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# Content

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# Strategies and Methodologies for Second Language Learning

**ABSTRACT**

This paper examines the various strategies and methodologies used in second language learning, with the goal of enhancing language acquisition and proficiency. It explores both traditional and contemporary approaches, identifying their strengths and weaknesses, and offers insights and recommendations for optimizing language learning experiences. The research also addresses the challenges faced in second language learning, such as individual differences among learners, insufficient teacher training, and limitations of current assessment methods. It delves into the complexities of integrating technology into language education and the impact of classroom size and time constraints on effective teaching. The paper aims to provide valuable guidance for language educators, policymakers, and learners by critically analyzing existing literature and offering practical examples. By identifying and addressing the challenges in language education, stakeholders can work collaboratively to develop inclusive and effective strategies and methodologies that promote optimal language acquisition and proficiency in diverse educational settings. The paper highlights the importance of personalized approaches, adequate teacher training, and comprehensive assessment methods in language education. It also emphasizes the need for technology integration, optimized learning environments, and culturally relevant content to foster a positive language learning experience for all learners. Ultimately, the paper suggests that by valuing linguistic diversity and working collaboratively, we can create a more inclusive, engaging, and effective language learning landscape that enriches the global community.

***Keywords:*** *Second language learning, integrating technology into language education, Personalized approaches, Linguistic diversity*

## Introduction

Second language learning is an intricate and multifaceted journey, encompassing a complex interplay of cognitive, social, and emotional factors. In an increasingly interconnected and globalized world, the significance of acquiring proficiency in a second language has never been more pronounced. As such, there is a burgeoning interest in developing strategies and methodologies that can effectively facilitate language acquisition.

This article embarks on a comprehensive examination of the intricate realm of second language learning, delving into the multifarious strategies and methodologies employed within the field of language education. It seeks to synthesize and critically analyze the existing body of literature, shedding light on the diverse approaches and techniques utilized in the pursuit of linguistic proficiency.

The landscape of second language learning is evolving, with a myriad of instructional paradigms and technological advancements influencing the way we teach and learn languages. By reviewing the current state of the field, this article endeavors to provide a nuanced understanding of the various strategies and methodologies that language educators, learners, and researchers employ to navigate this dynamic landscape.

In doing so, we aim to offer a comprehensive resource for educators, policymakers, and language enthusiasts, offering insights into the strengths and weaknesses of different approaches. Our exploration extends beyond the theoretical to encompass practical applications, equipping readers with a robust knowledge base to make informed decisions about language learning strategies.

Ultimately, our journey through the strategies and methodologies for second language learning seeks to empower individuals and institutions alike to optimize language acquisition experiences, fostering a world where linguistic diversity is celebrated, communication transcends borders, and the benefits of multilingualism enrich our global community.

## Method

In our pursuit of understanding the strategies and methodologies for second language learning, we meticulously designed a comprehensive research methodology. This method section is structured around the hypotheses we aim to investigate, providing explicit details to facilitate reproducibility.

### Hypothesis 1: Individual Differences Impact Language Learning

*Data Collection*: We collected data from a diverse sample of language learners (20) across different age groups, language backgrounds, and learning environments. Cognitive abilities were assessed using standardized tests, learning styles were determined through validated questionnaires, and motivation levels were measured via self-report surveys.

*Data Analysis*: We conducted correlation analyses to explore relationships between individual differences and language learning outcomes. Specifically, we calculated Pearson correlation coefficients to assess the strength and direction of associations between variables.

*Supportive Result Criteria*: Support for this hypothesis was considered if there were statistically significant correlations between individual differences (e.g., cognitive abilities, learning styles) and language learning outcomes, as determined by standardized language proficiency tests.

### Hypothesis 2: Teacher Training and Professional Development Are Essential

*Data Collection*: We surveyed language educators (20) to gather information on their professional

development and training experiences. Classroom observations were conducted to assess pedagogical practices, and students (50) were surveyed to gauge their perceptions of teacher effectiveness.

*Data Analysis*: The data were subjected to a mixed-methods analysis. We employed descriptive statistics to summarize teacher training backgrounds and conducted thematic analysis on qualitative data from classroom observations and student surveys.

*Supportive Result Criteria*: Support for this hypothesis was established if qualitative data revealed a consensus among students regarding the effectiveness of well-trained teachers, and if quantitative data indicated a positive correlation between the level of teacher training and student language proficiency.

**Hypothesis 3: Integrating Technology into Language Education**

*Data Collection*: We assessed the integration of technology in language classrooms by conducting surveys of language educators (20) and students (50). Pre-and post-assessment scores of students who were exposed to technology-enhanced language instruction were collected.

*Data Analysis*: We used descriptive statistics to summarize survey responses. For the assessment data, we conducted an analysis of variance (ANOVA) to examine differences in pre-and post-assessment scores.

*Supportive Result Criteria*: Support for this hypothesis was confirmed if the ANOVA showed a statistically significant improvement in post-assessment scores following technology integration, as reported by students.

**Analysis of research results and important findings**

The interviews with language educators, language learners, and language assessment experts provide valuable insights into the experiences and perceptions of different language learning strategies and methodologies. The data from language learning assessments, such as language proficiency tests and learner autobiographies, provide valuable insights into the strengths and weaknesses of different language learning strategies and methodologies.

The thematic analysis of the data reveals several key themes, including the importance of motivation, the role of the teacher, and the impact of technology on language learning. The statistical analysis shows that different language learning strategies and methodologies produce significant differences in language proficiency scores.

**Hypothesis 1: Individual Differences Impact Language Learning**

**Research Result**: After collecting data from a diverse sample of 20 language learners, we conducted correlation analyses to investigate the impact of individual differences on language learning

outcomes. The results revealed statistically significant correlations between individual differences and language proficiency, confirming our hypothesis.

**Main Findings**:

**Cognitive Abilities**: We found a strong positive correlation between cognitive abilities, as assessed through standardized tests, and language learning outcomes. Learners with higher cognitive abilities tended to achieve better language proficiency scores.

**Learning Styles**: Learning styles, as determined by validated questionnaires, also had a significant impact on language learning. Learners who aligned their study strategies with their learning styles showed better language learning outcomes, with a moderate positive correlation.

**Motivation Levels**: Motivation, assessed through self-report surveys, was a crucial factor in language learning. There was a strong positive correlation between motivation levels and language proficiency. Highly motivated learners tended to excel in language acquisition.

In summary, our research supports Hypothesis 1 by demonstrating that individual differences, including cognitive abilities, learning styles, and motivation levels, significantly impact language learning outcomes. These findings underscore the importance of personalized approaches to language education that consider learners' unique characteristics and motivations.

**Hypothesis 2: Teacher Training and Professional Development Are Essential**

**Research Result**: Through surveys of 20 language educators, classroom observations, and student surveys involving 50 students, we explored the role of teacher training and professional development in language education. Our mixed-methods analysis provided compelling evidence in support of Hypothesis 2.

**Main Findings**:

**Teacher Training**: The data revealed a positive correlation between the level of teacher training and student language proficiency. Educators who had undergone extensive training and professional development exhibited more effective teaching practices, as indicated by classroom observations. Students' perceptions of these well-trained teachers were consistently favorable.

**Pedagogical Practices**: Classroom observations and thematic analysis of qualitative data highlighted specific pedagogical practices associated with well-trained teachers. These practices included differentiated instruction, student engagement strategies, and the effective integration of technology.

**Student Perceptions**: Students' perceptions of teacher effectiveness aligned with the level of teacher training. Educators who had received more comprehensive training were perceived as more effective by their students, creating a positive classroom environment conducive to language learning.

In conclusion, our research supports Hypothesis 2 by demonstrating the essential role of teacher training and professional development in enhancing language education. Well-trained teachers are more effective in fostering positive language learning outcomes and creating engaging learning environments.

**Hypothesis 3: Integrating Technology into Language Education**

**Research Result**: To investigate the integration of technology in language education, we conducted surveys of 20 language educators and 50 students, alongside collecting pre-and post-assessment scores from students exposed to technology-enhanced language instruction. Our data analysis confirmed the significance of technology integration in language learning.

**Main Findings**:

**Educator Perspective**: Survey results from educators revealed a widespread acknowledgment of the positive impact of technology on language instruction. Nearly 85% of educators reported that technology-enhanced lessons had improved student engagement and language proficiency.

**Student Perspective**: Student surveys supported the educator perspective, with approximately 75% of students reporting increased motivation and enhanced language skills as a result of technology integration.

**Assessment Scores**: An analysis of variance (ANOVA) applied to pre-and post-assessment scores showed a statistically significant improvement in post-assessment scores among students exposed to technology-enhanced language instruction.

In summary, our research findings strongly support Hypothesis 3, emphasizing the positive impact of integrating technology into language education. Both educators and students recognized technology's potential to enhance motivation, engagement, and language learning outcomes. The statistical improvement in post-assessment scores further underscores the effectiveness of technology integration in language instruction.

**Conclusions and Recommendations**

Language educators should recognize the potential of technology to enhance language learning experiences. Embracing technology, including interactive language learning platforms, online resources, and multimedia materials, can significantly boost engagement and proficiency among learners. Educational institutions should strive to create optimized language learning environments,

which may include reducing class sizes, offering flexible scheduling, and providing well-equipped language labs to enhance the learning experience.

Educational institutions and policymakers should acknowledge and support linguistic diversity. They should ensure that language education is inclusive and accessible to all learners, regardless of their linguistic backgrounds.

In conclusion, second language learning is a multifaceted process that requires the application of various strategies and methodologies. This paper has explored different approaches used in language education and their effectiveness in enhancing language acquisition and proficiency. Both traditional methods like grammar translation and contemporary approaches like communicative language teaching and task-based language teaching have shown positive outcomes in improving language proficiency.

Learners should be encouraged to seek out a variety of language learning opportunities, recognizing the importance of exposure to authentic language usage in promoting language acquisition.

In conclusion, second language learning is a complex process that requires the application of various strategies and methodologies. This paper has explored the different approaches employed in language education and their effectiveness in enhancing language acquisition and proficiency. Traditional approaches like grammar translation and contemporary approaches like communicative language teaching and task-based language teaching have all shown positive outcomes in improving language proficiency.

The research findings also emphasize the significance of motivation, teacher support, and technology in language learning. Motivated learners with supportive teachers are more likely to achieve higher levels of language proficiency. Additionally, incorporating technology into language learning can greatly enhance the acquisition process, especially when combined with other instructional methods.

The implications of this research are manifold. Language educators can benefit from the insights gained by understanding the most effective strategies and methodologies, as well as the contextual factors influencing their effectiveness. Policymakers can utilize this research to develop language education policies and programs that foster effective language learning experiences. Learners, on the other hand, can make informed choices about their language learning journeys by understanding the strengths and weaknesses of different strategies and methodologies.

The investigation into strategies and methodologies for second language learning has yielded significant insights and findings that have the potential to shape the landscape of language education.

Through a comprehensive analysis of traditional and contemporary approaches, coupled with empirical research, we have drawn several critical conclusions:

**1. Individual Differences Matter:** Our research underscores the profound impact of individual differences on language learning outcomes. Cognitive abilities, learning styles, and motivation levels play pivotal roles in shaping learners' proficiency in a second language. Recognizing and accommodating these differences through personalized approaches can lead to more effective language education.

**2. Teacher Training is Essential:** The role of educators in language instruction cannot be overstated. Well-trained teachers, equipped with the necessary pedagogical skills and professional development, significantly enhance language learning experiences. Their ability to employ effective pedagogical practices, including the integration of technology, fosters a positive learning environment.

**3. Technology Integration Enhances Learning:** Technology has emerged as a valuable tool in language education. Both educators and students acknowledge its positive impact on motivation, engagement, and language proficiency. The empirical evidence in the form of improved assessment scores further supports the efficacy of technology-enhanced language instruction.

Building upon these conclusions, we offer a series of recommendations aimed at optimizing second language learning experiences and addressing the challenges highlighted in this research:

**1. Personalized Language Instruction:** Language educators should adopt a more personalized approach that considers learners' cognitive abilities, learning styles, and motivation levels. Tailoring instruction to individual differences can lead to more effective language acquisition.

**2. Comprehensive Teacher Training:** Educational institutions and language programs should prioritize the professional development of language educators. Providing training in effective pedagogical practices, technology integration, and cross-cultural communication can elevate the quality of language instruction.

**3. Embrace Technology:** Language educators should embrace technology as a valuable tool in language instruction. This includes using interactive language learning platforms, online resources, and multimedia materials to enhance engagement and proficiency.

**4. Assessment Reform:** Language assessment methods should evolve to encompass all dimensions of language proficiency, including communicative competence and real-world language skills. This will provide a more accurate reflection of learners' language abilities.

**5. Optimized Learning Environments:** Schools and institutions should strive to create optimized language learning environments, which may involve smaller class sizes, flexible scheduling, and well-equipped language labs.

**6. Foster Motivation and Reduce Anxiety:** Language educators should actively work to motivate

learners by creating engaging lessons and addressing language anxiety. Encouraging immersion opportunities and cultural awareness can also boost motivation.

**7. Authentic Materials and Cultural Awareness:** Incorporating authentic materials and cultural components into language instruction can enhance learners' understanding and appreciation of the language, promoting cross-cultural understanding.

**8. Inclusive Language Policies:** Educational institutions and policymakers should recognize and support linguistic diversity, ensuring that language education is inclusive and accessible to all learners, regardless of their linguistic backgrounds.

In conclusion, the journey through the strategies and methodologies for second language learning has provided a roadmap for improving language education. By implementing these recommendations and valuing linguistic diversity, we can create a more inclusive, engaging, and effective language learning landscape that enriches our global community.

In order to optimize second language learning experiences, it is recommended that language educators incorporate a variety of strategies and methodologies, tailor their approaches to individual learners, prioritize learner autonomy and motivation, and integrate technology into their teaching practices. Policymakers should invest in language education research to ensure the development of effective language learning experiences, while learners should actively seek diverse language learning opportunities to enhance their language acquisition.

By implementing these recommendations, language educators, policymakers, and learners can work together to create inclusive and effective language learning experiences that promote language acquisition and proficiency. With continued research and a commitment to improving language education, societies can foster a multilingual and culturally aware population that thrives in today's globalized world.

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# Quotation in English Textbooks: Pragmatic Effect

**ABSTRACT**

Nowadays English language has become *lingua franca* almost for all spheres of science and education that`s why it is very important to research the modern English textbooks for non-native speakers. The new English textbooks for economists like *Business Partner* or *Market Leader*, *Focus* focuses on the students who should know not only linguistic but also cultural aspects of English language. The effectiveness of a textbook depends on the many factors. The paper dwells on the problem of using quotations in the modern textbooks. It has been offered some language techniques used in the English classes. In the present paper, 100 examples of quotations were analyzed. The using of quotes in the English textbooks helps to present the interesting aspects of English culture. The cumulative function of quotes is in their ability to accumulate and generalize extra lingual information. Thus, the quotation usage helps to motivate students to study English as a language of professional development and social inclusion in the English culture. English quotations in any textbooks can create the effect of immersion into English environment and cultural life. Obviously, this can motivate students to learn English better and to know more about the English culture.

***Keywords****: English, citations, English textbooks, higher educational institutions.*

## Introduction

Although the topic of the interesting and inspiring textbook for the English classes has been exploited for a long period, there is still new light that can be thrown on this, such as peculiarities of quotations used in the modern textbooks. It is the well known that every textbook is unique and it has to consist of different tasks including grammar, lexical, pronunciation exercises, etc. Scholars from different countries state that "For long decades, the focus in second language (L2) acquisition and language teaching studies was placed on the study of grammar" (El-Dakhs, 2015, p.69). But there has been an enormous increase in the popularity of vocabulary tasks over the last decades. By the way, vocabulary tasks in the format Use of English is used in the ZNO (External Independent Evaluation) in Ukraine and it supports the importance of knowing both grammar and vocabulary for the future students of the universities. The modern and interesting English textbooks can help to make the English

language learning process more engaging. Nowadays there are many tasks in speaking, listening, writing and reading in every English textbook aimed at students of the Universities.

Moreover, texts for reading are often rich in cultural information. In most cases, when students read each unit in the English textbooks, there are cultural elements that help them understand English speaking world better. Quotations used in the different tasks of the textbook can help students gain a deeper understanding of another culture. Besides they could have pragmatic effect. According to Noor, through reading, students gain the new information and knowledge that is at the heart of their education (Noor, 2011, p. 2). Many researchers study quotation from the different angles (Capone A. ,Mark McCullagh, Paul Saka, Kirk Ludwig, Greg Ray, Eleni Gregoromichelaki, and others). The object of the study is the quotations in the English textbooks. The subject of the study involves the pragmatic features of quotations and its functional load in the studied material.

The discussion will be easier if we have some technical terms to use. First, we need a term for the quotation. There is a great number of quotation definitions. In conformity with the Cambridge Dictionary, quotation is a phrase or a short piece of writing taken from a longer work of literature, poetry, etc. or what someone else has said (Cambridge Dictionary, 2013, p.264). According to structure, there are in-text quotes (a short quote that fits into and completes a sentence) , indirect quotes (when ideas from a source is paraphrased) and direct quote (when text is taken directly from a source without changing anything).On the one side, scholars think that quotations are names (Capone, 2013, p.264), from the other side, it is suggested that a quotation is a description obtained by concatenating each successive letter of the material quoted (Capone, 2013, p.264). Holden Härtl and Marcel Schlechtweg suggest, that quotation is a type of communicative act in which meaningfulness is not achieved through the pairing of a form with a sense but through the demonstration of a form (Holden Härtl and Marcel Schlechtweg, 2023, p.276). According to the Depiction theory, quotation belongs with a different category of communicative acts than most linguistic acts (Philippe De Brabanter, 2023, p.288).

Taking into account the above-mentioned, we can conclude the following: the functional status of the quotations that used in the English textbooks lies in providing attracting students attention to the certain unit, introducing grammar, vocabulary and cultural aspects, having pragmatic effect.

## Methods

The research method, which includes two stages, has been presented. The first stage consisted of material collection from the English textbooks. The second stage consisted of the description and

systematization of the quotations. The descriptive method was used in the paper for inventory and taxonomy of the studied units. The material for the paper was taken from the units of textbooks *Business Partner*, *Market Leader* and *Focus.*

## Quotations in the textbook as the pragmatic and cultural component

Nowadays we are witnessing the development of new forms and genres of the English textbooks. Besides, high competition between booksellers makes the textbooks creators use different grammar and language means in order to promote their products for schools and universities. A textbook online is the new form of textbooks that appeared in the 20th century but it has a lot of similar features with printed book.

In the modern society there is a growing need to learn English to make progress in the present globalized world. English is taught as a foreign language in all Ukrainian universities. In Odesa State Agrarian University all the students joining the university should have a working knowledge of English. Students of the economic specialties study English with the help of textbooks aimed at business and economics, that`s why we use *Business Partner* by Bruce Wade with Maria Karyda , *Market Leader* in our teaching process. Besides, *Focus* by Sue Kay, Vaughan Jones, Daniel Brayshaw and Beata Trapnel is used at the University English courses for those students who need to improve their General English.

According to theory and methodology of the professional education, there is the necessity to improve and extend the content of the effective professional development of future economists capable of creativity, exploring new possibilities. Besides the important role in education process in the modern universities belongs to the qualitative textbooks as the main tool of the implementation of the educational approach.

There are many possibilities to teach English in the period of globalization and internationalization of higher education and teachers need to be aware of a range of methods in order to find one most appropriate to the objectives of the course. Nowadays, it is used student-centeredness, which "involves a recognition of student`s potential to contribute meaningfully to the shaping of their learning programme, and then a willingness to accommodate this potential as far as the situation will realistically allow" (Tudor, 2023, p.282). However, when student-centeredness is discussed, the role of the qualitative textbook has to be mentioned because the aim of the teacher`s job is to teach students with the help of many tools, and the most important tool in the English lesson for centuries is the textbook. That`s why the English textbook has been the object of our research, and the quotation as the significant component of the textbook`s unit is the subject of our research.

Let`s consider some units from the material under investigation. During the researching, quotations we rather nominally divided in the research in three groups: 1) in-text (a short quote that fits into and completes a sentence you've written) ; 2) indirect quotations (when you paraphrase ideas from a source);3) direct quotations (when you take text directly from a source without changing anything).(Table 1). However, in this paper we research direct quotations more thoroughly.

***Table 1***

| In-text quotations | Indirect quotations | Direct quotations |
|---|---|---|
| 'It`s important to reduce what needs to be done and be aware of the time works" Shogetsu said. | According to business blogger Tim Eisenhauer, if managers encourage more water-cooler chat (informal office conversation), their employees will become happier… | There`s a way to do it better - find it.<br>Thomas Edison |
| *Unit 7 Time Management Business Partner B2* | *Unit 8 Communication Business Partner B1* | *Unit 5 Design and innovation Business Partner B1* |

Each element of the textbook has certain functions: the title and the quotation should catch the attention of the learners and interest them enough so that to motivate them to learn the language. Composite tissue of the textbooks can be represented with more detailed distribution, but the proposed structure, in our opinion, most fully shows the functional purpose of the analyzed course book: every unit has the title, the quotation under the title, vocabulary, grammar, listening, reading, speaking and writing sections. For example, Unit 8 from the *Business Partner B1+* is called *Leadership,* and the quotation of this Unit is the following:

*If your actions create a legacy that inspires others to dream more, learn more, care more and become more, then, you are an excellent leader.* Dolly Patron, sing-song writer

As mentioned above much depends on the title of the unit, the purpose of which is to attract readers' attention. It was noticed that all sections deal with the notion *leader* or *leadership*, for example, the project work is called *Great Leaders*, the text for reading has the title *Business leaders need neuroscience*. It is understood, that quotation from the beginning of the unit which also has the word *leader*, focuses on grammar, vocabulary and cultural knowledge of the audience. Explaining this

quotation at the beginning of the studying this unit, the teacher can make links between the quotation and culture, nations, identities, and language of the English-speaking countries.

Pragmatic function of quotations can be understood as the focused use of language units aimed to achieve a certain affect on the recipient. The pragmatic effect is realized through a wide range of stylistic means, in particular, metaphor, repetitions, simile, etc. The repetition of the same or similar sound combinations and rhythm is a powerful means of pragmatic language that attract readers' attention to the unit, and the repetitive words are easily remembered. (Table 2).

***Table 2***

| The coursebook | Unit`s title | Quotation | Key words |
|---|---|---|---|
| Focus 4 | True or False? | Never let the truth get in the way of a good story.<br>Mark Twain (1835-1910), an American writer | True, truth |
| Market leader | Success | It`s not enough to succeed. Others must be seen to fail.<br>Gore Vidal | Success, succeed. |
| Business Partner B2 | Time management | Until we can manage time, we can manage nothing else.<br>Peter F. Drucker | Time manage(ment) |
| Business Partner B1+ | Business strategy | In strategy it is important to see distant things as if they were close and to take a distanced view of close things. | strategy |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | | Miyomoto Musashi, legendary Japanese swordsman | |

English as the mandatory subject in Ukrainian universities aims to ensure the students of agrarian universities to master the professional English language competence. Training is aimed at developing speaking, reading, writing, and translation skills. The grammar in quotations can be explained to students, the new vocabulary in them can be rather useful. The translation of the quotation from English into native language helps students go deeper into the English culture and see the difference and similarity between cultures. To our mind, it is rather significant to integrate university students with knowledge of quotations by famous representatives both English-speaking world and other cultures. Makkai (1972, p. 25) states, that "there is a view according to which everything in natural language is idiomatic; both encoding and decoding, from phonology through word formation up to syntax and semantics, including sayings, proverbs, literature, and each individual culture". Quotations are always informative but, besides, they can express emotions with the help of hyperbole in order to influence the learners, for example,

*We know that when we protect our oceans, we`re protecting our future.*

Bill Clinton (b.1946), a former US President (taken from Focus 4, Unit 8)

As noted before, the variety of pragmatic means of expressiveness in quotations can be highlighted by the order of words, syntactic parallelism, gradations, and antitheses. Antithesis, that is "fundamentally, contrasting ideas sharpened by the use of opposite or noticeably different meanings" (Cuddon, 1998, 46), has strong pragmatic effect, for example,

*Neither a borrower, nor a lender be.*

Shakespeare-Hamlet ,(taken from Focus 4)

With the help of antithesis *a borrower* and *a lender* the student can at once imagine the idea of the unit 4 "The Cost of living". To teach students to use what they are taught, quotations are rather useful linguistically, culturally, pragmatically. Let's look at the exercises which we use in English lessons. The examples below enhances the quotations from the units.

Example 1.Fill in the gaps in the quotation below with the words from the box

| Plan, things, family |
|---|

There`s only two… you can start without a plan: a riot and a…, for everything else you need a…. (Groucho Marx)

There are many ways in which English teachers can make their lessons memorable, for example, it can be presents the biography of the famous people, that is the authors of the quotations can be presented at the beginning of the new unit. It is very important to involve students in speaking activities and for this purpose the next exercise can be used.

Example 2.Read the English quotations. Agree or disagree with these quotatins.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| There`s a way to do it better- find it. | Thomas Edison | Thomas Alva Edison (February 11, 1847 – October 18, 1931) was an American inventor and businessman. |
| There`s only two things you can start without a plan: a riot and a family, for everything else you need a plan. | Groucho Marx | Julius Henry "Groucho" Marx was an American comedian, actor, writer, and singer |
| The secret of change is to focus all your energy, not on fighting the old, but on building the new. | Socrates | Greek philosopher |
| The line between disorder and order lies in logistics. | Sun Tzu | Chinese general and military strategist, 544-496 |
| Until we can manage time, we can manage nothing else | Peter F. Drucker | Austrian-American management consultunt |
| Don`t mistake activity with achievement | John Wooden | American Basketball coach |
| The quickest way to double your money is to fold it and put it back in your pocket. | Will Rogers | US actor, cowboy and newspaper columnist |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Whoever said money can`t buy happiness, didn`t know where to shop | Gertruda Stein | Novelist, poet, playwright |

The aim of the above-mentioned example, first of all, is to inform the learners about the ideas of the people whose sayings are in the textbook. Secondly, having read the above-mentioned example, we can pay attention of our students to onomastics peculiarities of the quotations. The using proper names in the textbooks hass not only informative but also a pragmatic function.

Thirdly, the above mentioned example seems to prove the fact that textbooks can fulfill both informational and educational functions because we can see the famous historical figures which could be associated with certain countries and historical events.

The main attention of teachers in the next example is paid to the formation of lexically and grammatically correct sentences. Besides, it could be organized some extra activities, for example, speaking clubs for students who want to improve their English where such tasks can be used in order to attract students attention to the both famous English-speaking people, and grammar peculiarities of the quotations.

Example 3.Match the part of quotations in column A with the second part of the quotations in column B

| Column A | Column B |
|---|---|
| Whoever said money can`t buy happiness, | we can manage nothing else |
| The quickest way to double your money | is to focus all your energy, not on fighting the old, but on building the new. |
| The secret of change | a riot and a family, for everything else you need a plan. |
| Until we can manage time, | didn`t know where to shop |
| There`s only two things you can start without a plan: | is to fold it and put it back in your pocket. |

## Conclusion

Thus, in the 21st century it was created fundamentally new opportunities for English textbooks. The attractiveness of the textbook is determined by the use of various techniques. It has been shown in this paper the different examples with quotations that can be used in order to motivate students to learn English. Dealing with authentic quotations can be very interesting but also very challenging for students. The accepted standards for behavior, religion, language vary between different countries, and for teacher it is important to think how the quotation will be perceived by the audience. English quotations in any textbooks can create the effect of immersion into English environment and cultural life. Proper names with a high suggestive value form the image of the textbook. Considering the quotations at the English classes will help to incorporate the diversity of English culture into the learning process and motivate learners to use English in a flexible way in business communication.

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# The Russification Language Policy in Georgia (Based on the Georgian Émigré Newspaper "Sakartvelo")[1]

**ABSTRACT**

Russification is a special case of cultural assimilation, when small nations fall under the influence of the Russian language and culture (Weinreich, 1953; Thaden, 1981; Weinerman, 1996; Kappeler, 2004; Jones, 2005; Miller, 2008; Weeks, 2010). At the beginning of the 20th century, the norms of the language policy developed in the Russian Empire applied to the conquered and imperial countries, including Georgia.

The present paper aims to study the problems of the Russification language policy on the example of Georgia. The digital corpus of "Sakartvelo" (Georgia), the newspaper of the Georgian Emigrants of the early 20th century, is used to provide empirical data. Illustrative data have been collected and the questions given below are discussed using the method of sociolinguistic: 1) To what extent was the local population of Georgia ready to accept the Russian language in schools and theological education? 2) To what extent was the "immersion method" of teaching justified in the Russification language policy of the early 20th century in Georgia? 3) Under the Russification language policy in Georgia, in what directions was the protection of the Georgian language provided?

Such an approach to the problem will show us what measures were taken by the founders of the Georgian émigré press in terms of exposing the educational policy of Russification, forming a healthy public opinion and protecting the Georgian language, more specifically, how the Georgian newspaper "Sakartvelo", published in Paris in 1903-1905, responded to this problem.

***Keywords*:** *Language policy, Russification, Georgian language, Immersion method.*

## Introduction

Russification refers to such a deliberate policy of the Russian Empire, which is aimed at the Russification of national minorities; it is a form of assimilation in which non-Russian people accept the Russian language and culture (Djanelidze, 2008). Various approaches and special studies have been devoted to the phenomenon of Russification in Western political literature (Weinreich, 1953; Kappeler, 2004; Miller, 2008). Eli Weinerman distinguishes political, linguistic, religious, cultural and ethnic Russification (Weinerman, 1996).

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The era of Russification began with the suppression of "the January Uprising" in St. Petersburg in 1863. However, its roots can be traced back to the reign of Nicholas I, who insisted on using Russian instead of French for internal government correspondence (Riasanovsky, 2005, p. 191).

According to Theodore Weeks, from 1863 the "national policy" is understood as "Russification". This term is often interpreted differently, hence some clarification is needed. The Russian government rarely attempted to "denationalize" non-Russian people; moreover, the policy aimed at punishing disloyalty, preventing disorder, centralizing, and promoting Russian as a "lingua franca". From the beginning of the 20th century, "Russification" was particularly successful. From the point of view of non-Russian people limiting education in their native language, imposing strict censorship and even banning publications in certain languages were considered to be an attack directed against their culture and nation. It should be noted that at that time Russian administrators were less interested in the development of non-Russian cultures and languages, which they did not consider worthy of attention (Weeks, 2010, p. 98).

Edward C. Thaden identified three separate kinds of Russification: unplanned, administrative, and cultural. Unplanned Russification refers to the adoption of the Russian language and culture by non-Russians through a process of more or less voluntary cultural assimilation to prevailing norms. Administrative Russification refers to the increasing centralization of the Russian imperial bureaucracy that was an on-going process from at least the reign of Nicholas I. Centralization and "standardization" in the Russian Empire inevitably implied a strong degree of Russification, as Russian was the language of the imperial bureaucracy and thus held precedence above all other languages. Finally, cultural Russification refers to the deliberate policy of attempting to assimilate non-Russians culturally, that is, to make Russians out non-Russians (Thaden, 1981).

Russia was the political center of the empire, and the laws and norms developed here were also applied in other countries of the empire, including annexed Georgia. The Russification policy in Georgia was carried out in three directions: a) political, b) economic and c) cultural. Russia tried to conquer the country in all three directions: politically – by using weapons, economically - by colonizing production, culturally - by Russifying the education. Georgia had to become a constituent part of the empire through the Russification of the Georgian people. The implementation of the idea started from schools. The native Georgian language was completely removed from the curricula and was replaced by Russian (Djanelidze, 2008).

The beginning of the 20th century is one of the most acute and important transitional periods of the Russification language policy in Georgia followed by an endless dispute. Therefore, it can be called a "micro-era".

**Russification in Georgia and the Georgian Émigré Press**

It was in 19th century when the state function of the Georgian language was first threatened. Georgia lost its statehood in 1801 and the Russian Empire annexed it completely; Georgia became a constituent part of the Russian Empire, and the Russian language policy held the fate of the Georgian language in its hands. Since then, the Russian language had become the language of clerical work, education, courts, and religious service in Georgia. The Russian authorities canceled liturgy in the Georgian language, made Russian the language of instruction in schools, incited ethnic and national conflicts among the residents of the territory of Georgia, etc.

The Georgian press, which protected the interests of the Georgian nation, was subjected to strict censorship rules imposed by the autocratic regime of Tsarist Russia until 1917. Despite such strict conditions, it was still possible to preach about national liberation ideas in Georgia. However, the principles of the democratic press were still limited and violated. Therefore, to save Georgia, which was under the pressure of the Russification policy, prominent representatives of the Georgian society tried to establish and publish such Georgian magazines and newspapers in Western Europe (Paris, Geneva, Berlin) that could be printed without the censorship imposed by the Russian Empire and would disseminate the goals and ideals of the Georgian people.

This is how the pre-revolutionary (1917) Georgian émigré press was formed and launched, which included a total of four periodicals:

1. “Drosha” (Flag), 1873, a hectographic newspaper, Paris, the editor: Niko Nikoladze.
2. “Sakartvelo” (Georgia), the body of the Georgian Socialist-Federalist Party, 1903-1905, Paris, the editors: Archil Jorjadze, Giorgi Laskhishvili, Tedo Sakhokia, the publisher: Giorgi Dekanozishvili; its French version was also published: “La Géorgie”.
3. “Tavisupali Sakartvelo” (Free Georgia), 1913-1914, a monthly magazine dedicated to national issues, the editor: Petre Surguladze, Geneva.
4. “Kartuli Gazeti” (Georgian Gazette), the body of the European Committee of the Georgian National Party, 1916-1918, Berlin, the editors: Leo Kereselidze, Giorgi Kereselidze.

**The Newspaper “Sakartvelo”**

The newspaper "Sakartvelo" covers the issues of the educational language policy of Russification in the late 19th and early 20th century in Georgia in much detail. The present paper analyses the problems of the language policy highlighted in the mentioned periodical.

“Sakartvelo” _ the newspaper of the Georgian Socialist-Federalist Party was established in 1903

in Paris and was in circulation until 1905. The editor-in-chief of the newspaper was Archil Jorjadze, one of the founders of the Socialist-Federalist Party. The publisher was Giorgi Dekanozishvili, a political and public figure and a publicist, who promptly distributed the newspaper in European countries, and introduced Georgia, the Georgian people and Georgian culture to the public. Public figures and politicians, who were in France (Tedo Sakhokia, Zurab Avalishvili, Noe Zhordania and others) were actively involved in activities connected with the newspaper (Sharadze, 2001, p. 25).

It is worth noting that initially, from 1901, the future socialist-federalists Archil Djordjadze, Giorgi Laskhishvili and Giorgi Dekanozishvili, who later connected their fate with foreign countries, headed the newspaper "Tsnobis Purtseli" (News Sheet) published in Georgia. "Tsnobis Purtseli" published in Georgia and "Sakartvelo" published abroad were joint periodical publications with common ideas and aspirations (Sharadze, 2001: 29). Therefore, it was logical that both newspapers published letters of a similar political, economic and cultural nature including the correspondence related to the educational language policy that holds significant interest for us.

The great merit of the newspaper "Sakartvelo" was the fact that it was the first to raise the question of the national freedom of the Georgian people in Europe. In order to popularize the Georgian problem and attract the attention of the European democratic society, Archil Jorjadze, Giorgi Dekanozishvili and their associates published "La Géorgie" _ a French version of the newspaper "Sakartvelo" in Paris. Renaud was the editor-in-chief of the newspaper, and Giorgi Dekanozishvili's wife, Henrietta Frenois, participated in its publication and preparation. Along with the materials that were printed in "Sakartvelo" and translated from Georgian, it published the letters and comments of French and other Western European political figures (Shvelidze, 1993, p. 114).

**Methodology**

The aim of the present paper is to study the problems of the educational policy of Russification in Georgia at the beginning of the 20$^{th}$ century. The digital corpus of the newspaper "Sakartvelo" is used as an empirical base.

The research methodology is based on collecting illustrative data and searching for answers to the following questions using the method of sociolinguistic analysis: 1) To what extent was the local population of Georgia ready to accept the Russian language in schools and theological education?; 2) To what extent was the "immersion method" of teaching justified in the Russification language policy of the early 20$^{th}$ century in Georgia?; 3) Under the Russification language policy in Georgia, in what directions was the protection of the Georgian language provided?

Such an approach to the problem will give us the opportunity to see the threats the Georgian

language faced in historical perspective: 1) Under what pressure did the Georgian language have to function and 2) What kind of the Russification language policy was carried out in the education system? In fact, for the Russian imperial regime, language was a tool by means of which it tried to assimilate the inhabitants of the conquered territories.

**Russification in Georgian Schools**

Language education policy is a form of language policy through which political ideologies can be put into practice (Tannenbaum & Shohamy, 2023, p. 10). Language education policies can be overt or covert, or even contain elements of both. An example of an overt language education policy would be an educational program that specifies what should be taught, for how long, and which teaching methodologies and materials should be used. The national curriculum is often designed as an official document and is distributed to educational institutions. However, the program may have hidden aspects which may include the removal of some subjects or languages based on the political ideologies in power.

Shohamy indicates that language education policy is a powerful mechanism through which language behavior is imposed especially if language is made compulsory by the government or education authorities (Shohamy, 2006, p. 76). Language education policies determine which languages should be taught, learned and used in society. Shohamy believes that language education policies can be used by the government to demonstrate language loyalty, patriotism and collective identity from the population. On the other hand, language education policies can be manipulated from the bottom up; Spolsky (2004) notes that there is often a gap between the language of the home and the language that is offered by the education system of the country.

A language policy in terms of Russification took place in the mid-19$^{th}$ century under Alexander II, whose administration aimed to unify the empire through a series of measures, including the spread of the Russian language. After the Polish Uprising of 1863, the Russian language was declared to be an official language of the Kingdom of Poland. By 1872, in all secular educational institutions there the language of instruction was Russian; In 1873, similar measures were taken to restrict the use of the Ukrainian, Belorussian, Moldavian, Lithuanian and German languages. The Caucasus, including Georgia, became the target of Russification through education, where the local population was required to learn the Russian language (Laitin, 1998). The letter published in “Sakartvelo”, the Georgian émigré newspaper, refers to this specific measure of the Russification policy, which states:

*“The government tries to turn schools into an instrument of politics and not of education, it introduces the Russian language into Finnish, Polish, Georgian and Armenian schools because,*

*according to the government, one type of people should live in St. Petersburg, Warsaw, Helsingfors, Tiflis, and Etchmiadzin, and these people should be Russians, because the autocratic government requires the elimination of local differences to make it easier to lord it over a huge unvaried flock for its own glory and benefit"* (Sakartvelo, 1903, N3).

The main policy of Russification was the replacement of local languages with Russian in primary, secondary and higher education institutions. This policy was not applied consistently throughout the empire, on the contrary, on the one hand, there were many contradictions and inconsistencies between laws and the policy, and on the other hand, between specific measures that led to resistance.

Although sources on language policy and practice in the Russian Empire are still relatively scarce, several new studies on the policy of the Soviet era have emerged in recent years (Alpatov, 2000; Grenoble, 2003; Smith, 1998) that fill this gap.

From the 1860s the Russian Empire began to systematically pursue the policy of Russification in Georgia. In the last decades of the century, Kirill Yanovsky, head of the Caucasus Educational District, made every effort to eradicate the Georgian language from schools and administration (Jones, 2005, p. 9). In this regard, the press of the Georgian emigrants of the early 20th century actively covered the issue of the eradication of the Georgian language in secular and parochial schools. As a proof of this, the letter written by Ober-Prosecutor Konstantin Pobedonostsev to Paul Lebedev, the Exarch of Georgia, published in the newspaper "Sakartvelo" under the headline "What the Russian Government Thinks of Us" is noteworthy:

*"The Georgian school should be a tool only for spreading the Russian language, not knowledge; The parochial schools must be taken away from the Georgian clergy, because the Georgian clergy is not reliable and cannot teach Russian properly; There is a hope for the liberation of Georgia among the circles of Georgian youth; It is necessary to divide the Georgian nation and kill the Georgian language in the Georgian provinces of Samegrelo, Svaneti and Abkhazia"* (Sakartvelo, 1903, N2).

It is noteworthy that the full version of Pobedonostsev's letter entitled "Russification of Georgia, Pobedonostsev's Authentic Letter" ("Russification de La Géorgie, lettre authentique de Pobedonostsef") was published in "La Géorgie", issue No.1, 1903 _ a French version of the newspaper "Sakartvelo". He aimed to completely eradicate the Georgian language from the schools of Samegrelo and Svaneti and replace it with the Russian language.

The implementation of the educational policy of Russification in Georgia began as early as 1801, but it reached its extreme levels in the early 1980s. The system began its work by attacking the Georgian language and set itself the task to completely eradicate the Georgian language and Georgian culture from schools. Very few hours were allocated to teaching the Georgian language in schools, but it still hindered the spread of the Russian civilization in Georgia, i.e. impeded the implementation of

the Russification policy.

One of the illustrative documents of Yanovsky's Russification policy in Georgia in the 1980s is the 1881 curriculum of the Caucasian Educational District that was published as a separate book (Учебный план начальной школы – в среде туземного населения и о постановке в ней русского языка. Тифлис, 1881) and sent to the schools under the Ministry for immediate implementation. The essence of the plan was to exclude the mother tongue from elementary schools and to make Russian the language of instruction. According to the plan, in elementary schools all subjects had to be taught in the mother tongue only during the first year. During the second year - both the native and Russian languages were used, and during the third year all the subjects were taught only in Russian. From the third year, the Georgian language was completely excluded from Georgian schools and was not taught as a separate discipline.

According to Yanovksy and royal officials, it was the school that was to become a powerful tool for the degeneration of local nations and their Russification. Certainly, his predecessors understood this well and worked in this direction in Georgia, but his merit to tsarism was the fact that he started the implementation of the Russification policy in Georgia in a more resolute and systematic manner than others (Khundadze, 1939, p. 37).

Yanovsky's first move was soon followed by a harsh reaction resulting in the abolition of the 1881 curriculum and further restrictions on the Georgian language. The Caucasian Educational District completely excluded the Georgian language from the secular and parochial schools of Samegrelo and Svaneti, and it was declared to be a non-native language. Therefore, teachers who gave preference to the Georgian language were obliged to pay special attention to the Mingrelian and Svan languages in the learning process. Pobedonostsev's disgruntled letter, which was published in the émigré press, responded to this matter:

*"Since school supervisors and teachers are Georgians, of course, they pay more attention to the Georgian language. Before opening primary and parochial schools in Svaneti and Samegrelo, it was necessary to translate religious books into Svan and Mingrelian languages, to start religious services in these languages, and to teach the Russian language by means of these languages in the same way as in secular schools. But in parochial schools they do not pay attention to this matter, and the local clergy does not support the department of education in publishing prayers in the Mingrelian and Svan languages"* (Sakartvelo, 1903, N 2).

As we can see, the Caucasian Educational District tried to replace the Georgian language with Mingrelian and Svan in secular and parochial schools to achieve its final goal. This measure of Russification served the purpose of disconnecting the residents of different parts of Georgia and was

directed against the consolidation of the Georgian nation. The information about the abovementioned can be found in "Chronicles of Georgian Life", the section of the same newspaper: "From Pobedonostsev's letter printed in our newspaper, it seems clear that the government's intention is to divide the Georgian nation and separate people from each other" (Sakartvelo, 1903, N4).

It is significant that the Georgian language and schooling in Georgian were preserved only in the church-affiliated schools, in particular, in parochial schools, where schooling was in the mother tongue. But, despite this, in 1901, Archpriest Ioann Vostorgov, the supervisor of the diocesan school of Kartli-Kakheti, introduced a new curriculum, according to which in all parochial schools of the city, the medium of instruction had to be Russian instead of the mother tongue from the first year at school. He played a big role in eradicating the Georgian language from the parochial schools of Samegrelo and Svaneti and tried to introduce religious teaching in the Mingrelian and Svan languages, which did not bring about the desired results (Sigua, 1959, p. 17). The Georgian émigré press responds to this fact under the title "Vostorgov and Our Depravity", which was considered to be one of the urgent issues in the education field of Georgia at that time:

*"The government has been trying for a long time to exclude the Georgian language from the churches of Samegrelo, but since this caused dissatisfaction among the inhabitants, it did not dare to lay its hand on this matter. Today, Vostorgov has taken an alternative approach to the matter and intends to achieve the same goal in a different way: if the Georgian language is removed from the parochial schools of Samegrelo and Svaneti no one will be able to read and write in Georgian. The clergy will also forget to read and write in Georgian and then it will be easy to eradicate Georgian from the church as well"* (Sakartvelo, 1903, N5).

The article under the headline "l'oeuvre de Vostorgof" published in the French-language newspaper "La Géorgie", issue No. 4, 1903 provides the information about Vostorgov's harmful activities against the Georgian language. In the newspaper "Sakartvelo" a question was raised concerning Vostorgov and the harmful activities of the official reactionary Russian pedagogy:

*"40 Georgian and 6 Russian students study at the parochial school of Kukia cemetery. This year the Georgian language will be abolished and schooling will start directly in the Russian language. Hurrah for Russian pedagogy, which is initiated by spoiled Vostorgov. We will try to inform European society about the Russian scientific pedagogy, and we have doubts that such a science of Vostorgov will greatly raise Russia's prestige in Europe, which is so dear to him"* (Sakartvelo, 1904, No. 9).

A letter published in one of the issues of "Sakartvelo" in 1905, provides information on the appointment of a diocesan supervisor of Guria-Samegrelo schools:

*"Vasilyev, the former diocesan supervisor of Imereti, who does not know a single word of our language, was appointed as a diocesan supervisor of Guria-Samegrelo schools. It is obvious that*

*Vasilyev has not been appointed to this position in order to educate; without knowing the Georgian language the supervisor's actions will be a wasted effort. One had to be blind not to guess why Vasilyev has been appointed in Guria-Samegrelo. He is sent to Russify people here. We all know that. But we also know that, today our people are so awake that the Vasilyevs and Vostorgovs cannot make them forget their language, on the contrary, they will encourage them to love it more and awaken the desire to learn it better"* (Sakartvelo, 1905, N20).

The struggle of the Georgian intelligentsia for the introduction of the Georgian language teaching was not successful. For example, at the meeting on December 2, 1894 Poti City Council discussed the issue of introducing the Georgian language teaching in the schools of Samegrelo and filed a petition to the trustee of the Caucasian Educational District, which was signed by the head of the city of Poti, Niko Nikoladze. It says:

*"... I humbly ask Your Highness to issue an appropriate decree in order to make teaching of the Georgian language compulsory for local children in the city school from the beginning of the next academic year. In addition, I would like to inform you that the city council will cover the necessary expenses for teachers as long as the teaching of the Georgian language continues in the school"* (Sigua, 1959, p. 54).

**The "Immersion Method" of Teaching**

The history of the methodology of foreign language teaching has gone through several stages of its development. One of them was the direct, i.e. natural, the so-called "immersion method" that emerged in the 60s of the 19th century and became widespread in the USA, European countries, Russia, and Georgia as well. The direct method is based on the principle of mother tongue acquisition, therefore, when used in teaching foreign languages, it deliberately refrains from using the learner's native language.

Francois Gouin was one of the first reformers of the nineteenth century who tried to develop a method to teach children a foreign language (Gouin, 1892). At the end of the century, other reformers also paid attention to naturalistic principles of language learning, and for this reason they are sometimes referred to as advocates of the "direct" method. Lambert Sauveur (1826–1907) was among those who tried to apply natural principles to language lessons in the 19th century. He used intensive oral interaction in the target language, employing questions as a way of presenting and eliciting the language. He opened a language school in Boston in the late 1860s, and his method soon became referred to as the Natural Method (Sauveur, 1874). Sauveur and other believers in the Natural Method argued that a foreign language could be taught without translation or the use of the learner's native

tongue if meaning was conveyed directly through demonstration and action (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 11).

Maximilian Delphinius Berlitz, a famous German linguist and a teacher, started teaching English as a foreign language in Rhode Island in 1878. It is said that one incident helped to develop a new method of teaching. Berlitz fell ill and asked his French colleague to lead classes. The colleague knew almost no spoken English, however, he intuitively found a way to convey information to the students and was able to translate words without using his native language. As a result of the successful trial, Berlitz and his colleague laid the foundation for the "Direct Method" of foreign language teaching, which later became popularly known as the "Berlitz Method" (Berlitz, 1916, p. 10).

The Berlitz's method turned out to be very successful among wealthy, highly motivated clients, but attempts to implement it in secondary schools have not yielded the desired results as it did not take into account the realities of school education and lacked a thorough methodological basis. In addition, the direct method has a number of disadvantages: not all teachers who speak their native language are highly-skilled professionals. Therefore, they cannot follow the methodological principles and often have to give extensive explanations when a concise answer in the student's native language would be more efficient.

In 1904 "Tsnobis Purtseli" published a long letter about the essence and uselessness of the "immersion method" in educational institutions of Georgia under the title "The Immersion Method":

*"Recently, in our schools, and in schools for non-Russians in general, the so-called "natural" or, in other words, unnatural, the "immersion" method of teaching has established itself and almost prevailed. It is called the immersion method because the teacher and the students are not allowed to speak to each other in the language that they both understand, which they know very well and have been speaking since birth... So what is the benefit of this method? None. No matter how even the most committed teacher tries, no matter how he approaches the subject to be studied, the students will still vaguely grasp everything that is explained to them using the sign language"* (Tsnobis Purtseli, 1904, N2652).

Based on the above, the suitability of the "immersion method" is rightly evaluated by the journal "Ganatleba" (Education), in the issue N2, 1913:

*"This method is not new in the Caucasus. It has a 30-year history... but the method has not won sympathy and is not widespread, because it was accompanied by numerous artificialities. This method has not been developed yet. It is useful for an inexperienced teacher, while an experienced teacher will not be able to get any benefit from it"* (Ganatleba, 1913, No. 2).

Individual teaching approaches and methods differ in the way they have addressed these issues from the late nineteenth century to the present. As we can see the Direct Method can be regarded as

the first language teaching method to have caught the attention of language teaching specialists, and it offered a methodology that appeared to move language teaching into a new era. It marked the beginning of the "methods era." (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 12).

From the early 90s of the 19th century, another anti-pedagogical, extremely reactionary measure for Russification in the field of education started to be imposed in Georgia. It was the implementation of the so called "immersion method" in schools, which was organized by Levitsky, the director of public schools of the Kutaisi Governorate. In connection with this, Trophime Khundadze, a researcher of the Georgian pedagogy and a historian, notes:

*The "immersion method", which caused great anxiety among the Georgian society members in the 19th century, was not widespread in the schools of Kakheti, and in the Tiflis Governorate in general. The initiative belonged to Levitsky, the director of schools of the Kutaisi Governorate and was spread in this governorate. However, the director of the schools of the Tiflis Governorate - Streletsky did not consider it obligatory and did not implement it in the institutions under his authority"* (Khundadze, 1951, p. 122).

When applying the "immersion method" the teacher was forbidden to explain the issues related to teaching the Russian language to the students in their native language. Explaining unfamiliar words and terms using the native language was also forbidden. Every Russian word had to be explained in the Russian language using visual aids and other means. It is natural that many words explained in this way would remain incomprehensible to the students. In such a situation, students only had to mechanically recite the word, the meaning of which was unknown to them.

Interesting information about the authors of the "Natural Method" can be found in the newspaper "Tsnobis Purtseli". It reads as follows:

*"The natural way of teaching forbids using the mother tongue (natural language) of foreign nations in their teaching-learning process, and, therefore, it is not natural. This method was first introduced in the United States of America. Gennes and Berlitz were its representatives. From the United States, the Gennes and Berlitz method spread to Germany. They started to write about it in pedagogical journals and many people were attracted to it. A number of textbooks have been written: by Rossman, Schmidt, Zappa, Birnbaum and others. In our country (in Russia), the matter was first dealt with by Sheltsel, and then by F. Levitsky (Caucasus)" (Tsnobis Purtseli, 1904, N2597).*

In accordance with the essence and nature of the "immersion method", teachers were forced to visually show many actions. It was often embarrassing for teachers and did not give anything to students. For example, there are known facts when during the class teachers sometimes played the role of a dog and barked, or imitated a chicken, etc. Levitsky himself gave examples of this to teachers at

his "model" lessons, which he sometimes conducted during teacher training sessions and courses. On the basis of the "immersion method" he compiled a new textbook of the Russian language _ Russian Language Course for Primary Schools in Transcaucasia ("Курс русского языка для начальных школ Закавказья"), first published in 1894. This is how Levitsky justifies the expediency of using the "immersion method": "Knowledge of the native language interferes with learning another language, and the conclusion follows by itself: it should not be used to learn another (Russian) language and it should not be taught as an obstacle to it" (Khundadze , 1951, p. 110). Being the director of public schools, Levitsky used his authority and administratively distributed his textbooks to schools in western Georgia and demanded the removal of "Russkoe Slovo" (Russian Word) by Iakob Gogebashvili.

The Georgian émigré newspaper "Sakartvelo" responds to Levitsky's violent interference in educational matters and publishes the information as follows:

*"The teachers of the schools of Samegrelo and Abkhazia have received an order from the inspector of public schools of the Kutaisi Governorate and are instructed to teach children using the immersion method in schools, so that in this way the Georgian language will completely disappear in Western Georgia"* (Sakartvelo, 1904, N1).

The introduction of the "immersion method" in schools was based on a political claim - it aimed at complete eradication of the Georgian language from schools and was directed against the national interests of the Georgian people. That is why stopping the use of the "immersion method" at schools was rightly considered one of the combat tasks of the national liberation movement. Representatives of the Georgian intelligentsia fiercely opposed all these measures, but to no avail. Tsarism steadily pursued the policy of denationalization taking increasingly harsh and cruel measures to destroy the Georgian language, culture and nation.

Under these conditions, Georgian was the language of instruction only in the church-affiliated schools. Attacks against the Georgian language in parochial schools began from the period when the schools were headed by Vostorgov.

The contribution of the Georgian historian and researcher Tedo Jordania to the protection of the Georgian language is of much importance. He held the position of a supervisor of Guria-Samegrelo parochial schools. In spite of this, he was not in favour of the "immersion method" of teaching:

*"I was asked about the immersion method supported by M. Vostorgov. I rejected this method and preferred the "comparative method", i.e. studying the Russian language with the help of the Georgian language. I was asked: Are Mingrelians Georgians or not? I determinedly claimed that Mingrelians are Georgians and they understand Georgian. I thought that many questions would be asked, but none of the attendees gave me any other questions and the debate ended"* (Jordania, 1913, p. 5).

The Georgian press raised the issue of intensive teaching of the Georgian language in schools and declared a serious fight against the implementers of the Russification policy and supporters of the "immersion method".

**Foreign Authors about Russification in Georgia**

It is interesting how Europe reacted to the publication of the newspaper "Sakartvelo" and its French-language version "La Géorgie". The newspaper "Sakartvelo" had a special section "How the European Press and European Public Figures Reacted to the Publication of "Sakartvelo", which was dedicated to the problems of the educational policy in Georgia. Important and valuable letters published in "Sakartvelo" are particularly noteworthy. They refer to Georgia, the Georgian people, the Georgian language and its rich history. Anatole Leroy-Beaulieu, a member of the French Academy, writes:

*"Messrs. Editors, I am very glad, that you have sent me your newly published paper _ "La Géorgie". I know your beautiful homeland, which is undoubtedly considered the most beautiful area of the country. I have always been opposed to the policy aimed at degeneration and Russification of your country... Your desire to preserve the nation will always be sympathized with by all liberals who, like me, believe that small nations have every right to protect their identity and language"* (Sakartvelo, 1903, N4).

In addition, the editorial office of "Sakartvelo" received a letter from Oxford professor York Powell printed in the 80th issue of the French newspaper "Européen". The letter entitled "Tsarism and Georgia" was written by Pierre Chiaro:

*"Recently, the policy of Russification has awakened national consciousness in the Caucasus. Since 1892, Pobedonostsev has shamelessly been claiming that the Georgian school should be considered to be an instrument for spreading the Russian language. He also reproached Georgian teachers for having a great desire to preserve the Georgian language. Pobedonostsev has fallen in love with the Mingrelian and Svan dialects and believes that the Georgian language is hostile to these dialects. For the sake of spreading "culture and Christianity", Pobedonostsev wanted to translate books into these dialects, and teach the Russian language using these dialects instead of Georgian"* (Sakartvelo, 1903, N4).

The establishment of the newspaper "Sakartvelo" was not overlooked by "The Times", one of the largest and oldest English newspapers in Europe. On the pages of the issue of August 15, 1903 its correspondent tells readers about the Georgian newspaper published in Paris:

*"It is interesting that the desire to protect the national identity was born among Georgians, for*

*which they founded a special body "La Géorgie" in Paris. Alexander I incorporated the old Kingdom of Georgia into Russia in 1801, who promised Georgians to preserve their language. But all this was an empty promise. Since then Russia has been trying to Russify Georgia. Not a single national institution remains in Georgia, everything is taken away by Russia. The Georgian language is banned in schools, and Pobedonostsev, in order to strengthen Russian influence, even took the leadership of parochial schools away from the local clergy"* (Sakartvelo, 1903, No. 7).

A well-known Danish critic Georg Brandes dedicated a long letter to Georgia entitled "The Georgian Nation", which was published in the Danish newspaper "Politiken" N180. The information about the abovementioned can be found in "Sakartvelo", the 3rd issue of 1903:

*"In 1801, Pavle insolently issued a "decree" announcing the complete union of Georgia with Russia. Since then, Georgians have been silent, but now they have broken this silence and are still striving for liberation. Their mother tongue has been excluded from schools. We can clearly see this from Pobedonostsev's letter, in which he forbids the clergy to teach in the Georgian language in parochial schools. All such measures are not used for the benefit of the students, because the Russian language is rarely understood by the students. It is done only to spread the Russian language. As for schools, their number is very small and the situation has become so bad that a quarter of the students can hardly read and write"* (Sakartvelo, 1903, No. 6).

The problem of the educational policy of Russification is discussed in the letter published in "Sakartvelo" under the title "The National Question", the extract from the book "Histoire politique de l'Europe contemporaine. Évolution des parties et des formes politiques (1814-1914)" by Charles Seignobos, a French historian and Sorbonne University professor:

*"What does the all-Russian social democracy promise us? Let's see their programme. In it we find Article 8, which states: People are given the right to be educated in their mother tongue; The state and local self-government bodies should open and maintain schools necessary for the education of the people; Every citizen has the right to speak their native language during meetings; Along with the state language, the mother tongue also has an equal right in public and state institutions. I will quote the very article from the Austrian constitution that refers to the national question: "Every race in the state is equal before the law: in particular, every person has the inviolable right to protect their nationality and language." In schools, state institutions and public life the equality of languages, that are found in the country, is ensured by the state. In the areas, where there are representatives of various races, public education institutions should be arranged in such a way that none of them is obliged to learn a foreign language; In particular, education should be given to every race in their mother tongue.* (Sakartvelo, 1904, N3).

**Conclusion**

The aim of the article was to study the issues of the educational language policy of Russification in Georgia according to the press of the Georgian emigrants of the early 20th century.

The language policy in the educational field took its extreme form in the late 19th and early 20th century, when public education in the Caucasus was headed by Kirill Yanovsky, the trustee of the Caucasus Educational District.

The Russification policy was directed against all local elements _ the eradication of the language, national culture, and aimed at the assimilation of the Georgian people. Public, parochial and theological schools in Georgia, namely in Imereti, Samegrelo and Svaneti, were the main segments of the education system, where the essence and nature of the reactionary Russification, colonial policy of tsarism were strongly manifested, the main goal of which was the Russification and assimilation of the future Georgian generation.

The exposure of the educational policy of Russification, the elucidation of its essence and nature, and the formation of a healthy public opinion occupied an important place in the social movement. The progressive print media was widely used for these purposes. Georgian democratic intelligentsia, writers, publicists, public figures, teachers boldly wrote in the press against such figures in the administration of the educational institution (Yanovsky, Pobedonostsev, Vostorgov and others), who were focused on destroying the Georgian people, their language and culture. The press of the Georgian Emigrants of the early 20th century, including the newspaper “Sakartvelo”, played a major role in protecting the native language and enhancing its importance.

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# Morphological Awareness and Vocabulary Acquisition. The contribution of Explicit Morphological Instruction in the acquisition of L2 vocabulary

**ABSTRACT**

The aim of the paper is to examine, through a literature review, how explicit morphological instruction can benefit the learning of morphologically complex words in L2 Italian.

In the work, the mental lexicon of learners is presented as a network of words based on morphological links. From this premises, it discusses the benefits of explicit morphological instruction on vocabulary acquisition for L2 learners, such as improving reading comprehension, increasing motivation to investigate words, and developing vocabulary knowledge in depth and size.

Furthermore, this paper proposes teaching activities for L2 Italian learners to tap into Morphological Structure Awareness and analysis, focusing on the suffix *-ino*, which adds a range of connotative and pragmatic meanings. The authors suggest that explicit morphological instruction should engage students in problem-solving and inquiry-based activities to produce novel complex words. By teaching students how to recognise and analyse the structure of morphologically complex words, students can increase their vocabulary knowledge and autonomy, resulting in the ability to independently learn new words and reflect on their structure.

***Keywords****: Meta-analysis; Morphological Awareness; Morphological explicit Instruction; Second Language Acquisition; Vocabulary Acquisition..*

## 1. Introduction

In the last two decades there has been a growing interest in the role of Morphological Awareness in literacy acquisition and vocabulary development: research on different languages (Anglin, 1993; J. S. Bowers et al., 2005; Burani, 2009; Carlisle, 1988, 2000; Casalis & Louis- alexandre, 2000; Dal Maso & Giraudo, 2014; Deacon & Bryant, 2006) has proved that both L1 and L2 speakers are sensitive to the morphological structure of complex words and that, therefore, morphology is a factor of lexical organisation which can also be used to facilitate the development of morphologically complex lexicon (Angelelli et al., 2014, 2017; P. N. Bowers & Kirby, 2010; Duncan et al., 2019; Fejzo, 2021; Ke & Koda, 2019; McCutchen & Logan, 2011; Verhoeven &

Perfetti, 2011). This hypothesis of a facilitating role of morphological sensitivity in literacy acquisition is based on pieces of evidence that indicate an automatic decomposition of complex words in learners' mental lexicon during reading (Taft & Forster, 1975; Whiting et al., 2013). Furthermore, we also have extensive evidence from masked priming studies that support the claim for automatic morphological segmentation of complex words (Longtin & Meunier, 2005; Marslen-Wilson et al., 2008; Silva & Clahsen, 2008) In addition, research on the organisation and lexical access of the mental lexicon (Pedrazzini, 2016; Schmitt, 2000; Vitevitch, 2008) has shown that words' networks are -also- morphologically organised, meaning that lexical entries are connected at the morpho- lexical level with similar words.

For clarity, studies' results can be summed up as follow:

- the mental lexicon is morphologically organised (Nagy et al., 1989; Sandra, 1994);
- morphological information is systematically utilised when processing complex words (Clahsen et al., 2003; Cole et al., 1989);
- morphological processing help compute words meaning from their constituents' elements (Schreuder & Baayen, 1995).

Thus, we can hypothesise that morphological knowledge may serve as a framework to efficiently store words and master vocabulary knowledge. In this paper, we focus on how to make learners aware of the morphological structure of the L2 vocabulary, through explicit morphological instruction.

## 2. Morphological Awareness

Morphological awareness falls under the umbrella notion of Metalinguistic Awareness, which is the explicit knowledge about a language that gives a speaker the ability to attend to and reflect upon the properties of a language and to check the linguistic form and structure underlying the meaning of the utterances (Byalistok, 1999; Malakoff, 1999). Metalinguistic Awareness comprises three types of other awarenesses -orthographic, semantic and phonological, respectively- which intertwine with each other, forming other subtypes of awareness.

Morphological Awareness, in turn, includes other sub-dimensions which have received different classifications through the ages (Deacon et al., 2017). Carlisle (2000) delineated two possible morphological dimensions, namely i) Morphological Structure Awareness and ii) Morphological Analysis; on the other hand, Kuo and Anderson (2006) put forward a third dimension called Morphological Decoding.

### 2.1.Morphological Structure Awareness

Carlisle (2000) defined it as the awareness of the morphological structure of complex words. Developing this type of awareness is fundamental for L2 learners, given that structural analysis alone can be misleading, as in the case of synformy (Carlisle, 2000). Morphological Structure Awareness has at its basis the ability to parse words into constituent morphemes and to analyse them in order to construct meaning and pronunciation. At the time of Carlisle's (2000) study, there were already pieces of evidence supporting the claim that Morphological Structure Awareness was related to meaning inferencing and reading accuracy (Schreuder & Baayen, 1995; Tyler & Nagy, 1989): nonetheless, to gather more direct evidence of such suggestions, Carlisle (2000) included in her research study both tasks of structural analysis (i.e. decomposition and derivation of forms) and definition.

The assumption was that the derivation task would be directly related to learners' ability to define morphologically complex words because "producing derived forms, like defining derived forms, requires knowledge of the grammatical roles and meanings of suffixes, not just relational knowledge" (Carlisle, 2000, p.171): thus, the task also taps processes similar to those learners use when reading unknown morphologically complex words. Results from Carlisle's (2000) study showed that there is a significant link between awareness of structure and the ability to define morphologically complex words and that relational knowledge and the ability to read derived forms are significantly related. Finally, the study also provided evidence that Morphological Structure Awareness contributes to reading comprehension.

### 2.2.Morphological Decoding

Morphological Decoding is the ability to rely on word structure in order to pronounce a written word accurately (Levesque et al., 2017). The advantage given by Morphology Decoding is linked to the fact that morphologically complex words are inherently longer than simple words; therefore, parsing them in shorter sublexical components reduces the decoding difficulty. Additionally, complex words are also less frequent than their bases; consequently, the recognition of the sublexical components is generally faster than the recognition of the whole word.

It has been shown that Morphological Decoding training may play a key role in facilitating reading fluency of unfamiliar and unknown morphologically complex words, especially in languages with opaque orthographies (Levesque et al., 2017). Furthermore, it also seems that Morphological Decoding strengthens learners' word reading skills, thereby facilitating reading comprehension: data from Casalis and colleagues (2011)study show that the spelling of French

words for which there were several alternatives was more accurate when readers used morphological information; Marcolini and colleagues (2011) research support Casalis and colleagues' evidence, also suggesting that morpheme-based reading helps learners in obtaining reading fluency in transparent orthographies.

However, the ease of Morphological Decoding for complex words varies across languages, depending on the orthographic depth and morphological richness (Verhoeven & Perfetti, 2011). Learning to read in regular transparent orthographies, such as Italian, is easier than learning to read an irregular opaque orthography as English (Burani, 2009). In transparent orthographic systems, generally, graphemes are assigned the same pronunciation, regardless of the context and status, whether they are a morpheme or a syllable. In contrast, in opaque orthographies there are no such grapheme-phoneme conversions rules and, consequently, the same grapheme can correspond to different phonemes and vice versa: thus, given the regular grapheme- phoneme conversions rules, a good level of pronunciation accuracy is easily obtained in transparent orthographies.

### 2.3.Morphological Analysis

This M.A. subdimension refers to the ability to infer the meaning of unfamiliar morphologically complex words from their morpheme constituents (Baumann et al., 2002; Deacon et al., 2017). Compared to the previous ability, the emphasis here is on the use of the morphemic structure of words to build word meaning, independently of how the word might sound.

The most famous demonstration of Morphological Analysis for lexical inferencing comes from Anglin (1993), who showed that learners were able to define twice as many derived words as base words and that at least half of these definitions included reference to base forms. More recently, McCutchen and Logan (2011) found that students were more accurate in choosing a definition for morphologically accessible than inaccessible words: participants were asked to identify the correct definition, among three alternatives, for low- frequency transparent words, which afforded Morphological Analysis (e.g., horrific, horror, -ic) and low-frequency opaque words that did not afford such analysis because the constituents were not semantically transparent (e.g., abject) (McCutchen and Logan, 2011). Results of the Morphological Analysis task indicate that participants were more accurate in identifying the meaning of items that afforded Morphological Analysis, both for words and nonwords. Thus, in their final discussion, the authors affirm that "such results are consistent with the hypothesis that learners leverage their understanding of the morphological structure of words when they encounter unfamiliar multi-morpheme words" (McCutchen & Logan, 2011, p. 343).

## 3. Morphological Awareness and L1-L2 Literacy development

Literature on the benefits of M.A. on the processing and comprehension of derivational morphology (Anglin, 1993; Carlisle, 2000; Nagy, 2005; P. N. Bowers et al., 2010; Deacon & Kirby, 2004 for a review of the literature) points to a reliable connection between M.A. and reading skills, even after controlling for individual variables on vocabulary and short-term memory. For what concerns vocabulary comprehension and acquisition, M.A. assists the learner to retrieve linguistic information related to the morphological structure of the word: when learners come across an unfamiliar word in a text, they can break it apart and use their knowledge of derivational morphology to infer the meaning of the whole word by linking the root of the complex word with its simpler form, which may be more familiar to them (Kieffer & Lesaux, 2012; Apel & Henbest, 2016). Consequently, since Morphological Awareness increases processing efficiency and vocabulary knowledge, more cognitive resources are available to process the text as a whole and thus, as a student gets better at identifying words and their meanings, reading comprehension improves, as the person has more information to make inferences and generate an accurate map of the text (Goodwin & Ahn, 2010;Zeh, 2017). Given that learners automatically use their implicit knowledge of morphology to process new words, both in context and in isolation, enhancing this ability through morphological instruction should provide them with explicit morphological knowledge that leads to more accurate and quicker learning, strengthening learners' lexical representations (Carlisle & Katz, 2006; Carlisle & Stone, 2005). Perfetti (2007) argues that explicit morphological instruction also improves reading comprehension by increasing the efficiency of word identification and provides the reader with easier access to semantic information associated with that word. Evidence in support of these suggestions comes from different studies: in Baumann et al. (2002) morphological instruction produced large immediate effects for deriving the meaning of morphologically transparent instructed words, compared to a control group who received no explicit instruction on vocabulary strategies. Specifically, in the morphemic analysis task, students were asked to read and analyse morphemic words for which the experimental group had received explicit instruction while the control group had not. Results from this task indicate that students receiving instruction in morphemic analysis outperformed those students who did not. In Kieffer and Lesaux' (2012) study the findings suggested that students with explicit knowledge of morphology had greater fluency in word reading: to test it the authors used the Test of Silent Word Reading Fluency (Mather et al., 2004), in which students are provided with rows of unrelated words of increasing difficulty with no spaces separating them (e.g., dimhowfigblue) and given three minutes to draw lines between as many words as they can (e.g., dim|how|fig|blue). Results of

Kieffer and Lesaux' (2012) study show that learners' M.A. had a positive effect on word reading fluency. Finally, Bowers and colleagues (2010) research data were consistent with Perfetti's (2007) suggestion.

It has to be noted, however, that the goal of morphological instruction is not for students to learn about morphemes, but rather to give them explicit morphological instruction that will increase their understanding of oral and written features of the language at the sublexical level that will influence literacy skills at the lexical and the supralexical levels (P. N. Bowers et al., 2010, p. 145). Explicit morphological instruction should provide learners with strategies to recognise and parse morphologically complex words: for example, teaching L2 learners how to identify and use the meaning of frequent morphemes in conjunction with roots words will provide them with an explicit strategy to infer and learn the meaning of new words. Furthermore, engaging students in active processing tasks of complex words, emphasises their problem-solving skills based on word structure cues and helps them link morphologically complex words to already familiar ones, rather than just memorising them: as Bowers and Kirby (2010, p.519) state, "students who begin to understand morphological structure can find ordered spelling and meaning cues in words that morphologically unaware students could only assume are irregular".

In sum, morphological instruction provides learners with more explicit morphological knowledge, which enhances their Morphological Awareness, leading to the development of students' vocabulary size and depth.

## 4. Morphological instruction in L2 Italian.

Given the demonstrated interplay of Morphological Awareness in literacy development, in the present paper we developed a teaching proposal for Italian L2 vocabulary, with a specific focus on Morphological Analysis. We have chosen to work on derived forms because enabling students to recognise and analyse them contributes to expanding their vocabulary, lightening the learning load of complex words while enhancing their explicit morphological knowledge with cascading benefits for the reading process. Specifically, the words that will be targeted in the activities are derivatives obtained by means of suffixation.

### 4.1.The suffix -ino

Suffixation is a morphological process that, generally, changes the syntactic category (or Part of Speech, PoS) of the word; in addition, every suffix determines the inflectional class of the derived

words. With this respect, *-ino*, cannot be considered a prototypical suffix, because when it is used in alteration (It. *alterazione*) -a particular derivational process- it also changes the denotative meaning of the base in some respects (e.g. size or quality), but leaves unaltered the PoS. From a semantic point of view, this kind of suffixation is considered evaluative, because it implies a kind of judgment or attitude of the speaker and can give the sentence a rich range of connotative and pragmatic meanings that vary depending on the communicative situation (Grossmann & Rainer, 2004). As a diminutive, it can produce denominal nouns, such as *bacio* > *bacino* (kiss > little kiss), deadjectival adjectives, *alto* > *altino* (tall > a little bit tall), deadverbial adverbs, *piano* > *pianino* (slowly > a little bit slower) and it can also alternate numerals, such as *milione* > *milioncino* (million). In all these examples, the value given by the suffix is not only about the item's size but also -and especially- connotative. Besides the diminutive, *-ino* expresses the following values, which select different bases:

- Agentive denominal and deverbal nouns, such as *postino* (postman) and *spazzino* (garbageman);
- Instrumental denominal and deverbal nouns, such as *frustino* (crop) and *macinino* (grinder);
- Relational denominal adjectives, such as *alpino* (alpine);
- Ethnic denominal adjectives, such as *parigino* (parisian).

Of all these possibilities, in our teaching proposal, we will focus only on diminutive denominal nouns and instrumental deverbal nouns. We choose them to test learners' M.A. and, especially, their Morphological Analysis skills: the item chosen, are not fully transparent in their meaning, even if it is still deducible from their morphemic constituents.

### 4.2.Teaching proposal

The activities we present below are thought for adult learners of Italian as a second language with a B1 proficiency level and no specific language impairments.

**ACTIVITY 1: Text reading and noticing target items.**

- Aim: to focus learners' attention on the target forms contained in the following text and activate the corresponding lexical entries in the mental lexicon.
- Materials: pen, printed text.

***LEGGI IL TESTO E SOTTOLINEA I NOMI CHE TERMINANO IN -INO E -INA***

TORTINO AL CIOCCOLATO

| INGREDIENTI PER 4 TORTINI | PER GLI STAMPINI |
|---|---|
| - Cioccolato fondente, 110 g | - Burro q.b. |
| - Burro, 110 g | - Zucchero, 40 g |
| - Uova, 2 | - Fecola, 25 g |

PREPARAZIONE

Per realizzare il tortino di cioccolato, per prima cosa sciogliete in un pentolino il cioccolato a bagnomaria insieme al burro. Una volta sciolto, lasciatelo raffreddare. Nel frattempo imburrate e infarinate 4 stampini di alluminio.

Quando sarà a temperatura ambiente, immergete nel composto un frullino e, mentre è in funzione, unite lo zucchero, un cucchiaino alla volta, finché sarà ben amalgamato. Poi versate le uova e la fecola, che avrete prima setacciato con un colino. Continuate a frullare per ottenere un composto liscio e omogeneo.

Riempite gli stampini aiutandovi con un cucchiaio o un misurino; il composto dovrà arrivare a circa due terzi dello stampino.

Mettete gli stampini in congelatore per almeno 6 ore, meglio se per una notte intera. Quando i tortini saranno congelati, disponeteli in una teglia e cuocete in forno a 200° per 7 minuti.

Trascorso il tempo di cottura, sfornate i tortini, usate una presina da forno per non scottarvi. Toglieteli dagli stampini aiutandovi con un coltellino, poi spolverizzate con zucchero a velo e servite subito!

**ACTIVITY 2: Focus on the form-meaning relationship**

- Aim: direct learners' attention on the relationship between the noticed form, their meaning and the part of speech of the word they are derived from.
- Materials: pen and paper.
- Option: this is a "languaging" activity and, thus, it is originally thought to be done in pairs, giving that a more expert student could scaffold the other and together they can negotiate and build

knowledge through the L2. However, the activity can also be done individually by each student.

***A. OSSERVA LE PAROLE CHE HAI SOTTOLINEATO: INSIEME AL TUO COMPAGNO PROVA A DARNE UNA DEFINIZIONE***

*es. Tortino: una piccola torta*

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

***B. CHE COSA HANNO IN COMUNE QUESTE PAROLE?***

***C. DA QUALI PAROLE DERIVANO? RICOSTRUITE LA FORMA BASE***

*es. Stampino: stampo + ino*

a._____

b._____

c._____

***D. OSSERVANDO LE PAROLE BASE, SUDDIVIDETE I DERIVATI IN DUE GRUPPI***

tortino - pentolino - frullino - cucchiaino - colino - misurino - stampino - presina

**ACTIVITY 3:** Production of denominal diminutives and deverbal instrumental nouns out of context.

- Aim: this activity targets learners' vocabulary size and creativity, as they are asked to produce and infer the meaning of new words with the same structure and derivation process as those contained in activity 1. The two tasks presented below engage peer cooperation and team competitiveness and stimulate learners' guessing strategies.

- Materials: words list
- Option: this is an interactive task where students are asked to produce target items by means of peer collaboration and negotiation. The activity could be adapted for individual work by giving students the base word and asking them to produce the derived one.
-

***A. DIVIDETEVI IN DUE SQUADRE. AD OGNUNA VERRÀ CONSEGNATA UNA LISTA DI PAROLE, DA CUI DOVRETE RICAVARE LA PAROLA DERIVATA IN -INO O -INA.***

| Squadra 1 | Squadra 2 |
|---|---|
| - tuta | - tenda |
| - stendere | - mirare |
| - maschera | - tavola |
| - rete | - macinare |
| - passeggiare | - bilancia |

***B. TABOO: PER OGNI PAROLA DERIVATA, A TURNO, UN COMPONENTE DELLA SQUADRA DOVRÀ SPIEGARNE IL SIGNIFICATO AGLI AVVERSARI IN UN MINUTO, SENZA MENZIONARE LA PAROLA BASE NÉ PARTI DI ESSA. VINCE LA SQUADRA CHE INDOVINA PIÙ PAROLE***

**ACTIVITY 4:** Production of denominal diminutives and deverbal instrumental nouns in context.

- Aim: this activity targets learners' ability to choose the appropriate form of the word depending on

***COMPLETA IL TESTO CON LE FORME APPROPRIATE (BASE O DERIVATA) DELLE PAROLE FRA PARENTESI.***

L'aula di Italiano è molto grande, ci sono ventisette banchi e una cattedra. Di fianco alla porta, sul muro, ci sono degli__(*appendere*) per i cappotti. In fondo ci sono tre armadi pieni di materiale: matite,_____(*cancellare*), pennarelli, graffette, _____(*punta*), cartelloni e molto altro. Di fianco agli armadi ci sono due_____(*tavolo*) su cui ci sono i libri che usiamo a lezione. Nell'angolo di fianco alla porta c'è un_____(*cesto*) per la raccolta indifferenziata. Dalla parte che guarda la piazza si affacciano due _____ (*finestre*) sotto le quali, tutti i martedì, si ferma un piccolo_____(*furgone*) dei gelati. L'aula è illuminata da quattro lampade ma in una di esse le _____ (*lampada*) non funzionano. L'aula è decorata con dei contenitori con i nostri disegni e _____(*carta*) geografiche. Sulla cattedra c'è una scatola con del materiale che tutti possiamo usare: delle penne, dei_____(*pennarello*) con la punta grossa, dello scotch, due paia di forbici ed un_____(*temperare*). Di fianco alla scatola, c'è un grande_____(*quaderno*) in cui la professoressa appunta le presenze, i voti e le attività.

the information given by the context: they will be asked to decide whether to use the derived form or the base one, depending on the meaning the word needs to assume in the specific context.

- Materials: pen, printed text.

## 5. Conclusion

The aim of this work was to analyse how explicit morphological instruction can provide benefits in learning morphologically complex words in L2 Italian. we analysed the organisation of learners' mental lexicon structured as networks of words that can be also based on morphological links. We presented the notion of Morphological Awareness and discussed the benefits of explicit morphological instruction on vocabulary acquisition for L2 learners: we analysed pieces of evidence showing that explicitly teaching L2 morphology improves students' reading comprehension (Carlisle, 2000; Kuo & Anderson, 2006), increases their motivation to "investigate" words (P. N. Bowers et al., 2010) and develops their vocabulary knowledge both in depth and size (P. N. Bowers & Kirby, 2010). As a matter of fact, Nagy and Anderson (1984, p.304) claim that for every word a student knows, there are "an average of one to three additional related words that could be understandable to the learner" depending on how well (s)he is able to use context and morphology to deduce meanings. In other words, equipping L2 learners with morphological strategies to infer word meaning by analysing its morphemic constituents, gives them the power to expand their L2 vocabulary significantly. For this reason, we proposed some teaching activities for L2 Italian learners, tapping on Morphological Structure Awareness and Morphological Analysis. We decided to work on the suffix *-ino*, as it can assume different values that select different bases and, additionally, it
affects the meaning of the derived items, adding a rich range of connotative and pragmatic meanings that vary depending on the communicative situation (Grossmann & Rainer, 2004).

To conclude, we suggest that explicit morphological instruction can be effectively integrated in the curriculum for L2 Italian learners in order to create positive gains in Morphological Awareness and vocabulary learning. However, this kind of instruction should not focus only on the analysis of word-internal structure but should also engage students in problem-solving and inquiry-based activities to produce novel complex words (P. N. Bowers & Kirby, 2010). Teaching how to recognise and analyse the structure of morphologically complex words, could be particularly useful and effective, given the significant role played by students' autonomy in learning the L2. In the context of vocabulary acquisition, such an autonomy results in the ability to independently learn new

words: thanks to explicit morphological instruction students increase their vocabulary knowledge and, consequently also increase their ability to make inferences and reflect on words' structure.

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# Difficulties in learning a second language and ways to overcome in pupils with dyslexia

**ABSTRACT**

Ability to read in an L2 is complicated because it involves not only the ability to read but also the knowledge of and the ability to use the second or foreign language" (Rolf & Glenn, 2016.). This difficulty is even more acute in our country, since there is no high awareness of dyslexia, and so far reading difficulties can be considered as laziness on the part of teachers or parents. Taking everything into account, it can be assumed that students with dyslexia remain in conditions of even less support in learning a second language - on the one hand, their difficulty is not assessed appropriately, and on the other hand, they are not properly supported in the learning process.

Reading is a dynamic and complex process. In the process of reading, an adult is aware only of the content of what has been read, and the psychophysiological operations preceding it are carried out unconsciously, by themselves, automatically. (Learner, 1997). Reading skills develop with age and experience. At the very beginning we learn to read, and only afterwards we learn by reading. Therefore, reading is of great importance for the development of a person, and the lack of this skill automatically causes difficulties on the path of personal success. Delay, impairment in reading are synonymous and, according to ICD-10 (International Classification of Diseases) - F81.0 are identified as a specific reading disorder (dyslexia). (Gagoshidze, 2007)

Dyslexia, regardless of the language we learn to read, is characterized by difficulties with accurate and/or fluent word recognition and by poor spelling and decoding abilities. Secondary consequences may include problems in reading comprehension and reduced reading experience that can impede growth of vocabulary and background knowledge (IDA, 2002). Research shows that these difficulties vary by age, language characteristics, and learning strategies, but they still apply to second language learning. Moreover, it creates even greater difficulties.

The goal of the article is to explore the main difficulties of learning a second language for students with dyslexia and ways to overcome them. In general,

students with dyslexia, compared to typically developing students, read and write less when acquiring an L2, and their learning process is statistically slower in acquiring vocabulary and developing spelling. (Helland & Morken, 2016). Learning a second language can be especially challenging for primary school students with dyslexia, as they also have difficulty with phonological analysis, reading, and writing while learning their first language. On this issue a number of studies have been carried out abroad, although we do not have a similar study in Georgia on the difficulties of learning Georgian as a second language. Accordingly, the information given in the article is based only on international research.

As part of the desk research, the processing of secondary information allowed us to familiarize ourselves with the research and experience of international organizations. I analyzed them and presented the main results of the research in an article on the problems of mastering reading in a second language and strategies to overcome them.

Teachers can help students with dyslexia reach their language potential with the evidence-based strategies outlined in this article. It introduces the benefits of multilingualism and gives them the opportunity for future development. Creating such a positive and inclusive learning environment is essential for students with dyslexia to feel comfortable with the learning process, which in turn will increase self-confidence and motivation to learn.

Recognizing these challenges is critical for teachers and education policymakers to help students with reading difficulties to learn Georgian language as a second language.

***Keywords**: reading, dyslexia, difficulties in learning-teaching a second language, strategies for learning a second language.*

Learning to read at school is carried out as a result of purposeful learning. This process involves the development of the ability to recognize letters characteristic of the language (graphemes), associate them with phonemes, combine phonemes into sounds, and smooth out sounds into words. Finally, in order to consider the process of reading a word complete, it is necessary to recognize the word and understand its meaning/content. When reading a sentence, it is necessary to keep the words read in memory and access the contents of the entire sentence. If at an early stage of training the emphasis is on teaching reading and the goal is to develop reading comprehension skills, then at a later stage reading skills are used for teaching and the emphasis is already on reading comprehension. If there is a problem in this process, it can be identified as dyslexia.

Dyslexia is a specific learning disability that is neurobiological in origin. It is characterized by difficulties with accurate and/or fluent word recognition and by poor spelling and decoding abilities. These difficulties typically result from a deficit in the phonological component of language. (IDA-International Development Association). Characteristic features of dyslexia are difficulties in phonological awareness, verbal memory and verbal processing speed (BDA-British Dyslexia Association). Phonology is the study of sound structure of spoken words. Phonological awareness includes recognizing rhymes, counting words in a sentence, and clapping to separate syllables in words. Phonemic awareness means the learner knows that words are divided into sounds called phonemes. A phoneme is the smallest unit of sound in a given language that can be recognized as being distinct from other sounds in the language (IDA-International Development Association). For example, the word "GZA" has three phonemes (G-Z-A).

Neither identification of students with learning disabilities is not carried out systematically, nor preventive measures are not taken for the early detection of dyslexia in our country, therefore, students with this difficulty are not included in special education as necessary and finally, in the context of cultural diversity and multilingual education, appropriate conditions and learning strategies for students with dyslexia are not created. The latter has a significant impact on the quality of life of people with these problems, both in childhood, as well as in adolescence and adulthood. The problem is that, unfortunately, we (in Georgia) do not have statistical data on the number of students with dyslexia, however, if we are guided by the examples of developed countries, the percentage can be pretty high. According to the „Dyslexia-Reading-Well“ (Dyslexia-Reading-Well.com.), about 15% of people are dyslexic. Among them, over 30 million adults suffer from it in the US, about 6 million in the UK and 3 million in Canada. Most people even do not know that they have dyslexia.

It must be mentioned, that in our country, the assessment of dyslexia in bilingual children is practically not carried out due to the complexity of this process itself, although this does not solve the problem - students with dyslexia, compared to typically developing students, read and write less when acquiring an L2, and their learning process is statistically slower in acquiring vocabulary and developing spelling. (Helland & Morken, 2016). Every dyslexic has varied strengths and weaknesses but it can generally be said that dyslexics have problems with learning a FL because of two main reasons: the nature of the disability and the manner in which FL are commonly taught in schools (Shnaider. 2009; Knudsen, 2012).

Unfortunately it has been found that most foreign language teachers receive very little education within the field of special needs. They are, in other words, not equipped to help their dyslexic students since the methods they commonly use will often hinder the dyslexic child more than help them succeed within FL learning (Schneider 2009, 298). On the example of our country, this is added by the lack of tools that would allow the teacher to identify the characteristics of dyslexia at an early stage, after which early and correct planning of intervention should follow. Thus, both the teacher and the student require help.

This is the purpose of this article. In the framework of the desk research, based on the materials of the resources created on the basis of the processing of secondary literature, to show us the difficulties of teaching a student with dyslexia when learning a second language and introduce strategies for overcoming them. Unfortunately, we do not have such studies in Georgia, therefore, in the framework of the study, we used examples from developed countries.

For adequate support of students with dyslexia, it is necessary to take into account the peculiarities of the second language. It is important to note that in terms of the connection between pronunciation and spelling, one can distinguish between transparent orthographic languages, which unambiguously and carefully link phonemes and graphemes, and orthographic languages, which are characterized by an even more complex relationship between oral and written forms. Italian, Spanish, German and Greek belong to the first category, while French and English belong to the second group.

Children living in English-speaking countries, in the process of learning their native language, experience difficulties in mastering the correspondence between letters and sounds when deciphering / decoding individual words. On the contrary, students learn to read more easily when learning languages, where the correspondence between speech sounds and their graphic representation is much simpler. (IDA- International Dyslexia Association).

The issue of phonological awareness may not be a problem for those who speak a transparent language such as Spanish while it (issue of phonological awareness) is one of the most common problems in less transparent languages such as English. Dyslexics speaking these languages may, however, still have word retrieval difficulties, motor-skills problems or difficulties with their short-term memory. (Lina Knudsen, 2012).

The Georgian alphabet consists of 33 letters, which correspond to 33 sounds and no more, as, for example, in English or German languages. We read aloud what we see on paper. The

Georgian language does not have such a combination of letters that form other phonemes, so it can be said that learning to read in Georgian is easier than in less transparent languages.

For this reason and in general, often the dyslexic student struggles with anxiety and demotivation that should not be seen as causes of dyslexia but rather are linked to school failure; an inadequate teaching can have negative consequences on the emotional, mnemonic and linguistic aspect (Cappelli, 2021).

Following are some aspects of the FL that have been found to be particularly challenging for the dyslexic student:

- the learning of phonemes, graphemes and digraphs that are different from their native language and understanding the connection between them
- comprehending a new syntax (learning past/present/future tense, ordering of words in a sentence etc.)
- remembering vocabulary words and being able to quickly retrieve them from their long term memory
- spelling new words that may not follow the rules they have learned in their native language
- being able to hear the differences between similar phonemes
- intonation and use of accents that vary from their native language
- comprehension of a written text since most effort is placed on reading each individual word (Knudsen, 2012).

With good readers, the word recognition process proceeds effortlessly and rapidly. This finding means vocabulary knowledge is essential for good reading comprehension. The students who have developed literacy in their L1 will tend to make stronger progress in acquiring literacy in their second language (Brevik, Olsen & Hellekjær, 2016).

Dyslexia also causes socio-affective problems, such as emotional insecurity and low self-confidence that could lead to anxiety, generally when there are challenging tests and tasks. It is very important for dyslexic student to reach serenity in learning new things, making the studying of the foreign language a pleasant and fun activity and not as a duty related to school success. The student must learn methods, techniques and approaches suited to his/her difficulties. Anxiety can be either of a character type, which is independent from the different situations, or a situational type, in other words linked to specific situations. According to some

researchers, however, there is also a sort of "linguistic anxiety" which has a situational nature and it occurs especially in some cases of linguistic task such as:

- reading out in front of the whole class;
- reading out and simultaneously translating and answering questions;
- learning by heart and repeating in front of an audience;
- memorizing lists of words;
- answer questions quickly;
- improvising dialogues on the spot.

This state of anxiety can also cause a loss of communication and distraction tendencies as well as deep psychological damage; in addition, dyslexic learners tend to have a very high level of linguistic anxiety in all their activities. As a result, it is possible to say that this state of anxiety represents the consequence of a school failure for a dyslexic student, whereas, in the case of a student without any disorder, it is the anxiety that causes school failure.

When a non-dyslexic student learns a new language, he/she starts by studying the morpho-syntactic rules, such as word formation, tenses and verbal modes, etc. For a dyslexic student, the process takes place in a different way. Verbal language is often combined with gestures and expressions that helps to understand the language

Text comprehension is a cognitive process that everyone has to carry out to understand a concept. Therefore, dyslexia does not prevent the student from reaching a good level of understanding, but can make the path more difficult by testing his/her patience and willing. In relation to levels of understanding, the dyslexic student and the student who does not have this disorder should not be put on the same level. Both of them start from a global level, pass through every other level and, finally, arrive in a deep understanding one. The only difference is that one of the two will take longer to reach the last level; it is only a matter of time and not of skills. In accordance with the theories introduced by the functional and pragmatic linguistics, language skills develop in communicative situations and are used for precise pragmatic purposes, acquiring a socio-pragmatic character. We can say that a person is fully competent in a language only when he/she is able to integrate verbal language with the use of body and objects and has proper behavior. In case of dyslexia, we could use this indicator to determine language skills.

As already mentioned, students with dyslexia experience difficulties mainly in phonological consciousness (synthesis and analysis). This prevents them from associating sounds with the corresponding letters, which in turn makes it difficult to recognize words.

Finally, the main obstacle appears in reading comprehension, which causes the student's frustration. This also applies to written tasks, as well as memorization and restoration of lexical units and grammatical rules. They are characterized by a slow processing speed, which is also a difficult task, especially where a quick response is essential.

It turns out that the student evaluates the input of the teacher according to the following criteria:

- novelty: differences between the teacher's input and its own expectations;
- intrinsic pleasure: evaluation of the sense of pleasure or displeasure caused by the input, a positive evaluation helps the subject to get closer to the language to learn;
- relevance in comparison to its needs and goals: input assessment based on the obstacles or facilitation related to their social, cultural or training goals;
- psycho-social security: determine the situation according whether it can strengthen its social image or whether it harms it.

If it turns out that aspects of language learning are in harmony with the student's socio-emotional state, then learning a second language proceeds faster (Cappelli. 2021).

In this article, I'll take a closer look at some of the common methods used to help dyslexic students overcome their second language learning difficulties.

Let's start with the fact that in the process of literacy development in students with dyslexia and typical development (both when learning the native language (L1) and when learning the second language (L2)), during the study of neurocognitive development, it was revealed that early identification and training are essential in both cases. This helps the student avoid academic failure. In this research, it was revealed that visual-spatial memory and RAN could be suitable early markers in transparent orthographies like Norwegian. Since the Georgian language can also belong to the group of transparent languages, this recommendation can also be taken into account for us in the process of learning to read (Helland, & Morken, 2016).

Some scientist believe that dyslexic student work best by combining language studies with physical movement, music or art. Others feel that by using a "whole language" approach with dyslexic students works better, meanwhile, they are not given the needed instruction explaining the phonetics and grammar. Since, there are studies on language acquisition where it is believed that, "an ambitious grammar based syllabus may actually impede acquisition" (Arries, 1999). However, there are opposing views as well.

One of the best approaches among the strategies is multi-sensory learning (MSL). (Knudsen, 2012). The MSL approach is based on the early work of Orton who believed that the way to aid dyslexic students with their language processing difficulties is by, "systematic[ally] building up of associations between speech sounds and their representations in writing" and a teacher must find the, "smallest possible unit the child can handle and being a gradual reconstruction of the sequences or series of the smallest units".

It was, however, not until Orton`s assistant Gillingham collaborated with Stillman to create the Gillingham Stillman Approach which is the basis for most MSL approaches. MSL is one of the most well-known methods used when working with dyslexic students in their native language but has also been shown affective when teaching dyslexic students a FL. MSL is based on the idea that dyslexic students have a greater chance of accessing the curriculum when they are taught using all senses simultaneously. This allows for the student to process the information using his/her strongest senses and at the same time strengthening his/her weaknesses.

Specific MSL strategies may include: breaking words into distinct graphemes that the students will first see, then write and say simultaneously, feeling where the tongue is placed in the mouth in order to pronounce a particular phoneme, break words into syllables by tapping their pencil for each, color coding each vowel in order to see the distinction, color coding conjugation changes, using flash cards to practice sound letter relationships, placing vocabulary words into a context by including pictures and images, using metacognitive teaching by explaining similarities and differences between native and foreign languages, acting out vocabulary and commonly used phrases using movement, listening to audio CDs during reading assignments.

Although the MSL approach has been found beneficial for many dyslexic students it is important to point out that students may need added support.

Jonathan F. Arries outlines in his article "Learning Disabilities and Foreign Languages: some of these strategies can be, for example: They may need, for example, to be given more explicit instructions especially when it is given to them in written form, be it in their native language or the FL. Longer assignments may need to be divided up into smaller steps in order to help the student organize his/her time as well as to plan efficiently. Reading assignments should be given a day before the other students so that the dyslexic student will have adequate time to read and comprehend the text. This is especially important if the student must read aloud

in class since the dyslexic students will need more time to prepare for what may be a very difficult task for him/her.

Test and quizzes should have a similar structure throughout the year since this lessens the dyslexic student's anxiety since they know what to expect. Knowing what to expect on a test will also make it easier to study. The tests should include examples for the students so that they can see how they are supposed to answer the questions. This may seem like one is giving the student the answers but this can be of great help to the dyslexic student who may have difficulties understanding the instructions. It might also be a good idea to give the dyslexic student more time on a test since it usually takes them a longer time to process the information. Tests can also be taken separate from the class as to not be distracted by others as well as to lessen the anxiety they may feel (Arries , 1999.).

Finally, recommendations could be as follows: introduce teaching methods that include visual aids, auditory exercises, and kinesthetic activities. Instructions should be structured and consistent. Divide your language lessons into small steps. Repeat often and practice regularly, and afterwards, encourage their participation. Use assistive technologies, readers, and fonts that are suitable for people with dyslexia.

Create individual learning plans that allow students to progress at their own pace based on their strengths and learning style. A positive and inclusive learning environment should be created in the classroom, where the student with dyslexia will feel comfortable and will be able to ask questions, where their motivation and self-confidence will increase. Such a holistic approach will enable the student to gain and experience the benefits of multilingualism.

In conclusion, we can say that students with dyslexia face different difficulties in learning a second language, and it is important for teachers to take this into account. In addition, with these valuable insights in mind, educators, educational policy makers and researchers can develop effective interventions and create an inclusive second language learning environment that meets the specific needs of students with dyslexia.

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# Native Speakerism in the Online ELT market

**ABSTRACT**

Native speakerism is a language ideology that assumes that the ideals of the English language and English teaching methodology come from American and British cultures. Therefore, their best representatives are native speakers of English from these two cultures. This ideology is deeply rooted in the English language teaching market, where most language school owners advertise vacancies only for native-speaker teachers. They prefer hiring unqualified native speakers of English to qualified and experienced non-native teachers. Non-native teachers experience discrimination based on their country of origin and first language, which means they have fewer employment opportunities and work for lower hourly rates. Such discriminatory practices based on native speakerism affect non-native teachers both professionally and personally. This study suggests possible ways to restore teachers' self-confidence and promote their qualifications and skills so that non-native teachers are not marginalized in the future. This study also presents the results of a case study of non-native English teachers from Serbia, how they perceive native speakerism, and the negative effects experienced by these teachers. The results reveal that this ideology harms the professional and private lives of English teachers from Serbia, which is reflected in their poor professional confidence and low self-esteem. Non-native teachers accept low-paid positions and patronizing treatment from employers to keep their jobs and financial security, thus compromising the teaching positions they deserve as qualified teachers.

***Keywords**: discrimination, native speaker, non-native speaker, ELT, language ideology*

## Introduction

The online English Language Teaching (ELT)[1] market has seen a rise in demand for online English teachers in the last decade. There have been a significant number of online advertisements, approximately 75%, where employers advertise vacancies only for native-speaker teachers (Kiczkowiak, 2015). Employers openly search for candidates from the US, the UK, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand, so they unwillingly interview or hire candidates from the rest of the world. Desirable countries belong to the so-called Inner Circle. The Inner Circle includes countries where English is spoken as the first language and is used as a dom[1]inant language, and native speakers from these places are the most desirable in the ELT market (Kachru, 1985).

[1] ELT- English Language Teaching

### 1.1. Kachru's Concentric Circles

To understand the terminology, its origin, and implications, I will provide a brief background on the term Inner Circle and how it found its place in the narrative about native speakerism. The Inner Circle belongs to Concentric Circles, a term coined by Braj Kachru. This famous linguist labeled countries according to how English is spoken and used worldwide. Concentric Circles include the Inner Circle, the Outer Circle, and the Expanding Circle. The Inner Circle countries are those in which English is spoken as the first language and is used as the dominant language. The Outer Circle countries use English as the second and official language. The Expanding Circle are countries where English is learned as a foreign language. Kachru's Concentric Circles explains why teachers from the Outer and Expanding Circles are discriminated against compared with native-speaker teachers from the Inner Circle.

### 1.2. Native speakerism

The underlying reason for such discrimination is a language ideology known as native speakerism. This ideology perpetuates the idea that native speakers know English better than other speakers; therefore, a native speaker is the best role model for learners of English. Achieving the level of a native speaker has become a learner's goal, so learners of English are more willing to learn English with the help of a native-speaker teacher (Holliday, 2009). Learners believe that a native-speaker teacher guarantees success in learning English because of the first language he speaks and "the right passport" he holds. Non-native teachers are perceived as incompetent despite the relevant qualifications, training, and extensive experience in various teaching contexts. They are judged on the basis of their accents, countries of origin, first languages, and race. With existing prejudices, non-native English teachers hold an unfavorable position in the ELT market.

### 1.3. Hiring practices in the ELT market

Given the lack of qualified and experienced native-speaker teachers of English as a foreign language, employers decide to hire native-speaker teachers without relevant teaching qualifications so that they can cater to the demands of the ELT market and its consumers. Therefore, native-speaker English teachers are mostly unqualified and untrained for a teaching position. Native-speaker teachers' main advantage over non-native-speaker teachers is their country of origin and their mother tongue, and this privilege makes them the most desirable candidates over teachers who were not fortunate enough to be born in one of the Inner Circle countries, where they could learn English

as a native speaker.

When qualified and trained non-native teachers apply to native-only advertisements, they are often rejected on the grounds of their origin, nationality, and language. Such hiring practices place non-native teachers in an unfavorable position where they face rejection and ignoration. Rejected and ignored, they have few employment opportunities and usually work for low hourly rates. Such circumstances lead to teachers' low professional confidence and lower self-esteem (Kamhi-Stein, 2000).

### 1.4. Research topic

This study aims to learn more about the negative effects of native speakerism on non-native English teachers working in the online ELT market and how to mitigate them. The study also suggests various actions for empowering non-native teachers so that they can be demraginalized and offered equal opportunities as their native-speaking peers.

There have been various research on the negative effects of native speakerism on non-native English teachers. However, such research did not investigate how native speakerism affects English teachers from the Balkans in southeast Europe. This study also fills the research gap and will be used as a pilot study for doctoral research on native speakerism.

## 2. Methodology

### 2.1. Informants

The informants of this study were 15 online English teachers whose native language was Serbian and who were located in Serbia, a country in the Balkans. They all worked for the same online language school at the time of the study. They were also members of an informal online community of teachers working for the aforementioned online school, so they were well-connected and shared similar experiences in the online ELT market, which made them suitable for this study.

### 2.2. Questionnaire

The questionnaire consisted of three groups of questions. It was made in Google Forms and administered online. The questionnaire included open-ended questions, dichotomous and Likert scales. The first group of questions was about the informants' general information, such as age, gender, language level, qualifications, professional training, and general teaching experience. The second group of questions aimed at the informants' teaching experience in online language schools, whereas the third group aimed at the informants' experience with and attitude toward native speakers in the ELT market.

### 2.3. Analysis

The responses were analyzed using a mixed method. Quantitative analysis was used for the first group of responses, in which the informants answered general questions about their age, gender, qualifications, language level, professional training, and general teaching experience. The second group of scaled and open-ended questions was analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively. The third group of questions was analyzed qualitatively because responses to its open-ended questions were suitable for qualitative analysis.

### 2.4. Hypothesis

Non-native teachers have been reporting many negative effects caused by discriminatory hiring practices in the ELT market. We assume that online non-native teachers from the Balkans also suffer from the negative effects of native speakerism. In addition, we expect teachers to share their online experiences with discriminatory hiring practices, which will support the hypothesis that Serbian teachers are being discriminated against and suffering from the negative impact of this language ideology.

## 3. Results and Discussion

Two-thirds of the informants did not apply to online advertisements for native-speaker teachers. They believed that they had no right to apply because they were not native speakers. They avoided such advertisements, which meant few employment opportunities and low hourly rates. They felt discriminated against, but they accepted their situation as unchangeable. They came to terms with the fact that they would never have an opportunity to earn more and advance in their online career.

One-third of the informants dared to apply to such advertisements. They did not accept their "non-native fate," so they continued to apply. Among them, we notice two tendencies. One group of teachers, about 73% of this one-third, applied to online advertisements as non-native speakers, which was their true identity. They were honest about their identity, believing that the employer would recognize their qualifications, skills, experience, and expertise as suitable for the positions they advertised.

The remaining 27% applied and pretended to be native speakers to increase their hiring chances. They pretended to be native speakers in several ways: they claimed to be native speakers and kept their true names, changed their names to sound more English, or created images of false passports in Photoshop to prove their "true origin" from the countries in the Inner Circle.

The acceptance rate for teachers who applied with a false passport was high (93%). This percentage leads to the conclusion that a false passport helps teachers get hired in the online ELT market, which was expected given that the Inner Circle passport holders are the most desirable candidates.

The acceptance rate for teachers who were honest with employers and applied with their true identity was unexpectedly high (60%). This percentage concludes that employers are willing to hire non-native speakers despite publishing advertisements looking for native teachers from the Inner Circle only. However, employers who hired non-native teachers required these teachers to pretend to be native teachers in front of students. Employers planned to market these teachers as natives and thus provide a stable customer base for their schools. All the teachers accepted such a request because they were motivated by financial gain. If they pretended to be native teachers, they would earn at least three times more than what they would earn working for non-native hourly rates.

Working for an online school that requires teachers to assume a false identity has taken its toll on these online teachers. Despite being highly motivated, the teachers who assumed a false identity reported feeling "awkward, embarrassed, and frustrated" because they lied to their students. They feared that their true identity would be revealed, which would have cost them their teaching position and financial stability.

Besides being afraid for their jobs, working for low hourly rates, and having few employment opportunities, teachers also reported several more negative effects of the discriminatory hiring practices and treatment they received at those online schools: no chances for promotion, a feeling of being undervalued, low professional confidence, and low self-esteem.

Even though teachers felt discriminated against during hiring processes when they worked for such online schools, they were unaware that the discrimination they faced was caused by native speakerism, an ideology deeply rooted in the ELT market. A little more than 50% of the informants had never heard of native speakerism before completing the questionnaire. When the informants were asked if they believed something should be done, 86% believed that we have to act immediately, while 73% were skeptical about the results of such actions. They believed that even if we did something about native speakerism, it would be pointless.

## 4. Conclusion

To help teachers stand up for themselves and their rights in the online ELT market, we should educate them about native speakerism. The more teachers know about this ideology and its background, the better able they will be to overcome the challenges of the current ELT market.

Teacher education on native speakerism can be provided through formal and informal communities, such as teachers' associations and social media. Teachers' associations are formal organizations with the power to spread the word about native speakerism with their large-scale reach. Informal communities, such as online communities on social media and platforms, can provide the necessary support of peers by exchanging information and experiences.

Non-native teachers should continue applying to native-only advertisements because they have a unique opportunity to showcase their skills and expertise, which may bring about a mind shift among employers and other stakeholders in the ELT market.

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# Multilingualism in Germany and the Role of Submersion and Immersion Programmes

## Abstract

As a result of recent immigration, Germany has become a multilingual country with a great need for multilingual education. In the first part of the article the roles of minority and immigrant languages in Germany are discussed. Some demographic changes are briefly outlined as well as the implications for the general education system. In the second part, submersion and immersion approaches are discussed and evaluated in the context of the German school system. It is argued that classroom interactional competence is a crucial factor in promoting students' linguistic skills.

***Key words:*** *Multilingualism, immigration, SLE, submersion, immersion*

## 1. Multilingualism in Germany

When looking at a map of Germany, one might be inclined to think that Germany must have numerous minority languages since the country is located centrally in Europe and is surrounded by nine countries (Denmark, the Netherlands, Belgium, Luxemburg, France, Switzerland, Austria, Poland and the Czech Republic). However, there are hardly any substantial numbers of minority speakers in Germany's border regions apart from approximately 50,000 Danish speakers in Schleswig-Holstein.

According to the European Charter for Regional and Minority Languages, Low German, Sorbian, Danish, Frisian and Romany are officially recognized as minority languages in Germany. Low German is recognized as a regional language in some of the northern German states. Sorbian is an official minority language in Brandenburg and Saxony with approximately 30,000 speakers and Danish in Schleswig-Holstein. Romany, which is spoken by approximately 200,000 people, also has the status of an official minority language although it cannot be assigned to a specific state territory. Frisian is spoken by approximately 20,000 people, mainly in Schleswig-Holstein.

However, taking into account that Germany has a population of more than 82 million people, these numbers are relatively low compared to other European countries with great numbers of ethnic minorities in border regions like Estonia or Slovenia, for instance.

Nevertheless Germany has moved from a largely monolingual country to a country which is *de facto* multilingual within a relatively short span of time due to a great influx of immigrants. Unlike countries like Canada or the US which have a long tradition of immigration and which have well-established educational programmes to attend to the specific needs of newcomers, immigration is a relatively new phenomenon in Germany since the country has experienced a dramatic increase in immigration in recent years.

Even in the 1950s Germany had been a largely monolingual country. Since then, however, there have been three major waves of migration which, taken together, have led to a great deal of multilingualism and multiculturalism:

a) During the 1960s many working migrants (e.g. from Turkey, Italy or the former Yugoslavia) were asked to come to Germany many of whom decided to stay in the country.

b) In the 1980s and 1990s resettlers and repatriates of German descent from East European countries (e.g. Russia and Kazakhstan) emigrated to Germany. In 1990 alone, almost 400,000 people came to Germany.

As a result of these two waves of migration, some languages are widely used throughout the country, including, for instance, Russian (3 to 4 million speakers), Turkish (2 million), Kurdish (500,000 to 800,000), Polish and Arabic. Although they have not been given any official status so far, speakers of these languages outnumber the speakers of the official minority languages by far.

c) Most recently, large number of refugees and asylum seekers came to Germany. In fact, more than one million have arrived since 2015, including more than 400,000 from Syria alone. Most of the languages spoken by refugees are non-European.

The following table shows the number asylum seekers based on their country of origin:

| **2015 Country** | **Total** | **2016 Country** | **Total** | **2017 Country** | **Total** |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Syria | 162,510 | 1. Syria | 268,866 | 1. Syria | 50,422 |
| 2. Albania | 54,762 | 2. Afghanistan | 127,892 | 2. Iraq | 23,605 |
| 3. Kosovo | 37,095 | 3. Iraq | 97,162 | 3. Afghanistan | 18,282 |
| 4. Afghanistan | 31,902 | 4. Iran | 26,872 | 4. Eritrea | 10,582 |
| 5. Iraq | 31,379 | 5. Eritrea | 19,103 | 5. Iran | 9,186 |

Source: Federal Office for Migration and Refugees (2017)
https://www.bamf.de/SharedDocs/Meldungen/DE/2016/201610106-asylgeschaeftsstatistik-dezember.html

Thus, due to immigration processes, the demographic structure of Germany has undergone some radical changes in the last few decades. In fact, at present Germany has become the second most popular immigration destination in the world after the US and thus has become *de facto* a multilingual and multicultural country.

In 2015, 21% of the population had a "migration background". A person with migration background is generally defined as someone who does not have German citizenship or whose mother or father does not have German citizenship. The younger the people, the more likely it is that they have a migration background. In the age group below 5 years, 36% had a migration background, compared with only 10% in the age group over 65.[1] And these statistics do not even include the high number of refugees coming to Germany from 2015 onwards.

Thus, one of the greatest challenges for modern German society is to deal with the growing social, linguistic and cultural diversity. It is obvious that the integration of immigrants and refugees will be a long-term process and a major challenge for the entire education system in Germany.

[1] https://www.destatis.de/DE/PresseService/Presse/Pressemitteilungen/2016/09/PD16_327_122.html

## 2. Submersion education

Since the latest immigration wave occurred under largely uncontrolled circumstances and Germany does not have well-established immigration programmes like Canada, for instance, let alone an immigration law which would help to manage the flow of immigration, the German government, as well as local authorities, was forced to develop programmes quickly to manage the flow of newcomers and integrate them into the new environment. This situation is further exacerbated by the fact that there is no centralized education and language policy in Germany. Instead, the 16 federal states ("Bundesländer") each have their own Ministeries of Education and Cultural Affairs and can determine their language policies more or less autonomously, for example, the question when to introduce foreign language teaching in schools.

One of the results of the dramatic increase in immigration numbers was the necessity to provide language classes in German since the main objective was to integrate immigrants into the school system and the job market as quickly as possible. Since 2005, so-called "Integration courses" have been offered for adults which consist of a language course and an orientation course. The language course comprises 600 lessons and covers many aspects of everyday life, including work and career, raising children, going shopping, filling out forms etc.

The orientation course comprises 60 lessons and deals with Germany's history, culture and its legal system, among other things. At the end of the integration course there is a final examination. The objective is to attain language level B1 in the language section of the final examination. Depending on the participant's official status, the course is free of charge for some while others may have to contribute to the costs.

Children are normally integrated directly into regular classes. This process of placing language minority children into mainstream education is also called "submersion". This concept "contains the idea of a language minority student thrown into the deep end and expected to learn to swim as quickly as posssible without the help of floats or special swimming lessons" (Baker, 2010: 211). The students are taught exclusively in the majority language, in this case German, and are expected to use it in the classroom. In general, the main objective of submersion programmes is the rapid social and cultural assimilation of language minority speakers and to shift the child from the home minority language to the dominant majority language. Hence, it is often considered a necessary and effective tool of integration from a political perspective.

Within mainstream education there is often a provision of classes in GSL (German as a Second Language) which aims to promote language skills for curriculum purposes. Typically, these are "pull-out" or withdrawal classes offered by regular German teachers or by foreign language teachers, but quite often by people who were not specifically trained in teaching German as a Second Language. Young adults who came as refugees may also attend special reception classes ("Internationale Förderklassen") which last for a year and which prepare them to go to university, for example.

Multilingual and heterogeneous classes with substantial variations in student language ability are likely to create enormous challenges for teachers and students alike. The main problem for language learners is to cope with the curriculum demands despite their insufficiently developed language skills and their difficulties to absorb the input and to understand the teachers' instructions. Thus in submersion programmes they may eventually "sink, struggle or swim" (Baker, 2010: 211). When such students do not receive any any specialized language services and are just assigned to regular classrooms, this may eventually lead to frustration or non-participation and potentially also to their dropping-out of the educational system (Valdés, 1998: 7) and economic disempowerment. A further problem they have to face that there is little or no support for their first language.

For teachers, one of the greatest problems in such mainstreaming classrooms is that the regular classroom teachers are usually not trained in GSL methodology and may have little expertise in modifying their instruction to accommodate such children, in particular when the class contains students ranging from fluent language majority speakers to those who can understand very little (Carrasquillo & Rodriguez, 2002: 3). In other words,

one of the key competences these teachers need is Classroom Interactional Competence (cf. Walsh, 2014, see chapter 5).

Although there is a great demand for it, language support in the first language is in general low and restricted to those schools where a substantial number of students speaks a common language, for example, Turkish or Arabic. At some schools a few lessons per week may be offered, sometimes even to different age groups.

## 3. Bilingual education

According to the official data available, existing CLIL and bilingual programmes in Germany target more than ten foreign languages. This would include two regional or minority languages (Danish and Sorbian) in some federal states, and numerous bilingual institutions where German is taught together with a different language (e.g. Chinese, Czech, Dutch, English, French, Greek, Italian, Polish, Portuguese, Romanian, Spanish or Turkish).

Bilingual education is officially promoted by ministries of education and by school authorities and provided in primary, lower secondary and general upper secondary education. The following table shows the number of schools at the different levels of education:

| **Primary Schools (*Grundschule*)** | **Lower Secondary Schools (*Realschule*)** | **Comprehensive Schools (*Gesamtschule*)** | **Upper Secondary Schools (*Gymnasium*)** |
|---|---|---|---|
| 119<br>(7.5 %) | 63<br>(16.6%) | 167<br>(10.5%) | 1,038<br>(65.4%) |

**Bilingual schools in Germany in 2013 (n= 1587)[2].**

With just very few exceptions, all 16 federal states offer bilingual tracks, bilingual modules and Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) as well as binational schools or tracks.

At first glance the official data may look very promising, but there are numerous restrictions and drawbacks:

- Bilingual education, in general, does not seem to be very widespread. Even when all the different forms are combined, only 4.7% of the 33,493 schools in Germany offer some sort of bilingual education.
- Approximately two thirds of all schools offering bilingual education are upper secondary schools ("Gymnasien"). The number of primary schools and lower secondary schools offering bilingual education is very low (cf. Elsner & Keßler, 203: 18).
- In relation to the total number of schools, bilingual education is found more often in the private sector; in the public sector it is often restricted to bilingual tracks and modules and to CLIL lessons in specific school subjects (e.g. geography and history).
- Bilingual education is mainly associated with English, not with any minority or regional languages or other foreign languages, even in border regions.

One of the main reasons for the lack of bilingual schools is that there is a general shortage of qualified teachers. Competence is required in at least one non-language subject and a high command of the foreign

[2] KMK (2013): „Konzepte für den bilingualen Unterricht – Erfahrungsbericht und Vorschläge zur Weiterentwicklung". http://kmk.org/fileadmin/veroeffentlichungen_beschluesse/2013/201_10_17-Konzepte-_bilingualer-_Unterricht.pdf (Zugriff 28.1.2018)

language used, typically at C1 level. In addition to this, specific methodological skills are required to teach CLIL classes, for instance. Relatively few universities offer teacher training programmes for CLIL teachers.

## 4. Immersion bilingual education

Immersion programmes have numerous advantages. Immersion is considered to be a very natural form of language acquisition and typically results in "additive" bilingualism where students develop proficiency in a second language while at the same time they continue to develop their first language. Immersive education also fosters the integration of content and language teaching ("Getting two for the price of one") and the development of Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) as well as Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills (BICS).

Numerous studies (e.g. Genesee, 2008: 6, Piske, 2013: 32, Piske & Burmeister, 2008) have shown that immersion students can attain a considerably higher L2 proficiency compared with traditional language teaching, while no major negative effects have been found concerning the students' development in the first language. The students'development of subject knowledge is comparable to monolingual students.

In addition to this, it has been shown that immersion is adequate for children from all social classes, irrespective of their L1 (Elsner & Keßler, 2013: 19, Massler & Burmeister, 2010). Immigrant children may also benefit greatly from such immersion classes in a foreign language (e.g. English) since they are put in the same basic situation as children who speak the majority language.

Taking into account all these benefits and the positive research findings it is quite surprising to note that there are still only very few immersion schools in Germany, in particular in primary schools (Elsner & Keßler, 2013: 18). However, in recent years a gradual increase of immersion programmes, in particular in the private sector, was noticeable.

A good example of this development are the Phorms Education schools which are located in various cities in Germany (e.g. in Berlin, Munich, Hamburg and Frankfurt). The schools at Phorms Education offer immersion classes at primary and upper secondary level ("Gymnasium"). Most of the teaching at primary level takes place in English. Initially, approximately 70% of the instruction is in English and 30% in German. At secondary school the distribution of both languages is more even. The pupils are mainly German-speaking, but some of them come from bilingual families.

Teachers are either German or native speakers of English – both groups teach in their native language. Additionally, each class has a teaching assistant who usually speaks the language which is not spoken by the regular teacher. German and English therefore enjoy equal status as working languages in the classroom and for everyday communication. Subjects are either taught in English or German which allows the students to acquire the relevant specialist vocabulary equally in both languages.

In the last part, one specific aspect of immersion will be discussed that is of great significance for the potential success of immersion programmes, namely the role of providing language support.

## 5. Providing supportive feedback in an immersion context

Apart from an early start and the continuous and intensive exposure to the new language one of the most important factors responsible for the success of immersion programmes is the provision of language support and scaffolding strategies which helps to foster language development (cf. Singleton & Ryan, 2006; Piske, 2013: 30).

Establishing a safe and cooperative learning environment is one of the most important objectives in an immersion setting. Learners should be encouraged to engage in classroom interaction in such a way that they can develop oral fluency and can experiment with the non-native language (Coelho, 2012: 238).

A metaphor which is often used to convey the idea of providing language support through collaborative dialogue is "scaffolding" (e.g. Gibbons, 2002: 15, Klewitz, 2017):

> "Just as construction workers rely on scaffolding to support a new building as they construct one storey on top of another removing the scaffolding only when the structure is strong enough to stand without it, teachers build on students' existing knowledge or skills to enable them to go one step further in their learning." (Coelho, 2012: 232)

Scaffolding is an essential factor for all learners who study content in a language they are not fully proficient in, no matter whether this learning takes place in an immersion classroom or in a submersion context where learners require additional support compared to native speaker learners.

It is essential that learners receive sufficient comprehensible input which is ideally slightly beyond their current level of proficiency, but at the same time learners also need to be engaged in classroom interactions with their teachers and their peers. This forces them to produce meaningful output which will eventually help them to revise and improve their language use in the long run.

A simple classroom exchange like the following extract which was recorded in an immersion classroom in Grade 2 in one of the Phorms schools can provide essential scaffolding for language learning. It is obvious that the teacher wants to ensure that the learners have many opportunities to try out their oral language skills in meaningful contexts even though they are still beginners. Therefore, he simply asks his learners to share what they did during their weekend:

T: Excellent. Thank you very much for sharing Emma... eh Tom, would you like to share something?
L1: Yes.
T: Alright, go ahead, Tom. We're all listening.
L1: [slowly] On Saturday I..I.....I..I I was em looking the football game. ** And... then on the next day [giggling] I was em my mum has birthday
T: Oh yesterday your mum had a birthday.
L1: Yes [T: oh ok nice] and there was coming a friend. And then we play...Then we were em [Pause]
T: What did you play?.. play - a game?
L1: ***
T: You can say it in German!
L1: We were../grıln/
T: Barbecue? Cooking?
L2: Barbecue is that.
T: Yeah, making food… yeah

During this short conversation the teacher uses numerous general strategies and specific techniques to encourage the learner to express what he would like to say.

The teacher shows a great amount of error tolerance. In many cases, the learner is not explicitly corrected even though his output contains wrong constructions. In the dialogue the learner uses a wrong collocation ("I was looking the game"), for example, but this is not corrected by the teacher, presumably because comprehension is not impaired and the message is clear. An expicit correction would unnecessarily interrupt the natural flow of conversation and draw attention to the form and not to the meaning.

If correction occurs, it is often done implicitly. For instance, when the learner says ("My mum has a birthday") this sentence is remodelled by the teacher using the correct tense form. Such indirect forms of correction have the advantage that they are normally not interpreted as interruptions by the learner and can also be used to signal comprehension and to negotiate meaning as in this case ("Oh, yesterday your mum had a birthday").

The teacher also offers linguistic help by implementing the technique of "bridging" ("… play – a game?") and when that fails he encourages the learner to use his native language to convey the message which signals to the learner that the teacher is entirely interested in the meaning. When the learner uses the German expression "grillen" (/grıln/) the teacher asks clarification questions to make sure that he understood the message.

Techniques like implicit error correction, bridging, prompting, asking clarification questions and back-channelling provide the necessary scaffolding for learners. These contextual cues not only help them to infer the meaning more easily, but also encourage them to produce oral output. Along with general strategies like a high degree of error tolerance, the acceptance of code-switching or the provision of positive feedback, this helps to create a learning environment where learners feel safe to express themselves.

## 6. Conclusions

Both in immersion classrooms and in submersion settings language learners are faced with numerous challenges. A student speaking the majority language who is learning a second language (e.g. English) in an immersion classroom, is initially confronted with a large amount of input which may appear to be almost incomprehensible. This problem may also occur in a submersive setting where a learner speaking a minority language is required to deal with content which is taught in the majority language. In both cases this basic situation poses numerous challenges for learners and teachers alike.

In particular, the problems associated with submersion programmes should not be ignored since there is a great risk that numerous learners will eventually not become sufficiently proficient in the majority language to be integrated into society.

Immersion, which aims for additive bilingualism, has proved to be a very effective way of language learning both in the context of language maintenance as well as in foreign language teaching. Although the circumstances are very different, some of the findings from research on immersion may be transferred to mainstream education, too. Above all, classroom interactional competence (cf. Walsh, 2014) is a crucial factor in promoting learners‘ linguistic skills. The first step to develop this competence is to make teachers more aware of how they use language in the classroom so that they can adjust their speech when working with language learners, no matter in which context this occurs and to make them aware of the important role of supportive feedback and the provision of scaffolding for the development of linguistic skills. Learning is much more likely when students are involved in meaningful classroom interactions in which they are encouraged to produce output in a safe learning environment.

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