesters, using multiple measures. Our surveys contain questions to investigate what we call Present Communities of Imagining (PCOIz), which is an actively sharing and imagining classroom community, within which each individual's three notional mind-time frames of English-learning motivation interact among themselves and among those of others inside the classroom. These mind-time frames are the antecedent conditions of the learners, present investments inside and outside of class, and possible future selves.

Our teaching methods involve highly interactive activities that address the three mind-time frames explicitly, and we regularly return students' information back to them through the process called critical participatory looping. We find that the dynamic system of interacting attractors of the three mind-time frames of motivation becomes more positive over time, given good group dynamics, and that the students' motivations tend to resonate and harmonize with each other the longer they are together. These results seem to support our hypothesis that returning self-information back to students creates healthier Socially Intelligent Dynamic Systems (SINDYS) within the classroom.

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Keywords Motivational changes • Investment • Possible selves • Social learning • Panel study • Dynamic systems theory • Communities • PCOIZ • SINDYS • CPL

1 Introduction

Many teachers intuitively know in practice what researchers in educational psychology are just beginning to understand in theory – student motivation is dynamic. Each student's motivation is a complex and dynamic system, and each classroom has its own complex system of group dynamics involving the motivations of the people gathered there. For second language (L2) motivation theory, in particular, the traditional notion of motivation as a fixed and innate quality of the individual is being replaced by the nascent notion of a changeable and exchangeable social construction (Dörnyei and Ushioda 2011). Such a conception naturally places modern research on L2 motivation in the uncertain terrain of nonlinear, complex, and chaotic systems theory. Also known as Dynamic Systems Theory (DST), this conceptual terrain has only been breached theoretically and implicationally for L2 learning theory (e.g., Ellis and Larsen-Freeman 2009), with some footpaths under construction for L2 learner motivation types (e.g., Dörnyei 2011), short-term L2 motivation changes (e.g., MacIntyre and Legato 2011), and long-term L2 motivation changes (e.g., Paiva 2011).

Between 2010 and 2012, in our communicatively oriented English classes at universities in Japan, we administered formative surveys at the beginning and end of each of the first semesters. Several times we also asked qualitative questions to our students in the second semester, after we had given them their first semester data back and asked for their reflections about it. These repeated-measures analyses, with quantitative and qualitative methods, were intended to follow the non-linear development of motivational mind-time frames: students' pasts (antecedent conditions of the learner; ACLs), students' presents (investments inside and outside of class), and students' future images (possible selves). Group interactions within classrooms can promote the healthy development of each individual student's three motivational mind-time frames. Developing into and evolving from each individual student's motivational system is the classroom system of motivational group dynamics, a framework displayed in Fig. 1 that we call *Present Communities of Imagining* (PCOIZ; Murphey 2009; Murphey and Falout 2013; Murphey et al. 2012).

Tracing these measurements across time, we attempt to look at the motivational trajectory holistically within and across individuals and contexts, which may help uncover the signature dynamics in these systems. The aim is to clarify how classroom PCOIZ helped increase the emerging, non-linear co-adaptation of socially situated motivation across one semester. This chapter will explore how learners' L2 motivations are co-constructed socially (i.e., intermentally) and change personally (i.e., intramentally) through emergent processes that can be explained through a DST interpretation of group dynamics.

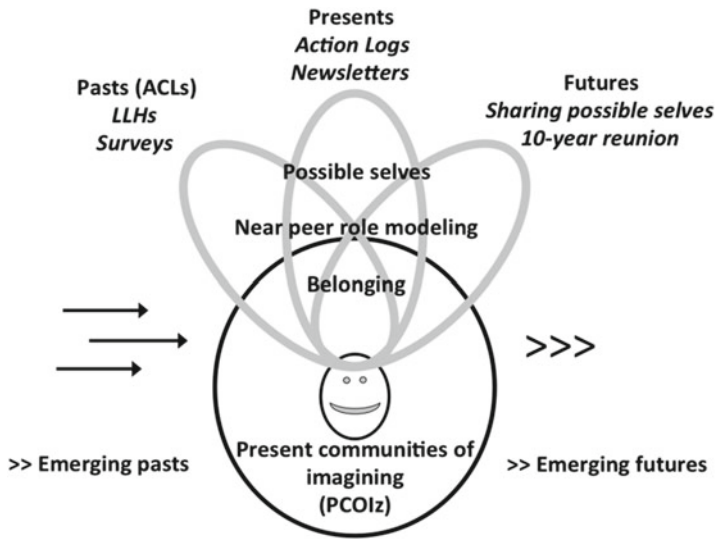


Fig. 1 Three motivational mind-time frames in PCOIZ (Falout 2016; Falout et al. 2013a, b; Fukuda et al. 2012; Murphey and Falout 2013; Murphey et al. 2012) (Reprint permission given by Palgrave Macmillan, Multilingual Matters, The Japan Association for Language Teaching, and Wiley-Blackwell)

2 DST of PCOIZ

Below we describe elements of DST that we think help to explain the classroom group dynamics, i.e., PCOIZ, starting with the three motivational mind-time frames explained as three attractors.

2.1 Attractors

Motivation is a dynamic system that naturally fluctuates and can be unstable, yet over long periods of time the fluctuations can be seen to operate within a narrow range, showing resilience to large changes caused by external forces upon the system. Stabilizing forces within dynamic systems are known as attractors. An attractor within a motivational system guides the trajectory of motivation toward the same basin of attraction, maintaining a certain motivational state over time. Systems can have more than one attractor. This means that individuals can have multiple guiding attractors of motivation, each attractor of different sizes (range of influence) and strengths (degree of influence). Different properties and combinations of motivational attractors can show apparent conflicts or inconsistencies in a person’s motivated thoughts and behaviours (Vallacher and Nowak 2009). For L2 learning, such inconsistencies might be seen in rhythmical starts and stops in studying, oscillations

of identifying and dis-identifying with classroom values, and a result of minimal growth in language ability. Conversely, a more stable set of positive-influencing motivational attractors would promote diligence in studies and growth in abilities.

Many students of English as a foreign language (EFL) in Japan can go through 6 years of secondary education and 4 years of tertiary education, exposed to variances in teachers, classmates, and curricula, yet retain a relatively narrow range of affective and behavioural patterns regarding the states of their EFL motivations across the years. Resistance to external influences that would seem to change the state of a system suggests the presence of an attractor (Vallacher and Nowak 2009). We see each of the three motivational mind-time frames within PCOIZ as three separate but interrelating attractors. These are domain-specific (i.e., school subject) learning-related images that students have of themselves in their pasts (ACLs), presents (investments inside and outside of class), and futures (possible selves), each described below.

Antecedent Conditions of the Learner (ACLs) Students' ACLs are their thoughts, feelings, and images of themselves relating to their past learning abilities and experiences. ACLs function as academic emotional baggage, meaning that students carry these past-formed learning identities with them into whatever present learning experiences they have with the potential to influence them in their new experiences for better or worse (Carpenter et al. 2009; Falout et al. 2013a, b). The ACL construct may act as an attractor in a very important way. It seems to have an influence on motivational self-beliefs specifically relating to affective states and self-regulated learning behaviours that develop and persist over years (Carpenter et al. 2009; Falout et al. 2009), denoting an attractor within the system.

Present Investments Students' investments pertain to ongoing socially constructed identities that form their present effort and commitment to learning with the expectation of a return, especially from increasing cultural and social capital. This implies that the more learners pour their hearts into their learning, the more they anticipate rewards in the form of knowledge and ways (e.g., cultures demarked by class structures, local values, target language skills) that make them more acceptable or accessible to different cultural groups the learners wish to belong to transnationally or interculturally (Norton and McKinney 2011). This attractor comprises the engagement and gains in effort toward learning situated within the living present. Norton and McKinney (2011) state that an individual's investment can be ambivalent and even contradictory.

Possible Selves Students' possible selves are their thoughts, feelings, and images of themselves related to their future abilities and situations that are associated with the learning. These images can be multiple and of varying types, including expected, feared, and hoped for future circumstances (Markus and Nurius 1986). For learning languages, Dörnyei's (2009) L2 motivational self system recognizes the power of these future self images, specifically an Ideal L2 Self as an integrative motivator aiming toward belonging to a future community that relies on L2 use, and an

Ought-to L2 Self propelling toward socially expected goals and away from negative developments. Possible selves act as a motivational attractor so powerful they can guide those struggling with at-risk academic backgrounds and lifestyles toward successful results (e.g., Dunkel and Kerpelman 2006; Oyserman et al. 2006).

2.2 *Feedback*

Feedback between the systems' components is apparent within the PCOIZ framework and related pedagogies. We conceive of the classroom itself as an open system with the students and teachers as components, and each student is also an open system with psychological components. In our classrooms, students explicitly discuss their language learning psychologies with their classmates. This includes their language learning histories (pasts), their ways of learning and using English now (presents), and their goals and aspirations regarding English (futures). These activities helped the components of these open systems – mainly the students and their feelings about learning – to communicate about themselves.

2.3 *Fractalization*

Fractalization, self-similar patterning, spreads across scales of at least two types of open systems functioning under optimal PCOIZ conditions. Interpersonal conditions specify the *intermental* system, and psychological conditions specify the *intramental* system. In the activities, students begin to make sense of their own individual pasts, presents, and futures regarding English in relation to others' pasts, presents, and futures regarding English. As these subjective meanings are co-constructed socially, new patterns of related thinking emerge between the students' culture of learning (intermental system) and within their individual psychologies (intramental system). These new patterns then become similar or shared across the different scales of these systems.

2.4 *Self-Organization*

Self-organization further excites the system and generates its own agency. Students' views of their own pasts, presents, and futures naturally become shaped and reshaped as they exchange ideas via social learning. As students begin to organize their thinking about themselves they experience individual agency. And as they realize they are helping each other do this, a sense of collective agency also emerges. These re-organizations thus bring sensations of interrelatedness, hope, pathways thinking, and individual and collective agency.

2.5 Phase Transition

Phase transition of increased jumps in motivations occurs from positive changes to the three mind-time frame attractors across the classroom open systems. Students make sense for themselves as they see their own motivational footprints of where they have come from and where they are going to in their language learning. This understanding helps to reform their scattered senses of themselves in relation to their learning into a self-integrated self of past, present, and future. This transition of self-actualization appears to happen within the individuals and resonate across the classrooms in spontaneous synchronization, stemming from emotional contagion and aspirational contagion. Such in-phase couplings or hysteresis are seen in many interpersonal dynamics, such as the syncing of plans, goals, opinions, moods, and actions, particularly when people feel positive regard toward each other (Vallacher and Nowak 2009).

3 Methodology

Our surveys measured students' three mind-time frames of past, present and future motivations, aiming at understanding how these might be co-constructed with other students' three mind-time frames through mutual engagement in English class activities. The related data were collected for 3 years (2010, 2011, and 2012; e.g., see Fukada et al. 2011; Fukuda et al. 2012; Murphey et al. 2012) in a consistent manner in several undergraduate English communication courses we annually teach in the Japanese tertiary context using the following procedures.

First, we administered a pre-survey at the beginning of the first semesters to measure the learners' perceptions of English and English-learning developed in their three mind-time frames of past, present, and future, on a six-point Likert scale (see Murphey et al. 2012 for detailed information). Second, every class lesson offered small-group activities to promote social interaction and positive group dynamics. Also we occasionally offered opportunities to reflect, imagine, and share their EFL-related perceptions of past, present, and future selves (see the Sect. 6). At the end of the semester, we administered a post-survey by using the same questionnaire to investigate changes within their three mind-time frames. In some of the classes in the following semester, we also looped back these research results to the students with the process called critical participatory looping (Murphey and Falout 2010) to provide students with self-referential feedback, and elicited both quantitatively and qualitatively their perceptions of the research results.

We tried to measure the shift in students' perceptions using a multiple measures approach. Over the course of the 3-year sample represented in this study, we altered and added some questions to the survey to increase validity of the constructs and to investigate potential influences of other motivational factors. Therefore the comprehensive analysis of this study recognized these increases and changes by including every question related to the three mind-time frames that were used during the course of the 3 years of study.

4 Results

4.1 Quantitative Data Analysis

The quantitative data were collected for 3 years (2010: $n=462$; 2011: $n=403$; 2012: $n=486$; Total: $N=1351$). They measured changes within our students' three mind-time frames of motivation, which are socially influenced attractors for each student's personal system. By collecting the data both in the beginning and end of the first semester as pre- and post-surveys respectively, we explored how their different types of motivations transformed across one semester.

4.1.1 Pre-survey Results

The compilation of 3 years' pre-survey results (Fig. 2, see Tables 1 and 2 for detailed information) shows that many of the students visualized they would be using English in their future lives and careers, even at the beginning of the semester (Possible selves: $M=3.99$). Their perceptions of themselves in relation to English, theorized as developing through their past experiences, were moderately positive (ACL: $M=3.72$). They felt that they participated moderately in the English class activities

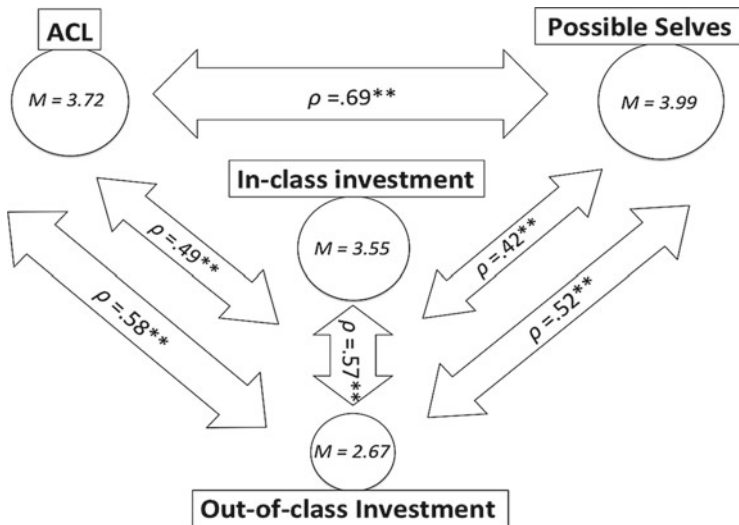


Fig. 2 Semester start measurements aggregated over 3 years (cf. Falout et al. 2013a, b; Fukada et al. 2011, 2012; Murphey et al. 2012 for the single-year [2010] pre-survey results) (Reprint permission given by Multilingual Matters, Palgrave Macmillan, The Japan Association for Language Teaching, and Multilingual Matters). Notes: Likert scale of 1 = negative, 6 = positive; ** Correlation is significant at $p < 0.01$. Sizes of the bubbles and arrows are proportionate to the numbers within them

Table 1 Effect sizes of transformations of three mind-time frames across one semester

	Descriptive statistics			Wilcoxon signed-rank test		
	Pre-survey	Post-survey	Diff.	Z	p	r
ACL						
<i>M</i>	3.72	3.99	0.27			
<i>Md</i>	3.83	4.00	0.17	-12.24	.000	0.25
<i>Std. Dev.</i>	1.21	1.13				
<i>n</i>	1264	1047				
In-class investment						
<i>M</i>	3.55	4.01	0.46			
<i>Md</i>	3.50	4.00	0.50	-13.04	.000	0.27
<i>Std. Dev.</i>	1.24	1.12				
<i>n</i>	1276	1055				
Out-of-class investment						
<i>M</i>	2.67	3.18	0.51			
<i>Md</i>	2.50	3.17	0.67	-15.53	.000	0.32
<i>Std. Dev.</i>	1.16	1.17				
<i>n</i>	1266	1047				
Possible selves						
<i>M</i>	3.99	4.08	0.09			
<i>Md</i>	4.00	4.25	0.25	-3.95	.000	0.08
<i>Std. Dev.</i>	1.39	1.32				
<i>n</i>	1258	1040				

Table 2 Correlations of the transformations between three mind-time frames across one semester

		1	2	3	4
			Pre-survey		
1.	ACL	-	0.49 (1223)	0.58 (1215)	0.69 (1247)
2.	In-class investment		-	0.57 (1264)	0.42 (1215)
3.	Out-of-class investment			-	.52 (1209)
4.	Possible Selves				-
			Post-survey		
1.	ACL	-	0.62 (1039)	0.65 (1031)	0.72 (1026)
2.	In-class investment		-	0.59 (1038)	0.48 (1030)
3.	Out-of-class investment			-	0.55 (1025)
4.	Possible Selves				-

Notes: ()=n of students; Correlations in Spearman’s rho (ρ); $p < .01$

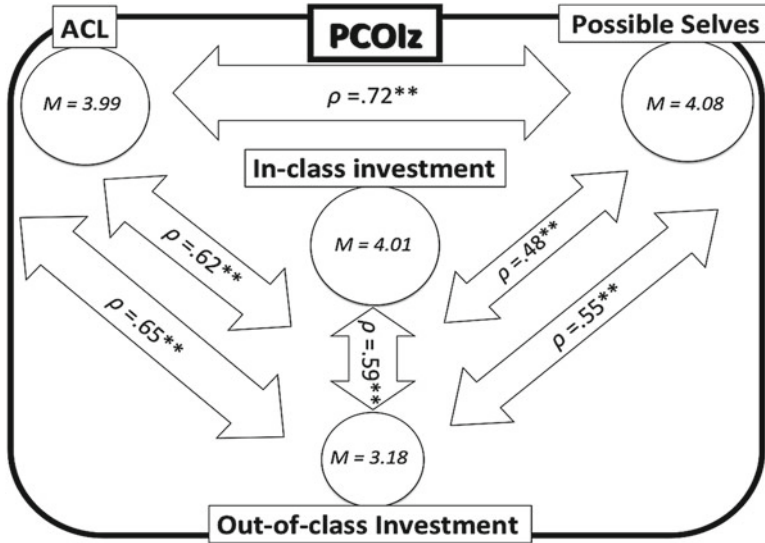


Fig. 3 Semester end measurements aggregated over 3 years (cf. Falout et al. 2013a, b; Fukada et al. 2011, 2012; Murphey et al. 2012 for the single-year [2010] post-survey results) (Reprint permission given by Multilingual Matters, Palgrave Macmillan, The Japan Association for Language Teaching, and Multilingual Matters). Notes: Likert scale of 1 = negative, 6 = positive; ** Correlation is significant at $p < 0.01$. Sizes of the bubbles and arrows are proportionate to the numbers within them

(In-class investment: $M = 3.55$), but their autonomous English-learning or use outside the classroom was reported by them to be relatively low (Out-of-class investment: $M = 2.67$).

Overall, large correlations between these attractors were recognized by the Spearman’s rank-order correlation test at the beginning of the semester. Students who had positive perceptions of their English-learning pasts were found to visualize more clearly how they would be using English in their future lives and careers (Spearman’s rho [ρ] = 0.69). Students with positive perceptions of their English-learning pasts or with clear English-related future visions were inclined to learn or use English autonomously outside the classroom ($\rho = 0.58$; $\rho = 0.52$, respectively), with slightly smaller correlations for reported active participation in English class activities ($\rho = 0.49$; $\rho = 0.42$, respectively). In addition, it was confirmed that students who participated actively in English class activities were inclined to engage in autonomous English-learning and use outside the classroom ($\rho = 0.57$).

4.1.2 Post-survey Results

The post-survey results (Fig. 3, see Tables 1 and 2 for more detailed information) indicated that the students had more positive perceptions of English and English-learning, and had slightly clearer English-related future visions throughout the

semester (ACL: $M=3.99$; Possible selves: $M=4.08$) as their emerging pasts and futures developed potentially through engaging within the English courses. It also recognized their engagement both inside and outside the classroom with English learning (investment inside class: $M=4.01$; Out-of-class investment: $M=3.18$). While the effect size was not large (ACL: $r=0.25$; In-class investment: $r=0.27$; Out-of-class investment: $r=0.32$; Possible selves: $r=0.08$), the increase of all of the attractors of students' motivational systems throughout the semester was found by the Wilcoxon rank order test to be statistically significant. Along with the positive increases of all the attractors, all of the correlations between them became even larger, resonating together in self-consistency.

We interpreted these results as showing an increased self-integration of our students' notions of their pasts, presents, and futures related to English and English-learning. We hypothesized that the increase in the positivity of these three attractors stemmed from the students' reflection on their past English-learning, social interactions, collaborative work in their presents, and the imagining of their English-related futures in the open-system classroom communities, which we call PCOIZ.

4.2 *Qualitative Data Analysis*

As a qualitative side of our theorizing students' group-framing of English-learning motivation within their PCOIZ, we asked our students open-ended questions to figure out to what extent they felt a sense of belonging to the class, and also what impact their classmates may have had on them. Understanding the students' own perceptions is indispensable to theorizing group framing of English-learning motivation within PCOIZ. This is particularly important since students' sense of belonging to their PCOIZ and their intermental reflecting, socializing, collaborating, and imagining may often go unnoticed by teachers, or the opposite, in that teachers might falsely imagine what their students are imagining. Next we summarize the results from two of these open-ended questions.

4.2.1 **The Students' Sense of Belonging**

In a looping activity administered in the second semester, 2010, sharing the pre- and post-survey results with students, we asked students directly: "Do you think the students in the classroom became a community to share dreams of learning English? If 'yes,' why? If 'no,' why not?" We received 159 comments from 186 students who had been with us first semester and were continuing with us in the second semester. These comments were separated into 171 semantic segments based on their content. From 171 semantic segments, 85.96% ($n=147$) were effectively responding "Yes, I think the classroom became a community," with 14.04% ($n=24$) effectively responding "No, I don't think the classroom became a community." Many of the

Table 3 Effects of imagining ideal L2 classmates (%)

Positive change	No change	Negative change	Mixed or unclear reaction	No answer	Total
77.75	4.34	0.29	2.31	15.32	100.00
(<i>n</i> = 269)	(<i>n</i> = 15)	(<i>n</i> = 1)	(<i>n</i> = 8)	(<i>n</i> = 53)	(<i>n</i> = 346)

positive comments related to the students’ awareness of their motivations being co-constructed intermentally:

Yes. We think it was because we were able to strengthen our motivation together through group work.

I think we became a community. I think it’s because we enjoyed being able to speak and understand English, even if we don’t have much knowledge of basic English grammar or English vocabulary.

Some students reported that interacting with their classmates inspired them. Finding out that others had similar learning experiences validated many students’ feelings about what was happening to them by participating in the class:

Yes, because we actually do. And we all have high motivation for study English, and share it, and make them higher interactive.

Yes. Unlike at high school, there are students who share the same ideas about learning English at college, so we can stimulate each other.

Another source of inspiration came from finding out the differences between them and their peers.

In [This University], people can speak English so if I can’t speak English, I envy everyone. So I want to study more and more.

Yes, we talked about our future dreams in medium of English, and I was inspired from my partners’ dream. It made me think I need to do more learning like him!!

These qualitative data show that positive PCOIZ can work well when students are open to diversity in their memberships.

4.2.2 Student-Reported Changes in PCOIZ

In the year 2012, we asked students at the end of the first semester the following open-ended question:

Please describe any changes you have made during this semester in your behaviour or attitudes toward your classmates. What influences do you think these changes may have had on your classmates, relationships in and out of class, and your English learning?

As a result of coding the students’ answers (*N* = 346), we confirmed that 77.75 % (*n* = 269) of the students felt that they changed positively throughout the semester (See Table 3).

The students’ comments categorized as *positive change* (*n* = 269, 77.75 %) were further analyzed by coding them (separating each student’s comment into semantic segments and categorizing them) to clarify what kind of positive effects the students

Table 4 Five different types of positive change through learning with their classmates (%)

1. Belonging, fellowship, community	2. Positive affect toward English and English use	3. Increased English skills/competence	4. Collaborative actions, effort, and engagement in English-learning/use inside the classroom	5. Collaborative actions, effort, and engagement in English-learning/use outside the classroom	Total
28.46 (<i>n</i> = 140)	38.62 (<i>n</i> = 190)	7.52 (<i>n</i> = 37)	22.76 (<i>n</i> = 112)	2.64 (<i>n</i> = 13)	100.00 (<i>n</i> = 492)

felt they had through learning English with their classmates. The results revealed five different types of positive effects (see Table 4).

It was notable that many of the students stated in their comments that more than one type of positive change occurred, as below:

Before I entered university, I only studied reading and listening, so I didn't have many chances to speak English, and I was poor at it. However, all through this semester, I talked in English with my classmates whose abilities are similar, and we helped each other. So, we became friends and successfully improved our speaking skills. Above all, I became active in studying English.

Consistent with the 3 years' quantitative results, it was recognized that students also felt their English-learning motivation and their English learning were strengthened and supported by their classmates.

5 Discussion

Through describing what we have called PCOIZ and looking more closely at the affordances through the lens of DST, we are led to propose the additional concept of **Socially Intelligent Dynamic Systems (SINDYS)** (Murphey 2013). Many dynamic systems (the weather, bird migrations, etc.) cannot reflect on data about themselves, whereas a group of people can potentially benefit from getting certain information about themselves. While getting information only about oneself may be helpful, it can be significantly more helpful to also have the information about those in a peer cohort in order to compare and reflect upon possible changes to our lifestyles. Group framing of motivation goes hand in hand with the critical participatory looping processes (Murphey and Falout 2010) of looping information back to the group for promoting active SINDYS. We also propose that individuals and groups vary between active and passive SINDYS that ideally adjust appropriately with the affordances offered by changing contexts (Fig. 4). Thus, we see ecological worth in being able to work both socially and introvertedly (Falout et al. 2016), to be both active and passive at times, in our dynamically changing worlds (Fig. 5).

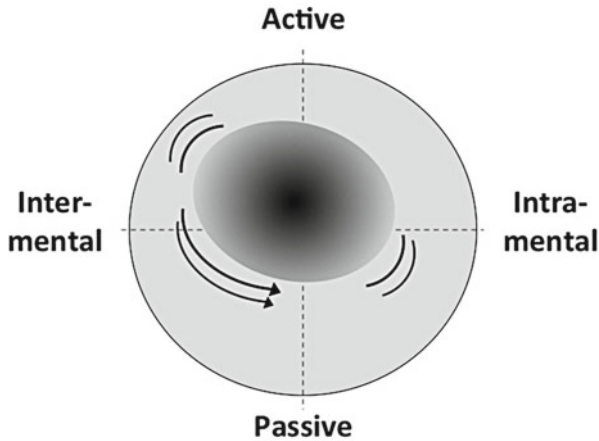


Fig. 4 Dynamic continuums of a SINDYS (Falout et al. 2016) (Reprint permission given by Springer)

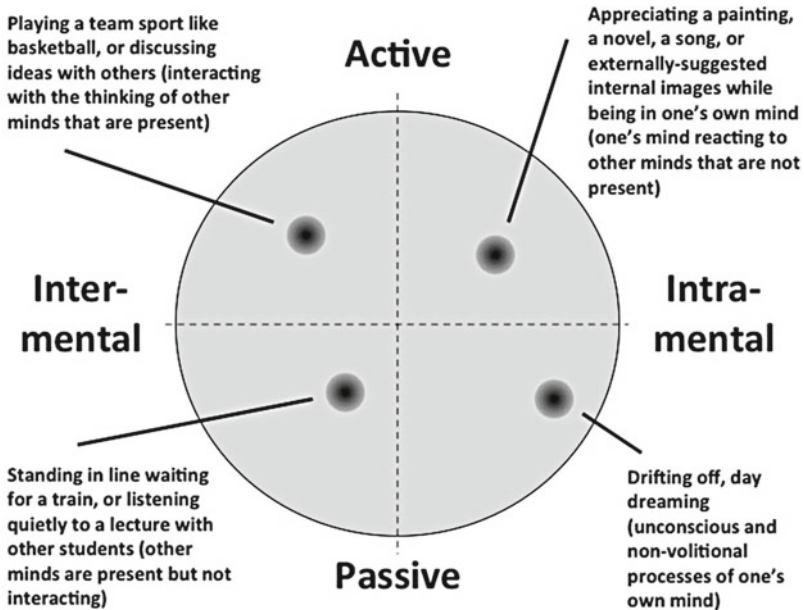


Fig. 5 Dynamic and ecological positioning for needs (Falout et al. 2016) (Reprint permission given by Springer)

We propose that a class can be an *active* SINDYS when class members are capable of doing the following:

- *gathering, communicating, and reflecting* on data about themselves.
- *interacting* with other SINDYS (e.g., other classmates, groups, and classes) and learning from them, while stimulating more feedback.

- *accepting* that improvements in themselves are incremental and at times negatively oriented (i.e., there will be regressions, lapses, and dysfunctions to deal with).
- *imagining* being in the place of others (theory of mind), dreaming, pretending and playing.
- *agentizing* the agents (group members), which at times permits them to strive even in the face of overwhelming adversity (quixotically).
- *syncing* individuals' agency together in groups and teams, creating group agency, a form of social capital.

We realize that in many educational systems SINDYS may be overly dormant, i.e., inactive. If students are only processing introvertedly while in a group (e.g., while listening to a lecture) they are not capitalizing on the affordances of being in a group. Teachers who pause every so often to ask students to summarize in pairs and small groups what they have just said in the lecture, are inviting a different mode of thinking and interaction that can complement their students' introverted intelligences.

PCOIZ with their three attractors of motivational mind-time frames also fit into our picture of SINDYS. As mentioned previously, motivation has long been studied as an individual trait, and our research is telling us that while the individual certainly retains a lot of potential agency, actually much more weight than previous research recognizes belongs to the influence of the groups that we participate in. Our research on motivational mind-time frames tells us that each notional mind-time frame within individuals influences the other mind-time frames, and that group members influence each other, even deeper within their personal mind-time frames. Especially when the classroom system gets stimulated with much inter-member interaction and shared information, students' positive feelings and motivations seem to resonate and increase. Developing respectful democratic relationships can help people balance both expressing their individual agency and aligning themselves with others through group agency. We find that SINDYS using critical participatory looping show respect for the individual and the group by including individual and group information for further reflection.

Conceptualizing the three-dimensional motivational mind-time frames as attractors, and offering feedback about them to the students, can make the attractors more positive and lead to a phase transition. Such a phase transition occurs at a tipping point when components synchronize. This syncing is also amplified by emotional and aspiration contagion (Murphey 2012), especially with near peer role models (Murphey and Arao 2001), sparking transitions (shifts) in whole groups and individuals by syncing not only their present behaviours but also notions of their pasts and aspired-to futures. This syncing, we think, is a signature dynamic of a SINDYS that is able to create information about itself and reflect and act upon it. It is worth stressing again that our research suggests that it is not only the present positive behaviour that syncs, but also participants' aspirational imaginations and ultimately their useful interpretations of their pasts (e.g., that we can learn useful things from our mistakes).

The three motivational mind-time frames, when stimulated and communicated in groups, can begin syncing (i.e., falling into rapport) among group members due in part to the flow of social feedback, along with the fractalization, or scaling, of intramental and intermental processing. This information also allows self-organization of both individual and collective agency, from which emerge sensations of interrelatedness, hope, belonging, and pathways thinking. Cozolino (2013) writes that because our brains are social organs, “establishing a tribal classroom can be so beneficial to learning” for children (p. 11), and that elderly people “who remain connected and needed by others are far more likely to remain vital and alive” (p. 38). This suggests to us that self-consistency is important not only for notional mind-time frames, but also across each individual’s lifetime of lived experience and across each generation’s social connections to other generations.

6 Pedagogical Implications

We think our students’ interactions among themselves with using PCOIZ-based activities largely account for the positive growth in their three mind-time frames of English-learning motivation. Class activities also form one of the components of the classroom open-systems that instructors can organize to allow affordances for language practice and learning, and to influence the students’ three mind-time frames within classroom PCOIZ and SINDYS.

For example, writing and sharing their language learning histories can support students’ reflecting upon their own and others’ past learning experiences. Action logs and newsletters can facilitate students’ reflecting upon and sharing their investment in English-learning and use at present. Different types of activities for reflecting upon and sharing possible selves can promote students’ imagining of their English-related futures (details of these activities can be found in Fukada et al. 2011). Furthermore, activities based on critical participatory looping (Murphey and Falout 2010) can promote the syncing of students into active SINDYS, often giving students the agency to transform themselves and their classmates.

7 Conclusion

Our data for 3 years support the idea that interactive classrooms and critical participatory looping seem to make more positive PCOIZ and active SINDYS out of groups of students that had been at risk of being too dormant in an educational system that had ignored the affordances of socialization. The data also show increases in the motivations of individuals within situated mutual engagement, which we think is better explained as a group framing of motivation due to the PCOIZ in which they are interacting as vibrant SINDYS. PCOIZ and SINDYS could become key concepts explicating the mechanisms of group-framing of motivation, and we hope this study

stimulates further research into the power of notional mind-time frames upon learning and living.

Questions for Reflection on Future Teaching Practice

As this chapter highlights, sharing ideas and aspirations with others can help lead people to make meanings and find understandings that would not have been possible had they worked alone. Therefore the authors recommend that you find one or more colleagues to get together with to answer the following questions.

- 1a. This study shows significant increases in, and medium-to-large correlations between, English learners' past selves (ACLs), present in-class and out-of-class investment, and future selves. It was theorized that these motivational mind-time frames became more positive from students' interactions using 'possible selves' activities. Try to identify which activities below correspond to each of these motivational mind-time frames (see Fukada et al. 2011 for fuller descriptions of some of these activities).
 - Doing project work that relates to students' field of interest
 - Reading a newsletter about students' views about current class activities
 - Role-playing a 10-year class reunion party
 - Sharing job aspirations
 - Sharing language learning histories
- 1b. As a language instructor, what kinds of class activities do you think you can offer to promote your students' positive past selves, present investments, and future selves?
2. This chapter argues that classrooms can be communities that are socially intelligent systems. Think of any classroom or community that you have been a part of, and describe how it might have behaved as a socially intelligent system.
3. This chapter presented a way of looping information about students back to students, called critical participatory looping. Think of a community or group that you belong to. What kind of group information would be good for you or the community to get about itself?
4. The research in this chapter was conducted longitudinally across several semesters, within different classrooms, and with 3 years' data compiled together. This way of compiling data is known as a panel study. For your classes, what kind of action research can you imagine doing as a longitudinal study, panel study, or both combined?

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Managing and Mediating the Research Element on Master's Courses: The Roles of Course Leaders and Supervisors

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Abstract This paper reports on a mapping study of dissertation supervision across distance Master's Courses in the University of London. The study suggests that there is a wide diversity of ways of handling Master's students at a distance due to the multiplicity of factors that impinge on distance supervision, and a range of requirements in terms of the dissertation outcomes or products. The findings also suggest that in terms of the dissertation process, the course or programme leader plays a key role in dissertation supervision at a distance. The distance element means that course leaders take a more highly structured and hands-on approach to provide support for students embarking on the dissertation. The paper suggests that rather than conceptualising the supervisory process on one axis (supervisor-supervisee), we need to understand it as a complex relationship involving multiple actors.

Keywords Dissertation • Distance education • Master's • Research education • Supervision • Course leadership

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1 Introduction

In this chapter we consider the role of the supervisor and course leader in managing and mediating the research element of Master's courses.¹ The research element or dissertation² is an important part of many Master's programmes, and is often seen as the programme's climax. It normally involves a single, longer piece of assessed work; it accounts for up to a third of the overall credits, is frequently research-based, and for many students, is the first piece of research they tackle. Pilcher (2011, p. 29) characterizes the Master's dissertation as an "elusive chameleon", suggesting that its relatively short span and fluid nature mean it can be adapted to suit any student. Its elusiveness is accentuated if we examine Master's level education internationally – e.g. in Scandinavian contexts where a Master's degree, rather than being completed in a year as in the UK, takes 2 years (Dysthe 2002) or even longer (Ylioki 2001).

The main support for any dissertation is provided by the supervisor, and the literature on supervision offers a range of conceptualizations of the supervisory process (though most research and writing on supervision has examined doctoral supervision; see below for additional detail). Lee's (2008) recent model is representative of the type of issues discussed. She describes five approaches and roles within doctoral supervision: a functional approach focusing on managing the project; an enculturation approach focusing on helping the student become a member of the disciplinary community; a critical thinking approach; an emancipation approach; and a relationship development approach. These issues arise in other studies as well – e.g., the tensions between supervisor authority and student agency and between academic and pastoral support (see Dedrick and Watson 2002) and the tension between control and dependence and non-interventionist supervision, and between student autonomy and independence at various stages in the process (Delamont et al. 1998). Dysthe (2002) suggests that the rigid time frames and systems of control at Master's level in many institutions make this balance between direction/control and freedom particularly difficult to achieve. In fact, Anderson et al. (2006) suggest that supervision involves a complex weaving of guidance and student direction rather than a dichotomy between agency and control.

A number of studies focus on elements of pastoral support. Hockey (1994) highlights the need to balance guidance and critique with emotional support. Others emphasize the need for empathy, particularly for part-time and distance supervision (Watts 2008), and the importance of the emotional domain of supervision (Sambrook et al. 2008). However, Firth and Martens (2008) suggest that the transformation sometimes requested of supervisors is unnecessary and unhelpful; asking supervi-

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²Different programmes refer to the research product by different names, with variation even within institutions. We use the terms "research report", "research element" and "dissertation" interchangeably; note that in American English, the usual word for this is "thesis", which in British English is normally reserved for doctoral work. We also use the term "supervisor" constantly, although some of our interviewees used the term "tutor".

sors to “be both a mother figure who responds to emotional needs and a father figure who expects intellectual autonomy is exhausting and unsatisfactory”. They argue for exploring “supervision as a specialist form of teaching rather than a particular kind of self” (2008, p. 280).

Part of the tension within the supervisory relationship relates to student expectations. At Master's level, this may mean that students expect more contact (Brown 2007); more supervisory direction, such as setting deadlines (Hetrick and Trafford 1995) or initiating meetings (Archibong 1995); or actual direct instruction (Woolhouse 2002) and help with writing up (Archibong 1995). Woolhouse speculates that the divergent expectations may reflect power and experience differentials between supervisor and supervisee, and suggests that both sets of expectations need to be discussed at the beginning of the supervisory process.

These themes are echoed in research involving international students. Archibong (1995) found mismatches between overseas students' expectations and what they received, possibly explained by previous experiences and differences in academic culture. Cadman (2000, p. 488) found that international students (both doctoral and Master's) felt challenged by the need to develop a critical academic approach and produce appropriate academic discourse, and emphasizes the importance of “a holistic approach to students' development”.

Most of the issues discussed above assume even greater importance in distance education. Firstly, the sense of isolation can be heightened in such contexts: supervision is not face-to-face and the individual nature of the work means that the online tools, collaborations and peer discussions supporting previous learning on the course are unavailable or minimal. Distance Master's courses may also include many international students studying in a language other than their own, leading to communication problems and issues emanating from different cultural expectations regarding supervision.

Interestingly, despite the growing numbers of Master's students worldwide (Anderson et al. 2006) and in the UK (Ginn 2014) there is little research on Master's dissertation supervision, in contrast to doctoral education (Petersen 2007). In some studies the Master's level remains hidden: some assume a direct transition from undergraduate to doctoral studies (e.g. Sambrook et al. 2008), whereas others do not indicate which level the research examines (e.g. Cadman 2000). In the distance education literature, Master's level supervision is never mentioned; within the research on doctoral studies at a distance (e.g. Lindner et al. 2001; Wikeley and Muschamp 2004), there is very little on supervision.

Taking this research base into consideration, our study focused on dissertation supervision on distance Master's programmes within the federal structure of the University of London.³ The research questions were:

³The University of London is a federation of colleges. Some colleges are large universities in their own right; others are smaller, specialist institutions. We have not anonymised the location of this study, but instead anonymised the colleges where our interviewees worked. Most of the programmes discussed in this study come under the aegis of the University of London External Programme (now renamed University of London International Programmes), all of whose programmes are distance courses.

- How is the dissertation conceptualized on distance Master's courses at the University of London?
- What is the relationship between this final project and previous work done on the Master's?
- What types of support do distance courses at the University of London provide at the dissertation stage for students?

2 Methodological Approach

We started with a documentary mapping exercise involving a survey of course outlines and handbooks. Thirty-seven distance Master's courses with a research element were identified through an online search, and publicly available course documentation was collected. Details of dissertation requirements were identified (e.g. length in words, topic choice, type of work, credit value, etc.), providing an overview of practices in different institutions and programmes.

Course leaders were then invited to participate in semi-structured interviews to explore, in relation to their course, the conceptualization of the dissertation, the support provided to students, and supervisory practices. Nine course leaders agreed to be interviewed. An interview schedule was developed, and eight face-to-face and one telephone interview were carried out. All were recorded with the interviewees' permission, transcribed, and analysed for recurring themes. Two course leaders spoke about groups of related courses rather than a single Master's course, so although the findings cover nine programme areas, they represent more than nine named qualifications. In addition, course leaders act as supervisors in many cases, so they often spoke about supervision in a dual role.

In accordance with the ethical guidelines of the British Educational Research Association (BERA 2004) we obtained informed consent from the participants and provided them with the draft summary of the findings from course documentation and the draft analysis of interviews, for correction, clarification and agreement on the presentation of their contributions. We complied with requests to remove quotations or phrases, and have preserved anonymity as far as possible in our analysis.

3 Findings

3.1 *The Product: Conceptualizations and Purposes of the Research Project*

The documentation revealed wide differences in nomenclature, length, credit allocation and requirements between different institutions, as well as great variety in the conceptualization of the research project. In some cases it is compulsory

(sometimes a proposal is even part of the application for the programme), in others it is optional (sometimes dependent on students' previous performance, sometimes related to the discipline and to the professional orientation of the programme), and in two cases there was no research option. In some cases, undertaking the research option depends on students' performance on previous modules. The research element is also known by different names: "dissertation", "report", "project", "written report", "project report", "scientific report" and "scientific paper". Most courses offer a range of options; some differences are discipline related, but some are linked to issues of distance mode (e.g. where ethical considerations are particularly challenging, such as conducting research with vulnerable people overseas with no local supervisor).

There is also variation in terms of structure, with science courses requiring a more standardized structure and others offering guideline structures for the various approaches possible. Similarly, required word counts vary considerably, from 4,000 through to 20,000, the most common being 10,000 words. Again courses may offer a range, some listing an indicative amount or minimum, or specifying length in terms of pages.

There was less variation in terms of purpose, with nearly all course leaders listing one or more of the following as the main purposes of the dissertation:

- putting into practice the learning from the previous modules,
- gaining an understanding and experience of how to do research and being taught to do it,
- giving students the opportunity to explore a topic of interest in depth.

Other purposes mentioned included providing opportunities for producing an extended piece of writing; providing opportunities for students to do something more self-directed; and preparing students for studying at doctoral level.

3.2 The Process: Initiating and Staging the Research Project

Students are helped to proceed with the research process in various ways. Most courses have compulsory research methods modules, or cover research methods within core modules. One course has an intensive process for preparing the proposal before students are allowed to progress with the dissertation, and has dropped the research methods module requirement, since in reality the supervisor was providing the necessary support. Another course replaces a research module with online seminars on the research process.

All interviewees emphasized the importance of clear stages in the dissertation, with many courses having deadlines for intermediate drafts or progress reports. One course leader commented: "we just have to be so precise about our aims, our out-

comes, our learning objectives, our assessment and our feedback and so on. We can't afford to be in the slightest bit sloppy."

The proposal stage is the first part explicitly laid out, and again there is variation as to how this is tackled. Some courses require a short proposal as part of the application; the course leader might have to approve this, and this is also sometimes assessed. In other cases, marks are allocated to the proposal (e.g. 10% of dissertation marks allocated to the proposal, and 90% to the final submission). For one course this has to be submitted and approved by the end of the autumn term, otherwise the student either has to defer a year or take the alternative route of more taught modules. On other courses the proposal is started during the research methods modules and is intensively supported. Ethics approval is also important and for some studies may involve approval from students' employers (e.g. the NHS). There is thus an interaction between the practicalities and logistics of the proposed research on the one hand, and the practicalities and timetable of the programme, on the other.

Once the research project is underway, many courses require draft chapters or progress reports. The main purpose is for the student to produce something to indicate whether they are on track, what help they need, or whether they should be advised to defer or withdraw. Although these stages are fixed for many courses, there is also a degree of flexibility in how they are applied to individual students.

There is considerable variation of time allocated for supervision. Some courses specify this allocation, which varies from 5 h (plus draft reading time) to 16 or 20 h; others have no fixed time allocation. As one course leader says, some supervisors will provide only the amount of time allocated, whereas "other supervisors are very generous with their time and it always depends on what the student demands". In this case, the course leader's response has been to have some guidelines on minimum responses (e.g. to proposals and drafts) and then leave it fairly open and "trust that it is satisfactory".

All course leaders reported that supervisors commented on drafts, though with mixed views on how much correcting was appropriate. One course leader reported that college policy is that supervisors may only comment, not proofread, whereas others were more open as to whether supervisors should track changes on drafts. They all mentioned making allowances for language, focusing on comprehension rather than grammatical accuracy, and some specifically encourage students to get their work proofread. In general, the students' level of English was not seen as the main problem, compared with other issues such as being able to conceptualize research. Finally, technology is important in supporting students during the research process, contributing to a sense of an online community and encouraging peer support. However, there is wide variation in the technology used, with the main one being email, supplemented in some cases by a dedicated VLE (Virtual Learning Environment). Some have only asynchronous online options for communication, due to geographical considerations, but others are considering developing more conferencing facilities.

The degree to which courses structure activities and materials on a VLE varies, and two course leaders commented on the lack of online support. Those who did not have particular spaces online for students to post proposals or research questions, or

to be involved in discussions on writing or literature reviews, felt that this was something they should introduce in order to create a learning community: "We really need to make them into a little community, (...) lots of them could help each other, advise each other and also (...) they need to have some peer input, to give them a sense of timing."

However, others pointed out how difficult the sense of community was to achieve and maintain, as when students reached the point of needing advice on their individual project, they preferred to talk to their supervisors rather than peers, and the cohort became less cohesive and more individual: "My view of it is, once they are off writing their topic, they don't really want to talk to anybody else. They want to talk to their tutor." Others felt that participation could be encouraged and students trained to use the VLE sites they were already familiar with.

On the whole, however, course leaders felt that levels of participation online were good and that there would always be students who were less inclined to be part of a learning community, whether face-to-face or online. In addition, in some cases students did set up informal networks using options like Skype for this purpose. As one course leader pointed out, participation online does not guarantee a good quality dissertation:

I think generally we have very high levels of engagement and participation within our VLE.
... Some students go off largely and do their own thing and produce very good pieces of work, some students participate very well but actually don't produce very good pieces of work...you can't generalize.

3.3 The Participants: The Role of the Course Leader

An important finding that emerged was the central role of the course leader in supporting students and supervisors. All the course leaders interviewed were involved in finding supervisors, either from the course team, from across the institution, or even externally. They spent considerable effort matching supervisors to students, aiming to find supervisors who shared an interest in the subject of the proposal or had experience in the relevant methodological approach. One course leader takes "bids" from supervisors, as he feels they are more likely to provide higher quality supervision on projects they were interested in. Often the course leader introduces the supervisor to the student, though this is sometimes done by administrators. In one case the course leader takes an initial look at the proposals and may communicate with the supervisor and the student about areas that need addressing.

Some courses provide detailed supervision guidelines, whereas in other cases supervisors who work at both Master's and doctoral level simply follow guidelines for the latter, reinforcing the point made earlier about conflating supervision at the two levels. Detailed guidelines are not always appropriate for fluid situations. Thus one course leader has mixed feelings about a new contract which his course had introduced for supervisors, feeling the ideal is to aim for flexibility:

It is almost impossible to implement but it sets a guideline to protect staff (...) from the student who sends them a draft every other day but also gives students an indication of what they are entitled to.

Flexibility also emerged in discussions of how course leaders manage supervisors and the tension between asking supervisors to get students through the staged process with deadlines and interim submissions on the one hand, and, on the other, allowing supervisors to judge what students need and when. Some course leaders are relatively specific as to what they expect from supervisors, whilst others prefer to allow supervisors more flexibility:

While egalitarianism is one way to look at these things you can't legislate for people's differences and you are not going to be able to encourage people to come and supervise students if you start telling them, no don't do it like that, do it like this.

Courses use various mechanisms to help supervisors and course leaders monitor the quality of supervision: fortnightly conference calls with the course teams across institutions; yearly meetings to debrief and consider new initiatives; an annual supervisors' meeting with approximately 85 tutors. One institution offers supervisor training, but mainly for those who can attend in person, and another runs a regular peer reflection activity where individual staff bring a teaching and learning issue, such as supervision, to be discussed. The course leader nevertheless still has to trouble-shoot, for example by facilitating contact with a supervisor when a student has not heard from them. Course leaders reported exerting peer pressure using a number of strategies: phoning, emailing or visiting the supervisor, or changing the supervisor if necessary.

3.4 The Participants: Supervisors and Students

As in the literature, our interviewees emphasized the importance of the supervisor-student relationship. The academic support supervisors provide was wide-ranging, and included: suggesting literature, subject knowledge guidance, developing the proposal, planning the research, helping students identify a small and sufficiently focused project, advising on ethics approval, methodological issues, linking research questions to literature review and data collection and data analysis, commenting on drafts, helping students develop intellectually and helping them disseminate their work. Conceptualizing the research, limiting and focusing a wider initial idea or wider research design, and getting a feasible project together were frequent concerns.

The course leaders also talked about particular challenges for supervisors of distance students. These included negotiating appropriate amounts of support with individual students, as some might ask for help beyond what was stipulated:

It is quite challenging, I think, as a tutor to try and find that balance between being fair and being sort of flexible and accommodating individual needs.

Another area of difficulty is managing e-mail communication, in terms of both content of messages and judging the degree to which students are struggling. As one course leader (speaking about his role as a supervisor) said:

I do miss the student interaction and I feel I kind of know them but I don't really.... I don't know whether I need to chivvy them along or say this is not good enough and you could do better. So it is difficult to know how to manage them sometimes.

Phone calls are one solution, with supervisors on one course asking that the initial tutorial be by phone:

People are quite unhappy with supervising only by email. Discussion doesn't go fast enough. The kind of tuition you need, we think, at the beginning of the dissertation cuts off avenues of unproductive work and encourages people going in the right direction.

Another issue highlighted involved pastoral care at a distance, including the need to be sympathetic and understanding, calming students down and sometimes suggesting practical solutions such as deferrals. Course leaders suggested that more pastoral support was needed for distance than for face-to-face students. However, one course leader made the point that it is not possible to distinguish between academic and pastoral support, and gave an example of helping a struggling student by helping her to reconceptualize her own role in relation to the project:

At one point I encouraged her not to think of herself as a researcher but as a detective and this seemed to hit a chord with her... now I don't know what I was giving her there. I am not sure whether that was pastoral support or academic support but it sort of did something to keep her hanging on in there.

The pastoral element was also present in comments made about the nature of distance, part-time students and why they might be slower to request help. A couple of course leaders felt that students who choose this method of study might be more private and more used to being self-sufficient, so admitting that they are struggling would be difficult. It is also possible that some students are not culturally inclined to bother busy supervisors:

Also the overseas students, they come from a different educational background where academic staff are held in high regard and almost untouchable, and under pressures so they don't want to bother you.

4 Discussion and Implications

This study confirms the great variability in the Master's research element on different courses, the source of which is a combination of institutional requirements and disciplinary practices and options, reflecting Pilcher's (2011) description of Master's dissertations as having a "chameleon" nature. However, such variability is not undesirable and a "one size fits all" model probably does not exist. Variability can be viewed as a direct result of the multitude of contexts in which distance Master's degrees are found. Course leaders and programme designers may in fact be using

their experience and knowledge of their students to fine-tune and tailor their requirements and supervision of projects and dissertations to meet the needs of their own students, building on what works for them. Perhaps what is more important is that students clearly understand what support they will receive and also are given clear guidelines about the requirements of such projects on their specific programme.

Course leaders confirmed the findings in the literature (e.g. Hockey 1994; Sambrook et al. 2008; Watts 2008) that both academic and pastoral support are important, with specific difficulties of managing the latter at a distance. It was acknowledged that at a distance it was sometimes more difficult to know when a student was struggling. There was however, less concern than expressed in the literature (e.g., Cadman 2000) over the specific problems of international students, and course leaders were generally not worried about language skills. There was more concern about all students' abilities to conceptualize research; with international students the worry was more that they might feel supervisors are too important or busy to contact. This suggests that programmes need to consider explicitly what staged support is offered to distance students, particularly in the initial stages of developing their research proposal. All courses had some sort of structure in place to help students in the choice of topic and conceptualization of the research project, but the amount and type of help provided varied greatly.

There was not much discussion in the interviews of a mismatch of expectations between supervisors and students, but course leaders did highlight the difficulties of ensuring that distance students received adequate support and feedback. This suggests that course leaders need to give more explicit encouragement to supervisors and students to discuss expectations and supervision plans. The level and type of support at various stages of the project was clearly something course leaders spend a great deal of time considering. An important theme in the interviews was the role of supervisors and course leaders in guiding the research process, and here this study adds to our understanding in identifying the sources of support available to students, and the way these sources interact. Figure 1 shows the traditional conceptualization of the research element at Master's level: previous research has focused on one relationship, that of the student and the supervisor and their roles (e.g. Lee 2008). However, in our study the course leader emerged as an important lynchpin of the dissertation process: approving topics, choosing supervisors, guiding, training and sometimes managing supervisors, and mediating between supervisors and supervisees in times of problems. Course leaders also deal both with supervisors not communicating effectively and with students not participating or contacting their supervisor (highlighting the importance of the pastoral support element on distance courses). Institutions could give more prominence to the roles of course leaders as mediators, advisors and motivators of supervisors, and acknowledge the importance of this aspect of course leaders' duties. Course leaders probably also need to check that students and supervisors are aware of the avenues open to them to negotiate their various expectations concerning levels of support and participation.

We would suggest that a more accurate representation of supervisory interaction is that shown in Fig. 2, which also takes into account the community of peers which a student might draw upon at this stage of their studies (see our discussion of VLEs

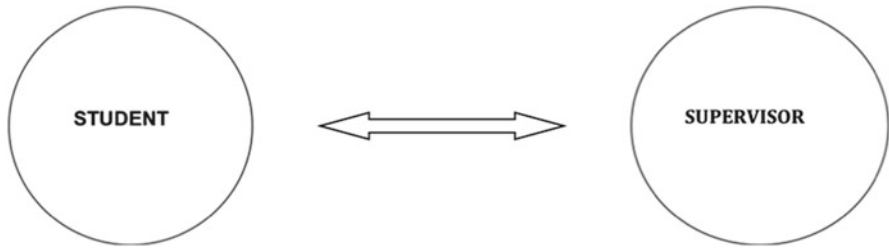


Fig. 1 Traditional conceptualization of distance master's supervision

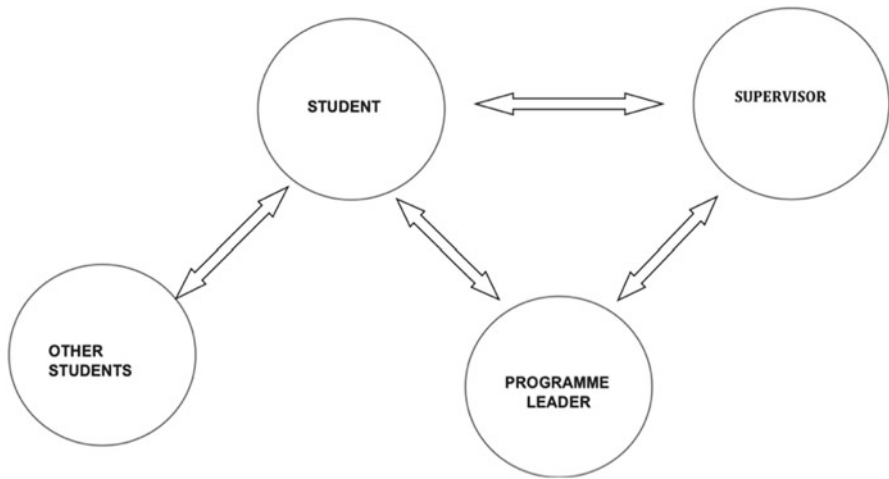


Fig. 2 Community conceptualization of distance master's supervision

above). Our interviews revealed the role of the course leader in contributing to timely completion, focusing not only on academic concerns but also in channelling the research process into a tight time-bound procedure which would accommodate various institutional procedures.

In the context of this understanding of the research element, an important challenge is trying to help the students maintain the sense of being a community of learners whilst working individually, at different paces, and in geographical isolation from their supervisor. As we have pointed out, the need for scaffolding and support during the dissertation process identified in the literature, particularly for distance study, is something the course leaders frequently stressed. This seems to be a key aspect of the support and approach to dissertation study at a distance, and those course leaders who do less of it are planning to attempt to do more.

Although we believe Fig. 2 is a step forward from the traditional representation shown in Fig. 1, the reality is probably more complex. A more complete view of the processes, participants and products involved would include administrators, documentary support (e.g. handbooks and programme documentation), disciplinary

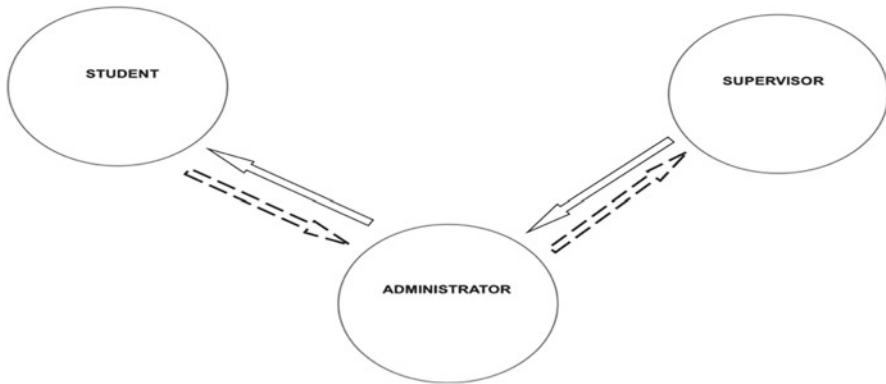


Fig. 3 Controlled conceptualization of distance master's supervision

influences, etc. For example, the textual differences between disciplines does come through in the interviews, with the science-based dissertations more likely to have a specific structure requirement, but the influence of the discipline is not present in our representation. It is also likely that different programmes will present a different model – as for example, in Fig. 3: This represents a programme where all written communication between supervisors and supervisees is conducted through the administrator. The impetus here is to have records of communication; we have therefore called it “controlled” because we believe that the wish to control communication is behind the structure as it was revealed to us. This may be important where large numbers of supervisors are involved and aspects of quality and equity may be more easily monitored this way. It does raise questions about the quality of the emotional relationship between supervisor and student (eg as highlighted in Sambrook et al. 2008).

5 Conclusion

This study has shown that even within one structure such as the University of London (albeit a loose structure with a great deal of freedom for programmes), there are wide differences in the research element of Master's studies at a distance, in terms of the requirements, of staging the process and of supporting students. These differences are partly due to the multiplicity of factors that impinge on distance supervision. The findings also highlight the pivotal role of the course or programme leader in dissertation supervision at a distance where structure, timing and support are crucial. Future research could survey a larger number of institutions to see if such variation exists across universities as well. Another area for investigation could be comparing support offered on face-to-face and distance courses.

One limitation of this study is that it only presents the course leaders' views on the experience of Master's level research at a distance. Future studies could look at

other perspectives on this, including those of the supervisors and the students so that a more complete picture of this process can be formed.

Our data also suggests that the supervisory relationship cannot be conceptualized as a supervisor-supervisee axis only. It works within a context; there are disciplinary influences, there are institutional influences and there are mediators such as the course leader who may be involved. These are not minor influences: the experience of a student who receives as much supervision as they want may be substantially different from that of a student whose supervisor allocates 5 h to supervision and no more. This is not to say that one way is "better" than another; it is merely saying that there is a difference there, and the difference needs to be taken into account when discussing supervision. Future research on supervision will need to examine the relationship in its greater complexity and wider context, acknowledging the complex and multi-faceted nature of the process and looking for ways to make supervision a satisfying and motivating experience for all participants, so that it can more successfully fulfil its crucial role enabling and supporting Master's students in their learning and research goals.

Questions for Reflection on Future Teaching Practice

- (a) In your institution, who are the multiple actors who interact with Master's students at the research stage?
- (b) Figures 1, 2, and 3 of this paper present different conceptualizations of Distance Master's supervision. Which one is nearest to your own situation? Would you conceptualise the relations between the actors in the same way? Is there another model that represents your situation (or situations that you are familiar with) better than these models?
- (c) What would your ideal model of distance Master's supervision be, in terms of the actors and the relationships between them?
- (d) Should models such as these also represent the channel of communication (e.g. email, VLE)?
- (e) What additional research would be needed in order to build fuller models of Master's supervision in general and of distance Master's supervision in particular?

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Authentic Learning and Student Motivation: Building Instructor and Student Confidence through Genuine Interaction and Authentic Classroom Materials

Christine Jernigan

Abstract This chapter moves beyond authentic *materials* in the university instructional setting to an examination of the reality of individuals in the classroom.

Section 1 looks specifically at the role of teacher authenticity. Instructors reflect on their own insecurities about having to know all the answers. They question the long-held belief of teacher as all-knowing giver of knowledge. Strategies are offered for situations when teachers do not know the answer to students' questions. A new perspective on teacher errors emerges that is less top down and more teacher-student partnership. The result is that students feel less threatened and embarrassed when they make mistakes, increasing their motivation to take risks in language interactions.

Section 2 focuses on communication with students. Teachers discover how to ask real questions from genuine curiosity. They see how to make authentic assignments and respond to student errors. They encourage students to be their authentic selves, thereby increasing confidence and enthusiasm for learning. The chapter concludes with examples of the old model of classroom communication compared with new, more authentic interaction paradigms.

Keywords Authentic learning • Motivation • Confidence • Classroom materials • Teacher-student relationship • Correction

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1 Part I: The Role of “Professor”

In examining the role of the teacher/instructor/professor, we inevitably meet with unrealistically high expectations for what an instructor should be. Many of these expectations come from the instructors themselves.

The etymology of the word “professor” gives a window into why teachers think they must be so perfect, so “all-knowing”. It comes from the Latin “profiteri” which means “to declare publicly”. When we declare something publicly, there is tremendous pressure to know the topic well. In the case of the language classroom, however, it is crucial for teachers to understand that they will not master every aspect of the target language.

Some readers might see this as dangerous since accountability may be what makes teachers careful to have the correct answers. This chapter is not, however, intended to encourage them to be careless. Instead, it emphasizes the importance of being authentic. This distinction merits examination for three reasons.

1.1 *Teacher Self-Confidence*

First, it is important that teachers be self-confident. We know that students may suffer from anxiety, defined as the “subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry” associated with learning (Horwitz et al. 1986). But researchers have seen many of these same anxious characteristics from *instructors* as well (Horwitz et al. 1986).

To combat anxiety, instructors must see that they have a great deal to offer their students. They are not perfect, but they know enough to facilitate learning. Peter Floyd, professor of language teacher education, gave a stirring keynote at a popular conference for teachers of French. At one point – mid-sentence – he took off his blazer and held it at arm’s length. He stated theatrically that teachers must “take off the cloak of perfection”:

Those who let go of a sense of having to be in control and instead agree to flounder a little, may even look goofy sometimes, but they’ll end up not knowing everything, but knowing enough (Floyd 2011).

1.2 *Freedom of Movement*

The second reason teachers must quell their fear of not having perfect mastery of the subject matter is that it encourages them to allow for more freedom of movement in the classroom. The first year I taught Portuguese – which is my second language – I feared that students might ask questions I did not know the answer to. I did not give creative individual projects because I worried students would bring in language

outside my small scope of knowledge. What if they came in with a presentation that was on their skiing trip or a visit to a science museum? I might not know all the new vocabulary.

When instructors take student interest into account, motivation increases (Kirk 2013). Instead of writing on topics chosen by the professor, students have some level of choice in the focus of their writing. Instead of reading materials the instructor has chosen, students choose appropriate materials among a variety of writings. This focus on student interest is not at the expense of student learning. According to the Eberly Center for Teaching Excellence:

...well-constructed courses that tap into issues that are important to students (e.g., The History of Rock ‘n’ Roll, Philosophy and the Matrix [a popular film], The Statistics of Sexual Orientation) can capitalize on students’ motivation without sacrificing intellectual or disciplinary rigor. (Lovott 2012)

1.3 A Model for Students

The third reason it is important that teachers should not be fearful is that when teachers gracefully say they do not know something, they model for students that it is okay not to know all the answers. In other words, if teachers show confidence in the face of learning – “I do not know the answer to that, but I look forward to finding out” – students will show confidence as well.

Teachers can overcome the automatic shame they may feel when they cannot answer a question. There are some compensating skills. One is to show tremendous curiosity in “not” answering the question: “Oh, that is such a good question. I have never thought about that. I am so glad you asked.” The teacher should be very intentional about finding the answer. Keep a brightly coloured (easy-to-find) sheet in your notebook that has as its title, “Find Out Without Fail”. The sheet might have the following columns:

Date	Who asked the question?	Question	Volunteer
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The student who asked the question will write the date, their name, and the question itself. Ask for a volunteer to research the response. If no one volunteers, the teacher will research the response. When the materials are presented in a subsequent class, he/she will reiterate what a good question it was and how much he/she has enjoyed learning more.

1.4 *A New Perspective*

As we move away from teacher shame, a new perspective on teacher knowledge emerges – one that is less top down and more of a teacher-student partnership. Students begin to see that their individual interests are valuable. Instructors, as they manoeuvre in a classroom that is not so controlled, see that they do not have to be the all-giver-of-knowledge, that their enthusiasm “covers a multitude of sins” (1 Peter, 4.8).

In Csikszentmihalyi’s (1997) work on teachers and motivation, he asked, “Which teachers are the ones we remember?” And, “Which made a real difference in our lives?” It is no surprise he found that the teachers who are excited and passionate about their work are the ones that have a lasting influence.

1.5 *Lack of Enthusiasm*

The next question becomes, “What if I’m not feeling very enthusiastic?” Here we must look to the authority on public speaking, Dale Carnegie (1940), who posits, “Act enthusiastic and you’ll be enthusiastic!” If instructors follow what looks like simplistic, “Fake it ‘til you make it” advice, they will accomplish far more than something simple. They will slowly start feeling passionate. This has a snowball effect with the *acting* excited causing the *feeling* of excitement and this *feeling* causing teachers to *act* more excited. This then serves as a motivational force for students as they are brought into the cycle (Lovott 2012).

1.6 *Sincere Enthusiasm*

Zoltán Dörnyei (2001, p. 33) writes that as instructors, we should be mindful of the enthusiasm we project: “It is...important to stress that projecting enthusiasm does not mean pep talks, theatrical performances or tears in our eyes when we utter the words ‘Shakespeare’ or ‘past conditional’”. Instead we must be sincere in sharing why we love teaching our subject matter and why we feel it is important in the lives of our students.

Educational psychologist Jeff Brophy (1998 in Dörnyei 2006) asserts that teachers are more successful in motivating their students if they really believe- their students *want* to be motivated. This self-fulfilling prophesy is reminiscent of an elementary school principal who, when she wants to quiet students, looks at them as if they were already working to be quiet. When she sees a quiet student, she calls him by name, “Thank you James”. This, in turn, quickly leads to a crescendo of, “Thank you Jerome, Thank you Sydney, thank you Consuelo...” A room crowded with noisy children quiets in minutes.

If we are moving towards authenticity in our classroom, we must expect that our students are craving *real* communication. There is even an element of being truthful with students. Language students in particular need to believe we will correctly lead them to speak in an appropriate manner. They want a straightforward relationship with their instructor, one where they feel supported.

Students also tend to feel motivated by a teacher who does not take him/herself too seriously and who instead encourages a dose of levity. This may seem daunting to instructors who do not naturally make jokes in class. Dörnyei (2006, p. 41) does not see this as an added burden: “If students can sense that the teacher allows a healthy degree of self-mockery and does not treat school as the most hallowed of all places, the jokes will come.”

The best way for teachers to drop the perfection guise and be passionate about teaching is for them to cultivate a love of learning. Learning means curiosity. Learning means even teachers make mistakes. It means learning from mistakes and moving forward, just as we want our students to do.

2 Part II. Authentic Relationships/Authentic Learning

Offering an authentic classroom means building authentic relationships. If students feel their instructor is not giving of him/herself, they are not as willing to give of themselves. Students also feel more willing to be vulnerable and take risks if they know their teacher cares about them as individuals.

2.1 Inquiry and Relationship

As instructors, it is part of our job to ask questions. We ask questions about whether or not students understand a text, if they know how to use the present perfect, and if they did their homework. There is a different type of question, however, that is essential to making a connection with students. It includes questions that find out who the student is and what motivates her/him. These are called “personal inquiry questions” (PIQs). Find examples of PIQs below:

- What did you find most challenging in our last class?
- How do you go about finding responses or getting help when you do not understand a concept we’ve discussed?
- What part of our material in the last class did you feel confident about?

Notice how the questions request personal – but not too personal – information. Starting class with a PIQ is an effective way for students to warm up to the subject matter as they come into class and find their seats. Students who come late to class will hear the interesting conversation already in progress. They may be more likely to come to class on time in the future.

It is important as you hear your students' answers that you focus on the content of the message, not just the grammar or pronunciation. This way, you encourage them to take risks and share different aspects of who they are.

2.2 *Authentic Selves and Risk-Taking*

To keep students open to taking risk in class, we must remember our students are real people with egos that can be bruised. What are ways we encourage students to be their authentic selves while taking risks? Here are some recommendations:

- Discuss with students how they would like to be corrected. Some feel correction is essential to learning, but to what degree? Some may want every grammar mistake brought to their attention while others would find this demotivating. And discuss gentle ways of using peer correction.
- Use “stage-appropriate language” so that everyone participates at their level. “In response to a question, one student might point to an illustration, another might give a one word or short phrase response, and a third might give a full explanation” (Howard 2006).
- Show genuine interest when students talk. Ask follow-up questions when appropriate. Remember responses students have offered and interests they have. Mention these in future classes.
- During pairwork, be actively engaged with students. Walk from pair to pair taking notes on what you hear that is well said and what needs changing. Cover specific points you notice in the pair work follow-up time. Take great care if you decide to point out any one individual's mistake.
- Pay attention to how much you are talking. What is the ratio of students' talk compared to teacher talk? The more practice students receive, the more self-confident speakers they will become.
- When possible, avoid interrupting students while they are talking. Find a way to correct them after they have finished speaking.
- Offer sincere praise when students succeed. Do not over-praise, however, or students will begin to discount what you have said.

2.3 *Authentic Selves and Written Work*

We should handle students with care when correcting written work. When grading papers, there is no student visible to appear crestfallen, so our red pens may flow too liberally. Below are some guidelines to careful correction (Hughes 2005; Fiddimore 2014; Hyland and Hyland 2006).

- Begin your correction with the individual's name. You are not sending the corrections into the stratosphere, you are speaking to a person and should address him/her directly.
- Consider replacing a red pen with a friendlier color. Purple or green, perhaps.
- Hold back from correcting every detail. You are insisting on student improvement, not complete perfection. Organize yourself and correct a few key items. These may include concepts you have just covered in class, errors that are repeated throughout the paper, or incorrect expressions that interfere with comprehension.
- Use a "sandwich" approach. Start by saying something positive, perhaps about the content or overall organization of the composition. That is the tasty bottom layer of bread. Then discuss something that needs to be changed – the meat of the matter. And finally, end on a positive note by mentioning another positive aspect of the work – the top slice of bread.
- Afford students the opportunity to use what they have learned. Perhaps in pairs with their classmates or briefly sharing with the class as a whole.

A final step instructors sometimes forget is giving students the time to respond to feedback. If you have written them a letter suggesting some changes to their work, it only makes sense to give them time to write you back.

This is what is meant by authenticity. Being real. Making sense.

3 Part III. Authentic Materials

Instructors who are curious about their students' interests will want to use authentic materials in the classroom. These are materials that are not written for language students, but are found in the real world and brought into the classroom. Unlike the exercises in a textbook that may be so simplified as to be devoid of interest, authentic materials have rich cultural and linguistic components that the average native speaker uses.

Authentic materials afford students the opportunity to experience *real* language. Some sources are as follows: YouTube videos, television clips, movie trailers, magazines, newspapers, junk mail, tweets and texts, subway/bus/train schedules, take-out menus, instructions for electronics, board games, podcasts, emails, tarot cards, book or movie reviews, songs and lyrics, travel brochures, and Craig's List advertisements.

3.1 *Essential Questions*

The simplest authentic materials, though, are “essential questions” (Authentic Education 2013). Essential questions are those that ask “What are the most important concepts my students should learn from this lesson/presentation/text?” Questions should elicit students’ own experience on a given topic and allow them to share what they already know. As such, the lesson begins with a wealth of information. Do not assume students are blank slates. Instead, teachers must move away from the all-giver-of-knowledge effect. They see that individuals come to class with knowledge the teacher can use and learn from.

It is imperative that essential questions are not contrived. They are not questions instructors already know the answer to. For example, an instructor planning to read a text about how Europeans eat more junk food than they did two decades years ago might ask students to write down 20 foods they have eaten in the past week. The teacher might add, “Put them on a continuum with one end being ‘healthy foods’ and the other being ‘unhealthy food’.” The instructor could then pair students and ask them to discuss if they agree with each others’ health rating.

When briefly discussing students’ answers, instructors see how much they know about nutrition. They could make use of mind maps whereby the main topic is a circle in the middle a page and branches of related topics extend outward (Buzan 2011). This gives a window into their personal preferences for different foods. As such, instructors and students have an authentic discussion about a real topic of interest.

3.2 *Authenticity vs. Genuineness*

At this juncture we must examine briefly the distinction in the literature between authenticity and genuineness. It is best described through example. In my language classroom, I might hand out a menu – which would be authentic material. But if I cut it into pieces, with the entrees in one chunk, the appetizers in another chunk, and ask students to put the menu back together, I am no longer using the materials in a genuine way.

The lack of “genuineness” in this sense may not be important, because there are many ways we learn language in a classroom that are different from how we learn language outside the classroom. In the real world, we read a menu to order food. The cutting-up activity just lets students focus on specific aspects of a menu. It is a way to “study” the language.

“Study” is an important component of a lesson plan. It is one of three components Jeremy Harmer (2007) in his book *How to Teach English* calls “Engage, Study, Activate”. The Engage component is at the beginning of a lesson where you might ask an essential question to get students talking about a certain topic. It segues into authentic material like an article from *People* magazine on a celebrity. For

the “study” part of the lesson, ask students to focus on a specific element of language. Students who recently learned personal adjectives cut out descriptive words and make a pile. Then, for the Activation part of the lesson, they work in pairs to describe another famous person with some of the same qualities in their pile.

This assignment would be considered less than genuine, since in real life we read articles, we do not cut them up and put them back together. But I agree with Kramersch (1993) who writes,

All pedagogy is an artifact of educational discourse...we need to measure what goes on in the language classroom, not against some problematically defined criterion of authenticity, but against whatever communicative and cognitive goals are accepted as appropriate in a particular educational context (Kramersch, in Taylor 1994).

The authenticity remains even if teachers make changes to the material. University Professor of Russian, Dr. Tom Garza (2014), asserts that “teachers must manipulate and massage authentic materials to make them appropriate for the classroom”. There is nothing inauthentic about shortening a bus schedule or choosing to show only part of a YouTube video. It is simply a matter of taking students’ levels and classroom time constraints into account.

3.3 Authentic Materials and Motivation

Intuitively we can imagine that authentic materials increase motivation (Kilickaya 2004; Peacock 1997; Melvin and Stout 1987). What is it specifically that learning “real stuff” does to students’ enthusiasm levels?

3.4 Meeting Goals Outside the Classroom

Instructors must see students as individuals with needs and desires outside the classroom. If students feel classroom materials help them meet goals they have outside of class, they are more likely to want to participate. Teachers can encourage students to make even more connections between the classroom and their real life by offering extra credit for going beyond in-class participation. Students can read more at home on the topic or go to the website to see what extra information they might glean.

Instructors of all disciplines must ask themselves, “How could the learning inside these walls extend beyond them?” Marsha Lovott, director of Carnegie Mellon’s Eberly Center for Teaching Excellence, offers an example.

(...) in an information systems course, the instructor might assign a service-learning project in which students must build a database for a non-profit community organization. This kind of task allows students to work within authentic constraints, interact with real clients, and explore possible professions. (Lovott 2012)

3.5 Real Writing and Accents

Real materials will not always have the perfection of a grammar book. They use words like “ain’t”. And they do not use received pronunciation. They are the real texts and genuine voices students will come in contact with when they step outside the classroom. Teachers should indicate to students that what they hear may be incorrect or sound strange. That is simply how some people speak.

Instructors may ask students to listen attentively when they are outside the classroom to distinguish similar accents or regional vocabulary words. In class, students may be encouraged to mimic the vernacular they hear when they are shopping or visiting the bank or doctor. Students may record rules for pronunciation that decode the regional speech around them.

3.6 Real Materials Encourage More Real Materials

When students are exposed to authentic materials they may be motivated to bring in more authentic materials. After a lesson on the World Cup, students may choose to bring in web articles about the games. When the instructor uses these articles in class, students’ motivation increases, partly because their interests are validated. If instructors are worried that an article brought in is too difficult for all the students, they should be open about their reservations. Students may be willing to help each other understand the new vocabulary.

Students may need assistance in choosing the most important parts of the article to share with the class. Lovott suggests that students be given certain parameters. She writes:

(...) instructors might want to provide a restricted set of options and sufficient time to choose among them. This can enhance motivation without overwhelming students with too many choices. (Lovott 2012)

Students can also be encouraged to create new authentic material. They could, for example, interview a native speaker on the class topic. They could report back to the class or play a taped excerpt. Students will feel more comfortable taking the risk to do such an interview after having successful experiences with other authentic materials.

3.7 Relaxation Is Motivating

A final benefit of authentic materials is that, chosen wisely, they can be very relaxing. Imagine playing soft, calming music. Or a video of animals playing, or reading poetry aloud. Students feel less anxious in these moments. And lower anxiety

increases motivation (Young 1991). It also means more effective language learning since memory is more acute when anxiety is reduced (Moriya and Sugiura 2013).

3.8 *Negatives to Authentic Materials?*

The negative components to using authentic materials should also be examined, along with some solutions to the problems posed.

3.8.1 Added Support Is Needed

The literature on authentic materials mentions as a negative the fact that they may be too difficult for students' proficiency levels (Case 2012). The instructor must think ahead about how to give additional support for understanding the text/podcast/song.

Visual aids contribute to understanding. Instead of just playing a song in class, a video of the song could be used as opposed to just playing the audio. Instructors may offer time for background discussion before giving a reading with new vocabulary. Challenging vocabulary can be pre-taught. Before a listening activity, the instructor should suggest something specific to listen *for* – certain words that are repeated or a key idea.

Most importantly, students should be given the freedom not to understand everything. To help them feel comfortable with this notion, instructors might offer “just for fun” times at the beginning or end of class. They could read a piece of authentic material or have students watch a clip from a television show. Teachers can prepare students by saying, “You will watch this video just for fun. Do not worry about how much you are understanding. I would like you to feel comfortable with real materials, experienced purely for pleasure.”

3.8.2 Offensive Content

Instructors must pay attention to the content of the materials they are using to see if they are offensive to their students. Some examples are videos where singers are scantily clad, poems on romantic love, and podcasts that mention strong political viewpoints. Depending on just how controversial, some of these may be more of a distraction to learning than a contributor.

Instructors must not give up on authentic materials altogether. Instead, they should be aware of their audience when choosing materials. Are students of a certain religious or political persuasion? Might they feel hurt or angered by the views portrayed? When in doubt, don't. There are always other materials that will be appropriate.

3.8.3 Variety of Interests

Another challenge to using authentic materials comes in finding a topic that interests *all* students. Some may find computer science fascinating while others find it technical and dull. A faction of students may show an interest in the social sciences while others prefer to discuss chemistry and biology.

Engaging teachers will involve students in the choosing phase. Samples of appropriate materials may be shown to the class and individuals vote on which to use. If all the materials will be used, students may vote on which to pursue first. Students may also bring in materials themselves. Perhaps not all the material they bring will be used in class, but individuals can present the titles and everyone can vote.

3.8.4 Quickly Outdated

Another challenge to using authentic materials is that they can become outdated quickly. Imagine an instructor choosing material ripped from the morning's headlines about a country whose civil war is in progress. She prepares for hours, "manipulating and massaging" it to be workable with their students' level. Then, the next semester when she tries to use it with another student group, they balk at having to study a war that ended months ago.

Instructors who would like to continue using their materials should choose topics that endure. Cultural comparisons, brain research, or plastic surgery as opposed to political scandal, a celebrity couple, or the latest i-phone.

3.8.5 Time Consuming

By far, the most complaints about using authentic materials centre around the amount of time it takes to actually make the changes necessary for use with language students. As we discussed early in this chapter, instructors have a tendency to do too much. Students do not need a glossary for every unfamiliar term. Nor do instructors need to make extensive lesson plans to pre-teach all the new vocabulary, grammar and cultural components. Part of teaching with authentic materials is showing students how to be more comfortable with the ambiguity of not understanding everything. This is what happens in real life.

When there is necessary preparation, the instructor should not be the only one doing it. If there is a list of terms from the lyrics of a song that the instructor does not think students will know, she may distribute them to the classroom and encourage students to work together to find the meanings. They will learn more by doing their own research and from peer learning than they will from their teacher spoon-feeding the information.

Final Thoughts

We have looked at what it means to be authentic instructors in the language classroom. We understand we cannot be authentic instructors without paying close attention to the needs of individuals in our classroom.

We have also examined how teachers communicate with students – how they come to know students' goals in the classroom and in their outside lives. Through personal inquiry questions, teachers move the classroom topic along, but in a direction that takes students' experience into account.

And finally, teachers must take the risk of bringing real materials into the classroom, instead of using only materials made for language students. Instructors can bring students into the process it takes to prepare the materials for class. And students' motivation will increase when they see that the classwork gets them ready for what awaits them outside the walls of the university.

Questions for Reflection on Future Teaching Practice

1. Some may feel the idea of teacher-student partnership erodes students' faith in the professor, lowering their confidence in the professor's knowledge of the subject matter. In light of this chapter and your own experience as teacher and/or student, how would you respond to this assertion? How can teachers ensure student confidence?
2. How does Dale Carnegie's call that we "Act enthusiastic and you'll be enthusiastic!" fit with the teacher's role in the classroom. In what context(s) might teachers share this quote with their students?
3. List several positives and negatives about using Personal Inquiry Questions (PIQs) in the classroom compared to straight-forward comprehension questions. Give examples of PIQs that would fit your student population and subject matter.
4. Under the heading 'Authentic Selves and Written Work' were listed five ways to correct students' work more gently. Which most resonated with you, and are there others you have found useful?

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Motivation, Technology and Language Learning

Linda Weinberg

Abstract While language teachers have often been first-generation adopters, there is no guarantee that simply introducing new technology in the classroom will boost learner motivation. If there is no adaptation in pedagogy, there is no added value to even the most cutting-edge devices. The potential for technology-enhanced language learning (TELL) to boost learner motivation comes from its familiarity, not its novelty. This in turn allows for the development of twenty-first century skills whose relevance to learners' real lives, and whose ability to boost learner autonomy, can increase learners' sense of self-efficacy. This can result in the classroom buzz associated with engaged and motivated learners.

Keywords Motivation • Language learning • Student-centred learning • English for Academic Purposes (EAP) • Technology • Autonomy

1 Introduction

A 4-year exploratory study conducted at a small engineering college focuses on student attitudes towards computer technology in the FL classroom, and is particularly concerned with identifying factors in a TELL environment which might enhance learner motivation and encourage greater learner autonomy. Quantitative (questionnaire-based) and qualitative (interviews and observations) data were collected from 599 students representing the three main L1 groups of the country. The findings showed a slight improvement in self-perceptions of less proficient students, providing some tentative support for the potential of technology to boost the self-confidence of weaker learners; however, the study also shows that, contrary to the findings of earlier research, the motivating potential of technology in the classroom

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cannot be assumed. Furthermore, the results highlight the importance of content and relevance over technology, and bring out the importance of the teacher's role in the learning process.

2 Does Technology Always Motivate?

Despite the importance accorded to the learning of English in Israel (Spolsky and Shohamy 1996), language-learner motivation is still a cause for concern at tertiary level where English is an auxiliary language and where, until quite recently, all subjects have been taught in Hebrew, reducing the relevance of English as a practical requirement for university studies. However, as ever more higher education institutions express interest in internationalization, the trend for English medium instruction (EMI) is growing, introducing a more immediate need for proficient English which could serve to enhance the relevance of EFL/EAP courses. Understanding the purpose of studying the TL makes it easier to support students (Healey 1999), and the integration of technology into the learning process presents many options for highlighting the relevance of language studies while providing contextual supports which facilitate autonomous study. A central goal of modern language teaching is to promote *learner autonomy* (Littlewood 1996; Warschauer et al. 1996; Benson 2001), and language programs which foster learner autonomy are not only more likely to enhance *learner motivation*, but also increase chances for success in the TL (Noels et al. 2000).

According to O'Reilly and Morgan (1999), a central goal of online learning is to support students from dependence to independence and ultimately towards an *interdependent community of learners*. However, the integration of computers and the Internet into classroom teaching, and alternative pedagogical approaches, also introduce "specific external forces" (Dörnyei 2001, p. 143) to the learning environment. While potentially supporting learner autonomy and thereby enhancing motivation, introducing "another foreign element in an already foreign environment" (Chapelle et al. 1996, p. 49) could equally serve to demotivate. When used appropriately, however, computer networks can promote learner autonomy and help students develop a critical learning perspective (Mynard 2006), while instructional application of the Internet can maximize students' potential for reaching a high level of learner autonomy through self-directed choices and customized applications or outcomes (Reynard 2006). The use of computers can energize and commit learners, translating into self-directed and efficacious language learning via communication (Ayes 2002); however, evidence of enhanced student autonomy in the literature has largely been anecdotal (Benson 2001), often involving studies of small classes, with significant design flaws (Dillon and Gabbard 1998). In a review of 246 articles published between 1990 and 2000 (Liu et al. 2002), the majority of studies reported enthusiastic responses and positive attitudes from students toward technology use in the classroom. Much of what is undertaken with computers can be accomplished in other ways; nevertheless, some activities are far more productive with the resources

computers offer. They enable more interactive, autonomous, and *student-centred learning*, and allow learners to use technology in a process of collaborative inquiry (Shield et al. 2000). Ignoring their potential in the language learning classroom therefore seems shortsighted, but we should also remember that students must always be put before technology (Chambers and Bax 2006).

The move to successful online or blended learning can require a radical rethink of past practices. Teachers with full workloads and who consider classroom outcomes from their usual method of teaching satisfactory may have little motivation to venture into what Gunn and Brussino (1997) call the “uncharted waters of technology-based developments” (p. 21). Innovation in teaching, learning and assessment requires support at both institutional and national level if academic staff are to be asked to invest in learning new skills and evaluating their outcomes (Bull 1999). There is a danger too that where institutional pressures force teachers to institute change without sufficient training and resources, some may simply replicate the old within the new rather than adopting a more relevant approach to teaching. Unfortunately, without appropriate preparation and support, new technology could paralyse as much as empower (Sheldon 2000).

The findings presented in this chapter were collected over a 4-year period during which computers and web-based learning were gradually introduced to the EAP programme in a small engineering college in northern Israel. This process was facilitated by the establishment of an institution-wide support system which provided training and assistance to teachers interested in integrating some form of web-based learning in their courses. In addition to training in the use of learning management systems and online homework delivery programmes, workshops on alternative pedagogies were also provided with a focus on student-centred and problem-based learning.

3 Learner Motivation in a Technology-Enhanced EAP Course

Unsystematic observations of learners in our multimedia centre had never been properly investigated prior to this study, and therefore impressions that the experience was positive were simply based on a feeling that students found the technology exciting. Moreover, while earlier research shows the benefits of CALL and CMC, little relates to extensive computer use in non-distance-learning EAP courses. Consequently we aimed to construct a technology-rich language learning programme founded mainly on subjective evidence that learners would be motivated because learning with computers appeared to be fun.

Participants in the study were 599 undergraduate students with an average age of 25, representing the three main language groups of the country: Hebrew (approximately 60 %), Arabic and Russian (approximately 20 % each). The majority was male (80 %), slightly above the college norm of two thirds male, one third female.

During the first 2 years, the course underwent considerable adaptation based on feedback from students, on classroom observations and on the teachers' growing experience. A phased introduction of online elements, initially involving the development of vocabulary tests and practice assignments, was followed by the gradual transfer of course content to the Internet. This was followed by the adoption, across all departments, of a common Internet-based homework assignment framework focusing on vocabulary acquisition. Concurrently, additional online elements were incorporated into one EAP course: students began to work with computers in every lesson, accessing materials via the Internet and engaging in cooperative tasks and assignments. The teacher gradually became less central in each lesson, with students taking increasingly greater responsibility for directing their own learning. This second year differed considerably not just from the first, when computer components were accessed outside the classroom as an adjunct to the course, but also to the other parallel English courses. At this point, the course had achieved a fairly stable blended format where students collaborated on assignments in pairs or groups with computers in all lessons, supplementing their class work with online language tasks at home. Feedback was collected from students in all classes using a series of questionnaires, classroom observations, and teacher and student interviews. The findings were analysed according to socio-contextual elements (the teacher, the course and the group), from within a theoretical framework combining elements of Gardner's socio-educational model (1988), Dörnyei's framework for foreign language motivation (1998) and Ryan and Deci's self-determination theory (2000).

3.1 Learner Motivation and the Teacher

Eight questionnaire items asked students about their perceptions of the teacher. More than 60 % agreed the teacher has an important influence on every aspect of the learning situation; 66 % felt they would lose interest if they had a bad teacher; but only 2.6 % felt they would have enjoyed the course more with a different teacher. From the learner's perspective the teacher was a very important factor affecting both linguistic (achievement) and non-linguistic (enjoyment) outcomes, implying that if students were unhappy with their teacher this would affect their attitudes towards the course. At the same time, 91.4 % acknowledged they were responsible for their studies regardless of how they felt about the teacher. The teachers also agreed that their role in the classroom was very influential.

The blended course challenged learner expectations in many ways. In particular, the role of the teacher differed significantly to that in their previous experience. For some students, adapting to this unexpected, and in some cases, unsatisfactory situation, was an insurmountable obstacle. Undoubtedly, their attitudes towards the course were negatively affected, and whatever the outcomes, from their perspective, responsibility for this lay entirely with their teacher. Nevertheless, with the teacher's direction and encouragement, the majority of students adapted well to the student-centred classroom. Classroom observations recorded students' heavy dependence

on the teacher at the beginning of the year, but with considerable intervention in the early stages, including scaffolded support built into the course components, they gradually learnt to rely more on themselves. While 43 % said they would still prefer the teacher to teach them rather than to work with computers, 85 % said they had received enough attention from the teacher during the course and 94 % felt they had received sufficient encouragement from her: while students worked on tasks together, the teacher was free to circulate and sit with individuals and groups and provide relevant input and support.

This move towards a more student-centred approach in the classroom, was, however, viewed negatively by learners with negative attitudes towards learning the language. Their generally lower proficiency levels may have made them more dependent and therefore less confident in their abilities to work effectively with less teacher direction, thereby causing them to view this approach unfavourably as it challenged their classroom expectations. For students who are accustomed to the teacher's reassuring presence and continuous direction, her apparent absence could cause a sense of abandonment and even panic among learners who are not used to taking an active role in the classroom.

3.2 Learner Motivation and the Group

Peer interaction is seen in modern language teaching methodologies as a prerequisite for building learners' communicative competence (Dörnyei 2001), and support provided by the group not only reduces individual anxiety, but communication involved in the setting and monitoring of group goals contributes to a sense of competence in a way which may not otherwise be possible. According to the study's findings, a majority of respondents (84.7 %) found cooperative work in class to be effective. While students with overall negative attitudes towards learning the language (approximately one-quarter of the total sample) also viewed cooperative learning negatively, nevertheless, this was among the most frequently mentioned aspects of the course that students enjoyed. Cooperating on tasks allows learners at different levels of proficiency to contribute, thereby developing a greater sense of self-efficacy which in turn can lead to enjoyment of the learning process and enhanced learner motivation. Working with partners helped to create a supportive, lively and pleasant classroom atmosphere which clearly contributed to students' enjoyment of the course.

From classroom observations it was noted that groups formed by choice, but with clear internal cooperation and division of labour between those who were better at writing on the computer (taking the role of scribes) and non-scribes who gave directions. They showed little frustration over proficiency gaps but much patience, even with the occasional free-loader who failed to contribute fully.

Of participants in the blended classes, 66 % enjoyed their English course, and 79 % expressed satisfaction. These numbers were lower than in the traditional classes, where 86 % enjoyed their course and 88 % were satisfied. One reason that

emerged from the responses indicated that the amount of effort and work involved in the blended course exceeded that of the traditional courses, so that some students felt they were being treated unfairly as, despite the additional effort they invested, they only received the same number of course credits. The demands of the blended course may have further exacerbated negative feelings among students who began their studies with a negative attitude towards learning English.

3.3 Learner Motivation and the Course

The blended course differed considerably from the traditional teacher-centred classes, so student expectations and their attitudes towards various aspects of the courses were investigated.

Expectations: Students' expectations were expressed according to their personal goals within the course. The majority was interested in improving vocabulary knowledge (34 %) and speaking skills (31 %), and yet the focus of the course, in keeping with the generally accepted requirements in Israeli HE, was on reading comprehension, which was a stated goal for only 22 % of the sample. Findings revealed that less than 50 % of the sample read even in their own language for pleasure and very few read in English at all, discovering alternative ways to deal with English medium study materials, a finding confirmed in Pundak and Maharshak (2010). This focus on reading comprehension therefore emerged as a potential demotivator in the course. When asked to suggest what might encourage them to read more, 53 % said "interest" while 10 % suggested "relevance". For course developers, finding interesting and relevant material is a challenge and one which cannot succeed in satisfying all students, even in ESAP courses where the materials relate specifically to the students' chosen field of study. Making use of the Internet during lessons and encouraging student contributions were integrated into the blended course as possible ways of addressing this issue.

Motivation: Through the administration of a motivation questionnaire adapted from Gardner's AMTB (1985), it was established that the majority of students, while largely instrumentally motivated to learn the language, also demonstrated what Dörnyei (2005) describes as an Ideal L2 Self, where learners aspire to be proficient speakers of English in their future professional lives: 67 % of the sample related the need for English with success in their careers; 75 % associated proficiency in English with achieving their life goals; and 86 % wanted to speak English fluently and accurately. Students might be expected therefore to exert considerable effort to achieve these goals. Further findings showed, however, that despite these aspirations, few students were prepared to put in the necessary effort at this time in their lives. For example, students were asked if they would take an optional course in English, to gauge their inclination to invest time and effort in learning English: 43 % said yes, but as such courses have only recently become available, this finding has not yet been tested. Conversely, the provision of online supplementary language learning tasks with instant feedback for practising vocabulary and grammar was

considered a positive addition to the course by only 28 % of the sample, mainly because they increased the work load, were too time-consuming and for some were simply too difficult. Today, some of these tasks are offered, without grades, as “optional but highly recommended”. In a sample of 236 students from 2012 to 2014, 43 % completed all the optional tasks, while 19.5 % attempted none. A breakdown of attempts by number of tasks provided showed that if there were fewer tasks, more students completed them: 84 % completed three tasks while only 1.8 % completed seven tasks. Unsurprisingly, learners adopt a pragmatic approach to their studies and concentrate on those tasks which are compulsory and assessed (Bull and Zakrewski 1997).

Computers: The findings indicated that the majority of participants had positive attitudes towards learning the language in general, and that they also had positive attitudes towards most aspects of the course, including its blended nature, computers and cooperative learning. Conversely, students with negative attitudes towards learning the language expressed negative attitudes towards these same aspects of the course. The percentage of students who enjoyed working with computers and who gained confidence with them increased over the year, suggesting the introduction of this technology had a positive impact on the majority of participants. Furthermore, at the beginning of the blended course there were significant negative correlations between negative attitudes towards learning the language and self-assessed proficiency, but these correlations disappeared by the middle of the course and did not reappear, indicating a tentative causal relationship between the confidence-building potential of working with computers and improved self-perceptions. However, no conclusions can be drawn without more comprehensive investigation.

As 43 % of students in the blended course would have preferred the more traditional classroom approach, this raises the question of whether technology in the classroom can actually enhance the learning experience. In any learning environment, the learner’s emotional response can affect learning outcomes, and when learner expectations are not met, the result can be disappointment, frustration, disillusionment and a drop in levels of motivation. Introducing a new pedagogy to the classroom (with or without new technology), is bound to challenge learner expectations. The connection between enjoyment and motivation in the learning experience has been the subject of several decades of research, with a range of studies suggesting various aspects of TELL can boost learners’ enjoyment and promote a more autonomous approach to learning. Participants were therefore asked if they had or had not enjoyed their English course. These responses were further explored for indicators of what contributed to or detracted from that enjoyment. While 69.8 % reported enjoying their English course, when correlated according to course type the results showed more students in each department enjoyed their course than did not, but positive responses were close to 20 % percent higher for the regular courses (85.7 %) than for the blended course (66.3 %).

Additional variables (proficiency levels, L1, age and gender) were also explored for their potential to affect learner enjoyment, but no significant findings emerged. The main differences between the courses were the use of computers and cooperative learning. As the latter emerged as the most frequently cited reason for enjoy-

ment, the main differentiating factor remained the computer. However, in addition to this, students in the blended course were not only actively engaged in their learning, but also expected to be productive, whereas students in the other groups were largely passive. It is possible that, subconsciously, the amount of work students had to produce made them resentful. However, rather than having an entirely negative effect, the integration of computers into the learning process seemed to boost learners' confidence. Introducing students to online tools, enabling them to work more independently, may have served to increase their sense of self-efficacy, leading to overall satisfaction with outcomes.

4 Discussion

A blended course provides for a much higher degree of flexibility than a course-book-based one, allowing for the updating and tailoring of materials in real-time to the target population. The central aspects of the blended course as represented in Fig. 1 below illustrate their potential to contribute to learner motivation and autonomy.

Although 42.7 % of respondents from the blended course indicated they would have preferred a more traditional teaching approach, responses showed that students who had greater exposure to, and encouragement to make use of, computer tools for reading comprehension, were more likely to utilize them than students from the traditional groups. Approximately two thirds of the blended sample (66.7 %) agreed they had learned useful skills, and 73.2 % thought they would continue to use the computer to help them understand materials in English in the future. This finding was later confirmed in interviews with students nearing the end of their degree course. Use of online tools encouraged learners to be more self-reliant, possibly helping them realize they were more capable than they had previously believed, thereby rewarding them with a sense of achievement. This further suggests that while students may be reluctant to accept change in the classroom, perhaps explaining why fewer students in the blended course felt they enjoyed it, they can still benefit from those changes, acquiring skills for future use with readily-available tools that enhance their self-efficacy. By the end of the course, fewer of the blended students favoured a more teacher-centred course, a fact that suggests the benefits of the blended course were generally appreciated, even by students who felt that overall they had not really enjoyed learning English.

The potentially demotivating aspects of the blended course observed in class were not confined to the use of computers, but their use in every lesson did have negative effects. Reading from the screen was tiring and uncomfortable, and technical hitches were frustrating. Also, the more active approach inevitably increased the amount of work students were required to do, leading to unfavourable comparisons with other classes. At the same time, the use of computers reduced to a minimum the amount of frontal teaching, resulting in dissatisfaction from what some students perceived as less teacher-student interaction. Students also complained about the

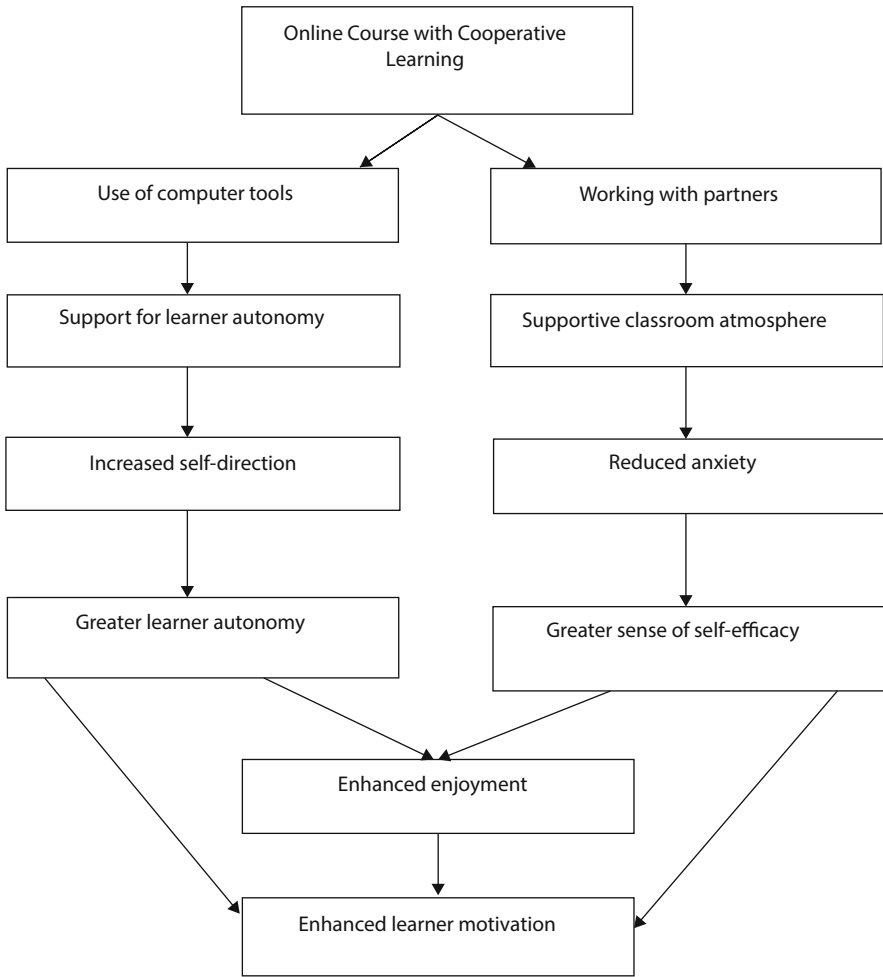


Fig. 1 Potential contribution of TELL to learner motivation

materials which failed to excite their interest but may also have been too difficult linguistically, or too content-specific for students lacking sufficient background knowledge in the subject.

In contrast, various aspects of the course contributed positively to learner motivation and enhanced students' ability to work more autonomously, potentially increasing their motivation through a greater sense of self-efficacy. The online tools students could access were quickly adopted and increased their ability to deal more independently with comprehension assignments, and the cooperative approach to learning engendered a supportive and less anxious classroom atmosphere. Just as some students cited their lack of interest in the materials and tasks, a higher percentage pointed to their relevance as elements contributing to their enjoyment.

The teacher's choice of materials and how she presents them, the approach she adopts in her teaching, her attitude towards her students, and the atmosphere she promotes in the classroom, have all been identified in research as influential factors affecting learner motivation (Deci et al. 1997). The teacher's behaviour is perhaps the most important motivational factor in the learning process (Dörnyei and Csizér 1998): in one study, 40 % of all factors cited by students as a main source of learner demotivation concerned the teacher (Dörnyei 1998). Part of the task of teaching is to engender in students the enthusiasm that facilitates a positive rather than a negative cycle (Deci et al. 1997), and a motivating teacher is one who can instill in her students a positive attitude towards the subject as a result of her own enthusiasm and high expectations (Dörnyei 2001). While a majority of students in the study acknowledged their dependence on the teacher, the move towards a more student-centred classroom was a prominent element in facilitating the collaborative learning which appears to have been responsible for much of the enjoyment students derived from the course. Student-centred learning encourages learner choice, which can generate a sense of ownership over tasks and assignments and lead towards greater self-determination and enjoyment. This can also be increased by teachers who are supportive of autonomy in the classroom (Noels et al. 1999).

The compulsory nature of the L2 studied qualifies as a primary demotivator (Dörnyei 1998), yet even in an obligatory course, supporting autonomy can help students integrate the overwhelmingly instrumental motives which drive them. In situations such as those at tertiary level in Israel, such courses should thus attempt to include elements which allow for as much self-determination as is feasible within the constraints of the requirements. There are obvious external motives associated with the need to succeed, but to enable learners to develop a sense of agency and some degree of autonomy there must be some degree of choice or learner input. Interest in the material and task-relevance were frequently mentioned in the current study, and considerable research and theorizing have indicated that tasks themselves influence whether people are intrinsically motivated (Deci et al. 1997). However, finding activities which are equally interesting and optimally challenging for all is problematic, which emphasizes again the need for choice and learner input in order to reflect learners' needs.

The use of networked computers adds additional dimensions to a course by facilitating access to an infinite range of resources and providing authoring tools which encourage learners to produce language: contributing their own materials, publishing and presenting their own work instantly in a non-threatening way, giving and receiving advice in a class forum, practising discrete language items many times with instant feedback rather than in one grade-giving pass-or-fail test, and setting their own pace. Finding time to focus on the setting and monitoring of goals can also help learners appreciate and integrate the wider requirements, thereby paving the way to more self-determined behaviour and by association, enhancing learner motivation (Ushioda 2003). Learners can keep a record of their goals and achievements in a class database, solutions can be posted, and practice tests attempted with immediate feedback. Such computer-supported options can contribute towards positive learner-attributions through greater learner control.

Undoubtedly, much of this can be achieved without the use of computers. However, there are two excellent reasons for exploiting this technology to the full: firstly, in a technological age, computers, in one form or another, will continue to play a central role in our lives in the future. As with every new technology, computers are no longer a novelty and their huge potential for enhancing the educational experience should, with adequate preparation and knowledge, be fully exploited to the benefit of the learners (Bandura 2002). Secondly, language is all about communication. Computers are the communicative tool par excellence, whether for “chatting” or video-conferencing, emailing or web-publishing, there has never been a device like this, with so much potential as an aid to learning. Nevertheless, it is ill-advised to be carried away by the technology without seriously considering the pedagogical objectives, or ensuring that the fit between the two serves learners’ needs appropriately.

Technology continues to take great strides forward. The novelty of a dedicated connected classroom has been superseded by enormously powerful digital devices fitting into our pockets. While some teachers may still tell their students to switch off their Smartphones when the lesson begins, increasingly more see the advantages of instant access to information beyond the confines of the classroom walls. The era of BYOD (Bring Your Own Device) will alleviate economic restraints on institutions of buying and maintaining equipment whose limited lifespan makes them an expensive and perhaps unwanted investment. However, unresolved issues relate to how best to exploit the devices and the myriad materials and apps now available. As the results of this study show, the technology itself is just another tool, like the chalk board or a stick in the sand. The difference is how these tools are utilized. The positive responses in this study were not related to what computers themselves could do, but to what could be achieved by using them. Opening up the classroom experience to something more open-ended, dynamic and flexible, changing the focus from the teacher to the student, developing a supportive classroom environment and encouraging students to work together, were the effective and affective elements in this particular context.

Innovation in the classroom is a positive trend. We should not expect to walk into classrooms today and find ourselves transported right back to our own childhood. At the same time, any change should be based on sound pedagogy, with students’ needs foremost. Our college has invested considerable resources in the study and development of modern teaching techniques which suit our students’ needs; nevertheless the participation of faculty in pedagogical initiatives has always been voluntary. Furthermore, the success of our move towards more blended learning has been facilitated by institutional support in the form of financial incentives in the early stages, including time provided within teachers’ schedules for developing new courses and materials, and with ongoing training in the availability and use of various tools and platforms supporting this kind of learning.

While technology in language learning classrooms is increasingly common, any new trend requires careful evaluation. The adoption of EMI within non-English speaking contexts is such an issue. From the language teacher’s perspective, more courses in English is a positive opportunity for increasing students’ exposure to the

language. On the other hand, without careful preparation of both students and teachers, and without an appropriate support system in place, these new opportunities could simply demotivate students and ultimately lead to less than favourable learning outcomes. As with the introduction of technology to the classroom, the motivating factors need to be clearly understood in order to ensure the successful implementation of change.

Questions for Reflection on Future Teaching Practice

1. Based on your own classroom experience, which language learning tasks have you found to be enhanced with technology? Create a recommendation for a colleague in which you describe these tasks and the specific technology or application involved.
2. It is suggested at the beginning of this chapter that the growing prevalence of EMI in higher education has the potential to boost language learning motivation:
 - (a) list what you consider to be the main language skills required by students for EMI;
 - (b) review the learning outcomes in your course syllabus and highlight how they fulfil these requirements;
 - (c) create a learning object which integrates the required language skills with the technological applications you have found to enhance language learning;
 - (d) explain how your learning object exploits EMI to boost learner motivation.
3. In what ways can technology contribute to making language learning relevant to every student in the class?
4. Design a technology-enhanced classroom activity and explain how you would monitor learners' motivation levels while engaged in this activity? How can you evaluate its contribution to the learning process?

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