Flying Colours CONFERENCE

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Introduction

Introduction

It is our pleasure to present the sixth compilation inspired by the annual IATEFL-Hungary conference. It contains a selection of papers based on talks delivered at the 28th IATEFL-Hungary conference, which took place in Budapest, between 5–7 October 2018. The title of the conference was *Flying Colours*.

The sixth volume contains four papers, two peer-reviewed and two non-peer-reviewed ones.

The first paper addresses the contentious notion of the native versus non-native speaker English teacher distinction, which has been the subject of heated debates since the issue was raised many years ago by Péter Medgyes among others. The article represents the crowning achievement, a comprehensive summary, of a two-year large-scale enquiry which was carried out with a high number of participants in central and eastern Europe. One of the most significant outcomes of the research is the suggested categories of Craft teachers and Academic teachers—an alternative to replace the native/non-native teacher dichotomy in order to highlight the respective strengths of the two groups as well as to pursue issues more relevant to ELT than nativeness.

The second paper investigates classroom communication in an English as a lingua franca context at an international institution. More specifically, the study aims to pilot a questionnaire on teachers' views on the comprehensibility of their classroom instructions and subject-related language, their learners' and their own command of English, and the communication strategies they employ in classroom discussions. The findings appear to detect the powerful presence of cooperation in English as a lingua franca interaction.

The third paper gives an account of a workshop in the area of Content and Language Integrated Learning. The author presents an

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interdisciplinary framework for integrating science, technology, engineering, art, and mathematics in language education. The article also includes classroom activities based on art and the ways in which an integrated approach can enhance foreign language learning.

The last piece in this compilation is concerned with the development of an online diagnostic test aiming to assess EFL learners' knowledge of phrasal verbs. The test design is based on a solid theoretical foundation, utilising data from corpora and ELT coursebooks. Despite the prevalence of phrasal verbs in the use of native-speaker English and their argued usefulness for EFL learners, the paper has generated a lively debate among those who came across the article during the editing process. There were counterpoints raised from different quarters of ELT, including English as a lingua franca researchers and language educators who take a different, more complexity-oriented approach to language learning and teaching. It seems that given its thought-provoking nature, this article offers an excellent opportunity to make our compilation more interactive. We, therefore, invite our readers to respond and join the discussion by telling us what they think of the issues raised in and by this article. The contributions will be published in the newly founded *Readers respond* section of the next IATEFL-Hungary volume.

The editors would like to thank the following reviewers for their contribution to the compilation: Kata Csizér, Csaba Kálmán, Claudia Molnár, Nóra Németh and Marianne Nikolov. We are also grateful to Árpád Farkas, our excellent proofreader.

This and all the previous conference compilations are available at https://www.iatefl.hu/node/123.

Éva Illés, Jasmina Sazdovska, and Zsuzsanna Soproni

Peer-reviewed papers

Revisiting nativeness vs. qualifications: Teacher profiles in various educational contexts

Jasmina Sazdovska and Zsuzsanna Soproni

Introduction

In the English language teaching (ELT) profession many publications, presentations, and informal discussions have focused on the distinction between Native English Speaker Teachers (NESTs) and Non-Native English Speaker Teachers (NNESTs). Both in Hungary and elsewhere, a great deal of research has been published on the topic (e.g., Farrell, 2015; Illés & Sazdovska, 2018; Medgyes, 1992, 1994, 2001, 2012, 2014, 2017; Reményi, 2017). The results have clarified the strengths and weaknesses of NESTs and NNESTs and the perceptions of these two groups by students and the teachers as well. Farrell, however, argues that "if we are to be recognized as a profession within the wider academic community," (2015, p. 79) less attention should be paid to the dichotomy of NESTs and NNESTs. The question is an important one for language teaching since, for foreign language teachers, language competence itself constitutes the subject matter. However, the dichotomy has proved to be divisive. Researchers have suggested that other factors such as appropriate qualifications, dedication to professional development, extensive teaching experience, language learning experience, and being reflective practitioners (Farrell, 2015) are more important. Other scholars criticised the research on NNESTS for being biased, since most such research has been conducted by NNESTS (Braine, 2006). In order to gain insight into what teachers consider to be important factors for their profession and how the issues of being a native speaker or being a qualified teacher figure into these factors, an international survey was conducted.

This paper will first provide an overview of the main points of discussion on the NEST vs. NNEST topic. It will then look at some other factors that teachers may consider to be of key importance for their profession. After describing the design, the sample, the validation and piloting of the online questionnaire, this paper will summarise the findings of the international survey study aimed at obtaining English teachers' opinions on the importance of the following factors: having English as your first language, having a high level of proficiency of English, having a university degree in ELT, completing a short training, having teaching experience, and being a member of a teachers' association like IATEFL-Hungary. Finally, conclusions will be drawn based on the results of the survey.

Theoretical and empirical background

The following section will summarise theoretical considerations and empirical research findings concerning the native–non-native dichotomy and approaches to teacher education. First, the distinction will be re-examined and the findings of NEST–NNEST research will be discussed with an overview of other categorisations. Next, approaches to teacher education will be discussed.

The NEST vs. NNEST debate

This section aims to provide a very brief overview of research on the main characteristics of NESTs and NNESTs (Árva & Medgyes, 2000; Ellis, 2006; Holliday, 2005,2009; Murray, 2003; Reves & Medgyes, 1994; Seidlhofer, 1999; Widdowson, 2003). An overview of the characteristics of NESTs and NNESTs is necessary for this study because it lays the foundation for the comparison of the importance of having English as a first language (L1) compared to other requirements for being an effective English teacher in certain educational contexts, for example, teaching English in secondary schools.

Many have written about the distinction between NESTs and NNESTs being oversimplified and unclear, which sometimes results in discriminative practices (Farrell, 2015; Kiczkowiak, 2019; Rajagopalan, 2006; Richardson, 2016). Such a differentiation is becoming less and less appropriate in a world where there are multiple ways to acquire a high level of English competencies. Holliday (2009) claims that the distinction between NESTs and NNESTs is political and the product of native-speaker ideology. Native-speakerism divides teachers into two groups: the superior and ideal native speakers and "the problematic generalized Other" (Holliday, 2006, p. 386). Nevertheless, for lack of better terminology, the terms NESTs and NNESTs will be used in this paper.

Discussing NEST vs. NNEST differences is also problematic because English language competence is being redefined. One of the signs that a paradigm shift has taken place in English language teaching, concerning the goal of language learning and teaching, could be the replacement of the term and concept of the native speaker with that of the competent speaker in the Companion Volume with New Descriptors to the Common European Framework for Languages: Learning, teaching and assessment (CEFR) (Council of Europe, 2018). This might be the consequence of the fact that up till now, no adequate definition for the notion has been formulated or that definitions are controversial themselves (Jenkins, 2006; Seidlhofer, 2011). According to Seidlhofer (2011), the definition of the native speaker as a stable, homogeneous, and hypercorrect construct is an idealised notion. With the dominance of English in today's broadcast and internet-based media, and computer games and streaming especially, both teachers and learners have greater exposure to English language use, making it much easier for them than ever before to become competent speakers of it.

Revisiting nativeness vs. qualifications

To situate the current research in the context of the research on NESTs and NNESTs, let us review comparative research studies. Extensive research has been conducted to substantiate that NESTs and NNESTs have a different kind of language proficiency: NESTs are likely to be more fluent and confident in the way they speak the language. As Farrell points out, "they have a 'feel' for the … nuances" of the language and "are comfortable in using its idiomatic expressions" (2015, p. 80). NESTs also use authentic and real language and focus more on getting the message across rather than on grammatical accuracy (Medgyes, 1994). On the other hand, NNESTs are prone to be less confident and to use more bookish language. Medgyes (1994) expresses strong views when he writes that NNESTs are more or less "handicapped in terms of a command of English" (p. 76.). In a study Reves and Medgyes (1994) found that NNESTs themselves admitted having difficulties with English, especially in terms of vocabulary and fluency. Some Hungarian learners criticised their NNEST teachers for "their bad pronunciation and outdated language use" (Benke & Medgyes, 2006, p. 206). In summary, NESTS are assumed to be better at providing the target model for language learning and teaching (Farrell, 2015). When university students in Spain were asked to agree or disagree with the statement "In general I would prefer a native speaker as a teacher", over 60% agreed, 35.5% had no preference and only 3.9% disagreed (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2006, p. 223). What is more, the higher level of education the statement was about (primary, secondary, university), the greater the preference towards NESTs appeared (p. 224). In the same study, nevertheless, eight out of the 17, mostly bilingual (Spanish–Basque) student groups found it problematic that NESTs were monolingual (p. 229).

As far as teaching behaviour is concerned, the differences between NESTs and NNESTs are even more evident. Based on Medgyes's (1994) conclusions, NESTs tend to be less devoted to the profession. They pay less attention to homework and use fewer tests. In a study conducted both in Hungary and China, NESTs were found to have a very relaxed attitude to marking (Barratt & Kontra, 2000). NESTs are also more understanding when it comes to grammatical language problems. Moreover, they often do not speak the first language (L1) of their learners, so translation is rarely used in the classroom. Instead, as Benke and Medgyes (2006) found, NESTs tend to focus primarily on speaking skills and are happy to improvise in class. Finally, NESTs are more often found to incorporate information on their own cultures into their teaching.

On the other hand, NNESTs are more devoted to teaching, giving more homework (Benke & Medgyes, 2006) and tests to their learners (Medgyes, 1994). They point out and correct errors and provide detailed grammatical explanations. NNESTs often speak the students' L1, so they can use translation both as a shortcut and as a learning tool and cross-language comparisons as a motivational technique in the classroom (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2006; Medgyes, 1994). NNESTs tend to rely heavily on the coursebook and provide less information on cultural matters than NESTs (Benke & Medgyes, 2006). Non-native teachers have gone through a similar language learning process as their students, so they can build on their own language learning skills and strategies (Seidlhofer, 1999), while at the same time

being more empathetic to the challenges their learners face. In other words, NNESTs are good at providing an example to their students as language learners themselves and assisting their learners based on their familiarity with language learning strategies (Medgyes, 1994, pp. 51–69). This surfaced in the Spanish study with university students as well: When students were to give their opinion on the statement "in general a native speaker would give me more strategies / ideas to learn better", 46% disagreed (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2006, p. 225). Being a role model could be a powerful factor in increasing learners' motivation (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007), although Benke and Medgyes (2006) concluded that "learners appreciate both groups of teachers for what they can do best in the classroom" (p. 208).

Dissatisfied with the native–non-native distinction for language users as a categorisation that is overly judgemental, Jenkins (2009) proposed a different set of terms (p. 90). She believes that a more objective classification would include the following three categories. The first group could include monolingual English speakers (MES), a second group bilingual English speakers (BES), and the last group would include non-bilingual English speakers (NBES). Although this classification is a more refined one than the native-non-native one, Jenkins herself acknowledges that defining "what counts as bilingual competence" (pp. 90–91) is problematic. From an English language learning perspective, learners would definitely benefit from communicating with all three groups, but teachers ideally should be BES since the BES group is equipped with a better understanding of language learning. In the Jenkins framework, similarly to classroom situations, it does not make a difference if English is the teacher's first or second language. In order not to fuel the contention around the topic and to redirect the debate and research efforts to other factors influencing effective teaching, other teacher qualities and competencies would need to be examined, such as the pedagogical skills and repertoire of teachers or the context in which the teachers work. One recent study collected views from students, teachers, and recruiters on teaching skills and qualities and found that students and recruiters attached more importance to language proficiency and nativeness than teachers themselves, and all three groups rated nativeness and the teacher's L1 as the least important qualities (Kiczkowiak, 2019), which might be an indication that expectations concerning nativeness are changing universally. The NEST vs. NNEST debate, however, is likely to become less important in the future as the "teaching of English may become the exclusive domain of NNS (NNESTS) in time to come" (Braine, 2006, p. 23).

Qualifications

Teacher education and continuous professional development (CPD) have attracted both professional and public attention in Hungary as well as internationally over the last decades (e.g., Maggioli, 2003; Malderez & Bodóczky, 1999; Mann, 2005; Medgyes & Malderez, 1996; Totterdell & Lambert, 2016). Two approaches to teacher education are differentiated: a more practical, hands-on one and a more theoretical one. In Bárdos's (2001) words, "each training institution can be placed on a scale, the two ends of which indicate scholarly education and practical training" (p. 11). An example for a practical teacher training course might be the internationally recognised CELTA (Certificate in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) training offered by Cambridge Assessment English, which aims to equip participants with "the essential knowledge, hands-on teaching experience and classroom confidence" (Cambridge Assessment English, n.d.). The CELTA certificate is the "qualification most often requested by employers; three out of four English language teaching jobs require a CELTA qualification" (Cambridge Assessment English, n.d.).The fact that there are 1,500 courses offered (Cambridge Assessment English, n.d.) clearly shows the popularity of the training course. The courses usually comprise a total of 120 hours (Cambridge Assessment English, n.d.). During the course, participants develop "a range of practical skills for teaching English to adult learners" and demonstrate their "ability to apply their learning in a real teaching context" (Cambridge Assessment English, n.d.).

In contrast, longer university programmes include less hands-on involvement but a large number of modules on, for example, literature, linguistics, history, philology, second language acquisition (SLA), pedagogical grammar, etc. In Hungary, in 1883, Trefort introduced a five-year-long programme in which 4 years were devoted to various philological subjects, one year to pedagogical and psychological studies and one year to classroom teaching (Article 30; p. 14; Bárdos, 2001, p. 10). The five-year model with a heavy emphasis on philology persisted for a long time, but following the downfall of communism and the mandatory teaching and learning of Russian, three-year-long single-major intensive programmes were introduced to satisfy the crying need for foreign, mostly English and German, language teachers. More recent developments in Hungary include the introduction of the multi-cycle course structure in 2005 including three years of study for a bachelor's degree and two further years for a master's degree (Ministry of Education, 2006, p. 10) and the undivided teacher education programmes of today. Irrespective of programme structure, most university programmes last a minimum of three years or are typically longer and include the following modules, for example: English language development, academic writing, syntax, phonology, literature, architecture, history, Anglo-Saxon political culture, classroom observation, methodology, English-speaking cultures, assessment and evaluation, research into SLA or individual differences in language learning. The programmes are accompanied by a practicum of varying lengths.

In addition to the teacher education programmes described above, recent technological advances have made it possible for teachers to have access to various CPD sources online. It is not only professional journal articles and authentic content that have become easily available but also teaching tips, ready-to-use activities, and online and blended courses, not to mention the possibilities that allow teachers to share, collaborate, and interact with each other in virtual learning communities (Cambridge University Press, 2018). While all this opened up a new channel for CPD, questions may arise as to the quality of some of the quick answers available on, for instance, social media.

The differences outlined above may be based on teaching philosophy or even cultural background. In some cultures, in Germany and Hungary for instance, qualifications and certificates are valued highly, while in other cultures, in the UK, for example, experience is considered to be more important. For example, an individual with 3,000 hours of teaching experience may become a Cambridge English examiner without any teaching qualifications (Cambridge English Assessment, n.d.), which is not possible in the state sector in Hungary. For NESTs, a likely scenario to start their career is to first gain experience and then complete some sort of educational programme, while for NNESTs this is more unlikely. In a Canadian study, for example, Derwing and Munroe (2006) mention that most of the native speaker students at Edmonton "have taught English overseas and have returned to Canada to obtain professional training" (p. 182). The solution-oriented teacher training approach emphasises whether a teacher is able to hold a lesson. Consequently, knowledge and skills need to be made accessible to prospective teachers, and they are expected to put these into practice. A fast-track teacher training course, therefore, provides a set of techniques, a "common currency" (Mann, 2005) for the participants to start with. Widdowson (2003) calls this process "initiation by imitation", in which prospective teachers are to copy what teacher trainers do (p. 3). Widdowson (1997) argues that "this approach not only encourages a transmission view of teaching but is itself transmissive in design in that it casts the teacher in the dependent role of receivers of ideas" (p. 122).

However, the problem-oriented approach to teacher education advocates that a teacher carries out an intellectual activity when teaching. Thus, teachers need to be educated in order to become reflective practitioners, which is a key competence identified by Farrell (2015). The aim of teacher education is to build "a broader awareness of theoretical principles" (Widdowson, 1997, p. 121) that justify certain practices.

Wallace (1991) differentiates between three teacher education models: the craft model, the applied science model, and the reflective model. In the craft model, trainees develop their experiential knowledge with the help of a mentor. In the applied science model, teaching is considered to be a scientific undertaking and therefore research and evidence-based theories are considered as vital. In the reflective model, teachers have two kinds of knowledge: received and experiential knowledge.

Research question

One of the aims of the current research was to obtain data on the views of English teachers on the qualities and skills required for teaching in different contexts. Rethinking the NEST and NNEST debate from the angle of the context in which English is taught and conducting research on the kinds of skills, qualities, and qualifications required for different language learning institutions could lead to a better understanding of the teacher attributes considered to be important for teaching English effectively. The research could provide an awareness of more complex and realistic teacher profiles that correspond with the specific contexts than the simple bipolar distinction between NESTs and NNESTs. The current research aims to address the following research question: What do English teachers think are the most important requirements for their profession in various contexts?

In the study, 12 different teaching contexts were examined, for example, the context of elementary schools or the context of teaching one-to-one. For each context listed below, respondents were asked to rate the importance of the following six requirements: 1) being a native speaker of English, 2) having a high level of proficiency in the language, 3) holding university-level qualifications in the field, 4) gaining experience in teaching, 5) having a short teacher training course (e.g., CELTA), and 6) being a member of a teachers' association. The selection of the contexts and the requirements was based on discussions with fellow professionals in the ELT field as well as the pilot study (see results in Sazdovska & Soproni, 2019). The main data collection instrument was an online survey. The 12 different teaching contexts that were examined are the following:

1. Language school
2. Elementary school
3. High school
4. University (higher education)
5. Teaching lower levels of competence
6. Teaching higher levels of competence
7. Teaching one-to-one
8. Teaching in companies
9. Administrative positions
10. Materials design/writing
11. Presenting at conferences
12. Earning a high salary

The last two items on the list were added on the basis of respondents' feedback in the pilot phase of the questionnaire (N=25). Although 'earning a high salary' is not a context per se, the item was added because it was important to know which factors contribute to higher income in the views of the respondents.

Methods

The cost-efficient and practical online format was chosen to conduct a large-scale (N=417) opinion survey facilitating data entry and allowing generalisable findings (Cohen et al., 2007). With the help of the online link, the questionnaire reached a large group of international professionals, underpinning the findings and their interpretation. The large group of respondents provided statistically analysable data and made it possible for the researchers to make sub-group comparisons that allow conclusions concerning specific groups of professionals and teaching contexts.

The research tool, the online questionnaire, was validated before it was used for a wider population. The validation took place at a small, private university in Budapest using the following steps. First, three colleagues were asked to comment on the wording of the different questions and the structure of the questionnaire. Then, the draft questionnaire was tried out with a small number of colleagues at the same university in order to see whether it "measures what it purports to measure" (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 133). The pilot study was conducted so as to further refine the questionnaire and to provide useful data on the teachers' views on the importance of certain requirements in different contexts of ELT.

In the questionnaire, respondents were asked to provide biographical data anonymously and their views on the importance of six different factors in the listed educational contexts. The questionnaire is not a multi-item scale with several related and linked questions on the same issue (Dörnyei, 2002; Likert, 1932), but rather a Likert-type list of questions on the different contexts investigated (Clason & Dormody, 1994) so as to avoid respondent fatigue.

The final questionnaire included several sections: some questions about participants' language and education background (languages spoken, qualifications, trainings), work experience (present and past type(s) and location(s) of employment, number of contact hours, subjects taught), their views (context-specific Likert-type questions), their teacher association membership, and their biographical information (age, gender).

The questionnaire was an online Google form, and some of the figures describing the data sample below were generated by Google.

Data sample

Altogether 417, mostly European, respondents filled in the online questionnaire. Generally speaking, the participants are highly qualified and experienced in teaching with a good command of several languages. Of the total 417 respondents, 130 (31.1%) consider themselves bi- or multilingual and 120 (28%) speak English as a first language. Ninety-nine (23.7%) of the respondents speak Hungarian as a first language and a further 8% have Serbian as their mother tongue. Seven percent of the respondents' first language was Russian. Other first languages of the respondents included Czech, Polish, and Spanish as well as small percentages of other European languages, and there were some non-European languages spoken as first languages: Arabic, Chinese, Hindi, Japanese, and Uzbek. Table 1 illustrates the first languages of the respondents. The language background of the respondents is naturally influenced by the fact that the researchers are based in Hungary and Eastern Europe and with snowball sampling and by attending local conferences have easier access to teachers in the area. Apart from speaking English as a first or second language, most respondents also indicated a competence in a second, or for most of the respondents a third foreign language. These were most often French, German, Russian, and Spanish, but sometimes classical languages such as Latin or Hebrew, hence respondents may be seen as experienced language learners.

Table 1. *First languages spoken by respondents*

First language	Number of respondents
English	120
Hungarian	99
Serbian	33
Russian	29
Spanish	16
Czech	13
Polish	13
Turkish	10
Portuguese	9
Italian	9
Romanian	7
Ukrainian	7
Albanian	6
Slovak	6
German	5
Greek	5
Arabic	4
French	4
Bulgarian	3
Macedonian	4
Bosnian	4
Hindi	2
Croatian	2
Uzbek	2
Total	**25**

In the sample, the largest number of teachers have an MA in teaching English as a foreign language, at 56.4%, while 24.2% had a BA, 12.5% hold a PhD, and 2.6% have a college degree, and 1% a high school diploma only. Respondents with a PhD degree in the sample may be over-represented as the researchers work at a university and there probably is a greater willingness among researchers and teachers in higher education to participate in research and fill in surveys. One hundred respondents in the sample have completed a CELTA course, which accounts for 24% of the respondents. Some have done so in addition to their university education; others have this qualification only. Many teachers have completed other post-graduate or further education training courses. Figure 1 shows the highest qualifications that the teachers hold. In Figures 1–3, percentage figures will be given to give an overall impression of the sample. College degree in the chart refers to four-year college degrees obtained prior to the introduction of bachelor's and master's degrees in Hungary.
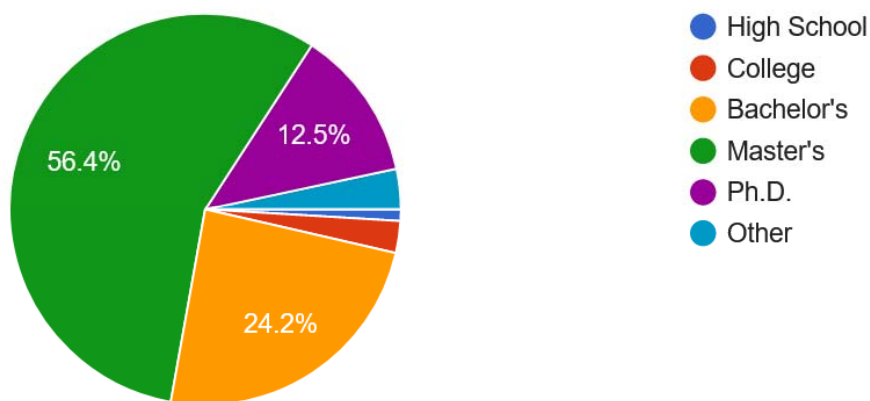

Figure 1. *Level of education among respondents*

The teachers in the sample are fairly experienced on average: They have been in their current employment for an average of 11.78 years, and 72.6% of them have worked outside Hungary. In terms of age, over a third of the teachers are in their 40s (33.3%) with roughly a quarter in their 30s (23.3%) and another quarter (24%) in their 50s. Overall, the distribution of age seems to be quite even. Figure 2 depicts the proportion of each age group of the participants.
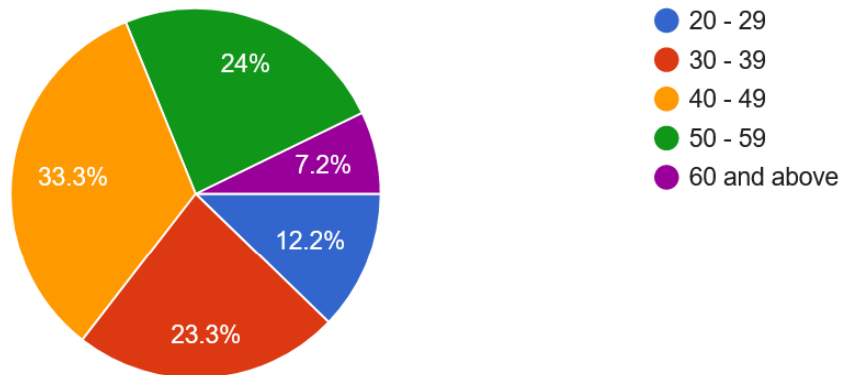
Figure 2. *Age of respondents*

With regards to the gender of the teachers as illustrated in Figure 3, the large majority of the respondents are female, which is not unusual for the profession.
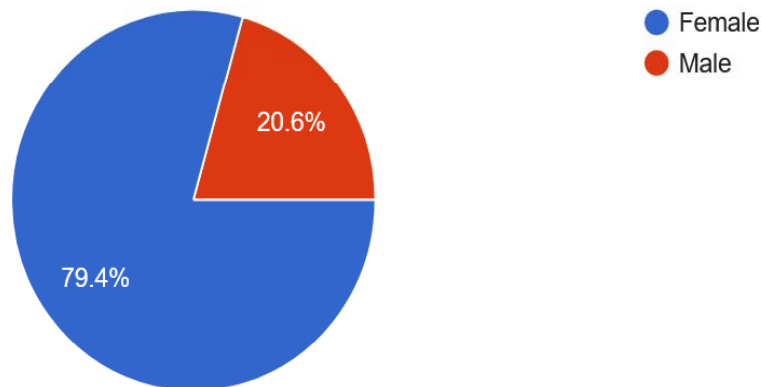

Figure 3. *Gender of respondents*

An interesting aspect of the sample is the number of hours that the respondents teach. They teach an average of 18.9 hours a week. Fourteen percent of the respondents have 8 or fewer teaching hours a week, 19% of the respondents have between 8 and 15 teaching hours a week, while the majority (40%) teach between 15 and 25 contact hours as might be expected. A substantial proportion, 18% teach 25 to 35 hours a week, and as many as 5% teach over 35 hours a week, with 3% exceeding 45 hours a week. This might be due to the fact that many of the participants are freelancers who need to teach at several institutions to make ends meet.

By looking at Table 1 and Figures 1–3 above, we can see that the average respondent is a middle-aged bilingual or multilingual woman, perhaps with English or Hungarian as her first language and a master's degree. The average weekly workload is between 15 and 25 hours, but the number of hours per week may be higher.

The characteristics of the participants are representative of the English teaching profession in the sense that most of them are women and speak more than one language. On the whole, the sample is probably representative of a more educated or more dedicated group of English language teachers since they were willing to contribute to research voluntarily. In terms of the number of teaching hours a week, it is quite frequent for teachers in Hungary to work at more than one institution as is the case with many freelancers at the researchers' university, but there is no data available on this matter in Europe. Two areas where this sample is similar to the language teacher population of Hungary are age and gender. In the sample of a recent study on the framework and efficiency of foreign language teaching (N=1,118), a similarly large proportion of teachers in public education were between 41 and 50 (Illés & Csizér, 2018), and the majority of them were women (approximately 89%), which is an even higher proportion than in this pilot study (79.4%).

Validation

The pilot study proved that the questions were comprehensible for respondents working in similar institutions. One outcome of the pilot study was that classical languages were added to the list of languages in some of the questions, more specifically, Greek, old Greek, and Latin since many of the respondents had and future respondents may have studied in traditional settings where classical studies are a part of their higher education programmes. Respondents also proposed that *Giving conference presentations* should be included as a context in the questionnaire since they experienced preference on the organisers' part to invite native-speaker presenters as plenary speakers at international conferences. Some sort of *social recognition of work* was also recommended as a possible context: Respondents believed that a context referring to *Achieving a high salary* could be added. Thus, the 10 contexts were expanded to 12 based on feedback from fellow professionals during the validation and piloting process.

Results

The overall results of the online questionnaire were similar to those of the pilot one. As can be seen in Figure 4 below, the requirement that was most valued by English teachers in all contexts was proficiency in the language at 4.2 out of 5 on the Likert scale. There is a large gap of 0.6 between the top-ranking qualification and the second one, which is having experience in teaching English with a score of 3.6 out of 5. Third was having a university degree in ELT at 3.4, fourth having a short teacher training such as CELTA at 3.0, and being a member of a teacher association such as IATEFL at 2.6. The lowest-rated requirement for all contexts overall was being a native speaker of English at 2.4. In all the figures below, the requirements appear in the order in which they were listed in the questionnaire.
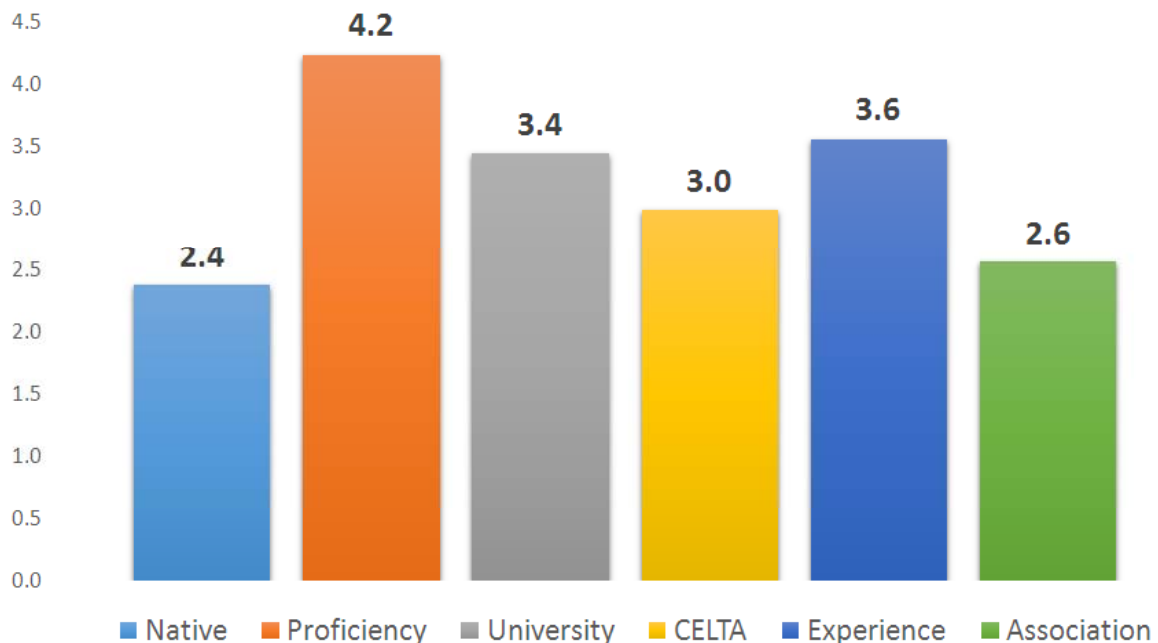

Figure 4. *Overall averages*

Figure 5 below illustrates that not only was proficiency the highest-rated requirement overall, but it was also the highest-rated requirement in each one of the 12 contexts separately. The scores for proficiency are represented in red and highlighted in bold for an easier overview.
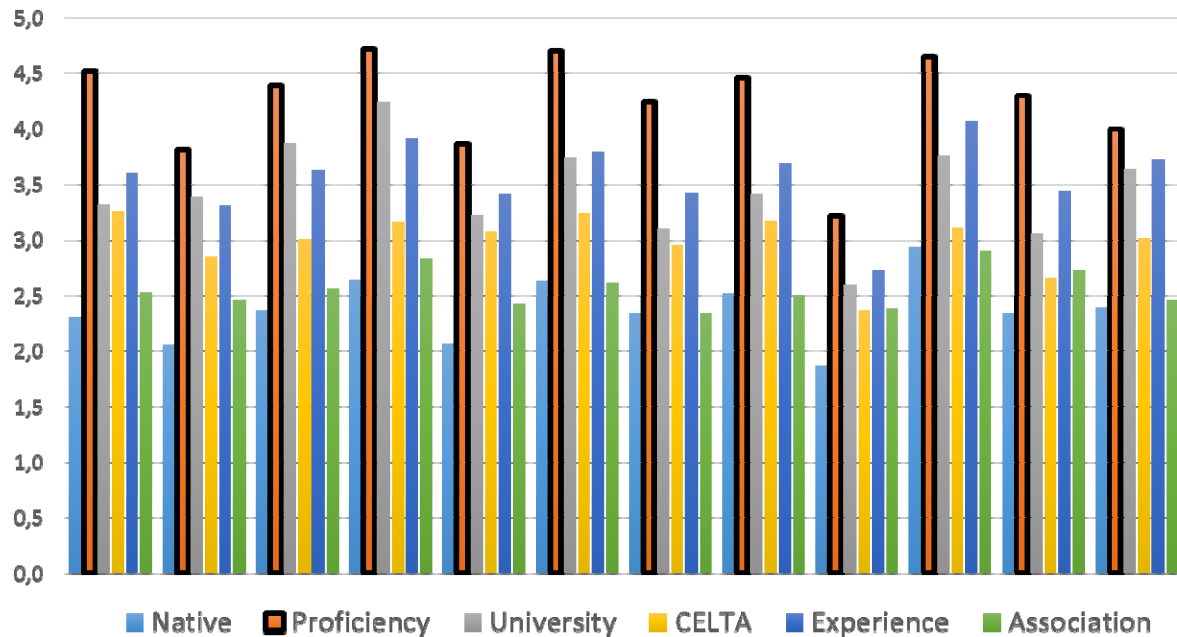
Figure 5. *Proficiency compared to other requirements in all contexts*

The remaining results will be presented in two sets. First, the paper will outline comparisons of the findings for different contexts. Second, the views of different groups of teachers will be compared.

Comparison of results for different contexts

Since one of the main aims of this research study is to investigate the views of teachers about which requirements may be more important in certain contexts, this part of the paper will present the results by contrasting two contexts at a time. In each comparison instance, we tried to select two contexts which we considered to be very different. The following five comparisons of contexts will be covered:

1. teaching at an elementary school vs. a university;
2. teaching at a language school vs. a university;
3. being a school administrator vs. being a writer of teaching materials;
4. teaching higher vs. lower level students and, finally,
5. teaching one-to-one vs. groups.

As mentioned, the reasoning behind the selection of contexts is to compare settings which are very different. In the first case, we selected the lowest level of elementary schools and the highest level of universities, leaving out high schools, thinking that the two opposite ends of the continuum would be the most interesting for comparison. The same basis of selection was used for the fourth comparison of teaching students with very different levels of English knowledge. For comparisons two and five we took settings which were very different in nature and might therefore require different teaching skills. A similar logic was used for selecting to compare school administrators and materials writers. These are roles that many teachers take on during their career that would require very distinct sets of skills and qualifications.

The first pair of contexts to be compared will be teaching at elementary schools and teaching at universities. As can be seen in Figure 6 below, all the requirements were rated lower by respondents in the case of elementary schools compared to universities. The largest difference between the two contexts is in the proficiency requirement. For teaching at elementary school, respondents rated having a high proficiency in English at 3.8 compared to 4.7 at university. Although proficiency was the highest-rated requirement in all contexts, the difference of almost one point (0.9) between the two settings is striking. This finding is significant in terms of the research aim as it points to the fact that indeed the priorities of teacher requirements are context dependent. The second important difference is in the level of education. For the context of elementary schools, teachers rated the importance of having a university degree in ELT at 3.4 compared to 4.2 for the university context. This will be further elaborated on in the discussion section.
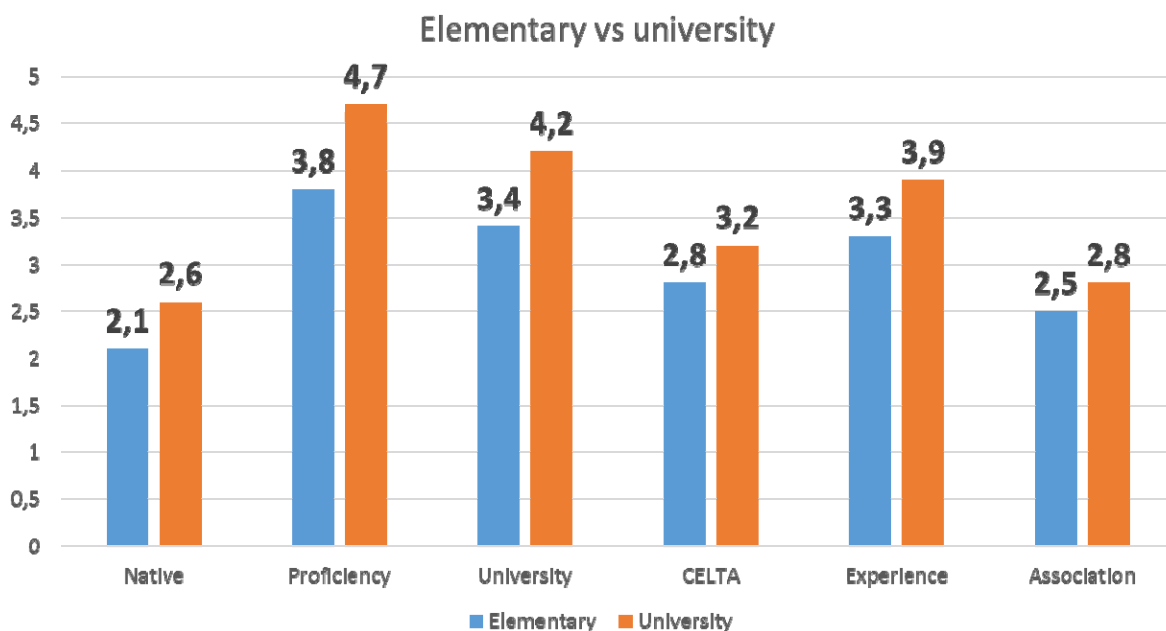

Figure 6. *Comparison of elementary and university English teachers' views*

Second, teaching at university was also compared to teaching at a language school, which yielded similar results to the comparison with elementary schools, though somewhat less pronounced. This time, instead of proficiency, the most visible difference is in terms of having a university degree in ELT, rated at just 3.3 for language schools as opposed to 4.2 at universities, a difference of 0.9. The remaining requirements were all slightly lower for language schools, with the difference ranging between 0.1 and 0.3 points. Figure 7 below illustrates the results for these two contexts.
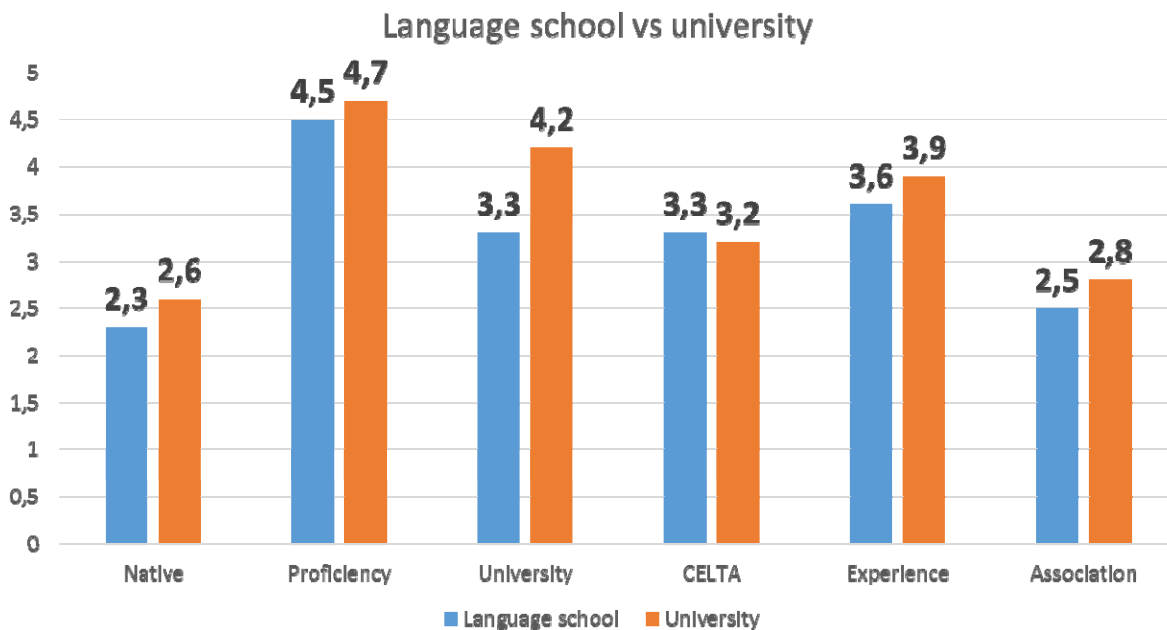

Figure 7. *Comparison of language school and university English teachers' views*

The third comparison is between the views of English teachers concerning the importance of the six requirements for two different roles of ELT professionals: being an administrator of a language school and being a writer of English language teaching materials. All the requirements were deemed to be less important for running a school than for writing teaching materials. In fact, the overall average for all the requirements together for administrators was 2.5 as opposed to 3.5 for writers, a difference of a full point. As with some of the other comparisons, the greatest difference is in the level of proficiency required for the two positions. For school administrators, the importance of English language proficiency scored 3.1, while for materials writers it was 4.6. An equally dramatic difference of 1.4 points can be seen in how important respondents deemed experience to be for the two roles with 2.7 for administrators and 4.1 for writers. What is also interesting to note is the very low importance placed on having English as an L1 for school administrators. At just 1.9, this is the lowest-rated requirement of all the results presented in this section. The average scores for being the administrator of a language school and being the writer of English language teaching materials are illustrated in Figure 8 below.

Administrator vs author
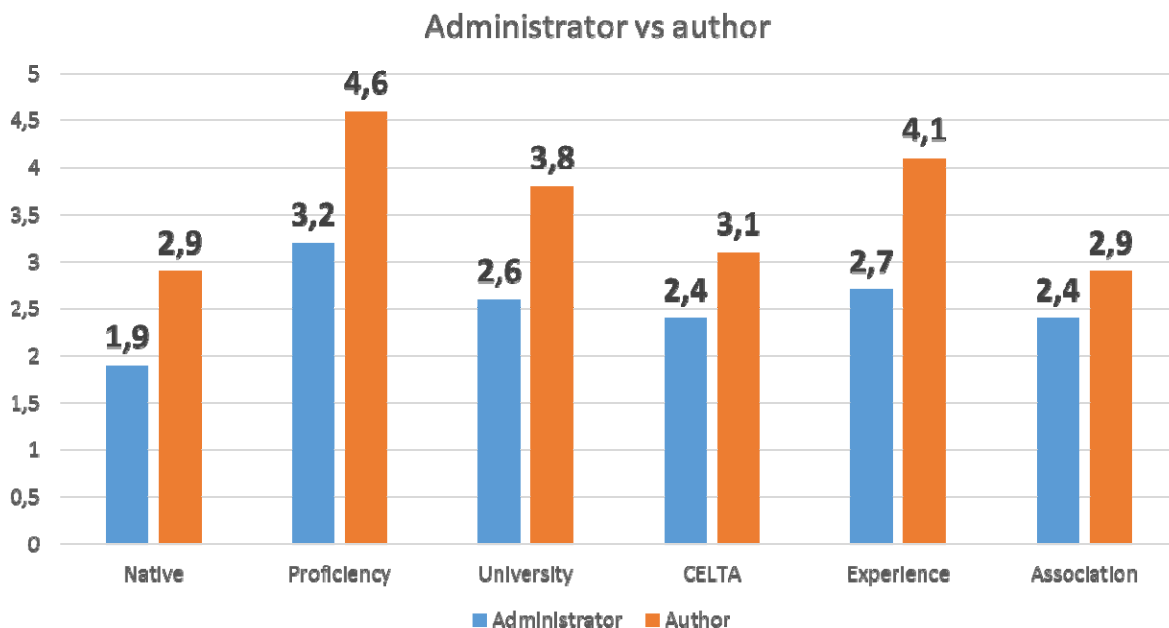
Figure 8. *Comparisons of views on being a language school administrator and language materials writer*

Fourth, we compare the respondents' views on the importance of the requirements for the teaching of lower- and higher-level groups. Perhaps unsurprisingly, teachers considered all the six requirements to be less important for the teaching of lower-level students with the largest difference once again seen in the importance of English proficiency, which for the teaching of lower levels was rated at 3.9 compared to 4.7 for higher levels (a difference of 0.8). Figure 9 below shows the averages for these two situations.

Lower vs higher levels

Figure 9. *Comparison of English teachers' views on teaching lower- and higher-level groups*

The fifth and last pair of contexts to be compared will be the teaching of individual students versus groups. For these two situations, the 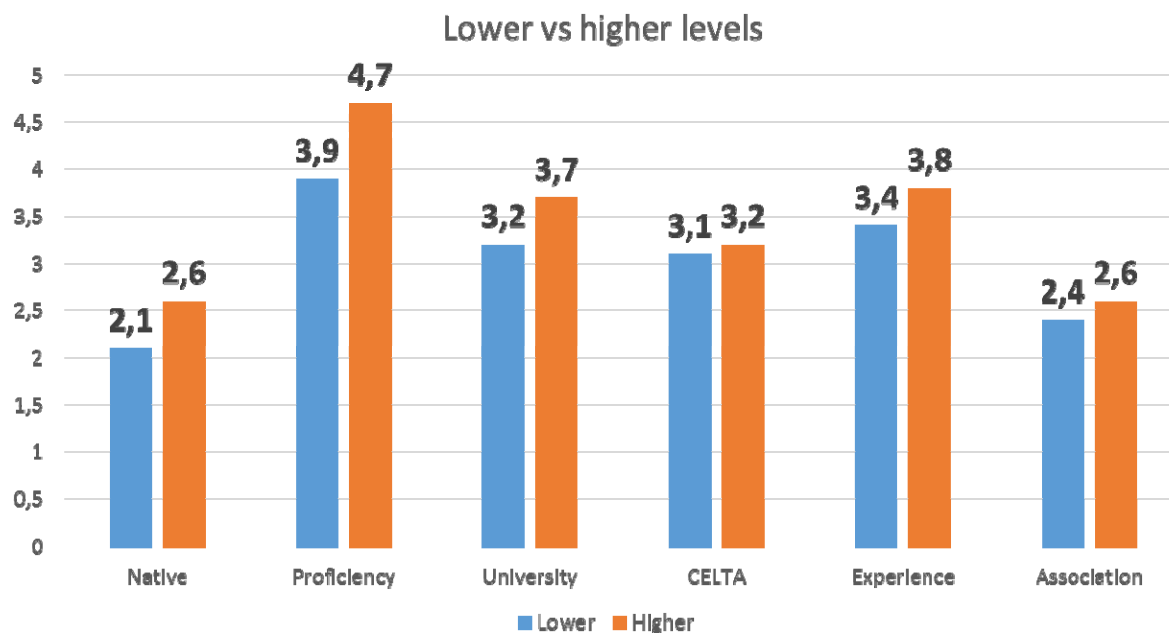differences are only slight for most requirements ranging from equal for short trainings such as CELTA to 0.3 for being a member of a teachers' association like IATEFL. The only significant difference here is not in the level of proficiency, as opposed to the other comparisons, but in the level of education. Teachers considered having a university degree in ELT less important for teaching one-to-one with a rating of 3.1 compared to 3.8 for the teaching of groups. This interesting finding will be addressed in the discussion later on. Figure 10 below shows the averages for teaching individuals and groups and is the final illustration of the different teaching situations.
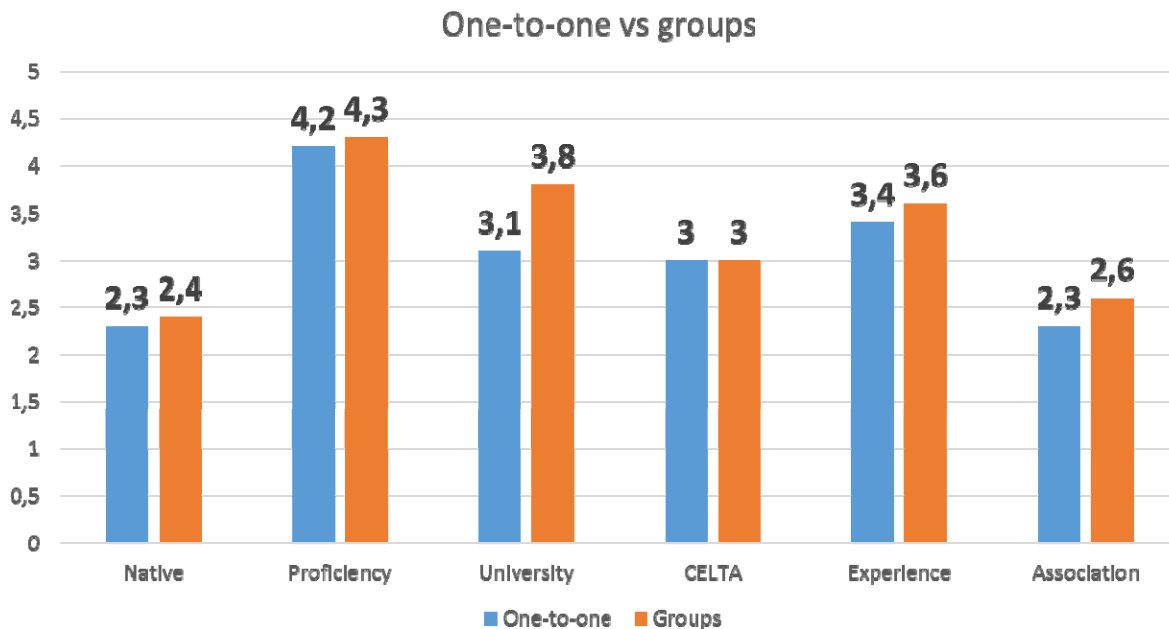
Figure 10. *Comparison of English teachers' views on teaching one-to-one and groups*

Teacher background

We next turn to the comparisons of the views of various groups of participants. There will be six comparisons based on the following aspects of the teachers' backgrounds:

1. level of experience
2. age
3. being a native speaker of English
4. teaching business or general English
5. having completed a short training
6. level of education

Starting with the level of experience, we compared the responses of teachers who had 5 years or less experience in teaching English with the answers of teachers who had 20 or more years of teaching experience. As Figure 11 below illustrates, more experienced teachers paid slightly greater value than less experienced participants to proficiency, having a university degree in ELT, experience, and being a member of a teachers' association. Interestingly, more experienced teachers rated having a short training like CELTA as being less important than their less experienced counterparts, although the difference is only 0.1.
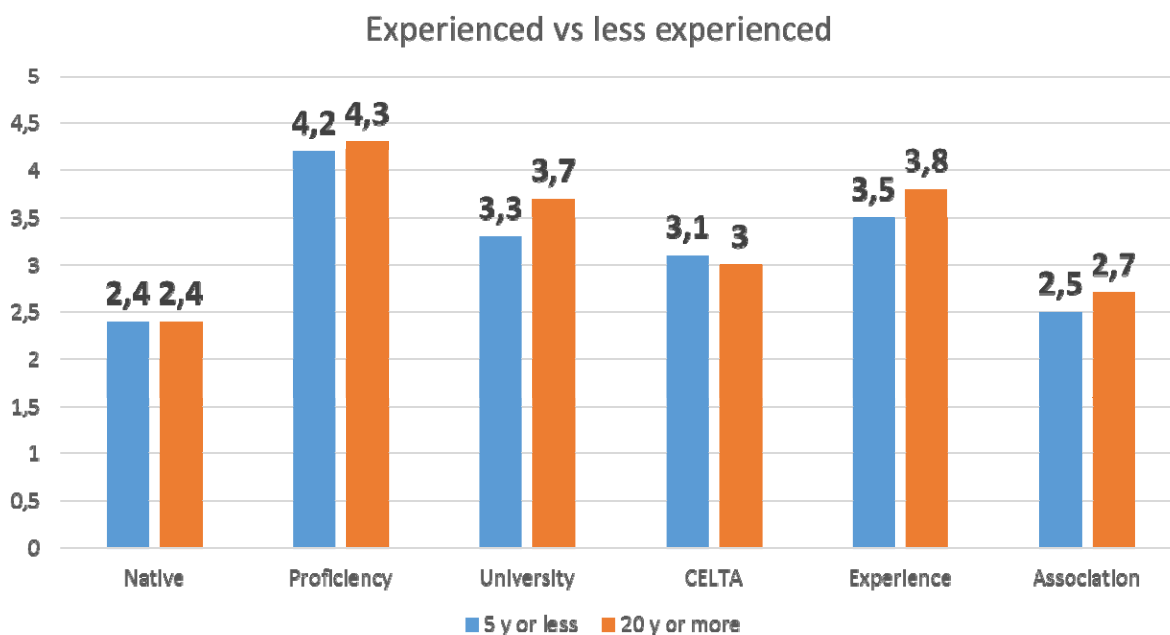
Figure 11. *Comparison of views of more and less experienced English teachers*

The second comparison is made based on the age of the participants by looking at the ratings of teachers aged 40 and below and teachers who are aged 50 and above. As in the previous figure, the differences are very small, but there is an overall tendency for respondents in the higher age category to place somewhat less importance on all requirements except being a native speaker of English, which was rated the same by both groups. Figure 12 below shows the results of the views of these two sets of teachers.
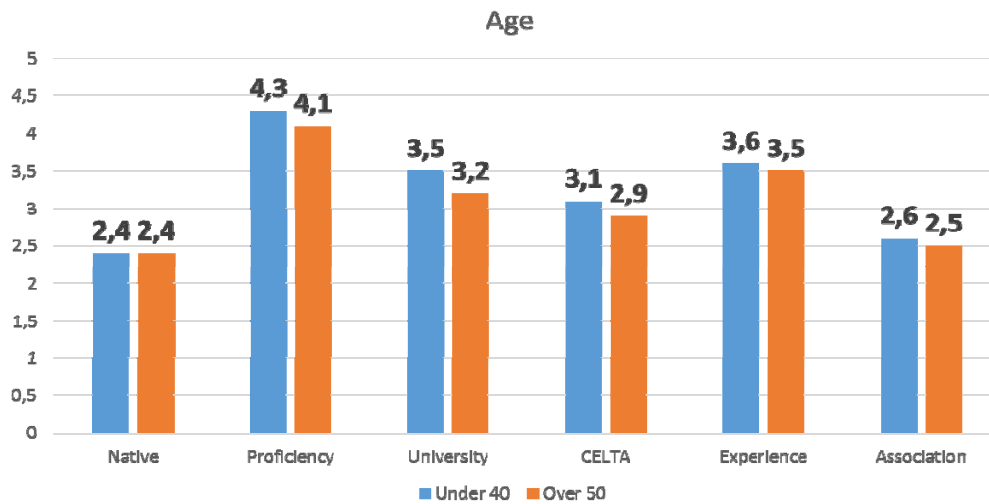
Figure 12. *Comparison of views of English teachers who are below 40 and above 50 years of age*

Third, a comparison was made between the views of teachers who view themselves as native speakers of English with the scores of respondents who see themselves as non-native speakers of English. The differences are once again small, but they do point to findings which in the discussion section will be related to the wider research in the field. The results indicate that NESTs seem to give slightly greater importance to having English as an L1 (perhaps unsurprisingly), proficiency in English, and having a short training. Their NNEST counterparts, on the other hand, placed higher value on having an ELT university degree (with the largest difference at 0.5), having experience, and being a member of a teachers' association like IATEFL. Figure 13 demonstrates the differences in the views of these two groups of teachers.

Figure 13. *Comparison of views of native and non-native English teachers*

For the fourth set of comparisons, we decided to investigate the views of teachers who teach business English and those of their colleagues who teach general English. The results do not yield any interesting findings with the scores of the two groups being almost identical. The only slight difference can be found in the importance of needing a high level of proficiency for teaching English with business En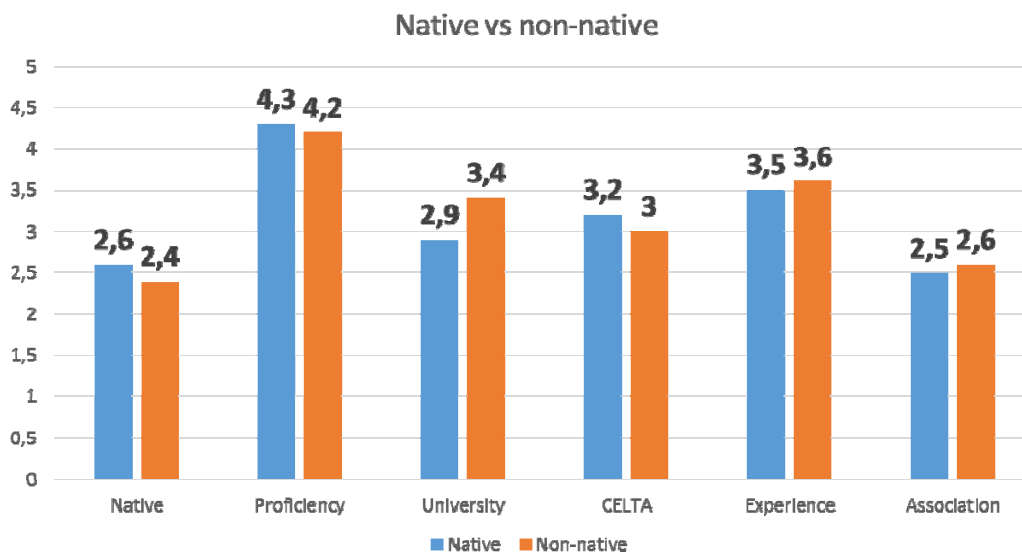glish teachers rating this requirement at 4.3, which is only 0.1 point higher than the score of general English teachers. Figure 14 below shows just how similar the results for these two groups of teachers are.

Business vs general
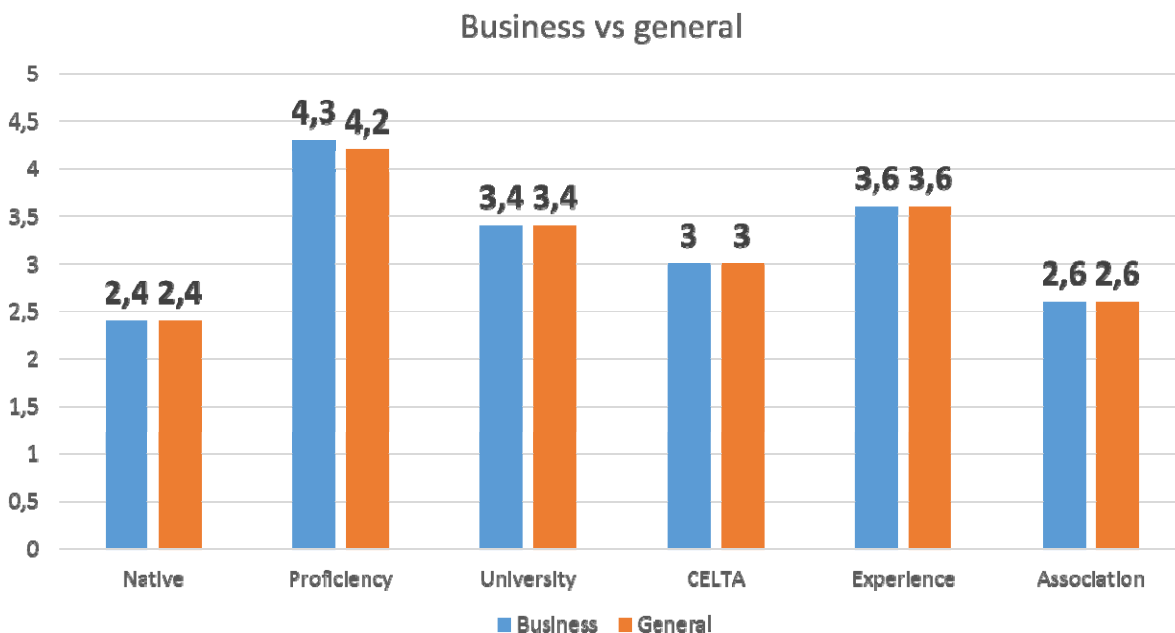
Figure 14. *Comparison of views of business English and general English teachers*

The fifth comparison of the results based on the teachers' backgrounds is between respondents who have completed a short teacher training programme like CELTA and those who have not. Unsurprisingly, the largest difference between these two types of teachers is in their views of the importance of having a short training and/or a university degree in teaching English. Those teachers who themselves have completed a training like CELTA viewed its importance as much higher at 3.4 compared to those without such a certificate at 3.0. Conversely, CELTA holders thought that having an ELT university degree was less important (3.0) in relation to the participants who do not have a CELTA. This interesting finding will need to be further examined in the discussion section and related to the literature in the field as well as the other findings in the current study. The remaining requirements are either identical or show only slight differences of 0.1 to 0.2 as can be seen in Figure 15 below.
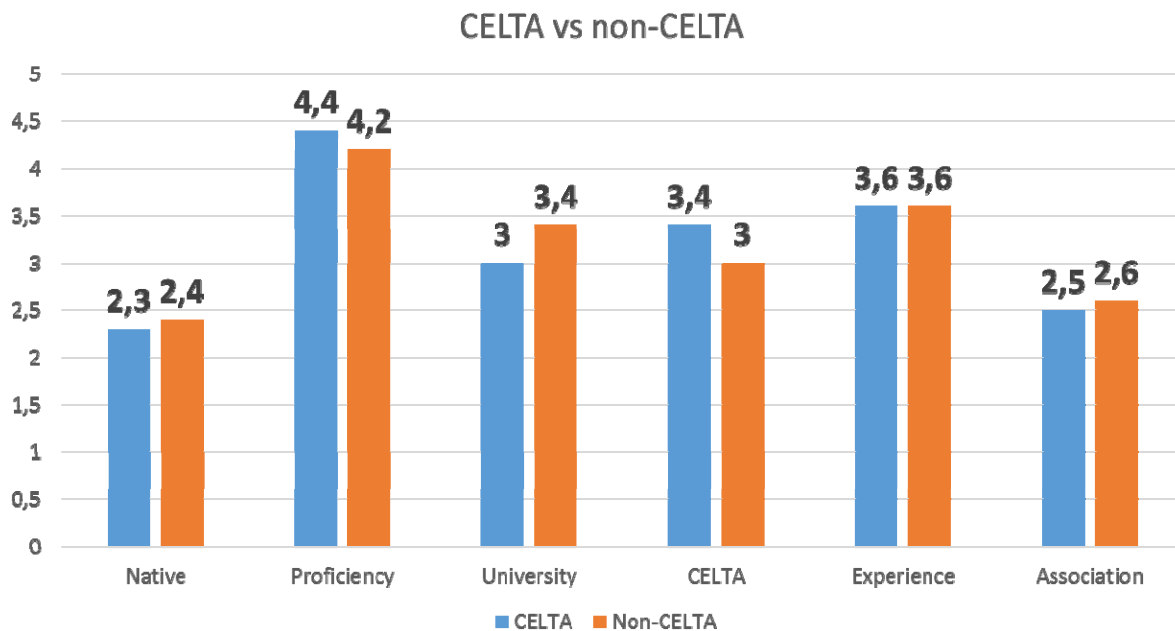
Figure 15. *Comparison of views of English teachers with and without a CELTA training*

The sixth and final groups of teachers to be compared are those who have a PhD in English language pedagogy versus those who have a BA or lower-level qualification. The only requirement that both these group held as equally important in order to be a successful English teacher was that of having a high level of English. The rest of the views build an intriguing picture with academics placing much less value on having English as a first language at just 2.0 compared to a score of 2.6 for teachers with a BA or lower qualification. PhD holders also predictably considered having a university degree more important (3.6) as opposed to their colleagues with lower levels of education (3.2). Additionally, teachers with doctoral degrees placed less value on short trainings (2.9) and experience (3.4) than respondents with lower levels of education (3.1 for CELTA and 3.6 for experience). The views were reversed for being a member of a teachers' association with PhD holders rating this requirement at 2.8 as opposed to teachers with an ELT BA or lower qualifications, who gave association membership a score of 2.5. The last illustration in this section is Figure 16 below, which provides an overview of the views of teachers based on their level of education.
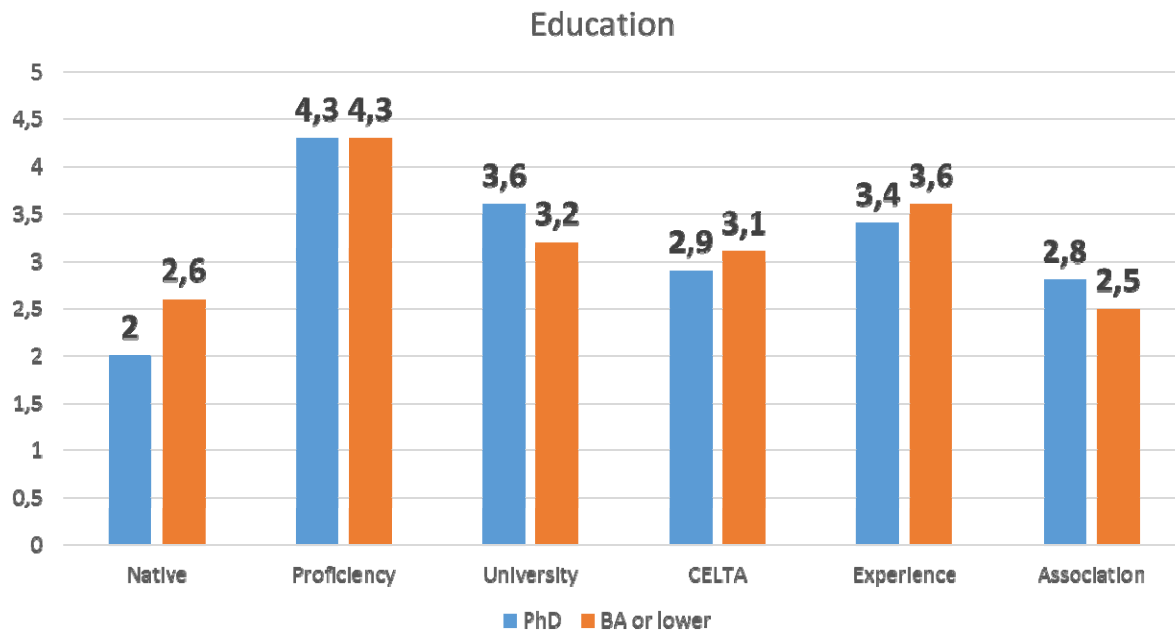
Education

Figure 16. *Comparison of views of higher and lower educated English teachers*

To summarise the results, two groups of comparisons were made. The first comparison looked at the way respondents' views varied depending on the context in question. We saw that for elementary schools, language schools, lower-level students, and one-to-one teaching, all the six different requirements were considered to be less important with the greatest differences evident in the level of English proficiency required to teach in these contexts as well as the necessary level of education. For being a school administrator, all requirements were deemed less important than for being the writer of English teaching materials, with the lowest of all scores given to the importance of having English as a first language.

When looking at the views of different groups of teachers, we saw that there is a tendency for experienced, non-native, and PhD-holding teachers to place greater value on having a university degree, having experience, and being a member of a teachers' association. On the other hand, native speakers of English, less experienced teachers, lower-educated respondents, and those with a CELTA training were more likely to give higher scores to having English as an L1 and having a short training when compared to their counterparts.

Discussion

The aim of this research is to move the discussion about the requirements for being a successful teacher away from the dichotomy of the NEST versus NNEST debate into a more nuanced investigation of how the views concerning teacher requirements may depend on the teaching context and the teachers' backgrounds. This section will link the results described above to wider research in the field, focusing on the following points:

1. the importance of English language proficiency, teacher education, and experience seen in the overall results,
2. the influence of context on the rating of various teacher requirements, and
3. the impact of the teachers' background on their views concerning the value of certain requirements.

Starting with the overall results and the issue of proficiency in English, we saw that this requirement had the overall highest rating of all requirements at 4.2 compared to having English as a first language, which scored just 2.4 points overall. Additionally, proficiency had the highest score not just overall, but also in each and every context as seen in Figure 5. This would indicate that the views of our participants are in line with Kiczkowiak's (2019) findings that English teachers themselves tend to place less value on being native speakers of English compared to students and recruiters. Having English as an L1 was the lowest-rated requirement for all contexts, supporting Kiczkowiak's (2019) results that this is the least important quality for Polish teachers, students, and recruiters alike. In the eyes of ELT professionals, the issue of proficiency takes priority over nativeness, and it is only when the level of the former is low(er) that the latter gains importance. Thus, paying greater attention to developing teachers' English fluency and proficiency in teacher education (Sazdovska & Soproni, 2019) would contribute even further to turning the focus away from the debate over the idealised (Seidlhofer, 2011) and politicised (Holliday, 2009) native-speaker construct.

The overall results also underline the importance of experience and university education rated respectively at 3.6 and 3.4 out of 5. It seems that for ELT practitioners education and experience are valued in any and all contexts. Indeed, along with proficiency, they seem to form the three pillars of professionalism in the teaching of English. Short trainings like CELTA, on the other hand, were deemed to be much less important reflecting that the scholarly education side of Bárdos's (2001) scale outweighs practical training in the eyes of the respondents. Yet, it frequently happens that for teaching English internationally many institutions refuse to hire candidates unless they have certificates of such short trainings, despite the fact that the candidates may hold a BA, MA, or even a PhD in teaching English (Sazdovska & Soproni, 2019). It is interesting to note that contrary to these international recruiters, the participants in this study gave lower ratings to the importance of initiation by imitation (Widdowson, 2003). Short teacher trainings like CELTA offer hands-on strategies through what Wallace (1991) terms the craft-experiential model, and it is hardly surprising that professionals in the ELT field give greater credit to university education and extensive, long-term teaching experience.

Let us now turn to the second discussion point of how context influences the views of teachers about the importance of various requirements. We saw that for teaching at university, higher-level students, and groups, apart from the high level of English proficiency, to teach in these contexts, a higher level of education was also deemed necessary. Having an ELT university degree in these settings was considered more important than for other settings by 0.8 or 0.9 points, which is significant. It is perhaps logical that the higher the level and number of the students, the greater the skills and qualifications required to teach them. The importance of teacher education rather than training, especially for these contexts, is underpinned by Widdowson's (1991) argument that knowledge of theoretical principles is vital in order to justify the choice of pedagogical practices and their suitability to a particular setting. University-level teacher education provides theoretical grounding, a large repertoire of methodological approaches, and extensive teaching practice, all of which constitute essential elements for an eclectic approach to English language teaching (Sazdovska, 2015). Thorough knowledge of teaching theory, methodology, and practice is vital for teachers to be able to make informed decisions in the language classroom (Illés & Csizér, 2018). The overall results indicated that proficiency, teaching experience, and a university degree are the highest rated, and for demanding settings such as tertiary, high-level, and large-group teaching, these three requirements seem to gain even more in importance compared to other settings.

Within the range of contexts, we also investigated the difference in the teachers' views of the requirements for being a school administrator and a writer of English teaching materials. In this instance, all requirements were deemed less important for administrators than for writers. It is difficult to know for certain the explanation of this finding without further research. It is possible that teachers consider materials writers to be more directly involved with the teaching process and therefore all the requirements are more important for educators in this role. However, administrators are the decision-makers in their organisation responsible for a large range of crucial aspects such as recruitment, approaches, syllabi, and wider education strategy. The impact of these decisions can be far-reaching, so it is hard to understand why teachers consider the necessity for these professionals to be highly qualified and experienced in the teaching of English as considerably lower than that of materials writers. In the different cultures where the respondents come from, there also might be different interpretations of the word administrator and the position in school hierarchies. Certainly, it would be interesting to conduct further research into this issue.

The third and final point in the discussion relates to how the teachers' background influences their views of the importance of the six requirements. We compared the views of teachers depending on the years of experience in teaching English, their age, the subjects they teach, their level of education and training, as well as whether they considered themselves to be native speakers of English. The results show that experienced, non-native, and PhD-holding teachers were more likely to value having a university degree, having experience, and being a member of a teachers' association. Conversely, native speakers of English, less experienced teachers, lower-educated respondents, and those with a CELTA training tended to have higher ratings on having English as an L1 and having a short training. Obviously, teachers value those requirements which are more in line with their own

attributes, but why should groups of teachers who are experienced, non-native, and highly educated hold similar views to each other? Or to put the question in reverse, why should NESTs, CELTA holders, less experienced, lower-educated participants share opinions? We decided to take a deeper look into the teachers' background to see whether these are indeed distinct categories of teachers who share the same beliefs or whether there is an overlap in the groups. We looked at the qualifications and years of experience of native and non-native English teachers. Figure 17 below illustrates the findings.
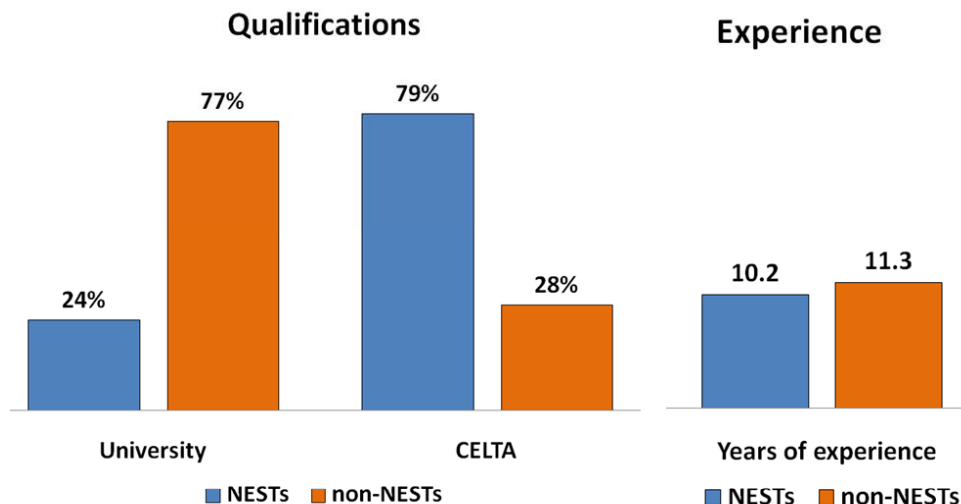

Figure 17. *NEST and NNEST qualifications and experience*

Figure 17 illustrates that indeed there is an overlap in the groups. Of the 120 native speakers of English, only 24% had a university degree in teaching English as opposed to 77% of the non-native teachers. The percentages were vice versa when it came to CELTA and similar trainings, with a majority of NESTs (79%) holding such certificates in contrast to NNESTS (28%). The difference in experience between the two groups is much less pronounced, but the NNESTs seem to be about one year more experienced than their NEST counterparts. The data show that there is, in fact, an overlap in the results seen in Figures 11 (the views of teachers with more and less experience), 13 (NESTs and NNESTs), 15 (with and without a CELTA), and 16 (higher- and lower-educated teachers).

These results build more comprehensive profiles for the NEST and NNEST categories. They would indicate that native English-speaking teachers tend to both be trained in and value short ELT courses more in line with the craft, experiential (Wallace, 1991) model of teaching. Conversely, non-native teachers are far more likely to hold a university degree and value long-term, scholarly, academic education (Bárdos, 2001). Fine-tuning the picture even further, we may extrapolate from the results that NESTs may be better suited for teaching English at language or elementary schools and one-to-one teaching, while NNESTs, due to their higher level of education, could be better equipped to teach at high schools and universities with larger groups of students.

Revisiting nativeness vs. qualifications

By looking at the qualifications of NESTs and NNESTs as well as the types of settings they are more suited to teach at, we can get a more refined picture of the qualities of each group and begin to overcome the simplistic dichotomy of native versus non-native teachers. Since the definition of the native speaker is controversial (Jenkins, 2006) and highly politicised (Holiday, 2009), a way forward could be to use the qualifications and background of teachers to highlight their appropriate contexts for teaching. This more complex teacher profile would be based on Wallace's (1991) training models and Bárdos's (2001) scholarly education and practical training scale. On the one hand, we have the **Craft** English teachers, who are predominantly (though perhaps not necessarily) native speakers of English with a short training in ELT and with a set of practical skills suited for the teaching of individuals or small groups in language-school settings. On the other hand, we have the **Academic** teachers of English, who are typically non-native, have a university degree, and have a thorough knowledge of the theoretical concepts of teaching methodology required to manage large groups in advanced levels of secondary and tertiary language education. Furthermore, the theoretical knowledge of language learning and language use provides Academic teachers with the tools to tailor a methodology which is most appropriate for the needs and aims of a particular group of learners (Illés, 2019). The use of the terms Craft and Academic teacher would also signal the strengths of each group as evidenced by Medgyes (1994) and open up avenues of greater collaboration between the groups as well as contextualisation for both types of teachers.

The original contribution to the ELT field of this study is hopefully the re-conceptualisation of NEST and NNEST into **Craft** and **Academic** teachers. As mentioned in the literature review above, Jenkins (2009) also has a theoretical framework of three teacher categories: monolingual English speaker (MES), bilingual English speaker (BES), and non-bilingual English speaker (NBES). Jenkins (2009) herself admits that in her categorisation it may at times be difficult to draw the line between the BES and the NBES. Additionally, the three categories are based on the language the teachers speak and not necessarily their teacher qualifications. The **Craft** and **Academic** teacher differentiation has the potential to overcome this problem by focusing the categorisation on objective teaching qualifications in addition to the languages the teachers speak. Moreover, it matches these teacher qualifications to settings that each set of teachers is more likely to thrive in.

Limitations

As with most online voluntary surveys, this study is limited by participant self-selection, snow-ball sampling, and little control over including proportionate numbers of all types of teachers. Therefore, the results might not be fully representative of the teaching community in Eastern and Central Europe where the research was conducted. The large number of participants, though, does offer some grounds for generalisation.

The possible bias of the researchers also needs to be addressed and made transparent. Both authors have PhDs in English language pedagogy and identify as non-native speakers of English, placing them in the Academic group of teachers described above. As such, the perspectives of this study may have been influenced by the authors' own agenda of prioritising qualifications, experience, proficiency, training, and other professional requirements over having English as one's L1.

Conclusion

In summary, this research investigated the views of 417 English teachers in Central and Eastern Europe concerning the importance of various teacher requirements in relation to different teaching contexts. The overall results show that by far the highest-rated requirement is having a solid level of proficiency in the language at a score of 4.2 out of 5 on the Likert scale. The second highest requirement is having experience in teaching with 3.6, closely followed by having an ELT university degree at 3.4. At the lower end of the ratings, we find having completed a short teacher training like CELTA at 3.0, being a member of a teachers' association at 2.6, and finally, having English as one's native language as the lowest-rated requirement at just 2.4. As shown in other research in the field, teachers seem to value professionally gained qualities much more than the accidental happenstance of one's first language.

In terms of contexts, for elementary schools, language schools, lower-level students, and one-to-one teaching, all requirements were deemed to be less important than for teaching in other settings. For being a school administrator, all the six different requirements received lower ratings than for being the writer of English teaching materials. In light of the fact that administrators and managers of schools are part of the key decision-makers in the teaching field, more research needs to be conducted into this issue to investigate whether this is indeed the case and what impact the finding might have on the ELT profession as a whole if decisions are made by people who are not in fact ELT professionals.

When it comes to comparing the views of various groups of teachers, the results show that experienced, non-native, and PhD-holding teachers tend to place greater value on having a university degree, having experience, and being a member of a teachers' association. Conversely, native speakers of English, less experienced teachers, lower-educated respondents, and those with a CELTA training tended to give higher ratings to having English as an L1 and having a short training. The findings shown in Figure 17 suggest that there is an overlap in the group of teachers who are NNESTs, higher-educated, and more experienced teachers on the one hand, while NESTs as a group tended to have completed short trainings. This more nuanced picture of the two types of teachers can be further refined with the help of research in the area which looks are various models of teacher education leading to a possible new categorisation of **Craft** English teachers, who on the whole are more likely to have English as their L1 and have completed a short training, and of **Academic** teachers, who tend in general to be non-native and have an ELT university degree. The line between the two categories is not free from ambiguity, as the differentiation between NESTs and NNESTs is not these days, but ELT professionals could place themselves on the continuum between these two ends, similarly to Medgyes's (1994) interlanguage continuum (p. 13).

When collating the contexts and types of teachers, based on the results we can tentatively draw the conclusion that Craft teachers could be better suited to teaching individuals or small groups in language-school settings. Academic teachers, on the other hand, might be more appropriate for more complex and demanding teaching contexts such as higher education or large groups of students that require solid knowledge of English teaching methodology and theoretical concepts helping them to make fast, but well-informed decisions in the classroom.

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Lecturers' views on English-language communication in an international university context: A pilot study

Árpád Farkas

Introduction

The English language has attained a truly international status as it has spread far beyond the borders of its countries of origin, and it is now the most widely spoken language in the world provided that both the native speakers and the non-native speakers of the language are taken into account (Crystal, 1997). It is estimated that English may be studied and, with varying degrees of proficiency, spoken by as many as 1.5 billion speakers (Crystal, 2000). What follows from the predominance of the language is that English offers tremendous utility not only to those who seek employment, but in all walks of life, including education. This is particularly true in higher education, which is becoming increasingly globalised, and this is, in large part, due to the use of English: Graddol (2006) pointed out that the globalisation of tertiary education would scarcely be possible without the use of English as an international language (EIL). Although distinctions may be drawn between EIL and English as a lingua franca (ELF), the two terms have been used synonymously to denote the same phenomenon, with ELF being the favoured term by scholars in recent years (Jenkins, 2015), probably due to the fact that ELF denotes the function that English fulfils in international settings. The use of English for educational purposes in international contexts should, therefore, be seen as a form of ELF communication.

In countries like Hungary, where English is not spoken as a first language by the majority and has no special status, universities offer courses and sometimes entire programmes in English in order to entice prospective international students into enrolment and to cater for the needs of their existing body of international students (Szabó, 2018). These international classrooms are unique teaching and learning contexts in that neither the students nor the teachers are typically native speakers of English; nonetheless, English tends to be the only means of communication at the participants' disposal. In recent years, a number of studies have examined how interlocutors make themselves understood in educational contexts where English is the language of choice for communication (e.g., Cogo, 2010; Gotti, 2014; Ranta, 2010). It is to this area of research (i.e., ELF communication and communication strategies in classroom settings) that the present paper endeavours to contribute.

The aim of this study is threefold. Firstly, the paper summarises the main findings of empirical research that was conducted with the purpose of investigating teachers' views on communication in ELF classroom contexts and exploring some of the communication strategies used by interlocutors in these contexts. Secondly, the research was carried out with a focus on practical aspects of classroom communication. As a consequence, the study may have pedagogical implications

for classroom practitioners working in ELF contexts. Even though a pilot study, by its very nature, cannot offer generalisable results, the findings may allow lecturers to reflect on their classroom practice, which, by extension, may facilitate the enhancement of ELF communication in their classrooms. Finally, as this was a pilot study, another objective was to allow the implementation of improvements in the research design. The researcher can draw on the experience gained whilst conducting the piloting when improving the possible follow-up to this study.

In what follows, some of the relevant literature will be surveyed in order to provide illustrative examples of communication strategies used by interlocutors in ELF educational contexts. The brief review of the literature will be followed by the description of the research methodology that was employed in this investigation. Thereafter, the results of the study will be presented and analysed, and the paper concludes with a short summary of the findings and closing remarks.

Review of the literature

English as a Lingua Franca

Although it is difficult to pinpoint the origins of the use of the English language as a lingua franca, the occurrence of the term *English as a lingua franca* (henceforth ELF) can be traced back to the 1990s in the applied linguistics literature. An early definition of ELF described it as "a 'contact language' between persons who share neither a common native tongue nor a common (national) culture, and for whom English is the chosen *foreign* language of communication" (Firth, 1996, p. 240). Even though this interpretation of the term largely corresponds to the manner in which it is understood in ELF research, it is worth pointing out that English is not necessarily a *foreign* language because saying so would imply that none of the interlocutors in ELF interactions is a native speaker of English. To allow for the presence of native speakers, it was suggested that ELF should be considered "a way of referring to communication in English between speakers with different languages" (Seidlhofer, 2005, p. 339). Another way of conceptualising ELF is to think of it as a context: According to Jenkins (2009), ELF can be defined as "a specific communication context: English being used as a lingua franca, the common language of choice, among speakers who come from different linguacultural backgrounds" (Jenkins, 2009, p. 200). In the present paper, ELF is understood in this way, that is to say, as a communication context in which speakers who do not have a shared linguistic or cultural background can communicate with one another through English.

Communication strategies

Theoretical conceptions of communication strategies

The need for second-language speakers to employ strategies in order to achieve their communicative goals was identified by Canale and Swain (1980), who suggested that strategic competence (i.e., a range of communication strategies that "may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication"; p. 30) was a component of communicative competence. Considering the areas of communication in which users of a (foreign) language may face difficulty, Celce-Murcia et al. (1995) outlined five components that comprise strategic competence. The first of these elements is avoidance or reduction strategies, which entail the assessment of the speaker's linguistic resources and the subsequent modification or potentially the complete abandonment of the message depending on whether it can be expressed. Achievement or compensatory strategies "involve manipulating available language to reach a communicative goal and this may entail compensating for linguistic deficiencies" (Celce-Murcia et al., 1995, p. 27). This is a multifarious component of strategic competence and it includes, for example, non-linguistic means of expression (e.g., gestures), circumlocution, and code switching. The third element, which is termed stalling or time-gaining strategies, includes the use of fillers and hesitation devices, which may be put to use when a language user needs some extra time to formulate an utterance. Self-monitoring strategies are also incorporated in Celce-Murcia et al.'s conception of strategic competence. These strategies may involve rephrasing or elaborating on one's message as well as carrying out self-repair (i.e., modifying one's own utterances upon the realisation that repair is required). Finally, strategic competence comprises interactional strategies, which differ from the preceding strategies in that a language user who relies on interactional strategies "exploits **his/her** interlocutor's knowledge rather than manipulating **his/her** own **language** resources" (Celce-Murcia et al., 1995, p. 27, emphasis in original). Examples of interactional strategies include requests for help (e.g., Do you know the word for…?), comprehension checks (e.g., Do you understand…?), and expressions of non-understanding, which may be explicit and verbal or implicit and non-verbal. Interactional strategies are of particular importance in ELF communication because the negotiation of meaning, which is one of the principal characteristics of ELF interactions (Seidlhofer, 2009), takes place between interactants, making it a type of interactional strategy.

Communication strategies employed in ELF communication

Although the effects of instruction on the use of communication strategies have been the subject of empirical investigation (e.g., Dörnyei, 1995), participants in ELF communication appear to make use of various communication strategies irrespective of whether they have prior training in the use thereof (Cogo, 2010; Kalocsai, 2009; Mauranen, 2006). Due to the prevalence of English-medium instruction in higher education (Graddol, 2006), international university classrooms have often been the context in which the communication strategies used in ELF

interaction have been investigated. In a study that attempted to explore how instances of misunderstanding are prevented in ELF communication, Mauranen (2006) analysed data drawn from an academic ELF corpus and found that misunderstandings were rare overall. When communication was hindered by lack of understanding, the interactants tended to indicate the difficulty straightaway and deal with it by asking direct questions (e.g., What does it mean?), by echoing the problematic item, or by signalling the difficulty indirectly. A possible explanation for why Mauranen found that misunderstandings were uncommon could be the fact that the interlocutors providing the data actively negotiated meaning and avoided misunderstandings by using pre-emptive strategies such as confirmation checks, interactive repair, and self-repair.

Based on data collected at a Swedish university, Björkman (2014) created a taxonomy of communication strategies used in academic ELF interactions. The findings were similar to those presented by Mauranen (2006). The strategies that Björkman identified in the data were classified into two broad categories: self-initiated and other-initiated communication strategies. The self-initiated communication strategies included explicitness strategies (i.e., repetition, simplification, signalling importance, and paraphrasing), comprehension checks (e.g., Do you know what I mean?), and word replacement (i.e., a form of self-repair). The other-initiated communication strategies comprised confirmation checks (i.e., paraphrasing, repetition, and overt questions), clarification requests (typically in the form of questions), the co-creation of the message (a cooperative effort whereby interlocutors plug the gaps in one another's utterances), and word replacement. Although the strategies identified in Björkman's study were not previously undiscovered in ELF research, the findings provide further evidence for the highly cooperative nature of ELF interactions: The occurrences of self-initiated and other-initiated communication strategies were balanced; in fact, there were slightly more instances of other-initiated strategies (54%), which is indicative of a high level of involvement not only on the speaker's but also on the listener's part. This may be a contributor to communicative success in ELF exchanges.

ELF communication in education

The use of English for communication in ELF educational contexts has been the subject of empirical enquiry. One study exploring the area in question was conducted by Gotti (2014), who investigated ELF communication in an international academic setting. Gotti's principal focus of interest was the way in which explanations are made in English-language courses in Marketing and Business at an Italian university. Gotti identified and described a number of explanatory strategies (e.g., comprehension-checking questions), metadiscursive strategies (e.g., rhetorical questions or rephrasing), and cooperative strategies (e.g., the joint completion of utterances). Notably, Gotti found high levels of willingness, both on the lecturers' and the students' part, to behave in a cooperative fashion when communication difficulties arose. This may be illustrated by "utterance completion where students continue the lecturer's sentence by providing fitting words or

specific technical terms" (Gotti, 2014, p. 354). Further examples of cooperation include the overt negotiation of meaning as well as an instance when Italian students helped a foreign lecturer with the pronunciation of a local place name.

In a study that focused on how questions are asked in ELF academic contexts, Björkman (2012) carried out an empirical investigation at what she described as "a technical university in Sweden" (p. 99). The setting in which Björkman collected data can be considered an ELF context as the courses were taught in English, and the participants comprised an international group. With regard to question formation, Björkman found that questions were not always formulated with adherence to the syntactic rules that govern interrogation in English, and she observed that—in addition to syntax—there were other cues on which interlocutors in ELF contexts relied when responding to questions: "question intonation and the interrogative adverb/pronoun in the case of Wh-questions" (Björkman, 2012, p. 108). Björkman, therefore, noted that the ability to use Standard English grammar, from the standpoint of intelligibility, is not necessarily of paramount importance in ELF interactions as there are other properties of ELF communication that facilitate the comprehension of utterances.

Kalocsai (2009) conducted a study in which she examined ELF communication that occurred in Erasmus communities: The participants, who were exchange students from eight different countries studying temporarily either at a university in Hungary or at a university in the Czech Republic, provided interview data, and they were also observed whilst they engaged in spontaneous ELF communication. Similarly to Gotti (2014), Kalocsai also found interlocutors in ELF educational settings to be remarkably cooperative in their interactions, and the researcher identified a cooperative phenomenon that she referred to as "speaking in tandem. This occurs when, in multi-party encounters, two or more speakers hold one side of the conversation and make a joint effort to repair a non-understanding, or supply the word or phrase a co-participant is lacking" (Kalocsai, 2009, p. 32). In addition to cooperation, Kalocsai's informants were also found to engage in code switching (e.g., using phrases in the language of the host country); however, code switching was performed not simply to overcome communication difficulties, but rather to augment communication and to mark the speakers' identity. Analogous findings were reported by Cogo (2010), who highlighted that interlocutors in ELF exchanges draw on their multilingual resources in a way that facilitates, rather than impedes, communication since the cooperative negotiation of meaning "does not aim to or converge towards ENL [English as a native language] idiomatic expressions or linguistic norms, but makes meaning by accepting and building on the participants' contributions" (Cogo, 2010, p. 303).

Methods

Research questions

The present pilot study, whose primary aims have been outlined in the introduction, was guided by the following research questions:

> 1. What views do teachers teaching in English hold about their own English skills and their students' English skills?
>
> 2. What communication strategies do speakers in ELF classroom contexts rely on?
>
> 3. Do teachers report a difference between students' comprehension of instructions and subject-related language in ELF classroom contexts?

Research context

The school whose teachers provided the bulk of the data is an institution of tertiary education in Hungary. It is a university college which seems to provide an abundance of opportunities to analyse ELF communication as it boasts a truly international student population: About half of the students are Hungarian, but the other half come from the four corners of the world. According to the website of the institution, "students from over 100 countries" attend the school. Owing to a partnership with a university in the United Kingdom, the Hungarian university college confers British degrees, and, as a consequence, English is the language of instruction throughout their academic programmes. The institution in question offers education mostly in the areas of management and business and the teaching staff, accordingly, are lecturers in these subjects. In addition to the subject teachers, there are also language teachers, who help students improve their English language skills for academic study. The majority of the teachers are Hungarian, though there are a few lecturers from other countries. Irrespective of nationality and linguistic or academic background, all of the teachers are expected to be proficient enough in English to teach their respective courses. The courses they teach are invariably seminars as the university college does not offer lectures because it is believed that a seminar-only curriculum provides students with more immediate feedback and allows them to develop a more practical skillset, which may prove beneficial in the world of employment.

Participants

Biographical information

The questionnaire garnered 32 responses in total. The mean age of the respondents was 45 (M=45.13; SD=11.9), with the gender distribution being in almost complete equilibrium: Female respondents comprised exactly 50% (n=16) of the sample, and male respondents followed closely behind at 46.9% (n=15). There was one respondent who did not specify their gender. The majority of the participants (65.6%; n=21) held master's degrees, and 31.3% (n=10) of them also held doctoral degrees. Although the majority of the respondents (59.4%; n=19) stated that they possessed teaching qualifications, a substantial minority (40.6%; n=13) did not. The respondents formed a relatively homogeneous group in terms of their first language: The overwhelming majority (90.6%; n=29) were native speakers of Hungarian, and only three (9.3%) participants were native speakers of languages other than Hungarian. Regardless of first languages, English was spoken by all the participants: The preponderance of the participants (81.3%; n=26) claimed that their level of proficiency in English was at the C2 level of the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR), and a further 9.4% (n=3) assessed their command of English at the C1 level. The participants also reported to have gained international experience outside the classroom as 71.8% (n=23) of the respondents had lived abroad, and 43.8% (n=14) had done so for at least two years.

Teaching experience

Most of the respondents were experienced teachers. Half of them (50%; n=16) had been teaching for at least 20 years when they responded to the questionnaire, and a further 19% of the classroom practitioners (n=6) reported having between 5 and 20 years of professional experience. Most of the respondents were teachers of English: Fifteen (46.9%) of them taught general English, and 10 teachers (31.3%) said that they taught English for specific purposes (ESP). Apart from English, the most widely taught subjects were the following: Management in English (21.9%; n=7), Business Administration in English (18.8%; n=6) and Research Methods in English (18.8%; n=6). The participating teachers had gained international classroom experience: When the survey was conducted, almost all of the participants (93.8%; n=30) taught students from Hungary and from Asian countries, and 87.5% of the teachers (n=28) taught students from European countries outside of Hungary. A considerable number of the respondents (78.1%; n=25) said that they had students who hailed from Africa, and somewhat fewer teachers (56.3%; n=18) taught students from the Americas.

Instrument design

In order to answer the research questions above, empirical data needed to be collected, and a questionnaire was devised for the purpose of data collection. The construction of the research instrument was a recursive process that spawned four different iterations of the questionnaire and was carried out over a span of approximately two months. Initially, a large pool of questionnaire items was drawn up; these were statements intended to be included in the final version of the questionnaire. Inspiration for writing the statements was taken from the ELF literature: Key concepts such as code switching (Cogo, 2009; Klimpfinger, 2007), the negotiation of meaning (Cogo, 2010) and strategic competence (Canale & Swain, 1980; Celce-Murcia et al., 1995) formed the basis of some of the items. In addition, a few items were written based on the researcher's own teaching experience. All of the statements were written specifically for the questionnaire; none was adopted from existing instruments, although communication questionnaires that had been in existence prior to the creation of this one may, by coincidence, include similar items.

In an attempt to ensure content validity, the full list of possible questionnaire items was critiqued by one of the researcher's PhD tutors and by fellow PhD students, and valuable feedback was received from the five reviewers both on the content of the questionnaire and on the wording of the items. In accordance with the suggestions, the questionnaire was revised more than once until the final (i.e., fourth) version materialised. The resultant research instrument consisted of a total of 70 statements (see Appendix), which would be used to elicit answers on a five-point Likert-type scale (McKay, 2006). The items of the finalised instrument can be categorised into four topical constructs: instructions (e.g., "My students almost always understand my instructions."), subject-related language (e.g., "I am often asked questions about key terms."), command of English (e.g., "My students' English is good enough to participate in lessons."), and communication strategies (e.g., "I often have to simplify what I say."). Furthermore, there was a fifth construct, labelled miscellany, which encompassed everything else that did not fit the previous four categories (e.g., statements about off-topic classroom discussions). Additionally, the questionnaire included a section whose purpose was to enquire into the respondents' backgrounds with special regard to their teaching experience and relevant biographical data. Although these items necessitated that some personal details be made known, the questionnaire was designed in such a way as to guarantee the anonymity of the respondents; therefore, neither names nor professional affiliations were asked. As a final step, the questionnaire was entered into a cloud-based online survey platform, which subsequently served as the means of distribution. Before the online questionnaire went live, it had been filled in by two mock respondents to confirm that all of the questions were possible to answer.

Data collection

The sampling procedures followed in this investigation can be characterised both as purposive sampling and as convenience sampling (Dörnyei, 2007). There were a number of criteria that had to be satisfied by those who filled in the questionnaire: Data were collected only from teachers who taught courses in English and taught in international contexts, preferably teaching students from a range of different countries; it is in this regard that the sampling was purposive. However, there was an element of convenience as the researcher happened to have access to an institution that fulfilled the requirements, so the questionnaire was distributed primarily among the teaching staff of this school. Due to a paucity of responses, a few additional respondents were enlisted from elsewhere, but these participants also met the same sampling criteria.

The data were collected over a period of nine days from 16 April 2018 to 25 April 2018. The questionnaire was distributed via electronic mail; this was done after the academic management of the school had granted the researcher permission to carry out the study. The questionnaire was circulated in English as it was felt that the respondents, albeit non-native speakers of English, were competent users of English in their own right who would be able to answer the questions in English without being put under strain. This assumption was confirmed by a senior language teacher of the school prior to circulation. Furthermore, the data are unlikely to have been compromised by the language of the questionnaire because the respondents were not required to produce linguistic output as the questionnaire made use of a Likert-type scale (i.e., only numerical responses were sought).

Data analysis

The answers given by the respondents were collated automatically in a spreadsheet document by the survey application. With minor modifications to the formatting of the dataset, the data were then entered into a statistical computer program for analysis. Version 20 of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to perform statistical analyses. Descriptive statistical procedures were employed to describe the sample (see Participants), and factor analytical procedures were performed to determine the consistency and the quality of the items in the four main constructs of the questionnaire. The results of the analysis are as follows.

Results

Analysis of constructs

The main steps of the statistical analysis procedure followed those of a similar pilot study carried out by Illés and Csizér (2010): The internal consistency of the constructs was analysed by calculating Cronbach's Alpha reliability statistics, whereas the dimensions within the constructs were explored by means of a principal component analysis. When an initial reliability analysis was carried out to discover the extent to which the items in the constructs were consistent, the analysis yielded a negative Cronbach's Alpha value due to a coding error; thus, SPSS was unable to calculate reliability. A principal component analysis was also run subsequently to see which items within the constructs were negative. To remedy the situation, some of the items were recoded: The values of the five-point Likert-type scales of those items that were assigned a negative value in the first column of the Component Matrix were reversed (i.e., a value of 1 was recoded into a value of 5, a value of 2 was recoded into a value of 4, and so on). The results that the analyses produced after the corrections had been made are summarised below.

Table 1. *Results of the factor analysis and reliability analysis of the questionnaire constructs*

Construct	Number of Items	Number of Items Recoded	Number of Dimensions	Cronbach's Alpha
Instructions	7	3	2	.74
Subject-related Language	7	0	3	.69
Command of English	14	2	5	.70
Communication Strategies	26	6	9	.82
Miscellany	16	0	5	.52

Note. The construct named Miscellany is included only for comparison.

As it can be seen above, the items of several constructs required recoding. The original Cronbach's Alpha values are not included in Table 1 because they were either negative (i.e., uninterpretable) or very low. What can also be inferred from the information in Table 1 is that none of the constructs was completely homogeneous as the components of each construct can be divided into more than one dimension. This is scarcely surprising in the light of the fact that the items in the questionnaire were labelled to create broad categories rather than finely-tuned descriptors. In addition, some of the constructs (especially Command of English and Communication Strategies) were comprised of a large number of items, which is believed to have given rise to the multiplicity of the dimensions within the constructs.

The construct of Instructions was found to be made up of two dimensions, which seems intuitively sensible as there are items in it both about the comprehension and about the non-comprehension of classroom instructions; therefore, polarity is to be expected when these two aspects of instructions are considered. With all of its mean values distributed within a single digit, the construct of Subject-related Language did not appear to be divisive; nevertheless, it consisted of three different dimensions. Based on the items listed under this descriptor, it is possible to envisage three main elements within the construct: comprehension or lack thereof, questions and explanations. These aspects of language use are not exclusively pertinent to subject-related language, but they are more relevant to this construct than, say, to Miscellany. As the number of items in the constructs rose, the number of dimensions identified by the principal component analysis followed suit. Based on the statements of which Command of English is composed, the construct may, somewhat speculatively, be divided into the following dimensions: teachers' level of English, students' level of English, teachers' or students' desire to improve their English, pronunciation difficulties (and related comprehension issues), and linguistically motivated misunderstandings. It is more problematic to account plausibly for the nine dimensions of Communication Strategies, but it should be borne in mind that the construct consisted of 26 items, and the diversity of the content of the construct seems to have resulted in great complexity in terms of the dimensions. If the pilot instrument is revised, it may be worth considering redrafting the construct of Communication Strategies into shorter and more focused subconstructs.

Findings predicated on the questionnaire items

The sections below are devoted to the description of the findings related to the components of the questionnaire. In order to contextualise the findings, the mean values of the constructs are summarised in Table 2. Although the table includes all of the constructs, the last one (i.e., Miscellany) is not discussed below.

Table 2. *Mean values of the questionnaire constructs*

Construct	M	SD
Instructions	3.31	.222
Subject-related Language	3.45	.558
Command of English	2.94	.320
Communication Strategies	3.11	.322
Miscellany	3.06	.369

Instructions versus subject-related language

In addition to analysing the constructs of the questionnaire, the researcher also identified themes of salience in the data by means of subjecting the figures to quasi-qualitative analysis. This was done through the comparison of the mean values of the different items within a construct, which was followed by the examination of the wider implications that these inferences may have for ELF classroom communication. In the case of instructional language use, for instance, it was found that the participants' instructions were generally understood by their students. The lecturers in the study tended to agree with statements to the effect that students comprehended their instructions. It appears, however, that there is a difference between students' understanding of instructions and their understanding of subject-related language. Even though the lecturers reported that their instructions were commonly understood by their students, they agreed (M=3.78; SD=.941) with the statement that students' knowledge of general English was greater than that of content-specific areas of the English language. To illustrate the participants' views regarding the comprehension of their instructions, some of the questionnaire items and their mean values are presented in Table 3 below.

Table 3. *Mean values of selected items from the construct named instructions*

Questionnaire Item	M	SD
My students almost always understand my instructions.	3.97	.782
My students seem to understand my instructions because they tend to do what I ask them to.	4.06	.504
The answers given to my instruction-checking questions show that my instructions tend to be understood.	4.09	.734

Note. The highest three mean values of the construct are displayed in Table 3.

Command of English

With respect to the respondents' views about the items of the construct called Command of English, it was observed that the participants were satisfied with neither their own English skills nor their students' English skills. Although discontent over their own English proficiency was not unanimous, the participating teachers were of the opinion that there was room for linguistic improvement for them as well as for their students. The lecturers appear to be more satisfied with their own English proficiency than with the English skills of their students, which is indicated by the fact that the mean value of the second statement in Table 4 is the highest of all the mean values in the construct (including that of the statement about the teachers' own English proficiency). In other words, there is strong agreement among the participants on the need for students to improve their English skills. This set of questions also enquired into the linguistic reasons for misunderstandings in the classroom. The findings indicate that the contextually correct use of words may be key to the avoidance of being misconstrued as there was more substantial agreement on the likelihood that lexical problems could cause a misunderstanding (M=3.37; SD=1.238) than on the probability that miscommunication could be begot by pronunciation differences (M=2.38; SD=1.157) or by grammatical problems (M=2.09; SD=.734).

Table 4. *Mean values of selected items from the construct named command of English*

Questionnaire Item	M	SD
I consciously try to improve my English.	4.00	1.016
As far as my students' English proficiency is concerned, there is room for improvement.	4.41	.712
My students seem to want to improve their English.	3.56	.914

Note. The highest three mean values of the construct are displayed in Table 4.

Communication strategies

As it can be seen in Table 5 below, the participants of the study indicated that the resolution of communication problems in their classrooms was done in a highly cooperative fashion, which is in line with similar findings reported in the ELF literature on communication strategies (e.g., Gotti, 2014; Kalocsai, 2009). Communication difficulties seem to be resolved collaboratively by students and teachers. The lecturers also claimed to be so accommodating to their learners as to provide additional explanations even when those are seemingly not required. However, it is not only teachers who assist their students in case of communication breakdowns, but students also appear to support each other in overcoming obstacles to classroom communication. In particular, peer explanations could be highlighted as an example of how students help one another. According to the participants, further strategies utilised in coping with communication difficulties included the use of synonyms and translation into students' first languages.

Table 5. *Mean values of selected items from the construct named communication strategies*

Questionnaire Item	M	SD
When there is a communication problem, the students and I work together to resolve it.	4.06	.716
I provide extra clarification as I see fit even when there is no apparent misunderstanding.	4.06	.840
Some of my students like to explain things to their peers.	3.81	.738
Using synonyms is one of the ways we manage to understand each other.	3.81	.738
My students often translate things into their first languages.	3.59	.979

Note. Some high mean values have been omitted from Table 5.

Pedagogical and research implications

Despite lacking generalisability, the findings of the study are not without practical implications. Some of the implications pertain specifically to the educational institution where the study was carried out, whereas others may be applicable more broadly to similar ELF contexts. Based on the responses of the lecturers, the development of students' English language skills appears to be a necessity for instruction to be effective. Although the participants did not hold overly negative views of their students' language proficiency, they stated that it could be improved. The need for language development highlights the importance of language education within the institution. English lessons are already offered to those students who are deemed to be in need of language development; nevertheless, the role of language education within the curriculum may be worthy of review. If students' English proficiency is reported to be occasionally insufficient, there may be a need for language education to be assigned more curricular significance. Even though the findings of this study can in no way inform curriculum design or a potential reform of institutional language policy, it can be conjectured that a top-down approach to such changes would be counterproductive. The involvement of language teachers in decisions concerning language education is likely to favour the student population as language teachers tend to have first-hand experience of the linguistic needs of their learners.

The information gathered on the participants' views on their own command of English indicates that there is a perceived need among the lecturers to continue improving their English language proficiency. The participants' intention to hone their English skills is noteworthy from the perspective of ELF research as it indicates that communication in educational ELF contexts is characterised by an aspiration for standards. This seems to counter the common misconception that "ELF is simply a case of 'anything goes' and constitutes linguistic anarchy" (Jenkins, 2012, p. 491). Regardless of what linguistic models the participants see fit for the purpose of classroom communication, it is clear that they exercise care when they engage in ELF communication and wish to use English in a way that is appropriate in their contexts. As Jenkins (2012) suggested, language use in ELF contexts should not be conceived of in terms of native-speaker appropriateness; nonetheless, there are rules of language use that are unique to particular ELF contexts. Although a full description of the rules of conduct cannot be produced, empirical research can, and should, be undertaken in order to discover some of the norms of communication that are followed in the ELF context in which the participants operate. These findings could then be used to make informed decisions about the language policy followed by the institution.

Some of the findings of the present study point towards avenues of research that could be pursued in a follow-up investigation. In particular, it is communication strategies in the classroom that appear to be an important contributor to the success of ELF communication based on the preliminary findings of the pilot study. Previous research on the characteristics of communication within ELF communities

of practice (e.g., Cogo, 2010; Kalocsai, 2009) has shown ELF communicators to be highly cooperative and problem-focused in their approach to language use. The responses of the lecturers surveyed in the present study suggest that the communication strategies employed by speakers in this ELF context may resemble those found in comparable educational ELF contexts, but it is only through empirical study of communication in this context that it could be ascertained. One facet of language use which is likely to emerge as important for communicative success and therefore of particular research interest is the pragmatics of ELF with a "focus on accommodation strategies, such as other-repetition and code-switching" (Cogo, 2009, p. 255). The findings of such future research would bring about a better understanding of communication in the ELF context which was examined in the pilot study, and this knowledge could be put to practical use and help the lecturers refine their pedagogical practices, thereby improving the quality of instruction.

Conclusion

In this paper, English-language communication has been analysed in educational contexts, and the findings of a study that investigated various aspects of ELF classroom communication have been presented. Issues such as classroom instructions, subject-related language use, participants' command of English, and the communication strategies employed were under examination. In response to the first research question, it can be said that the respondents were not completely satisfied with their proficiency in English, which was evidenced by their desire to improve their English. The teachers were, however, more discontented with the English skills of their students and believed that there was room for the students to attain higher levels of proficiency in English. The second question that was posed pertained to the communication strategies that are used in ELF classroom settings, and it was seen that both teachers and students make use of strategies to overcome communication difficulties, with the use of synonyms and translation being the most prominent examples. It is noteworthy that ELF interactions in educational contexts are carried out in a highly cooperative manner; students and teachers alike appear to spare no effort when it comes to aiding their interlocutors. Finally, the third research question was concerned with teachers' perceptions of the difference between students' comprehension of classroom instructions and subject-related language, and it seems that the latter may be less comprehensible than the former.

As this was a pilot study, the primary purpose it served was to allow the researcher to assess the shortcomings of the original research design and improve upon them. The research instrument is in need of improvement, which could be made by the revision and adaptation of the constructs of the questionnaire. In addition, there are some limitations that prevent the results of this pilot study from being generalisable. Most notably, the sample size is small, which means that it may not be helpful to extrapolate the findings from the sample to the population. In summary, the research instrument should be revised and finalised based on the findings yielded by the data collection instrument used in this pilot study, and data should then be gathered from a larger sample.

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Appendix

The questionnaire used for data collection

Dear Colleague,

The questionnaire you are about to fill in is part of a study on English-language communication in classroom settings. Your answers will be recorded anonymously and used for research purposes only. Your participation is voluntary, and you have the right to withdraw from the study at any time, that is to say, before submitting your answer. Please ensure that your answers are truthful and representative of reality as this will contribute to the success of my research project. The study is carried out as part of my coursework in the Language Pedagogy PhD Programme at Eötvös Loránd University. I thank you very much for taking the time to fill in the questionnaire, which takes about 15 minutes. Your help is invaluable to my study.

Árpád Farkas

Please indicate whether you agree with the following statements on a scale from 1 to 5, where 1 means strong disagreement and 5 means strong agreement.

a) Instructions

- My students almost always understand my instructions.

- My students often ask questions after my instructions.

- My students seem to understand my instructions because they tend to do what I ask them to.

- I often have the impression that my instructions are comprehensible only to some of my students.

- Students often rely on their peers for further clarification of my instructions.

- I often ask instruction-checking questions.

- The answers given to my instruction-checking questions show that my instructions tend to be understood.

b) Subject-related Language

    • My students find it difficult to understand content-related terminology.

    • It is the content, and not the language of instruction, that my students struggle with.

    • I have to explain key terms on numerous occasions.

    • I am often asked questions about key terms.

• My students have a much better grasp of general English lexis than of content-specific vocabulary.

    • My students find the comprehension of content-specific language difficult.

c) Command of English

    • My English proficiency needs no improvement.

    • Although my English is good enough to teach my subject, I wish to improve it to become a more confident speaker.

    • My English is not always good enough to teach my subject.

    • I consciously try to improve my English.

    • My students' English is good enough to participate in lessons.

    • My students speak broken English.

    • My students do not speak English well; therefore, they struggle with their studies.

    • As far as my students' English proficiency is concerned, there is room for improvement.

    • My students seem to want to improve their English.

    • I struggle to understand my students' pronunciation.

    • My students struggle to understand my pronunciation.

• When there is a misunderstanding, it is typically due to pronunciation differences.

• When there is a misunderstanding, it is typically due to grammatical problems.

• When there is a misunderstanding, it is typically due to lexical problems.

d) Communication Strategies

• My students are adept at resolving any communication problems that may occur.

• When there is a communication problem, the students and I work together to resolve it.

• When there is a communication problem, I have to resolve it.

• When there is a communication problem, I typically avoid dealing with it.

• My students and I often have to negotiate what we mean.

• My students often ask me for clarification if they fail to understand something.

• I provide extra clarification as I see fit even when there is no apparent misunderstanding.

• Some of my students like to explain things to their peers.

• We often resort to rephrasing our message, otherwise we would not understand one another.

• I often have to simplify what I say.

• My students ask me to simplify what I say.

• I often get asked to paraphrase what I mean.

• My students often ask for examples as the material would otherwise be too abstract.

• We need examples because the language would otherwise be too difficult to understand.

• Using synonyms is one of the ways we manage to understand each other.

• My students look unknown words up.

• My students often translate things into their first languages.

• I discourage my students from using their first language in the classroom.

• I very rarely speak my own first language in the classroom.

• I think we should not exclude the participants' first languages from the classroom.

• I tend to speak more with those students who speak the same first language as I do.

• Sometimes I use my first language in class with those students who also speak it as their first language.

• There is often code mixing in my classes, for example, English phrases accompanied by first-language phrases.

• I wish not to mix English and my first language in the classroom.

• I do not mind if my students mix English and their first language in the classroom.

• Those students who speak the same first language often help each other understand things in class.

• In multilingual groups, I make a conscious effort to separate those students who speak the same first language.

• I encourage students who speak the same first language to work together in class.

• My students seem to avoid talking about topics they find difficult to discuss.

e) Miscellany

- The students I teach speak the same first language as I do.

- My students almost never make small talk with me.

- My students often make small talk with one another.

- We avoid off-topic discussions altogether.

- Unplanned and off-topic interactions often usefully complement the lessons.

- The students and I come from different cultural backgrounds.

- It is only through English that my students and I can communicate.

- As a rule, my students and I find it easy to understand one another.

- The cultural divide between me and some of my students is difficult to bridge.

- My students are reluctant to speak in class because they are too shy.

- My students are reluctant to speak in class because they are not motivated.

- My students are more reluctant to speak to me than they are to speak to one another.

- The students in my groups tend to speak different first languages.

- I find it difficult to elicit answers from my students.

- I often feel that I speak all the time, whereas my students do not.

- There are a lot of different first languages spoken in my groups.

Biographical information

How old are you?

What is your gender?
Female
Male
I prefer not to say

What is the level of your highest qualification?
General Certificate of Secondary Education
Bachelor's degree
Master's degree
Doctoral degree (e.g., PhD)

Do you hold any teaching qualifications?
Yes
No

What is your first language?
Hungarian
Other:

In your estimation, what is the level of your English proficiency?
A1
A2
B1
B2
C1
C2

What other languages do you speak? (Please specify)

Have you ever lived abroad?
No
Yes, for less than 6 months
Yes, for more than 6 months but less than 1 year
Yes, for 1 year
Yes, for more than 1 year but less than 2 years
Yes, for 2 years or more

Teaching Experience

How long have you been teaching?
Less than 1 year
More than 1 year but less than 2 years
More than 2 years but less than 5 years
More than 5 years but less than 10 years
More than 10 years but less than 20 years
More than 20 years but less than 30 years
More than 30 years but less than 40 years
More than 40 years

Where do you teach? (You may select more than one answer.)
Primary school
Secondary school
Tertiary education
Private language school
Other (please specify)

What do you teach? (You may select more than one answer.)
I teach…
      General English
      English for Specific Purposes
      Business administration in English
      Business and diplomacy in English
      Economics in English
      Financial management in English
      Humanities in English (e.g., art history)
      Languages other than English with English being the bridge language
      Management in English
      Marketing in English
      Research methods in English
      Sciences in English
      Social sciences in English
      Tourism and hospitality in English
      Other (please specify)

Where are your students from? (You may select more than one answer.)
I teach students from Hungary
I teach students from Europe (outside of Hungary)
I teach students from Asia
I teach students from Africa
I teach students from the Americas

Non-peer-reviewed papers

STEAM on! Workshop on integrating science, technology, engineering, art, and mathematics with foreign language learning

Litza Juhász

Introduction

As I write this paper, the countdown to the fiftieth anniversary of the first Moon landing is ticking away. Most students in primary and high school education I talk to nowadays in Budapest have recently learned about it. They mention facts including that the astronauts were from the United States, there was more than one Moon landing, and Neil Armstrong was the first person on the Moon. This shows that teachers keep up with what is current. EFL teachers may also commemorate the success of the Apollo 11 mission with a unit on computer programming, rockets, the fabrics the astronauts' spacesuits were sewn from, or images connected to the lunar landing. All of these topics fall under a larger collective acronym: STEAM (science, technology, engineering, art, and mathematics). STEAM is currently on the tip of many educators' tongues as governments identify the knowledge, skills, and attitudes they feel their citizens need to master in order for their citizens to compete in the STEAM fields as well as in the global economy in the 21st century. What support do English teachers need to build their confidence in using STEAM topics in their classrooms? In 2013, I developed DepARTures, a scheme of learning inspired by works of art, to provide the materials EFL teachers need. For the 2018 IATEFL-Hungary annual conference, *Flying Colours*, DepARTures steamed on by presenting activities based on a work of art which also contained a science or mathematics component. This paper looks at the development of STEAM, the importance of visual literacy, using works of art in the classroom, and how to blend it all together for seamless lessons in a foreign language classroom.

In the 1990s, the National Science Foundation (NSF) in the United States used the acronym SMET when referring to four subjects: science, mathematics, engineering, and technology. In 2001, Ramaley, a biologist at the NSF, rearranged the subjects to form the more ear-catching acronym, STEM (Hallinen, n.d.). Four years later, in 2005, engineer Georgette Yakman added an A for the arts, creating the acronym STEAM (STEAM Education, 2018). For Yakman, the arts encompass the liberal arts (Figure 1). The examples in this paper deal with the fine arts, specifically paintings on display in the temporary exhibition *From Experiment to Experience* at the Vasarely Museum Budapest in 2018, works of art from the permanent collection of the Vasarely Museum, as well as ones displayed at the Museum of Fine Arts, Budapest.
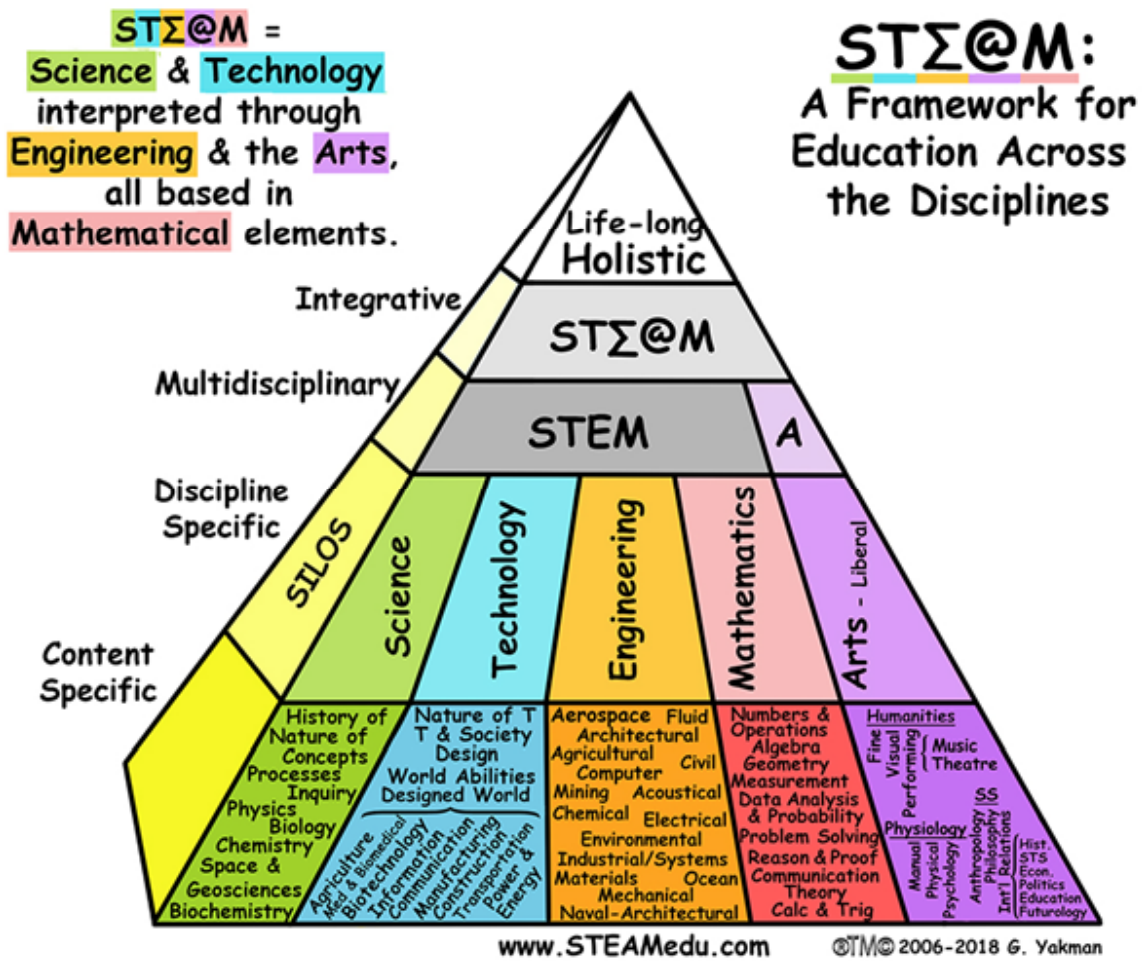
STΣ@M =
Science & Technology
interpreted through
Engineering & the Arts,
all based in
Mathematical elements.

STΣ@M:
A Framework for
Education Across
the Disciplines

Figure 1. STEAM Education, (2018), Yakman's STEAM Pyramid

Trends come and go. Why bother with STEAM? Well, it is not actually a new trend. To build the pyramids in Egypt, the Great Wall in China, or the Taj Mahal in India, they needed science, technology, engineering, many branches of the arts, and mathematics. Moreover, none of those societies had ever built anything like those monuments before. Their greatest thinkers, most talented craftsmen, and the will and constant persistence of many were essential for executing and realising these masterpieces. Interdisciplinary project work is not a 20th-century idea. It has been around for as long as members of a community have worked together to build something that none of them could have built alone. The Seven Wonders of the Ancient World hold us in awe, just as citizens of countries on every continent were deeply moved by the Apollo 11 mission allowing Neil Armstrong and Edward (Buzz) Aldrin to spend two and a half hours exploring the Moon for the first time on 20 July 1969. The two astronauts also needed Michael Collins to remain in orbit around the

Moon in the spaceship, Columbia, so their lunar module, the Eagle, could rendezvous with him, and they could return to Earth. They counted on their colleagues in Houston to provide live support throughout the seven-day mission. In addition, we certainly should not forget the almost 400,000 highly trained professionals who had been working on the project since 1961 when United States president, John F. Kennedy, announced to the world that a man would walk on the Moon before the end of the decade. For students in compulsory education, STEAM content will help to see the connections between the subjects they learn at school, the importance of each as a unique domain, and how the issues interconnect in our everyday lives. For adults, STEAM topics can be a reminder of how interesting the natural and human-made world is, hopefully sparking their curiosity to use English as a means to find out more about topics they have become interested in.

Museum educators plan and develop educational materials for visitors they meet on tours and for those who visit and enjoy the collection on their own. They hope the objects on display will have a positive impact on visitors' lives. Maybe visitors will even be inspired to do something differently in the future after their visit. Museum educators define a change in what visitors do as "Activity, Behaviour, and Progression" (Volition Associates, n.d.). This is one of the five generic learning outcomes (GLOs) identified by Inspiring Learning for All, an initiative developed by Museums, Libraries and Archives (MLA) in the early 2000s (Longnecker et al., 2015). Figure 2 below shows the five areas into which the generic learning outcomes are divided. DepARTures combines the generic learning outcomes with the goals and objectives of teaching a foreign language. EFL teachers would like their students to develop their skills in reading, writing, listening, and speaking; to enlarge the number of words they know and use appropriately as well as use grammar structures confidently. DepARTures applies the domains of museum education and teaching English as a foreign language.

Figure 2. Generic learning outcomes (Volition Associates, n.d.)

The three main purposes of museums are to preserve, research, and display authentic objects. It is, therefore, essential that these objects provide the foundation for educational services and programmes at museums (Caston, 1989; Talboys, 2000). While many visitors want to see the whole museum in one visit, focused field trips require a specific purpose for the visit and limit what the visitors will see to those areas that relate to a particular topic (Voris et al., 1986). DepARTures adds another layer to the focused field trip. Not only do students explore, think, and talk about the objects, but they also use the target foreign language they are learning to navigate their way through the activities. As a result, EFL students benefit from participating in content-based language instruction (Ardasheva et al., 2015).

Activities

At the Museum of Fine Arts, Budapest and the Vasarely Museum Budapest, I create focused field trip sessions for groups of students. When I know what the topic will be, a tool to analyse works of art on display helps me decide which ones to choose for the museum visit. In 1999, at the beginning of my career as a museum educator, I was given two of these tools. Both were written by Hazen when she was working at the Los Angeles County Museum of Art as a docent. One is for paintings, and the other is for sculptures. The questions to consider when using a painting for teaching purposes can be found in an adapted version of Hazen's *Looking at Paintings* (Hazen, n.d.). After choosing the works of art, I then read background information about the artist who made them and the historical period in which they were created. Analysing the works and reading background information provide the foundation for developing interactive tasks.

The activities in DepARTures have two aims. Both aims develop students' visual literacy competencies while improving their ability to interpret, understand, and create visual images. The first aim is to help students practise and internalise analysing works of art so that it becomes second nature. This allows them to approach works of art confidently. Instead of not knowing where to begin, when they see a work of art for the first time, they feel they have a tool to think about it and understand it better. The second aim is to include background information which puts the work of art in context and hopefully ignites their curiosity to know more about it. While the examples presented at the *Flying Colours* conference all incorporate at least one aspect of STEAM, the works of art themselves may also be used in units on a variety of topics, including history and literature.

Activity 1: Random or planned? A group composition that visually represents participants' ideas

The *Flying Colours* conference took place in a university building where the desks and chairs in the classrooms were lined up in rows facing the board. Having moved the desks out of the way and created a semicircle with the chairs, I set up the first activity on a desk near the door where I placed a sign with a question and a range of answers to choose from (Table 1). I paired each answer with a coloured shape. The instructions asked participants to answer the question, identify which shape they needed, take the designated shape from a box, and place it on a blank piece of A4 paper next to the sign. Having done the set-up during the break, I waited in the room, greeted the participants, and asked them to take part in the initial survey.

Table 1. *Initial survey*

How interested are you in the following:	Not really interested	Sort of interested	I'd like to know a bit more	Quite interested	Really interested
Science?					
Technology?					
Engineering?					
Art?					
Maths?					

By the time conference delegates took their seats for the workshop, everyone had already contributed to a non-figurative community composition which visually represented their ideas. We could all see where people stood on the curiosity spectrum of interest in STEAM. This was the third time I had adapted this technique to take a survey and make a group composition. I had originally developed it for a painting in the permanent collection at the Vasarely Museum Budapest. When the composition was ready, I asked the group who the first person had been who put their shape down and why they placed it on that part of the paper. Then I asked who the second person had been and enquired why they had chosen that area of the paper. Finally, I asked who the last person had been and listened to what influenced their placement. Over the years, I have found that some people think about where they want to place their shape, while others have reported that they just placed it without thinking about it. I clarify their response to find out if they mean that they just randomly put it down. Both conscious and random placement incorporate the visual literacy competency of making meaningful decisions. Traditionally, artists consciously decided every detail of their work of art and many non-figurative 20th-century and contemporary artists do the same (Gombrich, 1973). On the other

hand, Dada artists intentionally incorporated chance into their compositions. Through the explanations of this aspect of art history and how artists work, students have more information which will inform their choices in the future. By talking about why they placed their shapes on a particular spot, they also learn more about creating and analysing composition, an aspect of visual literacy.

EFL teachers can use this survey technique when they want to find out their students' opinions. It works with different age groups from young learners to adults. Surveys incorporate many aspects of STEAM. Scientists make surveys, and they use mathematics to analyse the results. The algorithms used in digital technology for online surveys are written by computer programmers, and graphic artists design the layout. EFL teachers can ask their students to glue the shapes onto a piece of paper and then hang the compositions up in the classroom. Over time, the class will generate a whole wall full of visual images. These images may then be interpreted on their own as group compositions, further developing students' visual literacy competencies.

**Activity 2: Total Physical Response to prompts**

Total Physical Response (TPR), a technique that makes the learners respond by moving after hearing or reading prompts, can also be used to find out what people think. The next survey technique that the conference delegates participated in was listening to a true or false statement and then moving from one side of the room to the other depending on whether they thought the statement was true or false. One by one, I read out the four statements below about life in the Netherlands in the 17th century. The teachers walked to the window if they felt the statement was true and to the wall opposite it if they felt it was false.

> 1. Tobacco boxes were made of metal.
> 2. It was felt that smoking tobacco had medicinal effects and it might even save you from the plague.
> 3. Matches were used to light pipes.
> 4. Clubs and spades were suits used on playing cards.

Afterwards, I asked them to go to the board, look at the reproduction of the 17th-century Dutch painting, *Still Life with Earthenware Jug, Cards, and Pipes* (Figure 3), and check if their answer was correct. I mentioned that only three of the four statements can be verified by looking at the image. Their next task was to determine which of the four was background information and therefore could not be ascertained by looking at the picture. I purposely used the passive voice in all four statements to show teachers how easy it is to include an aspect of grammar into the task. After looking briefly at the painting, I invited the teachers to ask me questions about it. Did I know enough about the history of tobacco, the culture of smoking, drinking, and gambling in 17th-century Netherlands to answer their questions? My offer encouraged them to take a closer look at the painting. It also placed me in a situation where I might not know the answer to their questions.
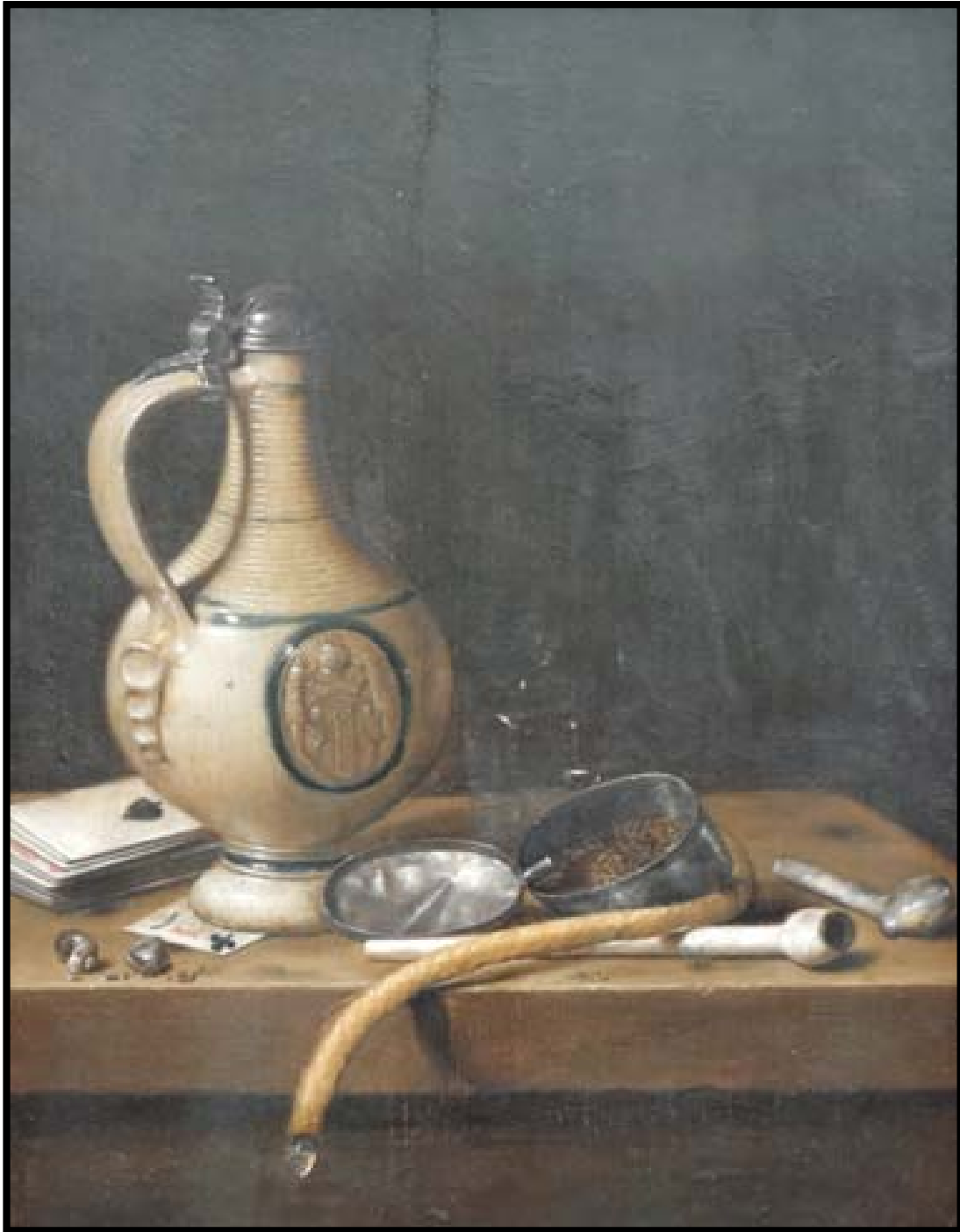
Figure 3. Jan Jansz van de Velde; Haarlem, 1619/1620 – Enkhuizen, 1662 [?] *Still Life With Earthenware Jug, Cards, and Pipes*. © Szépművészeti Múzeum/Museum of Fine Arts, Budapest

When developing materials for DepARTures, I try to provide as much background information as possible so that teachers feel confident when discussing works of art with their students. However, no matter how much an educator reads, a student or a visitor to a museum might ask a question we cannot answer. When educators do not know the answer, it creates the possibility for everyone in the group to look up the answer. This establishes a climate of life-long learning and incorporates the generic learning outcome (see Activity, Behaviour, and Progression illustrated in Figure 2).

Many aspects of STEAM may be discussed in connection with tobacco and smoking. Tobacco was cultivated in the Netherlands after it was brought from the New World to Europe (Schama, 1988). The coarser crop grown locally was mixed with the Virginia leaf, creating a cheaper product. The Dutch imported clay from England to produce the pipes, and throughout the century the stems of pipes lengthened. The longer time the smoke spent in the stem, the cooler it was, and therefore smoking became a more pleasant pastime. STEAM connections include botany, pipe production, and medical treatments. And the A for art? Not only do pipes appear in genre and still-life paintings, but the metal boxes for storing tobacco were all decorated as well. Some were produced especially for women, for example, after they began smoking later in the 17th century. This series of activities provides opportunities for students to develop their visual literacy competencies as they look closely at the image to check information and enquire about life at the time the work was painted.

Activity 3: Developing visual literacy

The third task of this topic dealt with two specific competencies of visual literacy: analysing a still-life painting and presenting it to others. I handed out detail cards which showed one aspect of the painting and asked the participants to group them into four categories: composition, items in the picture, surface/texture, and materials. Next, I talked them through the task sheets I had prepared for students to use with this and other still-life paintings. Afterwards, I explained the speaking activity that followed the task on analysing a still-life painting.

When museum educators present works of art to visitors, they look at the audience and not at the painting while talking about it. For this speaking activity, students take on the role of the guide or museum educator and practise presenting the still-life paintings to their classmates by incorporating the four categories for analysis. They use prepositions of place to guide the viewers around the painting. In addition, they include any background information they know. For example, they might say:

> We can see a deck of playing cards to the left of the beer jug. An ace of spades is on top of the deck, and a club is under the clay jug. The picture on that card is hard to make out. It might be a king, a queen, or a jack. In the 17th century gambling was seen as a sin. Therefore, the contemporary viewer would have been reminded of its negative consequences.

Conveying their knowledge of a topic improves students' speaking skills and helps them integrate content from several subjects into their repertoire of knowledge and understanding, which is one of the generic learning outcomes museum educators incorporate into their activities. Integrating and synthesising content are also 21st-century skills needed both now and in the future (Gardner, 2008).

The third STEAM activity incorporated two visual literacy competencies, the skills of speaking and listening, as well as Total Physical Response. I showed the conference participants two identical sets of precut coloured shapes. I gave them one and asked them to make a composition on a piece of white A4 paper. I kept one set of shapes and a sheet of paper for myself. I went to an area of the room where I could not see them working. When they finished, I asked them to tell me how to make the same composition they had made together. They organically began giving me instructions. They could not see what I was doing; therefore, their only frame of reference was listening to each other to verify if what others had said was precise enough for me to put the shapes in the correct configuration. Several times throughout the task, one person fine-tuned the previous person's instructions. This helped me understand exactly where to place the shapes and how they should be positioned on the paper. We then compared the two compositions. How well had I been able to copy theirs? This information-gap task gives students a real reason for communicating with each other while producing a collage from pre-cut shapes.

Next, I asked them to return to the board so that we could compare and contrast their collage with *Orion Noir* by Victor Vasarely (Figure 4). This activity engages students in analysing a work of art as they speak about colour and composition. It is non-threatening as they do not need to know anything about Vasarely as an artist or about *Orion Noir*. They notice aspects by looking at the two compositions and by comparing them. In *Orion Noir*, Vasarely places black shapes on coloured squares, and in some instances, he even adds a third layer by placing another coloured shape on the black one. He called pairing a coloured shape (triangle, rhombus, circle, etc.) with a different coloured square background his plastic alphabet. As infinite combinations may be created, Vasarely hoped everyone would use this technique to create their own compositions. When discussing works by Vasarely in English, students develop their visual literacy competencies in identifying use of colour, movement, pattern, repetition, and composition. They may also see connections between the visual arts and mathematics in noticing shapes, their size and relative size to each other, in addition to the number each shape is used in the composition. These are concepts that can be discussed from the standpoint of several disciplines.

Figure 4. Orion Noir by Victor Vasarely, photo by Csanád Szesztay, 2019
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Conclusion

Like Vasarely's plastic alphabet, STEAM also has infinite applications in the EFL classroom. It provides a contemporary framework for content-based foreign language lessons that are inspired by works of art. DepARTures helps equip 21st-century educators with ideas inspired by the collections at the Museum of Fine Arts, Budapest and the Vasarely Museum Budapest for STEAM and non-STEAM topics. The activities include strategies to analyse works of art and where to find aesthetic, historical, and scientific background information related to the topic. STEAM content helps prepare students for the future, giving them opportunities to develop the skills, knowledge, understanding, and attitudes they need to collaborate with others in our dynamic, global society.

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The process of developing an online diagnostic test assessing EFL learners' knowledge of phrasal verbs

István Thékes

Introduction

The 1990s saw an increasing number of studies focusing on foreign language (FL) vocabulary learning, and the literature has been increasing ever since by extending the knowledge on such areas as FL vocabulary assessment (Laufer et al., 2004; Nation, 2001), the FL mental lexicon (Singleton, 1999; Zareva, 2007), and corpus studies (Kilgarriff, 1997; Nation & Macalister, 2010). It has also been acknowledged that vocabulary knowledge is a good predictor of general language proficiency (Boers et al., 2014; Schmitt, 2008). With the emergence of the lexical approach (Lewis, 1993) in language teaching, a new road was opened for vocabulary research. As an expert on language teaching uncompromisingly concludes: "Without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed" (Thornbury, 2004, p. 18). Similarly, significant correlations have been found between receptive vocabulary knowledge and FL reading comprehension (Qian, 2002; Schmitt et al., 2011). Since phrasal verbs (PV) make up a considerable part of the vocabulary used by native speakers in everyday contexts, increasing attention is turned towards the involvement and teaching of PVs in the foreign language curriculum (Mart, 2012). Several studies (Biber et al., 1999; Gardner & Davies, 2007; Garnier & Schmitt, 2015) have been published in the context of PV research.

In the present paper, I will present the process of developing a PV test for English as a foreign language (EFL) learners. In the study, I will make three assertions about a valid language test. First, it could greatly benefit from being grounded in the results of corpus linguistics. Second, the language test needs to be developed for online use. Third, the test ought to be complex in the sense that it is expected to assess both receptive and productive skills.

Theoretical background

Assessing vocabulary

Ever since vocabulary has come into the focus of foreign language learning studies, assessment of word knowledge has been perceived as a fundamental issue in the research of this domain. This section provides an insight into some selected validated and reliable instruments (Matsouka & Hirsh, 2010; Pecorari et al., 2011; Tang & Nesi, 2003). Apart from presenting these instruments, special attention will be drawn to (1) the computerised versions of these instruments as in the 21st century diagnostic assessment is predominantly executed in an online environment (Laufer et al., 2004) and (2) whether the data collection instruments to be discussed have versions designed for EFL learners. It must also be highlighted that there is a consensus among scholars in foreign-language vocabulary assessment that various modalities (see more in Laufer et al., 2004) of item assessment exist. Laufer et al. (2004, p. 218) claim that words may be measured from two perspectives: (1) the form-focused perspective that implies that the test-taker is able to retrieve the form of the word evidencing productive knowledge and (2) the meaning-focused perspective that entails the test-taker can retrieve the meaning of the word evidencing receptive knowledge. Laufer et al. (2004) refer to the productive-receptive dichotomy as active-passive knowledge. Four degrees of knowledge of meaning are discerned on the basis of two dichotomous distinctions: providing the form for a given concept versus providing the meaning for a given form and recall versus recognition (of form or meaning). These distinctions entail four modalities constituting a hierarchy of difficulty. Passive recognition encapsulates recognising an item. Active recognition encompasses a given definition and four distractors. In this modality the definition must be matched with the pertaining vocabulary item. Passive recall incorporates a sentence and the synonym of one vocabulary item in the sentence must be given by the test-takers. Active recall comprises a description of vocabulary items and the initial letters of the word are provided; test-takers are expected to produce the word. In a review article of vocabulary assessment, Schmitt (2014) uses different terms for the same concepts. Passive recognition is termed meaning recognition; active recognition is named form recognition, whereas passive recall is termed meaning recall, and active recall is called form recall. In an attempt to provide instances, sample tasks will be given subsequently. In this paper, Schmitt's (2014) terminology will be utilised. Table 1 presents sample tasks of each of the four modalities.

Table 1. *Sample tasks of the four modalities*

	Recognition	Recall
Meaning	large a) small b) tiny c) huge d) weak *Instruction: circle the equivalent of 'large'*	When something is large, it is _____ *Instruction: finish the sentence with adequate words*
Form	something that is very big in size a) large b) angry c) hungry d) strong *Instruction: circle the word that suits the definition*	Something very big in size is? 1_____ *Instruction: finish the sentence with a word that starts with the given letter*

Phrasal verb knowledge

Phrasal verbs are multiword combinations of Verb + Adverb, Verb + Preposition, or Verb + Adverb and Preposition that function like one-word verbs (Farrell, 2005). The two words form one single signified concept. One of the most important and challenging traits of phrasal verbs is that the meaning of the combination is often very different from the meaning of the original verb by itself.

For example, the phrasal verb "*take off*", which means "the airplane is leaving the tarmac," has a completely different meaning from the verb "*take*". Likewise, the phrasal verb "*break up*", which means "a romantic couple ends their relationship", has a very different meaning from the verb "*break*". Finally, the phrasal verb "*put up*", in the sense of "provide accommodation," has little relationship to the meaning of "*put.*" The knowledge of phrasal verbs is important because they are common in informal English, and unless the learner is familiar with their meanings, understanding informal language will be challenging.

A comprehensive definition of vocabulary knowledge was proposed by Chapelle (1994) and elaborated on also by Martinez and Schmitt (2012). Three components constitute word knowledge: (1) the context of vocabulary use, (2) vocabulary knowledge involving PVs and fundamental processes, and (3) metacognitive strategies for vocabulary use. Chapelle 's model is the development of Bachman's model (1990) that perceived vocabulary as part of grammatical knowledge. Grammatical knowledge, according to the model of communicative competence developed by Bachman (1990), is a sub-component of organisational

knowledge. In Chapelle's framework (1994), context of vocabulary use is interpreted as a sociolinguistic component. The second component in Chapelle's construct, vocabulary knowledge, refers to the processes of word learning. The third component, metacognitive strategies for vocabulary use, is the ability to use words appropriately in communication. Metacognitive strategies in this sense are equal to Canale and Swain's (1980) sociolinguistic competence in their model of communicative competence. Envisaging more profoundly Chapelle's and Bachman's framework, I consider the knowledge of PVs as both part of sociolinguistic competence and that of grammatical knowledge, as Bachman perceives vocabulary knowledge as a sub-component of grammatical knowledge.

Phrasal verb frequency lists

Phrasal verbs are usually defined in dictionaries as phrases (as "*take off*" or "*look down on*") that combine a verb with a preposition or adverb and that functions as a verb whose meaning differs from the combined meanings of the individual words (Merriam-Webster, 2016; Cambridge Dictionary, 2016).

With the availability of the British National Corpus (BNC) and the Contemporary Corpus of American English (COCA), attempts have been made to create a reliable pool of phrasal verbs based on frequency. Nation (2001) states the time spent on learning the most frequent 2000 words is well justified by their frequency, coverage and range. Based on this, Garnier and Schmitt (2015) note that frequency of occurrence is an appropriate indicator of usefulness in relation to learning. There are variations in the estimation of the number of PVs. McCarthy and Dell (2004) state that there are over 5,000 PVs. Gardner and Davies (2007) go as far as stipulating that there are a total of 12,508 PVs in English. The high number could be an indication of the need to set up frequency lists of PVs.

Gardner and Davies (2007) used the BNC as the only data source to establish the list of the most frequent PVs. They asserted that the top 20 lexical verbs that one finds in PV constructions make up 53.7% of all PVs; moreover, they also pointed out that these 20 lexical verbs account for half of the PVs in the BNC when one combines them with only eight particles. It must be noted that Gardner and Davies (2007) emphasised the highly polysemous nature of PVs by pointing out that lexical items on their list have 5.6 meaning senses on average.

Liu (2011) endeavoured to establish a new inventory of the most frequent PVs by reviewing previous lists, including that of Gardner and Davies' (2007). Liu examined 8,847 PVs on the basis of frequency and ended up incorporating 150 PVs into the list of most frequent PVs. According to him, there is no significant difference in the use of PVs between British and American English and in contrast to the continuously growing number of words, PV use has remained relatively unchanged over the past decades, and this has been the case since 2007 as well.

The most recent list of PVs is called the Phrasal Verb Pedagogical List (PHaVE), which was compiled by Garnier and Schmitt (2015). First and foremost, they took Gardner and Davies's (2007) and Liu's (2011) lists into consideration when analysing PVs. They considered all the PVs used by Gardner and Davies, plus 48 other items extracted by Liu from the COCA. Thus, their list added up to 150 words. Garnier and Schmitt recognised the fact that 150 PVs are only a very small fraction of the large number of PVs in English. However, they made the decision to make the list as useful as possible for learners and teachers of English. So, the limitation of the list to no more than 150 words was supported by a pedagogical perspective and motivated by practicality. They also wanted to avoid the list being too long, which is a prerequisite for a frequency list to be truly meaningful (Liu, 2011, p. 667). Garnier and Schmitt further suggested that learning only these PVs would be beneficial for the students (2015). As for what information to provide in their PHaVE List, they decided to give the following information: (1) meaning and the connotations of these words, (2) meaning sense frequency percentages, and (3) example sentences. The ordering of the items, similar to Liu's (2011), was made by frequency order. The sources Garnier and Schmitt used to compile the PHaVE List besides Gardner and Davies (2007) and Liu (2011) were well-known and established dictionaries (e.g., Oxford Dictionaries, Merriam-Webster, Collins COBUILD Phrasal Verbs Dictionary, etc.) and a lexical database (WordNet Search 3.1). They noted that PV dictionaries include more sophisticated and refined distinctions than general dictionaries. The corpus they chose was the COCA, since it offered the researchers the following four advantages: (1) It is very large, (2) it is balanced across several genres, (3) it is frequently updated, and (4) it is freely accessible. Following the corpus analysis procedure and an inter-rater reliability procedure, the final list was compiled. An example is provided here with the lexical item "work out" in Table 2.

Table 2. *Example of the word "work out" in the Granier and Schmitt (2015) PHaVE List*

Meaning sense	Sample sentence
Plan, devise or think about STH carefully or in detail (33%)	We still need to work out the details of the procedure.
Exercise in order to improve health or strength (23%)	He works out at the gym 5 times a week.
(+well/badly) Happen or develop in a particular way (15%)	Everything worked out well in the end.
Prove to be successful (12.5%)	Despite our efforts, it just didn't work out

Conceptualising the new complex online phrasal verbs test (COPHAVE Test)

When conceptualising the newly developed test assessing English as a foreign language learners' (EFLLs') knowledge of phrasal verbs (presented here), I took into consideration what Alderson (2005), Nikolov and Szabó (2011), Schmitt (2014), and Jang (2014) asserted concerning diagnostic language tests for EFLLs. The following stipulations received most of the focus: (1) The PV test ought to measure core skills, (2) it must promote positive learning and assessment experiences, (3) it must assess PV knowledge in different modalities, and, finally, (4) it must be cognitively rich enough to elicit knowledge.

Based on empirical experiences procured in the online testing of EFLLs' vocabulary with a validated complex test that assesses vocabulary in different modalities (see Thékes, 2016), it was worthwhile assessing the knowledge of learners with different types of task because variations in the organisation of FL word knowledge could be revealed, plus correlations amongst the different tasks could be analysed as well. Gaining experience and evidence from the analysis of the results of the COPHAVE, I decided to create three tasks in the COPHAVE Test for EFLLS: (1) a receptive task in meaning recognition, (2) a receptive task in form recognition, and (3) a productive task in form recall modality.

This decision was made since I surmised that two receptive tasks in two different modalities and one productive task in form recall modality would be sufficient to diagnostically assess EFLLs' PV knowledge. Table 3 presents the structure of the diagnostic PV test for EFLLs. The purpose of this test was to gain knowledge of the organisation of PV knowledge.

Table 3. *Tasks in the COPHAVE Test for EFLs*

	Task	Receptive/ Productive	Language skill(s) and modality required (Schmitt, 2014)
1	Choose the phrasal verb that matches the meaning of the verb in bold	Receptive	Reading / Meaning recognition
2	Choose the correct preposition after the verb	Receptive	Reading / Form recognition
3	Write the proper preposition into the gaps	Receptive	Writing / Form recall

Selecting the items for the COPHAVE Test

First and foremost, I consulted Garnier and Schmitt's PHaVE List (2015) when compiling the items for the COPHAVE. This decision was supported by three main reasons: (1) Garnier and Schmitt (2015) claim that there is no more profound and carefully compiled list of PVs than that of the two researchers, (2) the list was created with a pedagogical perspective in mind, and (3) the list comprises the most frequent PVs in British and American English compiled, several of which EFLLs can be expected to know.

Garnier and Schmitt (2015) go into detail about the polysemous nature of PVs. They argue that no one knows whether students are aware of the different meaning senses of the polysemous PVs. Polysemy is problematic in the assessment of PV knowledge, especially in case of EFLLs since they hardly ever know synonyms and multiple connotations of PVs (Wray, 2008). In this respect, I made the decision to include exclusively the most frequent meaning sense of the PVs.

Selecting the items from the PHaVE List would have been hardly sufficient. Coursebooks that EFLLs use had to be consulted and lessons had to be observed to explore the amount of PV knowledge that can be expected from the EFLLs. Since the new diagnostic test assessing EFLLs' PV knowledge will first be used amongst Hungarian 6th graders, it was necessary to check which PVs were expected to be learnt from 4th grade until 6th grade. Four teachers of English in four different Hungarian primary schools were called upon to list the coursebooks they use with their students that start learning English in 4th grade. In addition, the teachers were also requested to underline the PVs that they had taught or the students are likely to learn during the three years of the EFLLs' English studies. All the coursebooks listed by the four teachers were checked and compared with the lists of the four teachers. In case a PV was listed in at least three of the five lists (four teachers and the coursebook list), it was included in the final list. This inventory comprised 88 PVs.

In spring 2016, eight English lessons of 6th graders in four primary schools in Szeged, Hungary, were also observed. Based on the classroom observations, another list was created that included all the PVs mentioned in class by either the teachers or the students. This inventory comprised 42 PVs.

At this point three lists were available: (1) Garnier and Schmitt's PHaVE List (2015), (2) the list compiled by the four teachers and validated by the researcher, and (3) the list based on classroom observations. The three inventories were compared, and any overlap amongst the latter two lists and the PHaVE List resulted in including that particular item in the final list that would serve as the pool of items for the test battery. This procedure led to 47 PVs. Following this, the PHaVE List was checked again and completed the ultimate inventory with the seven most frequent PVs on the PHaVE List that were not included amongst the 47 PVs. Thus, the inventory eventually comprised 54 items.

Similar to Thékes's (2016) procedure, the items were divided into three categories. Three word categories were established on the basis of the BNC list and the number of occurrences of a particular word in the coursebooks. The necessity of creating categories is underlined by the fact that major vocabulary tests (Laufer & Nation, 1995; Nation, 2001) include items selected on the basis of layered word lists. Three perspectives served as the basis of classifying words into categories: (1) word frequency based on the PHaVE List, (2) occurrence of the words in coursebooks used by Hungarian EFLLs, and (3) personal judgement on the assumed difficulty of the PV. The process of determining word categories is presented below.

Every PV in the test was given a difficulty index calculated from the sum of the three perspectives. Since frequency does not equal difficulty, a diversity of perspectives was necessary. However, Nation (2001) argues that there is a relationship between frequency and difficulty. Points were given on a scale of 1 to 3 on the basis of 15 years of experience of teaching EFL on the part of the author of the present study. One point was the indication of easiness and three points were that of difficulty. Personal judgement was done prior to consulting the PHaVE List and coursebook occurrence so that prejudice would be avoided. As regards the frequency perspective, the word was given one point if it was among the 2,000 most frequent PVs in the PHaVE List, and it was given two points if it was between the 2,000 and the 4,000 most frequent words. In case it was outside the 4,000 most frequent PVs, it was given three points. As concerns coursebook occurrence, I consulted the coursebooks used by the students and investigated my item pool with a focus on how frequently the words appear in the books. I put ticks next to the words on my list. Afterwards, I counted the ticks and gave points to the PVs in the following way: one point to more than six ticks, two points for a number of ticks between three and five, and finally three points for ticks between one and three.

From the process described above, it is clear that each word could be given the minimum of three points and the maximum of nine points. The summed points were considered the difficulty indices of the PVs. Based on these difficulty indices, the categories of the PVs were determined. Category 1 contains the simplest and Category 3 contains the most difficult items. Table 4 presents the determination of the categories.

Table 4. *The categories of the words based on index points*

Index points	3–5	6–8	7–9
Category of the word	1	2	3

As mentioned above, the final inventory of PVs comprises 54 words. The goal was to create the three categories with an equal number of items so that in the analysis of the results the knowledge of the words of different categories could be compared. Appendix A presents an alphabetical list of the PVs that will be used as items in the tasks of the COPHAVE Test for EFLLs. The category is also indicated.

Creating the COPHAVE Test

Eighteen items were classified into one of the three categories. As discussed above, a decision was made to create three different tasks in the test battery. Six equivalent tests were developed, each comprising three tasks of the same format. Each task in each test consists of nine items. This means that a test comprises 27 PVs. One PV occurs in three tests out of the six but always in a task that requires knowledge of a different modality. Thus, every PV is assessed in all of the three modalities (meaning recognition, form recognition, and form recall). This makes it possible to compare the achievements in the three modalities both at item and at student level.

As pointed out, a 27-item test consists of three tasks and each task involves nine items. Students can reach nine points in each task; thus, their maximum possible achievement is 27 points in each test. When composing the tasks, I made sure that every task would contain an equal number of items of the three categories. In each task, three items were selected from Category 1, three items were selected from Category 2, and three items were selected from Category 3. In this way, not only the task-solving modalities can be compared but the categories as well. In sum, equivalency among the tests was assured by selecting an equal number of items from each category and by assessing each PV in each modality. One of the six tests is presented in Appendix B.

As for further principles taken into account, three important aspects of the test battery need to be mentioned: (1) The sentences in the tasks were phrased in a context familiar to 6th graders and were designed to be motivating for them, which is an important tenet of language tests for EFLLs (Nikolov, 2011); (2) in the two receptive tasks, the items to be selected are listed in alphabetical order so that students will not surmise any hidden trace behind the order of listed items; thus, validity is strengthened; and (3) the sentences are short but interpretable so that the proper PV can be elicited. Furthermore, the format of Task 1 resembles that of the Vocabulary Size Test (VST); that of Task 2 takes the model of the diagnostic online English and German receptive vocabulary size test for EFLLs except that no picture is applied, and Task 3 is basically the picture VST (PVST) with the difference that instead of word parts, prepositions are invoked.

Future research

Having six equivalent tests assessing EFLLs' knowledge of PVs makes it possible to begin the piloting process of the tests. As in my doctoral dissertation (Thékes, 2016), where complex vocabulary was examined, the same procedure will be taken in case of the COPHAVE Test for EFLLs. The fact that each PV is assessed in three tests out of the six in the test battery will make it possible to compare the knowledge of PVs in different modalities. It will be empirically investigated whether form recall is the most difficult modality as Laufer et al. (2004) surmise.

First a paper-and-pencil pilot study will be conducted with the participation of around 120 6th graders, each sitting for three of the six tests. Test versions will be assigned randomly. Students' achievements will be examined, and besides that, item-level analysis of the test results will be conducted with classical statistical procedures and with the Rasch model. Item-total correlation values will also be investigated to explore how the items behave in the tests. Upon checking these values, it will be revealed whether any change needs to be made on the test concerning any of the items.

Once the statistical analysis is finished, the tests will be uploaded onto an online platform called eDia (Molnár, 2011), and a large-scale online assessment will be done with 350 students. Besides the quantitative statistical procedures, think-aloud protocols will also be performed with 20 participating students so that more profound data will be revealed. The COPHAVE Test for EFLLs will be a valid tool assessing Hungarian 6th graders; however, reproduction studies will also be made possible to be run at an international level.

When the online diagnostic test assessing the knowledge of phrasal verbs is available, teachers will have a new instrument at their disposal with which they can identify individual differences among students with respect to the acquisition of phrasal verbs.

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Appendix A
The PVs and their category based on index points

Phrasal Verb	Category
break out	2
bring back	2
build up	3
clean up	3
close down	3
come back	1
come down	2
come in	1
come on	1
come out	1
fill out	2
find out	1
get back	1
get down	3
get in	3
get out	1
get up	1
give in	3
give up	1
go ahead	2
go back	1
go off	3
go on	1
go out	1
go up	2
grow up	1
hang up	3

Phrasal Verb	Category
hold up	2
keep on	2
look around	2
look back	2
look out	2
look up	1
move in	3
move on	2
move out	3
pick up	1
put back	3
put on	3
set out	3
show up	1
shut down	3
shut up	2
sit down	1
slow down	3
sort out	3
stand up	2
start out	3
step back	2
take off	1
throw out	3
wake up	2
walk out	2
write down	2

Appendix B
An example of the six tests

Task 1
Instruction: Choose the phrasal verb that matches the meaning of the verb in bold.
See example.

Example: He is sitting now but he will **be on his feet** in a second.
       A) bring over
       B) get off
       C) get down
       D) stand up

Correct answer: D)

1) Uncle Jim **will go to his house and give us** our lawn-mower.
       A) bring back
       B) get up
       C) get down
       D) go ahead

2) Prices usually **increase** year by year.
       A) come back
       B) get up
       C) go up
       D) move in

3) My mom has travelled to England but will **return** soon.
       A) bring back
       B) come back
       C) give in
       D) go ahead

4) The DJ has asked everybody to **move onto** the dancefloor.
       A) bring back
       B) get down
       C) get up
       D) go up

5) The football player is on the field; he has to **lift his body** and play on.
        A) get up
        B) go ahead
        C) go off
        D) move in

6) Her grandpa has been smoking. He will need to **stop** doing so.
        A) come back
        B) give up
        C) go up
        D) move in

7) - Can I have some of your hamburger?
   - Sure, **help yourself**.
        A) get up
        B) give in
        C) go ahead
        D) go up

8) The criminals are threatening the city council that a bomb will **explode** outside their office center.
        A) get down
        B) give in
        C) go ahead
        D) go off

9) The family cannot wait to start to **live in** their new house.
        A) come back
        B) get up
        C) go off
        D) move in

Task 2
Instruction: Choose the correct word after each verb. See example.

Example: He is sitting now but he will stand…………. soon.
      A) in
      B) on
      C) over
      D) up
Correct answer: A)

1) I need new information. I have to find ………….. what they are up to.
      A) back
      B) on
      C) out
      D) over

2) I am going shopping to the nearest mall. I hope I will get ……………. home within an hour.
      A) back
      B) down
      C) in
      D) over

3) I tried to convince the president last night. I hope he will give ……… and we can have his signature.
      A) back
      B) down
      C) in
      D) over

4) The child was acting badly in the classroom. The teacher asked him to go ……………. .
      A) in
      B) into
      C) out
      D) over

5) If you fix a meeting on Facebook messenger, you have to show ………….. and talk to your friend.
      A) in
      B) on
      C) up
      D) through

6) If your plastic mineral water bottle is empty, you have to throw it …………….. not to pollute the environment.
         A) across
         B) down
         C) in
         D) out

7) Try to remember the mobile number of your friend. Write it ……………… not to forget.
         A) across
         B) down
         C) into
         D) over

8) Try to walk ………………….. quietly so the baby will stay asleep.
         A) back
         B) in
         C) out
         D) over

9) When you ride your bike, never look ……………….. so that you will always focus on the road.
         A) back
         B) in
         C) over
         D) through

Task 3
Instruction: Write the proper preposition into the gaps. See example.

Example.
When his iPhone rings, he will stand …... and walk to pick it up.

Correct answer: up

1) The airplane will take …… ………… in a minute and head to Beijing.

2) My iPhone will wake me ………….. at exactly 6 o'clock.

3) Sarah will put ………………… her new Hello Kitty denim vest this morning.

4) When my children grow ………………., they will not watch Wild Kratts cartoons.

5) The monkey has climbed up to the top of the tree in the zoo, so now he has to come …………………. from above.

6) Cornflakes are always great to start ……………………… the day.

7) Come ……………… boys, we can win this match.

8) Vincent talks too much in class, sometimes he needs to shut ……...… so everyone can focus on the lesson.

9) Jenny does not like her boyfriend any more. She is going to break …………. with him.

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Conference Selections

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Flying Colours is a compilation comprising a selection of papers presented at the 28th IATEFL-Hungary Conference, held in Budapest, 4-5 October, 2018. The first peer-reviewed paper proposes new Craft and Academic Teacher terminology to overcome some of the controversies in the native/non-native English teacher debate. The second peer-reviewed article is a pilot study of English language communication in classroom settings. The non-peer-reviewed papers cover, on the one hand, the integration of science, technology, engineering, art and mathematics with foreign language learning, and, on the other hand, the development of an online diagnostic test for phrasal verbs.