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Edited by Bee Bond and Caroline Campbell

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The Leeds Language Scholar Journal

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Contributions are welcome from practitioners, researchers and students who are involved in language education. Areas of particular interest to this Journal are theories and practices for language teaching and education, including language teaching approaches and methodologies, intercultural communication, the psychology of language learning, research-led teaching, student-led practices, communicative strategies and experimental teaching.

The Language Scholar is hosted by the Centre for Excellence in Language Teaching within the School of Languages, Cultures and Societies at the University of Leeds. It considers international contributions in multimedia formats, in and about any language (including ancient languages). It aims to provide a space for the development of scholarship in language education, and to provide a platform for pieces which highlight the potential of multimodality to enhance communication, including a supportive and developmental approach to peer review.

Alongside the annual printed issue, the Language Scholar's digital space hosts and showcases contributions, facilitating the sharing and exchange of ideas. Submissions can be sent to the journal at any time, although there will be deadlines announced for specific printed issues.

If you would like to get in touch or submit a piece, you can contact us on the journal's email: **languagescholar@leeds.ac.uk** or Tweet us at **@LangScholar**

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Editorial: In Memory of Cheryl Greenlay

Bee Bond

This special issue of the Language Scholar, which focusses on content-based language education, is dedicated to our friend and colleague, Cheryl Greenlay. Before her unexpected and untimely death on Wednesday 6th of February 2019, one of the many extra voluntary tasks Cheryl had agreed to take on was that of guest co-editor of this issue with Caroline Campbell.

Many of the papers in this issue are the result of a one-day EAP Summer Conference that Cheryl organised and co-ordinated for all Language Centre staff in July 2018. In this editorial, then, we focus specifically on Cheryl's contribution to the development of, and impact on, the Language Centre and its approach to content-based English for Academic Purposes (EAP) teaching and learning.

In 2016 Cheryl became Deputy Director of Student Education for the Language Centre, and in doing so took on responsibility for the planning and organisation of our summer programmes, including 9 content-based, disciplinary pathway programmes for taught post-graduate students. This is a highly complex, and continually growing task, involving the recruitment of around 100 extra tutors for the summer and, in summer 2018, almost 2000 students enrolled on the various programmes on offer. Whilst there are many people involved in ensuring this happens, Cheryl was the official 'face' of the summer, and the person who took on direct day-to-day responsibility for its smooth running. One of the most difficult aspects of this role is around Quality Assurance. Essentially this meant, for Cheryl, trying to balance the many competing ideas and approaches to teaching EAP that are held by colleagues in the Language Centre (examples of which can be seen in this and previous issues of the Journal), attempting to ensure that all students across all 9 content-based pre-sessionals enjoyed the same learning experience and were assessed in a fair and equitable manner, whilst also acknowledging the pedagogical and disciplinary differences that have an impact on the language, genres and discourses that would be covered across the different programmes. In other words, Cheryl needed to work towards programmes that were both different but equal, and work with programme leaders who also have differing priorities and understandings as to what content-based EAP teaching entails.

In doing this, Cheryl often had to make difficult, and unpopular-with-some decisions. She tried to do this in an inclusive a manner as possible, working to develop a sense of collegiality and collaboration

between the different programme leads, asking them to both support and provide critique to each other's programme. Through this approach, she hoped that there would be natural cross-fertilization of good practice and that leaders would notice any gaps in their own work by seeing how others had developed their programme. However, when a final decision needed to be made, Cheryl was not afraid to do this, to take ownership of the decision and to put in a lot of hard work to see it through.

Under Cheryl's leadership, then, the number of students taking a summer programme in the Language Centre at Leeds almost doubled over a two-year period. Despite this rapid increase, and the challenges this brought, all programmes continued to achieve high levels of student satisfaction and to prepare them for their future disciplinary studies. There was also a high return rate of teachers taking up offers of work for the summer period, with an increased development of expertise in specific disciplinary discourses. The Language Centre also regained accreditation from both the British Council and BALEAP in summer 2018, with a range of points of excellence highlighted. One of these highlighted points was the EAP Summer Conference, the proceedings of which form part of this issue. Much of this was down to Cheryl's hard work.

This conference highlights and exemplifies Cheryl's contribution to life in the Language Centre. Her intention with the conference, running for the first time in 2018, was to provide a unique opportunity for teachers, many of whom who work on precarious or short-term contracts, to participate in an academic conference, but one that also worked to provide an overview and general induction to the context, content and (diverse) approach(es) to EAP that make up the Leeds pre-sessional programmes. Despite some scepticism about the timing and purpose of the conference, and some reservations of her own, Cheryl persevered and organised an event that was purposeful, developmental and appreciated by those who attended. However, it was Cheryl's response after the conference that particularly epitomises her approach to her work. The conference was not an easy even to organise and involved a large amount of work on Cheryl's part. The easy option would have been to run it as a one-off and forget about it. However, Cheryl looked carefully at the feedback, listened to the opinions of others, reflected and learned from the experience. She then came to the decision that the work had been worth it but that some changes needed to be made. Cheryl was in the process, with others, of developing the plan and theme for next year's EAP Summer Conference when she died.

This process reflects another of Cheryl's strengths. She was a highly reflective practitioner, and she built levels of reflection into her oversight of the content-based summer programmes. She invited feedback, and took that feedback very seriously, on all aspects of her work. She was also, to some

extent, her own worst critic and was both modest and humble about her achievements, her experience and her knowledge base. Her work ethic was matched by a strong desire for constant improvement and development, and for learning. This was something that shone through her expectations of herself, her students and the design and delivery of programmes. This is also clear in the paper that we have made the lead article of this issue. This paper was written by Cheryl for the PGCAP (Post-graduate certificate of academic practice) she was working towards. It was therefore not intended for publication and we would like to thank OD&PL (Organisational Development and Professional Learning) for allowing us to have access to her work and publish it here. The paper is, in our opinion, an exemplar of reflective practitioner writing. It outlines Cheryl's developing philosophy around learning and teaching. Within it, her modesty as well as her desire and drive to improve her practice are clear, as is her willingness to push herself outside her comfort zone and challenge her current beliefs. It can also be read as something of a manifesto as to where Cheryl would have gone next in terms of programme development and approach. We hope from reading it that we will all gain a better insight into who Cheryl was as a professional, but also that we learn and adopt some of the ideas she explores in our own practice.

Developing Student Education Practice for Language Teaching

Cheryl Greenlay

The Language Centre; The University of Leeds

ABSTRACT

This paper is the second part of an assessed submission for the ODPL500IM Module: Developing Student Education Practice on the Post Graduate Certificate in Academic Practice (PGCAP). It was not written for a public audience. The editors have therefore added a few footnotes and hyperlinks to provide occasional clarification. In this piece, our colleague Cheryl reflects on her own teaching practice and her developing philosophy of teaching and learning.

KEYWORDS: teaching perspectives; reflective practice; micro teach; digital education; internationalisation

DEVELOPING PHILOSOPHY AND CONTEXT OF PRACTICE

This reflection will consider the development of my teaching philosophy in the context of my teaching practice which is 'English for Academic Purposes' (EAP) for international postgraduate students entering PGT degrees from a range of disciplinary backgrounds. I've identified three main areas for discussion as relevant to my professional development. First I'll outline observations of my teaching practice, then I'll consider use of technology to enhance learning and finally I'll highlight issues related to internationalisation and inclusivity.

A suitable starting point for reflection is on my Teaching Perspectives Inventory (TPI), which I took at the beginning of the programme and then again recently, (Pratt & Collins, 2014). The second set of results indicate some significant changes in my perspectives, shifting from dominant Transmission and Apprenticeship (36 and 35 respectively) to dominant Apprenticeship, Developmental and Nurturing, (37, 34 and 34 respectively). It's also noticeable that the height of the bars increased in all areas except for the Transmission perspective, which reduced 4 points. This indicates a readjustment of my teaching practice and a strengthening of my convictions in all areas but Transmission.

When I reflect on *how* these changes have occurred, it seems the experience of participating in the micro teach was pivotal. Prior to the PGCAP, I would not have considered myself to be a dominant 'transmission' teacher, yet there was clearly some room for reflection from the first TPI results. Teacher-fronted delivery of content, redundant teacher-talking time, and lengthy teacher-led

feedback stages are things I consciously tried to avoid in my professional practice. However, not only were more changes required in these areas, but also a shift to reach the realisation that it's not necessary, (or indeed possible), for me to know everything for my teaching to facilitate deeper learning. At level 3 teaching (Biggs, 2012), the focus in lessons shifts onto what learners are doing and the teacher aims to facilitate a transformation in the ways students think and understand.

In the micro teach session, I observed colleagues who despite attempting to follow the BOPPPS[1] model, still fell back into transmission teaching. As a learner, I experienced that this approach is only as strong as the individual delivering the content; if the 'presenter' does not have sufficient skills to engage and deliver clearly, the potential quantity of learning drops, content becomes less memorable and students experience a more passive way of receiving information and are less involved (if at all) in deeper cognitive thinking processes. Crucially in language learning, students lack practice, which according to Syed, (2011), is the key to achievement and success. In addition, adopting a learner-centred approach increases autonomy, which is a key expectation at postgraduate level. I'm satisfied that my TPI Transmission perspective reduced, but will need to be mindful and monitor this, as my results showed a difference between my intentions (9) and my actions (12).

The second area of greatest change in my TPI was 'developmental' which increased by 5 points. In EAP teaching the cohort is very diverse so it's important to understand students' thinking in order to facilitate cognitive engagement. International cohorts come from a very wide range of educational backgrounds, even within the same country, so they need to understand the expectations of how knowledge is gained and demonstrated at MA level. This process is more than learning input and repeating it in different ways to demonstrate understanding, (UG level), but rather a transforming of knowledge to contribute something new. I've realised that finding out what teaching and learning occurred at UG level, and what differences exist within the group, is highly important in order to know what questions need to be asked and what direction we might need to take. This is important for deeper learning because conceptual gaps may occur if there is inadequate scaffolding towards autonomy. Students need a 'high enough prior knowledge to provide internal guidance' (Kirschner et. al. 2006, p42). In short, without the teacher knowing something about the knowledge and experience learners bring into the classroom, how can the process of helping them build on their knowledge and then transform it even begin? This question has changed my focus, particularly at the start of classes incorporating pre-evaluation activities to take learners through processes that activate prior learning, resulting in richer and more valuable contributions.

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[1] A model for lesson which combines the key principles of constructive alignment and active learning. The six elements are: Bridge in; Outcomes; Pre-assessment; Participatory Learning; Post-assessment; Summary

An increased attention to students' previous learning and how this is linked to facilitating the development of an open mind set, (Dweck, 2012), has also led to an improvement in learning environment. This represents an important shift in classroom dynamics. Beforehand, I might have relied more on my ability to engage groups and create a rapport in teacher fronted ways. Now my efforts are more focussed on producing a community of practice in which students share their knowledge and learn from each other. This is something evidenced in my observation feedback (A3) and reflected in an increase of 4 points in my 'nurturing' TPI perspective (A4). International students, face increased cognitive challenge due to learning a discipline through the medium of a second language. To face this challenge successfully, they not only need training in metacognitive strategies to develop language and study skills necessary in their further studies, but also the right support to develop an open mind set to be confident, self-determined and able to engage with resilience when they face challenge and possibly failure in assessments. I've facilitated nurturing to develop resilience in learning in various ways: discussing the nature of ambiguity in dealing with the application of abstract concepts applied to their own discipline (A5); considering cultural, educational and linguistic differences that may lead to accidental malpractice and plagiarism, (Amsberry, 2009); understanding the role of formative and peer and self evaluation in assessment to increase awareness of the required standards (David and Macfarlane-Dick, 2006); engaging in feedback processes to include reflection in the consultation process (A6, log 11) and finding genuine ways to praise effort in learning both inside and outside the classroom.

My reflections on the use of technology in teaching and learning is the second area on which I'd like to focus. While I have strong convictions about the benefits of technology enhanced learning, it's an area in which I need to significantly upskill. However, an investment of training, time, patience and confidence is required and this presents a challenge for me, (A6, log 10). Participating as a part-time student on the PGCAP (A6 log 6) has convinced me of the benefits of students engaging in blended learning which is why I chose to use a flipped classroom approach in my observation practice (A3). By applying a pre-evaluation and post- evaluation into plan, I was able to see that students saw the process of flipped learning both highly engaging and valuable and this is therefore a method of teaching that I will incorporate again in my teaching practice in future.

Overall, the process of considering the value of using technology enhanced course design has helped me focus on which content and skills are best delivered online and learned independently to reduce unnecessary transmission teaching. From my own experience on this module, knowing that what I had gained from well-scaffolded independent learning tasks online would then need to be communicated and transformed (in some way) with peers in student-led activities face-to-face, forced me to take responsibility for my own learning. The output (group work in live sessions) was

extrinsically motivating and so has the potential to increase engagement and participation of all learners. This is particularly pertinent for international students who usually have high intrinsic motivation to study their discipline, but may have only extrinsic motivation to study it in English. The formative observation process helped me appreciate the importance of providing students with clear rationales when using blended learning, since their engagement cannot automatically be assumed and may depend on levels of individual autonomy. Therefore, increasing commitment and establishing expectations for independent learning is required; crucially students need to fully understand that their learning at home will form the backbone of the following live sessions. Careful scaffolding to enable all students to participate using the same quality input is also important, for example, internet sites and sources should be pre-selected by the tutor, (unless search and evaluation skills are learning outcomes). Necessitating students to learn *before* they enter the classroom fulfils pedagogical benefits by: allowing them to work at their own pace and to select new information at their level; providing space for critical thinking; reducing transmission teaching in the live session; increasing motivation and participation in the live session; facilitating peer learning and increasing a nurturing environment through the modelling of a community of practice.

The issues I face around the practical application of using technologies such as Padlet, Blackboard, live polling apps and so on to facilitate blended learning is something of a personal challenge which I need to address as this could hinder my professional development. As with all skills, I need to develop fluency in using technology in programme design and classroom delivery and achieving this will signify a threshold learning experience. In April I'm presenting at one of the largest industry related conferences in my field, so will need to have a more professional looking Power Point, (a comment made in my micro teach feedback, A1), and I will be attending various training sessions on Minerva, OneDrive and online feedback as well as setting time aside each week on my calendar to learn new skills using Youtube. I will commit to using a live voting app to get feedback at the post evaluation stage of an upcoming workshop.

The last area for consideration is the wider HE issue of internationalisation, which I think also impacts on issues around inclusivity. With 9000 international students and a teaching cohort from over 90 countries, (Leeds University, 2019) our campus represents a global environment, something deemed to be valuable as part of the Russell Group, and figures at UG levels are set to increase in line with University policy. However, Neves and Hillman (2018) report that home students across the UK do not attach a high value to internationalisation in education and that Chinese students in particular are significantly less satisfied with the quality of support in learning and teaching they receive when compared to White, Black, Asian and Mixed counterparts studying in UK Higher Education. This data is significant and indicates possible problems around inclusivity. What curriculum design, assessment,

lesson planning and linguistic considerations are in place to ease the increased cognitive load that learning in a second language unquestionably entails for international students? What can be done to increase cross-cultural accommodation skills much needed between home and international students to increase all the cohort's confidence dealing in global interactions in preparation for research and employment? Raising awareness of some of these issues was the focus of my micro teach and it was rewarding to receive positive comments on the relevance of this topic; I'm encouraged to find avenues to explore and possibly research these questions further.

At classroom practice level, as a result of my learning on the module, I'm now incorporating a number of examples from Hattie (2015) in my teaching practice to increase inclusivity and hence support internationalisation: I've enhance a diagnostic writing task to include a reflective element; I've put in place a reflective consultation feedback loop to engage learners meaningfully in formative feedback from tutors; I provide clear checklists based on criteria to help students gain understanding of the standard; I provide clear rationales and regularly evaluate the impact of my teaching, I include pre-evaluation stages to recap previous lessons, I encourage sharing of previous learning and I set challenging, but achievable collaborative tasks to increase motivation within the group. These are enhancements to procedures already much in place within the Language Centre. It's perhaps note worthy that The Leeds University PGT Programme Survey, 2018 (A8) reports that student satisfaction with teaching and learning on our pre-sessionals was very high and that sharing practice across Schools might therefore be beneficial.

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Papers

Fostering criticality through experiential and multimodal teaching: designing and delivering an immersive literature and intercultural communication programme

Milena Marinkova

School of Languages Cultures and Societies, University of Leeds

ABSTRACT

This paper is a reflection on the design and delivery of a brand-new intensive programme "Literature and Intercultural Communication" at the University of Leeds. Drawing on scholarly literature, as well as programme documentation, lesson materials and student feedback, the article identifies three elements that informed the design and delivery of the course. Firstly, the literary and cultural components of this highly integrated programme were selected with a view of dislodging received notions of identity, writing and culture. By inviting oppositional readings of the literary canon and refraining from prescriptive cultural perspectives, the syllabus aimed to foster an air of curiosity and an appreciation of difference. This criticality was further enhanced by the experiential nature of the programme, which is the second aspect of the programme the paper dwells on. Encouraging learners to incorporate prior learning into their experiences in and out of the classroom not only enhanced their engagement with new, and sometimes abstract, literary, cultural and linguistic content, but it also promoted the internalisation of content knowledge and the automatisation of subject-specific skills and procedures (or pluri-literacies), and provided students with opportunities for creative risk-taking in project assignments. The discussion concludes with a section on multimodality; foregrounding the multiple semiotic systems used in communication was not only a logically corollary to the experiential nature of the programme, but it also transformed the classroom into a more relevant, inclusive and agentive space.

KEYWORDS: literature and language learning, intercultural competence, experientiality, multimodality, critical EAP

INTRODUCTION

The article discusses a case study of a bespoke summer programme in Literature and Intercultural Communication, which was delivered for the first time at the University of Leeds Language Centre in summer 2018. An intensive 4-week programme, with 20 contact hours per week, the course was specifically designed for undergraduate students at a small Liberal Arts college in Hong Kong. As English is the medium of instruction at their home institution, all programme participants were competent users of English, with a language proficiency of IELTS 6.5 or higher. Twelve students joined the programme for its first iteration, with most having completed 3 years of the 4-year degree programme BA in Contemporary English Studies at their university. While not a credit-bearing module for the University of Leeds, the summer programme was an immersive component which students were required to complete in lieu of two credit-bearing modules at the partner institution.

The programme was received quite positively by the participating students and partner institution. In what follows next, I reflect on the principles that guided the design and delivery of this course, i.e., criticality, experientiality and multimodality. In addition to drawing on relevant scholarly literature, the paper also makes use of programme documentation, lesson materials, student work, and the results of informal and formal student feedback carried out at the start, halfway and upon completion of the programme. With this I am hoping to contribute to the sharing of good practice in the field of content-based EAP provision, but also to ongoing conversations around experiential, multimodal and integrated pedagogies.

CRITICALITY AND SITUATED DEFAMILIARISATION

The programme design was academic literacy oriented (Lea and Street, 2006), responding to the University of Leeds' institutional transition from a 'bolt-on' approach to academic skills teaching (Bennett *et al.*, 2000) to a more embedded one (Cottrell, 2001). It was also aligned with the Language Centre's strategy of content-based EAP provision (Bond and Whong, 2017) so that language teaching was delivered within a meaningful, discipline-specific context (Hyland, 2002) and within a discursive framework that facilitated students' engagement and promoted inclusivity (Wingate, 2015). As scholars have argued, however, further to a skills-integrated and discipline-focused teaching provision it is vital that students are guided to develop a skillset 'to negotiate and critically engage with the numerous texts, modalities, and technologies' which they are likely to face at some point in their life (Morgan and Ramanathan, 2005, p.152). In this sense, when designing the syllabus, I aimed

to respond to calls for a more critical engagement with familiar certainties and conventional forms of knowledge along the lines of what Sarah Benesch (2009) calls 'critical EAP' (CEAP).

Criticality, however, transcends the written and spoken verbal domains:

> To be critical is to call up for scrutiny, whether through embodied action or discourse practice, the rules of exchange within a social field. To do so requires an analytic move to self-position oneself as Other even in a market or field that might not necessarily construe or structurally position one as Other (Luke, 2004, p.26)

As Allan Luke's comment highlights being critical involves sidestepping the old certainties and comfort zones of the self, resulting in a kind of defamiliarisation. This process of self-othering presupposes a notion of identity which is less uniform and rigid, inviting participants – both learners and tutors – to reconsider their existing understanding of who they are and how they relate to the world (Morgan and Ramanathan, 2005). This is not necessarily about forgetting one's roots or unquestioningly embracing dominant identity positions but rather about critical 'deterritorialisation' of the learning and teaching process (Deleuze and Guattari, 1972).

One way in which I hoped to achieve the decentring of the various subject positions in the classroom was by designing a syllabus which was multifocal, as well as integrated. With a three-pronged approach to the development of learners' literary expertise, intercultural competence and linguistic proficiency, I aimed to meet not only the specific content requirements of the partner institution, but also address the learners' existing knowledge, future aspiration and personal interests. Although they were working towards a BA in Contemporary English Studies, students had completed different electives at their home institution and as a result there was some variation in their subject-specific expertise, e.g. some had more extensive knowledge of linguistics whereas others had completed primarily literature and culture modules. To address this differential, I opted for a wide range of core readings – from 19th century novels and modernist essays to song lyrics and websites – which provided sufficient content for literary analysis and language development (*Figure 1*).

Topic	Fieldtrips + Cultural texts	Context discussions	Language / skills development	Project work
Yorkshire in 12 'objects'	- visit Leeds City Museum and Discovery Centre - Frances Hodgson Burnet, *The Secret Garden* - Tony Harrison, 'Them and [uz]'	Writing history: - Judith Butler and Sunaura Taylor, Examined *Life* - Rebecca Solnit, 'The Solitary Stroller and the City'	Using language to **describe**: - symbols and metaphors - relative and participle clauses - the phonemic chart - vocabulary-building – semantic fields (sensations)	A **class wiki** about 'found' objects of Yorkshire
Places that make us	- day trip to Haworth - visit to *Treasures of the Brotherton* - Emily Brontë, *Wuthering Heights* - Virginia Woolf, 'Haworth, November 1904' - Sylvia Plath, 'Two views of Top Withins'	Writing places: - Tony Robinson, *Walking through History: Brontë Country*	Using language to **narrate**: - plotting and characterisation - showing point of view – filter words - interjections and rhetorical questions - vocabulary-building – collocations (emotions)	An **individual blog** response to Virginia Woolf, 'Dear Ms Woolf'
The fiction makes us real	- day trip to Whitby - *Bram Stoker's Dracula* (Coppola, 1992) - *Van Helsing* (Sommers, 2004)	Producing places: - Tuomas Huovi, 'Dracula Tourism as Pilgrimage?' - Duncan Light 'The Undead and Dark Tourism' - Dark Tourism - http://www.dark-tourism.com/	Using language to **persuade**: - discourse and attitude markers for expressing opinion - giving advice and recommendation - showing excess – degree adverbs and hyperbole	A **team screencast** for an on-site project 'Dracula lives'
Writing as a work in progress	- day trip to Beverley - Black History walk - Caryl Phillips, *The Lost Child* - Emily Brontë, *Wuthering Heights*	Changing / rewriting places: - Caryl Phillips, 'A Little Luggage'	Using language to **create**: - style, register and idioms - adjective and noun endings - word formation	**Individual presentation** of a creative piece

Figure 1: Programme overview

In addition to enhanced engagement, the generic variety allowed for instances of 'critical reading' (Wallace, 2003, pp.25-26) and 'juxtaposition' of texts (Morgan and Ramanathan, 2005, p.157) to take place, which ultimately work against the 'methodological nationalism' (Wimmer and Schiller, 2003, p.301) that inevitably underpins a British literature and culture course. Instead of constructing literature as bound by the geopolitical borders of the nation and imaginatively constrained by a uniform image of national identity, the syllabus foregrounded the diversity within British culture, and the ongoing flows and exchanges with others. Thus, one of the readings for Week 1, which aimed to introduce learners to their new context, i.e., Frances Hodgson Burnett's *The Secret Garden,* offered one set of images of Yorkshire – of lavish estates, expansive moors and luscious rose gardens. Texts discussed subsequently, however, such as Tony Harrison's poem 'Them and [uz]' and Caryl Phillips' novel *The Lost Child,* exposed students to landscapes and soundscapes inflected by class, gender and ethnicity, and in this way challenged received notions of national identity and cultural production as uniform and fixed. Discussions of how differently gendered, classed, racialised and bodied subjects are represented in these texts invited students to investigate the complexity of cultural practice, well beyond the simplistic us/them (British/non-British) dichotomy. Moreover, the inclusion of texts that reference Britain's imperial past (in *The Secret Garden*) and postcolonial legacy (in *The Lost Child*) encouraged learners to consider flows within and between cultures, i.e., the 'cultural interface' (Holliday, 2012, p.47), that challenge the understanding of culture as a sealed-off and impregnable entity.

Further to text selection which aimed to de-centre normative notions of cultural identity and literary canon, the syllabus and course assignments drove the process of learners' critical defamiliarisation. The syllabus was 'theme-based' (Brinton *et al.*, 2003, p.14), with the topics providing an overarching intellectual coherence and focus. Given the location of Leeds University, the immersive nature of the programme and students' physical presence in Yorkshire, it was appropriate for the thematic clusters to foreground the link between writing and place (*Figure 1*). However, instead of reinforcing any received notions of identity and place, the weekly themes and discovery project assignments encouraged students to deploy the optic of 'making strange' to their readings of the cultural sites and texts (Wallace, 2003, p.75). They did this by investigating critically the diversity of identities within the target culture and their manifestations in a variety of cultural practices. However, students were also expected to gain critical distance and consider their own identity construction and its interactions with place and cultural praxis, and in the process revise prior assumptions. The topic for Week 1, 'Yorkshire in 12 objects', for example, encouraged them to 'notice' different features of the physical and cultural landscape in which learners found themselves, comparing these new realities to contexts they were already familiar with. Despite the discovery nature of course tasks, students tended to reproduce well-established ideas of what Britain is and what it means to be British usually contrasting with their home culture and experiences elsewhere. Thus, in the project assignment that week – a class wiki about 'found' objects that represent Yorkshire – they tended to assume a reporting stance with minimal elements of critical reflection. Entries would provide an arguably objective account of a symbolic object, e.g., the Yorkshire rose, Leeds Grand or Burmantofts pottery, in addition to registering an element of surprise at a novel phenomenon or contrasting it to a cultural reality in the home context.

In the following week, the topic 'Places that make us' aimed to build up on this descriptive stage and enhance students' critical awareness of the impact of place on identity construction. Through the use of four different texts (a novel, an essay, a poem and a TV programme) that examined the varying impact Haworth and the moors have had on four different authors (Emily Brontë, Virginia Woolf, Sylvia Plath and Tony Robinson), and then comparing these to the learners' own experience of the same sites, this thematic unit explored the mutually constitutive relationship between self and place. The mini-project that week – a personal blog about the class trip to Haworth – showed the students' growing ability to consider alternative ways of reading the same landscape, which came from their attempt to relate to an other, in this case Virginia Woolf and her depiction of a 1904 visit to the Parsonage. Learners, however, were not expected to take part in a seamless cultural assimilation. Rather, the diverse vantage points and experiences of the same site aimed to heighten the

participants' awareness of their situatedness: much as Bala Kumaravadivelu (2007) argues, they are not 'dangling in cultural limbo …. [but] [they] … live in several cultural domains at the same time – jumping in and out of them, sometimes with ease and sometimes with unease' (p.5). Instead of merely listing differences between home and target culture, or between own experiences and those of a 'native informant' such as Woolf, and thus assuming the position of an external observer as they tended to do in the Week 1 project assignment, or uncritically identify with the British 'I', learners allowed themselves to be moved by the immersive experience and responded with a degree of empathy and criticality to Woolf's essay about her visit to Haworth. In their individual blog writing back to Woolf and her lament about the shabbiness of the village, for example, one student dwelt on the preservation of history through the musealisation of the high street in Haworth, whereas another contemplated the architectural design of historical buildings, hinting at her ambivalence about the advance of modernity. In the process, both reminisced about the assumptions with which they arrived with, took stock of the spatial and temporal distances between their experience and that of others, and contemplated the internal diversity within cultures as well as the ability of cultural meanings and their imaginative power to cross national borders.

EXPERIENTIALITY AND CREATIVE UNLEARNING

Fieldwork was crucial to the development of this critical consciousness, insofar as visits to relevant sites and interactions beyond the classroom provided learners with alternative experiences to those available in the institutionally sanctioned literature or formal classroom activities, thus facilitating the pluralisation of interpretative frameworks. As scholars have observed, experiential learning is not only based on lived experience and is therefore holistic (Beard and Wilson, 2002; Moon, 2005), but is also oriented towards developing learners' critical insight and reflexivity (Fenwick, 2000; Usher and Solomon, 1999). Its practical nature immerses students in authentic situations, and helps improve their linguistic fluency, autonomy and a range of cognitive and meta-cognitive skills. And yet, somewhat paradoxically, what I found particularly empowering about the experiential learning on this programme was the sense of critical vulnerability that it engendered. The sense of vulnerability I am referring to stemmed from the 'kinaesthetic-directed instructional' settings (Fenwick, 2000) and ontological uncertainty that inevitably come with experientiality: be it fieldtrips to new locations, *ad hoc* guest speakers, or role plays on unfamiliar topics, experiential components are likely to be lived and interpreted with a significant degree of variability by different actors/learners, which may not always sit comfortably with their prior experiences and assumptions. This 'unstitching' (Brew, 2000, p. 87) of established schemata might be alarming but is not necessarily destructive; neither does it have to be a process of wilful amnesia or romantic nostalgia about the loss of received wisdom. On

the contrary; as Angela Brew (2000) elaborates in her sartorial metaphor below, the process of unlearning can have a transformative potential and ultimately stimulate learners' creativity: it is 'like unravelling the whole and knitting it all up again […] Unlearning means that what we know changes our world view, or an aspect of it, and we cannot reconstitute it in its original form.' (p.88) And while educators have commented on the slipperiness of experience as a potential challenge – to learners who might be resistant to student-centred learning or to tutors who adopt modes of assessment that focus on output rather than process (Moon, 2005; Qualters, 2000) – I consider it vital for the unlearning, or at least questioning, of established notions, the development of criticality and stimulation of creativity.

Experientiality therefore became a core principle that informed the course activities, materials and assignments on the summer programme. The aim was to encourage learners to appreciate being physically present in the UK while examining a range of British cultural texts and the function of the language deployed to express the relationship between place and writing. To ensure maximum engagement, there was a mix of classroom- and field- based activities, the latter proving to be extremely popular methods of teaching and learning. In the course of the four weeks, learners took part in fieldwork in Haworth, Whitby and Beverley, and a number of locations around Leeds. These, however, were not a mere add-on to formal class instruction (i.e., part of the social calendar); fieldtrips were integrated into the teaching materials and project assignments. The trips to Haworth and Whitby, for example, informed discussions of *Wuthering Heights* and *Dracula,* respectively. While on site, learners were expected to record impressions, collect artefacts and 'found' objects, and interact with external speakers and members of the general public. The experiential approach was further enhanced by the homestay arrangements and extracurricular activities available to students on the programme. Staying with a local family for a month enabled learners to obtain first-hand experience of cultural phenomena discussed in class, interact spontaneously in authentic situations, and develop analytical skills through critical observation and discussion. Participants were also encouraged to make the most of other opportunities to enhance their understanding of the target culture and language by getting involved in specially arranged social activities: lunchtime talks, film nights and Language Centre events (e.g., Book Chat). These were facilitated by a Leeds graduate working as a social assistant, who provided variety to the teaching and created further informal learning opportunities. In lessons students were invited to draw on these experiences, comparing to and evaluating against other home and academic contexts, which tapped into the affective aspect of learning and raised awareness of the relevance of education to life outside the classroom (Vermunt, 1996).

In terms of class materials, given the learners' relatively limited familiarity with Yorkshire, I designed cultural awareness sessions which either introduced a site to be visited or drew on has been discovered during a fieldtrip. For example, the lesson on Brontë Country (*Figure 2*) provided some basic information about a location to be visited, whilst also preparing the learners for an upcoming trip to the University Library archive collection. In this sense, even though the lesson activities were classroom-based, the subject matter – a walk through Brontë Country shown in a TV documentary – was experiential and prepared the learners contextually, thematically and even methodologically for the upcoming fieldwork. At the same time, the embedding of experiential learning into formalised classroom activities and its inclusion into teaching materials as a discipline-specific methodological tool also exposed the 'constructed' nature of experience (Milner, 1987) – after all experience is shaped by the cultural milieu – and alerted students against purely sentimental interpretations of their somatic and emotional landscapes.

LITERATURE AND INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION					
Week	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
Week 2 (11th-15th June) **Places that make us: Dear Ms. Woolf**	Writing landscape: The Bronte Country - Tony Robinson, "Bronte Country", *Walking through History* (Channel 4) https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=oSEHfCM5Lfg Exploring the creative writing process: -- The Tony Harrison archive and the Bronte Family Collection at the University of Leeds Special Collections	Experiencing place: Trip to Haworth and the Bronte Parsonage Museum (guided walk + context talk)	Writing place: - excerpts from Emily Bronte's *Wuthering Heights* - "Haworth, November 1904" by Virginia Woolf - story, plot and genre - place as setting, character and mood Using language to tell stories: - point of view and filter words - narration and emotional response (rhetorical questions and interjections)	Writing emotion: - Kate Bush, *Wuthering Heights* - excerpts from Emily Bronte's *Wuthering Heights* - "Two Views of Top Withins" by Sylvia Plath - pathetic fallacy Using language to tell stories: - vocabulary-building - collocations and concordances (language of emotions)	Guided project work – individual blog project A personal blog response to Woolf's article about Haworth

 Figure 2: Week 2 syllabus

The integrated nature of the lesson itself – as seen in the jigsaw listening activity in *Appendix I* – offered learners a multitude of learning opportunities: to increase their subject-specific expertise (the cultural and historical background of the Brontës), hone discipline-specific skills (different approaches to analysing literary texts – archival, close reading, experiential), work on language development (e.g., listening, grammar and vocabulary to do with description) and engage in higher order cognitive and meta-cognitive skills (e.g., reflect on the role of experience in literary analysis and learning). Experientiality was therefore fundamental to all lesson objectives – content, language and skills – which lent intellectual and methodological coherence to the teaching over the entire week.

Whereas the integrated nature of the teaching materials presented learners with one approach to the 'stitching' or coming together of different aspects of experience, the scaffolding of the lesson tasks enabled the process of 'unlearning' to unfold. In the post-fieldtrip cultural awareness session on tourism and Whitby, for example (*Appendix II*), I deployed Edward de Bono's 'thinking hats' activity (1985) to direct students' critical engagement with two academic texts on dark/Dracula tourism and thus facilitate and deepen the analysis of their first-hand experience of Whitby. The open questions in this task allowed learners to draw on new and not so new experiences from a variety of cultural contexts. Students considered what they had assumed a Gothic environment might look based on (Western) readings and adaptations of *Dracula;* then they contemplated these assumptions against their direct impressions on the day of our trip to Whitby – the idyllic views over the sun-drenched town, the touristy feel around the busy harbour and the majestic if somewhat sinister abbey grounds; and finally, learners re-appraised their experiences of literary/media and dark tourist sites elsewhere (e.g., Ground Zero in New York, US; or 'cliff villages' in Liangshan, China). In this way their prior learning was incorporated into the lesson whilst also being placed under critical scrutiny. The seminar-style discussion left room for student self-management and peer-learning to take place, with the tutor acting as a facilitator and withholding any excessive judgement. There was a safe space for learners to explore and work through the experiential and critical discoveries made before, during and after the fieldtrip. The focus of the task therefore was not so much on the language output or ability to express subject-specific knowledge, but rather on the process – of discovery, analysis and learning.

It was through the project assignments on the summer programme, though, that the creative aspects of unlearning became most evident. The benefits of project-based language teaching (PBLT) and its suitability for exploratory student-centred teaching, integrated language and content instruction, provision of meaningful context and authentic language, and the socialisation of students into the target culture have been highlighted in the academic literature (Beckett and Miller, 2006; Beckett and Slater, 2005; Hedge, 1993; Stoller, 1997). Thus, when designing the course assessment, I made sure that each week's topic was linked to an inquiry-based VLE-hosted mini-project: a class-wiki about 'found' objects that represent or symbolise Yorkshire in Week 1; an individual blog entry addressed to Virginia Woolf about the class trip to Haworth in Week 2; a team screencast for a Dracula-themed event set on the grounds of Whitby Abbey in Week 3; and an individual presentation on own creative work (in any medium) responding to any issue on the course in Week 4. Learners were expected to make use of the content, language, fieldtrip discoveries and academic skills

covered that week, with the difficulty level gradually progressing from descriptive accounts to creative outputs. To a degree, the knowledge and skills to be demonstrated in each project were prescribed; learners were given clear instructions what cultural texts and language functions should be made use of, making sure that only a limited amount of high-frequency language encountered in the course materials was targeted (Levis and Levis, 2003). Nonetheless, there was plenty of room for learners to shape further the content and form of their assignment. For instance, one of the screencasts for a Dracula-themed play made creative use of the multiple cultural resources available to the students: they presented an East/West amalgam of Gothic characters and romantic plots, unfolding on an atmospheric, and fully accessible, amphitheatrical stage on the grounds of the historical Whitby Abbey. While references to the Gothic in the characterisation and setting of the play, and episodes from Bram Stoker's *Dracula* in its plotting demonstrated students' understanding of the source text and a range of literary genres and devices, the incorporation of crosscultural elements (e.g., vampires vs. jiangshis), clever 'remixing' (Hafner, 2015; cf. Lessig, 2008) of existing cultural texts, awareness of diverse audiences (e.g., provisions for wheelchair users in the stage design) showed their ability to adapt literary, cultural and communicative competence in order to generate new and unexpected meanings (Hafner, 2015). As all projects were formative, students felt safe to experiment and re-discover what Roland Barthes calls 'the pleasure of the text' (1975), so often reduced to a purely assessment-driven exercise.

Despite the historically mixed reception of project work by language learners because of limited teacher input and unstructured language work, increased workload and autonomy, and insufficient IT support (Beckett, 2002; Beckett and Slater, 2005; Fried-Booth, 1982; Hafner and Miller, 2011; Moulton and Holmes, 2000), formal and informal student feedback on the summer programme at Leeds was largely positive. At the start, an informal Padlet-hosted survey releveled that only 12% of the learners had any enthusiasm for the upcoming fieldtrips, which could be explained to a degree with lack of familiarity with and exposure to this mode of delivery. This percentage rose to 36% at the halfway point and 83% in the final survey, with 50% of the students suggesting more trips to be added to the programme.
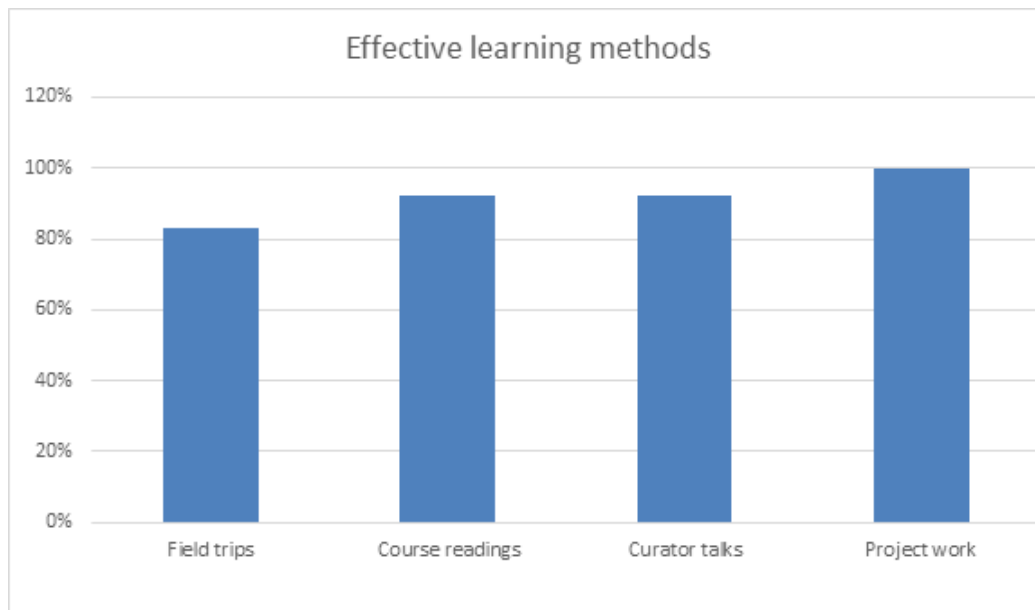
Figure 3: Student feedback on effective teaching and learning (end-of-course survey)

As can be seen in the summary of respondents' evaluation of the learning methods on the programme from the formal end-of-course survey (*Figure 3*), 83% saw fieldwork as an effective method of teaching and learning; interestingly, and somewhat unexpectedly, other experiential components, such as curator talks with object-handling workshops and independent project work, scored even higher in terms of their perceived effectiveness for learners: 90% and 100%, respectively. The analysis of the quantitative data further showed that learners did not consider the development of non-linguistic expertise – in literature, culture or transferable skills – as an obstacle to their language learning (*Figure 4*) (cf., Beckett and Slater, 2005; Moulton and Holmes, 2000).
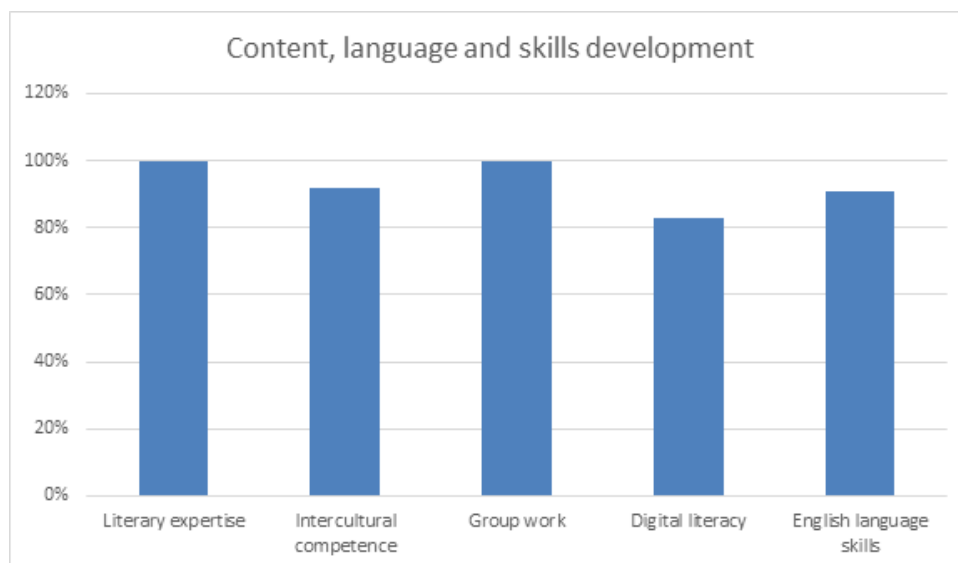

Figure 4: Student perception of own knowledge and skills development (end-of-course survey)

MULTIMODALITY AND LEARNER AUTONOMY

Whilst considering the multiplicity of subject positions and cognitive vantage points is constitutive of one form of criticality, as Morgan and Ramanathan (2005) point out the development of learners' pluri-literacies in shaping a range of modalities and technologies beyond the purely textual engenders another. Such emphasis on the multimodal nature of meaning-making challenges the prioritisation of the verbal, foregrounding the role of a range of communicative modes and resources – be it visual, aural, tactile, spatial or proprioceptive, written, spoken or digital (Early *et al.*, 2015; Kress, 2010; van Leeuwen, 2004). Deploying multimodality in teaching has been recognised as having a positive impact on literacy, both in first and second language classroom settings. On the one hand, multimodal teaching draws on the pluri-lingual repertoires that learners make use of in their everyday communication. As I have argued elsewhere, this approach can enhance their engagement, facilitate the comprehension of unfamiliar concepts and diversify reading practices (Marinkova, 2009). Interspersing focus on the verbal with an intimate exploration of the visual and tactile aspects of a text engages learners in a more holistic fashion; their attention is redirected from interpreting the content/meaning of language to tracing the shapes, sounds and textures on the page and their perlocutionary effect on audiences' bodies, thoughts and emotions (Austin, 1975). In this sense, even though a wider range of semiotic domains are examined, learners are encouraged to look again at language and rediscover its dynamic nature and its power to affect (Stille and Prasad, 2015). On the other hand, multimodality in language learning is fundamental to the cultural diversity and ideological pluralism that the contemporary language classroom aims to foster, constructing learners as agents and recognising the value of a wider range of cultural practices. Encouraging students not only to unravel but also to create multimodal works enables them to 'change the script' of how knowledge is produced and communicated (Stille and Prasad, 2015, p.612), and positions them as partners in the teaching and learning process. Pedagogic practices as a result are pluralised in order to address and support the range of communicative competences and levels of learning autonomy in the classroom (Newfield and D'Abdon, 2015).

A fundamental feature of the methodology on the summer programme was the focus on the learner; teaching was not only a way of enhancing learners' understanding of a field of inquiry and the application of a set of disciplinary practices, but also an opportunity to stimulate curiosity and build a 'community of practice' (Lave and Wenger, 1991), in which students are not passive recipients but active partners. I aimed to achieve this by making the most of 'the social affordances of technologies' (Conole *et al.,* 2008, p.521): elements of blended learning in the delivery of teaching and assessments addressed not only learners' different learning styles and 'new literacies' (Gee, 2008),

but were also in formats that were more relevant and inclusive. Thus, all sessions were supported by a range of ICT such as PowerPoint, video and sound recordings (*see Appendix I*) and accessible via the university's VLE. In addition, all project assignments involved digital input from the learners either in the creation of the work (e.g., producing blogs) or in the sharing of the output (e.g., recordings of presentations via the VLE). The student-generated content raised awareness of the benefits of multimodal and 'rhizomatic' learning (Cormier, 2008) that goes beyond the confines of verbal signification and formal education. And so did the feedback (*Figure 5*); while learners considered the textual and experiential input they had received on the programme, as well as the verbal and visual layout of their creative assignments, I also made sure that my feedback engages their multiple literacies. In the case of the individual blogs, I used short discursive feedback to address the content and colour-coding to highlight recurrent language issues. The visual impact of the different colours was likely to draw students' attention in a piece of work that was highly visual itself, and without engaging in any explicit error correction.

Figure 5: Multimodal student-generated content and tutor feedback

While the learning communities that this programme ended up building were largely 'informal' (Hafner and Miller, 2011), with learners being involved in group work or providing peer feedback, it transformed the learning process into an evolving partnership between tutor and students. This was enabled by the interactive nature of the course materials and the extensive use of 'multimodal compositions' (Hafner, 2015, p.487). Thus, in the final project assignment, learners were expected to put together a creative piece (in any format or medium) which addressed an issue covered on the programme, and then talk about it in an individual presentation. The range of creative output was impressive: from poems and rapping, through mini-guides and posters, to dance and paper folding, participants mobilised their multimodal repertoires that reflected personal interests, cultural routes and academic competences (in literature, culture and language) and shared knowledge that had been garnered independently and was beyond the classroom materials. And even though some output was less reliant on linguistic resources, it was personally meaningful, stimulated the learners' imagination, and fostered their autonomy. For instance, an origami representation of a student's host family's history of migration from Kenya and India to the UK had minimum language input, the emphasis being on colours, layout, textures and key words. And yet, the multimodal artefact she had created and the decisions she had made in the process raised interesting questions about artistic representations of the past: Do they have to be chronological? Are they always linear? What takes up centre-stage? How culturally specific do they have to be? At the same time, in her oral presentation the learner unpacked her creative decisions, and engaged in discussion with her peers. Both outputs showed the extent to which learners were willing to take risks creating output, often in genres they were not that familiar with, and ability to produce knowledge that exceeded the parameters of the lesson and relied on peer (rather tutor) input. Analysis of the qualitative data of the end-of-course survey completed by programme participants shows their appreciation of and even need for more peer learning opportunities. Commenting on the degree to which the summer programme helped them develop their language proficiency, one student elaborated that this was due to '*Interacting with the class and teacher and also other students'.* Another pointed out that '*talking to the teaching assistant'* [sic – social assistant] helped them get involved in life outside the classroom. As a matter of fact, more peer learning opportunities with local and other international students were mentioned as the main recommendation for the further improvement of the programme.

MOVING FORWARD

While the overall student response to the programme has been positive, especially in terms of experiential learning and multimodal project assignments, aspects such as socialisation with peers and engagement with non-compulsory learning activities that could be improved. Increasing the

social affordances of the summer programme is likely to raise learners' awareness and appreciation of the complexity and diversity within the cultural contexts in which they find themselves, and as a result reinforcing the critical edge of their learning experience. One way in which this could be achieved, especially if the group remains closed, is through the formalisation of active research outside the classroom and asking learners to incorporate interviews with locals or Leeds university students into their project assignments (Parks, 2000). Such an approach is likely to create additional opportunities for incidental and peer learning, as well as enhancing the critical self-othering and creative un-learning discussed earlier. In addition, enabling learners to take ownership of some or all forms of incidental learning could enhance their engagement but also enable them to build their own extended (or alternative) community of practice. Thus, rather than the institution or tutor taking the lead in organising extracurricular learning activities, learners could assume the responsibility for the planning, publicity and running of events that serve the needs of the larger student body. Incorporating such elements of service-learning into the programme is likely to develop a host of language, transferable and intercultural skills (most importantly improve the socialisation of the participants into the host institution and target culture), but also enhance students' sense of agency and communal responsibility (Heuser, 1999; Morento-Lopez *et al.,* 2017*)*. Learning can in this way become a much more holistic experience in which learners define and drive the agenda, but are also equally prepared to learn from and share what they have learnt with their peers and society at large.

Address for correspondence: m.d.marinkova@leeds.ac.uk

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Writing Landscape: Brontë Country

Task 2. Listening

You will watch a TV programme 'Walking through History' in which the presenter Tony Robinson visits Brontë Country.

a. Complete the table below with information from the video. If there is an N/A, leave blank:

Location / place	Expressions used to describe it	Link to Brontë family	Object / sights explored by presenter
Thornton	small country village	Patrick Brontë worked as a curate there. The birthplace of the Brontë siblings	plaque on the wall of the house where they were born fireplace in the house they were born (now literary cafe)
…	… … without trees … …	…	… toy soldiers in the Parsonage … … …
Haworth moor	dark moors … spectacular … harsh and powerful … rapidly expanding quagmire	Setting for Brontës' novels The Brontës used to go there to compose their stories.	Sarah Gars' diary … … … Charlotte's letter …
Top Withens	… lonely ruin … … …	…	A picture of the 1872 edition of *Wuthering Heights*, showing the three farms: Top, Middle and Near Withens

	an island of poor quality grass in a sea of heather ...		
Alcomden Stones	... ... untamed and mythical realm ... ... 'soft wind breathing through the grass' 'quiet earth'	Setting for Emily Brontë's *Wuthering Heights* Edgar, Catherine and Heathcliff's final resting place.	...

b. Discuss the following questions in groups:

1. How important are the objects / texts that Tony Robinson brings with him on his walk? Do they change his experience of the walk? Do they help him understand the Brontës better? Why (not)?

2. What objects / texts would you like to bring with you to our visit to the Parsonage tomorrow? Is there a particular aspect of the Brontës' life or work that you would like to learn more about?

APPENDIX II: LESSON MATERIALS

Producing places: Whitby and tourism

Task 3. Dracula tourism: Critical analysis of Huovi (2010) and Light (2017)

a. 'Thinking hats' activity:
1. Each of you will be assigned a different colour 'thinking hat' and a set of questions.
- **White hats: Facts**
i. What facts about Dracula tourism are mentioned in the articles?
ii. What definitions have been provided in these articles?
iii. What examples and data can you find in the articles?
iv. Is there information that is missing?
v. What further information do we need?

- **Green hats: Context**
i. What real-life examples of Dracula / dark tourism are you personally aware of? Provide some details.

ii.   Have you participated in any form of Dracula/dark tourism? What was your emotional reaction to it?

iii. Would you do it again? Why (not)?

iv.   Would you consider Whitby as participating in Dracula tourism? Why (not)? Provide reasons and examples for your point.

- **Yellow hats: Positives**

i.   What are the benefits/potential opportunities of Dracula tourism?

ii.   Who are the main beneficiaries?

iii. What have the tourist industry and authorities done to make the most of these benefits?

iv.   Provide reasons for your points.

- **Black hats: Negatives**

i.   What are the disadvantages/risks associated with Dracula tourism?

ii.   Who do they affect the most?

iii. What have the tourist industry and authorities done to ameliorate the negative impact?

iv.   Provide reasons for your points.

2. Working together with students who have the same colour 'thinking hat' as you, re-read the articles by Huovi (2010) and Light (2017) and address the questions above.

b. Change groups and sit together with different colour 'thinking hats'. Discuss the questions below, making sure you refer to information you have discussed from the perspective of your 'thinking hat'.

1. What is 'Dracula tourism'?

2. How does Dracula tourism differ from 'Gothic tourism' and 'fright tourism'? Provide some examples of each kind of tourism; you can refer to places from anywhere in the world.

3. What instances of Dracula tourism did you observe in Whitby? Did you participate in any of the activities / experiences? Would you recommend any? Why (not)?

4. Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of Dracula/dark tourism and its impact (economic, social, political) on places such as Whitby and Transylvania.

Setting Up A New Medical French Course at Masaryk University, Brno

Ladislav Václavík

Language Centre, Masaryk University, Brno

ABSTRACT

Thanks to one of the initiatives at Masaryk University, a project concerning the conception and realisation of a brand-new medical French course could be started in September 2016. This article is an attempt at a description of the course design procedure. The pre-course context is also outlined, as it played an essential role in the subsequent work on the curriculum design. The article is divided into three main parts, following the planning, implementation and evaluation stages of the traditional curriculum-design process. It provides some theoretical background concerning the curriculum design of language courses in general, covering specific problems connected to the areas of content conceptualisation, the definition of goals and objectives, as well as the construction of an assessment framework in the course of language for specific purposes. In the planning stage, special attention is paid to the issues of needs analysis. The second part of the article treats the (re)evaluation and the adaptation of the course based on the teacher's self-analysis and the students' feedback obtained through the entry and end-of-course questionnaires. The question of students as course co-creators is approached. Finally, future perspectives on teaching medical French at Masaryk University are briefly outlined.

KEYWORDS: curriculum design, needs analysis, ESP, medical French

PROJECT BACKGROUND

One of the most important strategic objectives, as stated in Masaryk University vision statement[2], has been to introduce foreign languages as an essential part of studies in all study types and stages (Strategic plan 2016). Importantly, the university aims to 'expand the number of foreign languages on offer' (Strategic plan 2016). As an encouragement for these strategic objectives, a funding programme was launched in 2014 under the name of Masaryk University Development Fund (FRMU), which is an internal university tender aimed at improving and enlarging the spectrum of study programmes and seminars offered by the institution. In 2016, a bid was submitted for a project

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[2] https://www.muni.cz/media/3062393/strategic_plan_mu_2016-2020_en.pdf

whose aim was to launch a new medical French course at the Language Centre of Masaryk University. This article is then a case study depicting the elaboration of the project, namely the construction of the curriculum design in three main stages as defined by Graves (2008): planning, implementation and adaptation based on teacher's self-analysis and, importantly, students' pre-course and end-of-course evaluation whereby learners – becoming co-creators of the course contents – could exploit the possibilities of self-directed, autonomous learning. Last, but not least, future perspectives of teaching medical French at the Masaryk University are briefly outlined.

DESIGNING THE COURSE

Curriculum and syllabus

The course design literature makes a distinction between curriculum and syllabus, which might be useful to recall here. Curriculum, the more generic of both terms put forward by Graves (2000), encompasses the processes of planning, teaching, and evaluating a course of study, whereas syllabus denotes a more concrete plan of what is to be learned in a particular course. Hall and Hewings (2001) emphasise the coherence and specific purpose inherent in the curriculum design. Coherence was already vital for Johnson (1989) who stresses the need for a coherent approach to language curriculum development, the consistency and interdependence of the three building blocks, namely planning, implementation and evaluation. Despite the call for coherence, it has been noted that curriculum – never neutral[3] in itself (Jackson, 1992) – is a complex, dynamic and adaptable system prone to further modifications (cf. Larsen-Freeman and Freeman, 2008).

In its broad sense, the syllabus can be defined as a specification of content and order in which it will be taught (Nunan, 1988). In the narrow sense, syllabus denotes a specific conceptualisation of language and of ways it can be learned, which then leads to material selection and preparation for a particular classroom (Nunan, 1988). Thus, two types of syllabi are distinguished: grammatical, which focuses on language forms, and notional/functional, which aims at pragmatic language use in specific situations or situation types. Other definitions exist (Reddy, 1978; Breen, 1987a, 1987b), however, as Graves has it (2008), we seem to have entered a post-syllabus phase, where, due to the complexity of learning languages, no approach can respond fully to learners' needs.

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[3] Curriculum is never neutral, as it reflects somebody's attitudes and reasoning about education, be it the teacher, planner or an institution (Jackson, 1992).

PLANNING

There has been a shift in the conception of the three stages inherent in curriculum design. In the traditional triad of planning/implementation/evaluation, the middle term has undergone substantial modifications. The reason for this conceptual change seems to be the discrepancy between the syllabus and its subsequent classroom realisation(s) (Breen, 1987; Jackson, 1992) Implementation was replaced with the concept of enactment, which puts forward the idea that implementing a curriculum is based on educational experiences jointly created by students and teachers in the classroom (Snyder et al., 1992). Syllabus and materials should function as tools that teachers and students use to construct the enacted experience of the classroom (ibid.). Indeed, classrooms have traditionally been structured around a conception of learning as the acquisition of knowledge rather than participation in knowledge making (Sfard, 1998). Consequently, the emphasis placed on student passivity has led to disempowering constraints placed on teacher-agency and learner-agency (van Lier, 2007). Under these conditions, classrooms tend to lose connection to life outside (Matus and McCarthy, 2003). All this leads to a redefinition of classrooms as a curricular space (Graves, 2008).

The designer's task of planning a course is undoubtedly not a simple one, as it precedes – and affects considerably – the important middle stage in the course design triad. One of the most critical parts of the planning process is the consideration of the context. This term, essential for needs analysis literature, is crucial in the globality of its impact on the whole course design. In her later work, Graves (2008) makes a useful distinction between two types of contexts based on the accessibility of the target language to L2 learners. The target-language-embedded context corresponds to English-as-a-second-language (ESL) settings: learners learn the language of the host country. Course design studies typically describe foreign employees in need of an English vocational training (e.g. Edwards, 2000; Wozniak, 2010), be it in a medical or business context. In the target-language-removed context, on the other hand, the second language is considered merely a subject matter rather than a tool for real-life experience (Larsen-Freeman and Freeman, 2008). Students typically lack direct access to the target language and target language milieu, the only place and opportunity to practice L2 being the classroom. The purposes of learning in such cases, as Larsen-Freeman and Freeman (2008) suggest, are to communicate, to improve one's economic prospects, to expand one's horizons, or to be a global citizen. Importantly, the usefulness of learning L2 depends on how language is packaged in the syllabus so that it can be taught (Graves, 2008). Logically, the type of context has serious implications for the needs analysis, as in target-language-removed contexts, needs analysis focuses on the needs of learners within the classroom and the classroom itself becomes a discourse community (Graves, 2008).

Assessing needs – general overview

In the research literature, the importance of relevant course content and its usefulness for learners has been sufficiently stressed (Aldred and Offord-Gray, 1998). The importance of needs was already emphasised by Abbott (1981, cited in Cowling, 2007) who warns of TENOR, i.e. teaching English for no obvious reason, in courses where textbooks are taken for granted with no need to base the syllabus on a correct analysis of learners' real needs. The needs analysis component of the curriculum design informs all other parts of the syllabus, and its importance for achieving accurate impact analysis cannot be underestimated (Lockwood, 2012). As a decision-making process informing course design specifications, needs analysis has been regarded as an indispensable part of any ESP course (Long, 2005). The objectives of a needs analysis are to find out students' future/current professional needs; to gauge their needs in terms of language skills and tasks; to probe students' deficiencies in language skills; to find out students' preferences with respect to learning styles, methods and teacher roles; and to record students' suggestions for better English-for-specific-purposes (ESP) teaching (Chostelidou, 2010). The needs analysis should achieve a high degree of face value for students, who should find the aims and objectives of the course plausible. It should also possess a high surrender value: students should be able to immediately use what they had learned to perform their jobs more effectively (Edwards, 2000).

The main focus of any needs analysis concerns the sources of the information included in the process, the ways of data gathering, the relevance and validity and the way these are ensured. Also, and importantly, the needs analysis should suggest the way to incorporate the findings both into the curriculum design, and into the syllabus, so that the goals and objectives of a given course are fulfilled.

As for the sources of information, the importance of integrating learners into the needs analysis procedures has been debated since the origins of needs analysis research. Munby (1978), proposing a performance-based approach to curriculum design based on the Communication Needs Processor, came under substantial criticism (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987) for his allegedly over-elaborate, mechanistic curriculum design model which failed to consider the learners themselves. Alternatively, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) suggest taking into consideration the conditions of the learning situation and how the learners learn. According to them, Munby ignores learners' lacks, defined as the gap between the existing and the target language proficiency, as well as learners' wants, defined as the needs perceived by learners as important. Holding a rather radical point of view, Auerbach (1995, cited in Jasso-Aguilar, 1999) considers learners to be the only source informing the curriculum.

However, this approach earned criticism for its weak reliability stemming from the fact that learners themselves might not be in the position to judge their real needs correctly (Long, 2005). Lockwood (2002, cited in Lockwood, 2012) claims that ESP syllabus design should reflect the needs of the learners as well as the needs of the business (or any other stakeholder of the course).

Long (2005) suggests utilising multiple sources as well as selecting adequate information-gathering instruments. Among the sources, Long includes language teachers with prior experience with learners in the programme, people undergoing or who have completed the educational program, documents related to the course, and published needs analysis literature. Besides outsiders, on whose views the needs analysis mostly relies (Gilabert, 2005, cited in Cowling, 2007), insiders – that is people from the relevant content area, e.g. doctors in the case of a medical ESP course – should also be incorporated.

Methods for gathering information are of two basic types: qualitative and quantitative[4], comprising, for example, intuitions, questionnaires, surveys, language audits, or observations. As we have seen above, Long (2005), along with Hutchinson and Waters (1987), claim that consulting learners only is not sufficient, as such needs analysis is unlikely to produce a reliable set of tasks for the target domain of the learners. In order to promote the validity of the information gathered, Long calls for triangulation of sources and methods which should ensure the reliability of the needs analysis process. In triangulation, target situation and insiders' expert knowledge are collected via different methods (interview, observation and questionnaire), compared and enacted in the course design (Wozniak, 2010). According to Long (2005), triangulation must involve learners, applied linguists and domain experts.

In summary, learners' language needs and linguistic structure should be well researched and developed into a meaningful course (Long, 2005). However, in an interesting article, Edwards (2000) claims that an effective and flexible ESP course design can be derived from the teachers' experiential knowledge and the students themselves. Indeed, this might be more effective than following explicit directives relating to strict needs analysis methodology and ESP curricula building. Importantly, as will be seen, our approach to needs analysis would seem to corroborate Edwards' claims.

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[4] Huhta et al. (2013) – speaking of a second-generation needs analysis based on task-based, rather than language-based, approach – emphasize the importance of qualitative means of information gathering.

Assessing needs in a specific context

As for the medical French course needs analysis procedure, several specific aspects had to be respected. One of the most challenging of these was the initial description of the aims and objectives made for the purposes of the project bid. The starting considerations were the learners and the context, as defined by Graves (2008). Given the different types of constraints (Munby, 1978), fundamental questions had to be operationalised, such as who the learners are and why they are taking the course? How do they learn? What resources are available? Where and when will the course take place? As for the course context, this was not a classic ESP course such as described in needs analysis literature (Aldred and Offord-Gray, 1998; Edwards, 2000; Lepetit, 2002; Cowling; 2007; Chostelidou, 2010; Lockwood, 2012), aimed at prospective employees embedded in a foreign language context. It was obvious that the remoteness and relative isolation of the French university and hospital environment had to bear an impact on the content structure and on the definition of the aims and objectives of the course. In her conception of context (cf. 'learning needs' in Hutchinson and Waters, 1987), Graves (2000) delineates the following categories of factors: students (number, age, gender, other languages, purpose, education, experience); physical setting (classroom: size, furniture, light, noise); nature of the course and institution (type/purpose of the course; mandatory/open enrolment, relation to current/previous courses; prescribed curriculum or not; required tests or not); teaching resources (materials available; required text; own materials; equipment); time (how many hours total over what span of time; how often class meets; for how long each time; day of week; time of day; where it fits in the schedule of students; students' timeliness). Some of the questions, however, were difficult to answer before the project bid itself, e.g. the materials available, time, physical setting: there was simply no *a priori* answer to these. In contrast, other questions were clear from the very beginning: students' age and education (predominantly medical undergraduates); nature of course and institution (target-removed context medical French course taught at the Medical Faculty of Masaryk University in Brno, Czech Republic; enrolment was open; there was no relation to any previous L2 courses taught at the Medical Faculty); there was no prescribed curriculum, and the syllabus was fully open to teacher's/course designer's experience and discretion.

Before the project bid itself was submitted, a short description of the project's aims had to be elaborated within a period of one month. Given the time constraints, students' needs were hypothesised at this stage, based on teacher's previous experience and research. The target needs analysis (learners' lacks, wants and necessities) had to be postponed with some of its components (placement tests, learners' needs questionnaires) being planned to be carried out in the opening

seminars of the pilot course, while others (interviews with other teachers) were to be carried out in the build-up phase of the pilot course.

As part of the needs analysis, students were asked, in the opening seminar (September 2016), to complete a short questionnaire (see Appendix A) and a placement test. The questionnaire, adapted from Mangiante & Parpette (2015), aimed to answer the socio-political variables (Munby, 1987), making explicit learners' educational and linguistic background. The purpose of the placement test then was both to gauge the learners' proficiency level, and to help the teacher modify, if need be, the course materials designed in advance. Ideally, the proficiency level of students who wish to enrol is B1+/B2, however, the results of the placement test have no eliminatory impact on the learners.

At the end of the twelve-week course (December 2016), an evaluation questionnaire (see Appendix B) was distributed, which consisted of nine sections and provided valuable data concerning learners' assessment of the course. The first part (sections 1-6) comprised both quantitative (closed) and qualitative (open) questions pertaining to students' expectations of the course, their satisfaction with the course, and their evaluation of the content. In the second part (sections 7-9), learners were asked to think about the strengths and weaknesses of the course and to explicate what they had learned in the course. The questionnaire, together with dialogues and discussions conducted during the opening and closing seminars of the course, helped establish and concretise the needs analysis data necessary for improving the course in future.

No pre-course interviews with insiders or course participants, despite their importance for needs analysis (Brown, 1995; Long, 2005), were conducted, which constitutes, arguably, the weakest component of the whole curriculum design process. The course content was thus, at the pre-course stage, based predominantly on background knowledge, teaching experience, and content schemata. Given the results of the end-of-course survey, however, the course – despite the possible shortcomings in the preparatory stage – seems to have succeeded in articulating the academic and clinical communication skills in a target-language-removed context, as well as the 'real-world tasks' (Nunan, 1989) of school and clinic necessary for medical undergraduates. The reactions of learners documented through the questionnaires appear to confirm the claim.

Formulating goals and objectives
In the initial stages of the project, data concerning the needs were scarce. The goals and objectives of the course were thus first arrived at using two major sources: teacher's experience with teaching

analogous, medical English courses targeted at medical faculty undergraduates, and curriculum design literature.

Generally speaking, the objectives and goals of the course are 'one of the hardest aspects of course design for the teachers' (Graves, 2000, p. 73), as they are not in close and evident relation to 'the concretes of the classroom' (ibid.) with which teachers are usually most concerned. There are several frameworks which can help teachers define the goals of the course, one of them being the KASA framework (see Appendix C). The goals listed in the appendix were accomplished by designing specific learning activities and through their integration into the course structure and process.

The objectives of the course, more concrete, are linked closely to every unit of the course. There are again several conceptions of how to determine the objectives[5], e.g. Saphier and Gower's Cumulative Framework for Objectives (1987). Five categories are distinguished, each of which was kept to when preparing specific worksheets:

Coverage: the material that will be covered in the unit, lesson

Activity: what students will do in a unit, lesson

Involvement: how students will become engaged in what they do in the unit

Mastery: what students will be able to do as a result of the unit

Generic thinking: how students will be able to problem solve or critique in the unit

(Graves, 2000, p. 92)

Conceptualising content and organising the course

The goals and objectives thus defined and described correspond to phase one in the conceptualising content part of curriculum design, where, according to Graves (2000), teachers should think about what they want their students to learn, given the needs and the purpose of the course. In the next step of this stage, the teacher should make decisions about what to include and what to omit. Importantly, the content should be organised in a way that the relationship among its various elements is clear. Finally, the teacher can decide about objectives, materials, sequence and evaluation (Graves, 2000).

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[5] E.g. Brown (1995) uses these components of performance objectives:
Subject: who will achieve the objective
Performance: what the subject will be able to do
Conditions: the way in which the subject will be able to perform
Measure: the way the performance will be observed or measured
Criterion: how well the subject will be able to perform (Graves, 2000, p. 87)

The issue of conceptualising content is closely related to the problem of organising the course. There has been extensive research concerning the different types of curriculum design. Huhta et al. (2013), inspired by Long (2005), put forward a task-based approach to curriculum design. Graves (1996) develops the concept of a content-based syllabus, in contrast to the notional-functional model proposed by Wilkins (1976). Furthermore, Met (1998) and Snow (2001, cited in Stoller, 2004) explicate different models of content-based instruction which constitute a continuum going from content-driven to language-driven models. In both, the organising principle can be themes (Parkinson, 2000, cited in Stoller, 2004).

The medical French course is indeed theme-based, placed somewhere in the middle of the content/language-driven continuum, arguably closer to the weak content-based instruction models (Weshe and Skehan, 2002, cited in Stoller 2004). Its overall structure tried to strike a balance between the four basic strands of a language course as defined by Nation (2013): meaning-focused input; meaning-focused output; language-focused learning (form-focused instruction); and fluency development.

The topic-based syllabus construction – the very first one, outlined in autumn 2015 for the FRMU evaluation board to be approved of – was based on a conglomerate of factors: the strategic plan of Masaryk University, internet sources[6], teacher's intuitions, consultations with colleagues, and experience with teaching similar courses in another language. As a result, a first-draft syllabus comprising six topics was designed:

1 Human health

      1.1 Illnesses

      1.2 Healthy Lifestyle

2   Human body

      2.1 Body organs anatomy

      2.2 Typical features of medical French

3   Doctors and patients

      3.1 At the doctor's

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[6] https://www.cle.fr/wp-content/uploads/2015/02/fran%C3%A7ais-m%C3%A9dical.pdf

However, throughout the eight-month preparatory works on the project (January-August 2016), this original syllabus underwent substantial modifications. The original topic-based approach shifted to a target-situation based approach. The selection of the situations was based partly on teacher's experience and intuitions, partly on research publications and existing coursebooks. The basic idea was that students in a target-language-removed context willing to sign up for the course of medical French would do so for two basic reasons: to improve their existing general French knowledge and/or to get ready for future immersion in French-speaking medical contexts, either as students on Erasmus or professionals on internships. The major task was to operationalise these two broad needs into learnable course content. The first reason concerned L2 itself, in its form-meaning relationships: declarative knowledge of French (topics, vocabulary, grammar) was to be one component of the course. The language part would correspond to the form-focused and meaning-input components of the course, as defined by Nation (2013). The other broad reason hypothesised was pragmatic, linked to target situations, forming the procedural component of the course, where the emphasis is on specific tasks. This aspect of the course would then correspond to Nation's meaning-focused output and fluency development strands of a L2 course. Thus, being able to find a way at a hospital, to find the correct department or ward, to conduct an internship interview with their French-speaking colleagues, to interrogate and to examine a French-speaking patient were deemed logical situations

to be included in the final syllabus. Other skills, such as introducing oneself, describing and justifying one's studies, professional interests and future goals, were further included.

At this point, foreign publications targeted at non-native learners of French were immensely helpful. Two textbooks were consulted in some depth, proving to be of important benefit for the final syllabus structure: Thomas Fassier and Solange Talavera-Goy's *Le français des médecins* (Grenoble: PUG, 2008); and Florence Mourlhon-Dallies' *Santé-médecine.com* (Paris: CLE International, 2004). The variety of materials consulted as well as the diversity of teaching methods exploited resulted in each seminar attempting to develop equally all four language strands (Nation, 2013).

As a result, in August 2016, a topic-based syllabus was finally designed (see Table 1). The modified course covers twelve weeks, encompassing five interwoven strands, namely topic, vocabulary, grammar/language functions, medical know-how and cultural issues.

In summary, the course of medical French offers a multi-layered syllabus with five main interwoven strands – topics, vocabulary, grammar, functions and cultural issues. Initially, it had a top-down structure, the emphasis being put on meaning rather than form. After the first pilot year, however, there were a few modifications which took notice of the learners' evaluation of the course, as well as teacher's direct experience with the teaching process and the syllabus enaction. These two parts of the curriculum design process – the enactment and the evaluation – seem to have been a major achievement in the whole project, as students were given an opportunity to inform the content and structure of the course as well as the content and structure of individual seminars.

Developing materials

The development of materials tries to answer and solve problems related to logistical resources, namely their availability. The issue of finding, evaluating, incorporating suitable materials was linked closely to the content conceptualisation and organisation of the course into the themes/topics. It can be said that both these aspects of the course design constantly interfered, the topics informing the materials and vice-versa.

In choosing the course materials, two main criteria were taken into consideration: relevance and authenticity. The materials should be relevant to learners' needs as incorporated into the course goals and objectives. Authenticity concerned both the target language and the target situations.

Semaine	Sujet	Vocabulaire	Grammaire/ fonctions langagières	Savoir-faire	Culture/ société/ sujets d'actualité
1	Introduction	Vocabulaire de présentation	Être, avoir, verbes en ER	Se présenter, justifier son choix, ses préférences, décrire ses expériences	Étudier le français, le monde francophone
2	Faire connaissance du français médical	Corps humain – vue générale. Maladie, santé.	Verbes au Présent I	Se présenter, parler de la santé, de la maladie	Le français des patients et le français des médecins.
3	Étudier la médecine	Sujets universitaires. Professions médicales/paramédicales.	Verbes au présent II/ afin de/ parce que	Parler de ses études, de ses intérêts professionnels, de différentes spécialisations	Comparaison des études médicales en France et en Rép. tchèque
4-5	Faire connaissance avec l'hôpital	Lieux, départements, professionnels, fonctionnement	Se situer dans l'espace./ Passé composé I (avoir/être)	S'orienter dans un hôpital	Le système de la sécurité sociale en France
6-7	Le corps humain – vue anatomique	Corps humain – anatomie. Différents appareils. Noms, adjectifs dérivés Préfixes et suffixes	Passé composé II (pronominaux)	Utiliser le vocabulaire spécifique.	Le don d'organes
8	Interroger un patient	Antécédents, traitement habituel. Mode de vie.	Situer une action dans le passé (imparfait)	Poser des questions.	Régime végétarien – que manger pour rester en pleine forme?
9	Examiner un patient	Les étapes de l'examen médical.	Impératif (politesse). Subjonctif. Futur proche.	Instruire le patient.	Toxicomanies.
10	Imagerie médicale	Dispositif médical. Imagerie (-scopie, -graphie).	Imparfait. Comparaisons.	Expliqer une procédure.	Accidents – que faire?
11	Prescrire un traitement et expliquer une ordonnance Médicaments	Posologie et formes pharmaceutiques. Nomenclature (antibiotiques). Classes thérapeutiques.	Langage de discussion.	Communiquer le diagnostique au patient. Argumenter, discuter, exprimer son opinion.	Usage des médicaments dans la société. La lutte anti-tabac
12	Médecins sans frontières	Organisations non-gouvernementales. Aide humanitaire.	Language de CV, de lettre de motivation.	Situations critiques. Rédiger un CV.	Lettre de motivation.

Table 1: The syllabus

Extensive research led to the decision to create brand-new worksheets using several publications selectively. Besides paper-based materials, Youtube videos and the Lyon Croix-Rousse hospital website[7] were used. Consequently, the syllabus comprised a broad spectrum of materials that included all four skills, leading to greater diversity of tasks. Thus, it helped develop all four major course strands as defined by Nation, motivating learners towards greater commitment and engagement both in learning and in learning how to learn by showing them ways towards learner autonomy and independence (Aldred and Offord-Gray, 1998). The syllabus prompted the creation of a learning community where the teacher-conduit model of teaching is reduced and learners led to co-construct the knowledge in pair work, group work and work online. Last, but not least, students' end-of-course evaluation prompted reconsideration both of the structure of the course and the content/structure of the individual seminars: learners could thus become active co-creators of the course, whose syllabus is never finished, always open and flexible to the needs of learners. This openness and flexibility then ensures that each new group of learners pioneers the course for its subsequent attendees, the syllabus becoming more the work of learners than the authorship of the teacher who can take the less central role of a guide, counsellor or facilitator.

Designing an assessment plan

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) propose four criteria for course assessment plan: test results, discussions, interviews and informal means (i.e. informal testing, such as role-play, presentation, activity in class, or discussions). The assessment methodology of the present medical French course is based more on a task-oriented, portfolio model consisting of several parameters. Students are encouraged to build their own vocabulary sets using Quizlet; the vocabulary draws on medical news, an activity where learners explore French-written or French-spoken sources concerning medical issues and refer to them in classroom pair work and group work activities. The vocabulary sets, as well as learners' activities during the medical news section, are evaluated at the end of the course. Besides their own vocabulary, learners are assessed by various other classroom activities which include taking an active part in role-plays, and discussions. Another component of the portfolio is formed by homework assignments and teacher's feedback on these delivered via Edmodo.com form. Last, but not least, as one part of the course concerns student Erasmus mobilities, students are invited to write a motivation letter and a CV, to which informal feedback is provided. Marked testing – given the commercial character of the course – has not been included in the final assessment framework.

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[7] http://www.chu-lyon.fr/fr/hopital-de-la-croix-rousse

IMPLEMENTATION/ENACTMENT

One of the most exciting, but also particularly challenging, part of curriculum design is the implementation of the syllabus into the classroom practice. The process itself is freighted with difficulties, as extensive literature on the topic shows, pointing out the numerous variables at play (Johnson, 1989; Snyder, 1992; Jackson, 1992; Brown, 1995; Graves, 2000; Hall and Hewings, 2001). The medical French course was no exception to the rule.

What seems to account for the difficulties is the complexity of the interplay between the learners' needs, course goals and objectives, teachers' conception of the curriculum, as well as external factors such as institutional influence, and social and educational contexts. The major obstacle in our case seems to have been the harmonisation between the conception of the curriculum and learners' explicit or implicit needs. Although the results of the final evaluation questionnaires show an important overlap between these two broad areas, it should be stressed that the initial syllabus and the class materials had to be modified both during and at the end of the course. Some modifications are attributable to the teacher: for example, the week-five topic *At the hospital* had to be split into two weeks, given the number of issues that came to light during the seminar. Consequently, other topics had to be compressed, whereas others had to be abandoned completely, as there was simply not enough time. Other modifications were due to learners' reactions in the evaluation questionnaire: for example, the balance between the theoretical and practical components of the seminars; the amount of on-line work; the inclusion of complementary activities such as medical news, Quizlet vocabulary sets or in-class Quizlet Live contests.

Indeed, it is at this crucial point of curriculum design that the teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning become of importance. Teachers' attitude to the syllabus, the teaching style, the margin of freedom that teachers provide learners, they all inform the way the curriculum is transposed into the classroom (Williams and Burden, 1997). Rather than implemented, the syllabus should be enacted (Snyder, 1992) by the teacher and the students – the materials included in the syllabus serving as tools by which learners construct knowledge in cooperation, exploration and evaluation processes (Snyder, 1992). This model seems to correspond to the concept of Pedagogy 2.0 (McLaughlin, 2010) which promotes learner and teacher autonomy and diminishes the out-dated conduit models of teaching. Hopefully, the structure of the course, based on learners' cooperation and target task situations, as well as the implementation of ICT tools, contributed to enhanced learner autonomy, self-direction and self-evaluation in a course where knowledge-building, rather than teacher-led knowledge-conveying were among the strongest of teacher's beliefs.

EVALUATION/ADAPTATION

After the pilot year, based on learners' answers in the end-of-course evaluation questionnaire, as well as teacher's experience with the course and self-evaluation, the syllabus was adapted. A few examples of the adaptation, prompted by the circumstances arisen during the course, have already been supplied. The following lines offer a short summary of the adaptation stage.

The student feedback suggests that the course seemed – from the learners' point of view – to have offered what learners felt as their 'wants' (Long, 2005). The form-focused (vocabulary), as well as the meaning-input and meaning-output (readings, role-plays) components of the course corresponded with learners' expectations. As a result, the general topic-based syllabus was conserved without any substantial changes. However, several modifications based both on the teaching experience and learners' feedback were envisaged. Firstly, students' self-direction and responsibility for learning were to be enhanced, as the pilot seminars appeared to be dominated by the teacher. Secondly, given the restricted schedule and a rather dense topic-syllabus, some of the learning was to be performed out-of-class, in a flipped-class model, where the weekly seminars formed, ideally, only a part of the whole learning experience. Thirdly, the internal structure of the seminars needed remodelling, as the form-focused and meaning-input part seemed far too predominant.

As a part of the adaptation process, the so-called medical news section was built in, where learners were asked to follow various French-speaking Internet sources and prepare a short talk on a topic of their choice. This part of the course was meant to help students keep in touch with French-speaking medical world, enhance their speaking skills by summarising, explaining and discussing their news with peers, and enrich their vocabulary as they were asked to keep their vocabulary logs online. Arguably, these activities, by shifting some responsibility for learning towards self-directed learning, strengthen learners' autonomy and feed their motivation for learning (Dörney and Ottó, 1998; McLaughlin, 2010). Learners become, be it unconsciously, co-creators of the course, which should stimulate engagement and sense of control over their learning. To promote further this aspect of the course content, some ICT tools were introduced following the pilot year: Quizlet, which students used to keep track of the lesson-to-lesson vocabulary. Moreover, learners were instructed to write, individually, vocabulary logs based on their medical news readings. Also, Quizlet Live activities were regularly conducted in the class for students to keep track of their vocabulary progress. Finally, Edmodo was used, mainly as a study materials hub where students could find the exercises, texts and videos linked to a given lesson. In addition, Edmodo proved helpful for assignments, polls and, more scarcely, as a discussion platform.

PERSPECTIVES

Given the FRMU rules and requisites of Masaryk University, the course – offered for free during the pilot first year – entered the sustainability stage of the project and now needs to be offered as a commercial course for at least two consecutive years. The interest among the university undergraduates is not widespread, but it is at least steady, reaching from five to ten students per year. At the time of writing, the first sustainability year was accomplished with a record ten-student attendance. Finally, Masaryk University seems further inclined to support foreign-language courses, as another course succeeded in the annual FRMU tender for the year 2018, namely an e-learning course of French grammar based on medical French[8].

CONCLUSION

The medical French curriculum design project, described in some detail here, follows the traditional triad recommended by Graves (2008). However, it differs from the classic works in several aspects. Arguably, the needs analysis, however important for a well-functioning course, does not necessarily need to follow the strict triangulation procedure for the course to work well: the end-of-course evaluation questionnaires seem to confirm this claim. Importantly, our experience and findings corroborate claims made by other authors (Edwards, 2000). At the same time, the needs analysis procedure shows the immense importance of learners' views, evaluation and self-reflection for the course design. Importantly, the needs analysis procedure can be extended over the whole course, including the end-of-course evaluation questionnaire. Learners thus become an important part of the curriculum design process, informing the structure of the course, and of the individual seminars. Indeed, in order for the enactment stage of the curriculum design to be fully realized, learners need to adopt/adapt the course in a process of self-appropriation or identification whereby they are given room and means to become co-creators of the course content. This new role also gives them a sense of self-direction and control over their learning, promoting learner autonomy. It is in this respect that the project seems to have been of major relevance not only for the learners, but also for the teacher who, while sharing the authorship of the course, can assume a peripheral role in the educational process, where students become central.

Address for correspondence: 20439@mail.muni.cz

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[8] At the time of writing, the course is in its pilot version, available here:
https://is.muni.cz/auth/do/rect/el/estud/lf/js18/franc_med/web/index.html

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APPENDIX

Goals and objectives

	Knowledge	Skills	Awareness & attitude
Language goals	Students will know and use grammar structure corresponding to the intermediate level of English. Students will know and use specific vocabulary relating to their field. Students will learn different reading skills (scanning, skimming, close reading). Students will know and be able to describe the basic procedures related to their profession.	Students will understand written texts about specific topics related to diverse fields of medicine. Students will understand audio and video reports linked to various specific areas of medical knowledge. Students will be able to speak about different specific topics in specific situations. Students will be able to express facts, opinions in the content area. Students will be able to form meaning from context using context clues and prior knowledge. Students should be able to summarise and paraphrase different information, explain, give examples and develop thoughts relating to their professional interests.	Students should know about the specificity of medical English regarding its peculiar vocabulary and grammar structures (passive voice, impersonal style). Students should be able to use different language skills in reading, listening and speaking. Students should be aware of the fact that language is also a source of pleasure, not only learning.
Content	Students will acquire specific content vocabulary. Students will learn to describe different medical examination techniques. Students will be able to describe the	Students will be able to find their way in a French-speaking hospital, as well as explain the way to others. Students will be able to interrogate, and give instructions to, a patient in French. Students will be able to explain the diagnosis and treatment to patients in French.	Students should be aware of the differences/similarities between healthcare systems in the Czech Republic and abroad.

	human body in medical terms, medical equipment, as well as other areas linked with medicine (prevention, diseases, health systems).	Students will be able to read, interpret and explain instructions, manuals as well as textbook passages in French. Students will be able to take notes on audio/video reports related to the medical environment. Students will be able to describe various medical examination procedures.	
Strategies	Students will know which learning strategies are necessary to achieve specific aims or to solve a task. Students will know how to manage their studies of French.	Students will learn to help each other in learning, support one another in group work. Students will learn to use diverse learning strategies of collaborative work, inductive process of learning, experimenting, taking risks and facing mistakes. Students will learn to use various learning tools such as edmodo.com, quizlet.com, memrise.com.	Students should know that they can learn in many different ways. Students should know that they can use different learning strategies depending on the type of knowledge. Students should be aware of the fact that learning strategies can be learned. Students should recognise that they can solve a problem in different ways. Students will learn to accept a potentially unusual role of the teacher as a facilitator, organiser of learning activities. Students will learn to appreciate different student-oriented teaching techniques and become positive about learning how to learn, discovering knowledge by activities stressing inductive approach to learning.

Towards a multimodal approach to Languages for Specific Purposes (LSP) in Higher Education

Ornaith Rodgers

Department of French, National University of Ireland Galway

ABSTRACT

The twenty-first century of digital media and multimodalities demands a rethinking of approaches to languages for specific purposes (LSP) in Higher Education. This article seeks to highlight how the field of LSP has evolved over time to adapt to the changing needs of learners. It further aims to highlight the current need to develop a multimodal approach to the teaching of LSP in the Higher Education sphere, in order to respond to the linguistic, academic and professional needs of students in the twenty-first century. The current communicative landscape is deeply complex with digital technologies mediating many of our daily interactions. The rise in multimodality is a particularly striking trend in technologically mediated communication, and LSP teaching and learning needs to incorporate a wider range of semiotic resources in order to enable learners to negotiate today's communicative landscape. Within this context, this article thus aims to advocate a multimodal approach to LSP in Higher Education, and also examines how on a practical level, this approach can be applied in the LSP classroom using digital video creation as an example. It further suggests that LSP researchers and practitioners consider integrating other multimodal teaching and learning activities in the Higher Education classroom, in order to prepare them for the complex communicative landscape that awaits them in the discourse communities for their relevant disciplines.

INTRODUCTION

This article seeks to highlight the need for a new approach to Languages for Specific Purposes (LSP) in Higher Education. Essentially, it advocates the adoption of a multimodal approach to LSP learning and teaching, in order to enable learners to communicate effectively in the twenty-first century world of digital media and multimodalities, and to negotiate the complexities of a multimodal communicative landscape which has become deeply complex.

The article begins by clarifying the parameters of the concept of LSP in a Higher Education context in order to establish a clear theoretical framework for this study. It subsequently demonstrates the capacity of LSP learning and teaching to evolve and adapt to the changing needs of learners by highlighting how approaches to LSP have already evolved over time. The article then outlines the challenges facing LSP teaching and learning in today's world in an effort to identify the type of approach required by learners today to prepare them to communicate effectively within the discourse communities of their relevant disciplines. It emphasises that the current communicative landscape is deeply complex with digital technologies mediating many of our daily interactions. As the rise in multimodality is a particularly striking feature of technologically mediated communication, it argues that LSP teaching and learning needs to incorporate a much wider range of semiotic resources in order to prepare learners to negotiate the communicate landscape of their occupational discourse community. The article thus advocates the use of a multimodal approach to LSP in Higher Education and examines how on a practical level this approach can be applied in the Higher Education classroom. It takes the example of digital video creation and explores the pedagogical potential of this multimodal teaching and learning tool and concludes by suggesting that LSP practitioners consider integrating other multimodal teaching and learning activities in the Higher Education classroom.

LANGUAGES FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES IN HIGHER EDUCATION

At this point, it is essential to clarify exactly what the term LSP refers to in a Higher Education context. LSP is already a term with many applications, definitions and interpretations. Sager, Dungsworth and McDonald (1980, p.68) define it as 'specialist-to-specialist' communication. This 'specialist' dimension to LSP means that this term, by its nature, normally refers to teaching and learning languages within the context of Higher Education or professional development. However, Sager, Dungsworth and McDonald's definition does not necessarily include the situation for the language learner who may not yet be a specialist in their domain, a factor which is particularly important when examining LSP within the sphere of Higher Education. Chambers (1996, p.233) emphasises the need to take into account that different levels of specialisation may exist amongst learners:

> The view that special language can exist at any stage from popularisation level to the highest level of knowledge of the subject is particularly relevant to the situation of language learners, who may initially be non-specialists both in the language and in the subject which they are studying.

Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998, pp.4-5) provide a detailed definition of English for Specific Purposes (ESP), arguing that ESP is designed to meet specific needs of the learner, using the underlying methodology and activities of the disciplines it serves, and is centred on the language, skills, discourse and genres appropriate to these activities. This definition essentially highlights the core concepts of LSP, that it is driven by the need to respond to students' specific linguistic needs, and uses the methodologies and activities needed to meet these needs. Particularly relevant in this context is the definition of LSP as the language used by a particular discourse community. The term discourse community has been widely used over the last 30 years in applied language studies as a way of recognizing that communications operate within conventions and expectations established by communities of various kinds (Swales, 2016, p.5). In this context we are referring to professional or occupational discourse communities. This view of LSP is consolidated by Arnó-Macià (2014, p.5) who argues that 'since LSP teaching aims at helping students enter particular discourse communities, its methodology draws on relevant activities and practices'. We will take this definition of LSP as a form of language teaching driven by students' specific needs as our framework and we will view the LSP teacher's role in Higher Education as one which aims to prepare students to eventually become part of, and communicate effectively within their relevant occupational discourse community, be it in the domain of medicine, law, science, business or other. Given that we are focussing on LSP within the Higher Education context, we will also be conscious that in many instances the learners are non-specialists both in terms of the language they are studying and their primary area of study. The definition of LSP as a form of language teaching driven by students' specific needs necessarily implies that as students' needs evolve, so too must approaches to language teaching and learning in this area.

THE EVOLUTION OF LSP IN HIGHER EDUCATION

The area of LSP has already undergone dramatic change since it first emerged as a teaching and research area in the 1960s. As mentioned in the previous section, LSP by its nature is driven by the need to respond to students' specific linguistic needs. As learners' needs have changed so too has LSP research and practice, in many instances in response to challenges posed by developments in language teaching research and external factors such as increasing globalisation and developments in communication and instructional technologies.

The evolution of LSP

While it is difficult to pinpoint the exact origins of this domain, Gollin-Kies, Hall and Moore (2015, p.18) cite several examples of specialised goal-oriented courses as far back as 1907 when German as a Foreign Language was introduced into the curriculum of a medical school in Shanghai, China. They also mention the publication of a 1932 book to teach medical Arabic to medical workers in Syria and Palestine (2015, p.18). However, the emergence of LSP as a self-identified field is generally traced to the 1960s when Halliday, McIntosh and Strevens (1964) highlighted the lack of investigation into the specialised material required to teach English to groups with specific linguistic needs such as power station engineers in India or police inspectors in Nigeria. They argued for a specific approach to meet the linguistic needs of such learners:

> Only the merest fraction of investigation has yet been carried out into just what parts of a conventional course in English are needed by, let us say, power station engineers in India, or police inspectors in Nigeria; even less is known about precisely what specialized material is required. This is one of the tasks for which linguistics must be called in. Every one of these specialized needs requires, before it can be met by appropriate teaching materials, detailed studies of restricted languages and special registers carried out on the basis of large samples of the language used by the particular persons concerned (1964, pp.189-190)

The need for a form of specialised language teaching to respond to students' specific professional needs was thus born. In today's world, the goals of LSP remains similar with teachers and researchers in the field of LSP still developing specific approaches to respond to students' specialised linguistic needs.

Early approaches to LSP research were determined by the above-cited passage. Swales (2000, p.59) describes this early LSP research as 'descriptive', 'synchronic' and 'basically textual or transcriptal', relying on 'functional grammar' (2000, p.59). These early studies tended to be largely, quantitative, lexicostatistical studies providing information on specialist terminology, and which syntactic structures occurred most frequently in scientific prose and they informed the design of many early LSP courses (Chambers, 1996, p.233). However, while the goals of LSP teaching remain similar even today, the approaches to LSP have undergone considerable change from the initial descriptive, textual tradition of work in LSP.

Over time, there were challenges to the simplistic relationship between linguistic analysis and classroom activities (Widdowson, 1998; Hutchinson and Waters, 1987). One of the major influences on theory and practice in LSP was the development of the communicative approach to language learning, which alongside developments in research in discourse analysis, changed the focus of LSP courses from the written language to the inclusion of the spoken language as well and established the fundamental importance of the communicative character and purpose of language (Chambers, 1996, pp.233-234). Other influences such as the use of corpus linguistics in the design and delivery of LSP courses (Rodgers, Chambers and Le-Baron, 2011), and the development of the content and language integrated learning (CLIL) approach (Dalton-Puffer, Nikula and Smit, 2010, p.1) also changed the landscape of LSP research. The definition of LSP as the language used by a particular discourse community (Swales, 1990, p.24) also provided a key framework for the design and content of LSP courses from the 1990s on and mapped out a path for research in specialist language use. As the language teacher's role became one to prepare learners for membership of a particular discourse community, research was needed to identify the relevant discourse community and analyse its use of language (Chambers, 1996, p.234).

It is thus clear that while the initial goals of LSP remained to respond to students' specific linguistic needs, the approaches used to do this evolved to become more varied, incorporating new methodologies with a greater focus on the communicative character and the need to prepare students to enter specific occupational discourse communities.

Current challenges to LSP

In recent years, the field of LSP has been further shaped by factors such as increasing globalisation, the development of new communication technologies and advances in instructional technology. Globalisation has led to an increased demand for the teaching of foreign languages for specific purposes (Gollin-Kies, Hall and Moore, 2015, p.35; Über-Grosse and Voght, 2012, p.191) and one of the challenges of LSP teaching is to prepare students for 'globalized academic and professional contexts' (Arnó-Macià, 2014, p.15). With rapid globalisation there has been a correspondingly increased demand for bilingual/multilingual education and training, business and travel, which has in turn necessitated language instruction directly relevant to those activities (Gollin-Kies, Hall and Moore, 2015, p.35). The need for students to be able to communicate effectively in globalised academic and professional contexts is thus greater than ever before and the manner in which communication within discourse communities takes place has undergone considerable changes in recent years.

Access to digital technology has increased exponentially. New modes of online communication are proliferating personal and professional lives and learners are living in a society where the use of technology is an integral aspect of everyday living. In 1999, less than 5% of the world's population had access to the internet; by 2018 this figure has grown to 55.1%[9]. Prensky (2001) distinguished between *digital natives* (born into the digital era) and *digital immigrants* (those who grew up in the pre-digital era). Our students are arguably *digital natives* (Prensky and Heppell, 2008) capable of dealing with multi-modal and digital texts which require non-sequential processing (Dal, 2010, p.2). Our students freely participate on mobile devices in a wide range of social media, online forums, chat, blogs and personal websites. There is widespread ownership of mobile technologies such as media players, tablets and smartphones. There have also been improvements in connectivity, Bluetooth, GPRS, storage and processing (Duman, Orhon and Gedik, 2014, p.198). In terms of Higher Education, courses can be delivered totally online or in blended formats and all of these factors have created a new dimension to how we communicate and how we learn languages.

Advances in instructional technology have also played a major role in reshaping education, and particularly language education by providing possibilities for learning in ways far beyond sitting in a traditional classroom (Duman, Orhon and Gedik, 2014, p.197). Most language classes (both general and LSP classes) are now taught using the support of computer-based multimedia in the form of audio, graphics or video and the internet is also a regular feature of language teaching and learning (Burston, 2016, p.3). Developments in computer assisted language learning (CALL), mobile assisted language learning (MALL) and computer-mediated communication (CMC) have transformed the language classroom and have enabled researchers and teachers to use it as a venue to test out technology-based projects aimed at empowering language learners (Dugartsyrenova and Sardegna, 2016, p.5). While the above-mentioned advances have changed the landscape of language learning in Higher Education in general, they have created particularly exciting and dynamic opportunities for language learning in an LSP context, by providing gateways to specialised discipline knowledge and students' relevant discourse communities (Arnó-Macià, 2014, p.12).

While globalisation has increased the need for learners to communicate effectively in globalised discourse communities, advances in communication technology and instructional technology simultaneously offer exciting opportunities and pose challenges to LSP in Higher Education. Teaching and learning in this area must take account of how learners communicate in today's world and how

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[9] https://www.internetworldstats.com/stats.htm

they will be required to communicate within their occupational discourse community. As established in the section on "Languages for Specific Purposes in Higher Education", we are viewing the LSP teacher's role as to prepare students to communicate effectively in their relevant occupational discourse community, and teaching methodologies in this area must evolve in accordance with this goal.

Current approaches to LSP

LSP research has begun to take account of the above-mentioned changes in technology both in terms of advances in communication technology and instructional technology. The role of IT in different areas of LSP research (Arnó-Macía, Soler and Rueda Ramos, 2006) and the design and implementation of online LSP materials (Gonzáles-Pueyo, Foz, Jaime and Luzón, 2009) have been studied. Researchers acknowledge that developments in CALL, applied linguistics and the pervasive use of technology in communication have revolutionised LSP teaching (Arnó-Macià, 2012, p.89). Über-Grosse and Voght (2012, p.191) underline that technology gives LSP learners 'instant access to current information about target languages and cultures' and that the Internet has 'made it possible for LSP teachers and learners to access instantly rich resources of authentic language materials in their content field'. Laborda (2011, p.106) also highlights that because of the internet, 'LSP materials that were difficult to find until recently (…) are now readily accessible and usually free'. Similarly, Arnó-Macià (2012, p.89) outlines the ways in which emerging technologies have been integrated into the LSP classroom:

> Through technology, LSP teachers and researchers can access discipline-specific materials and situations and compile corpora of specialized texts. Computer-mediated communication provides learning tools and a gateway to the discourse community. Technology also provides opportunities for collaborating, creating virtual environments and online courses, and fostering learner autonomy.

More recently Bárcena, Read and Arús' (2014) edited volume looks at LSP in the digital era and examines the impact of developments in the use of technologies such as CALL, wikis, corpus-based approaches and natural language processing on LSP, while the Gollin-Kies, Hall and Moore (2015) volume also looks at the impact of new technologies on LSP teaching and learning in the 21st century in their volume on LSP. It is evident that the contemporary globalised world of technological advances is already impacting approaches to teaching and learning in this area with researchers exploring how the above-mentioned technologies can be integrated into LSP teaching.

Researchers in the field also underline the need to re-evaluate approaches to LSP. Arnó-Macià (2014, p.3), for example, highlights the need to re-evaluate approaches to LSP within the context of technological advances:

> Traditionally, LSP has been a multi-disciplinary activity involving collaboration, engagement with disciplinary knowledge, innovation and flexibility, and interaction in authentic situations with realistic materials. Since LSP aims at helping students communicate successfully in academic and professional settings, it is necessary to explore how IT has affected specialized communication and how its potential can be harnessed for educational purposes.

Gollin-Kies, Hall and Moore (2015, p.45) have also highlighted that 'the globalised twenty-first-century world of multimodalities and multiliteracies, not to mention multilinguality demands a rethinking of approaches to language and learning'. While this comment was made in the context of their discussion of newer pedagogies applied to LSP such as Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), Community Service Learning (CSL) and the trend towards constructivist approaches to LSP such as task-based and problem-based learning, it nevertheless highlights the need to rethink approaches to teaching in this area on the basis of the intersection of the aforementioned factors of globalisation, new technologies and new approaches to language and learning. It is not just a question of harnessing new technologies for LSP teaching and learning, but rather a question of how these technologies intersect with learners needs, and in what way they should be used to prepare them to communicate effectively.

TOWARDS A MULTIMODAL APPROACH TO LSP

What type of approach then is most suited to LSP learning and teaching in contemporary times? This article advocates the adoption of a multimodal approach to respond to LSP learners needs in the 21st century for a number of reasons (see below). Before examining these reasons however, it is vital that we clarify exactly what is meant when using the terms "multimodality" or "a multimodal approach". The concept of multimodality is underpinned by the idea that language is only one of many communicative resources through which meaning is created, conveyed and interpreted (Jewitt, 2008; Kress and van Leeuwen, 2001). Kress and van Leeuwen (2001, p.20) define multimodality as follows:

the use of several semiotic modes in the design of a semiotic product or event, together with the particular way in which these modes are combined – they may for instance reinforce each other (…), fulfil complementary roles (…) or be hierarchically ordered.

A 'mode' can be defined as 'the type of semiotic representation (textual, aural and visual) used to present information' (Guichon and Cohen 2016, p.510) or 'a regularised organised set of resources for meaning-making, including, image, gaze, gesture, movement, music, speech and sound-effect' (Jewitt and Kress, 2003, p.1). 'Modality' on the other hand corresponds to 'the semiotic realisation of one mode; for instance, the visual modality of videoconferencing is realised through the webcam image' (Guichon and Cohen, 2016, p.510). Social semiotics emphasises the social context of communication and the way in which meaning is created and shaped through our choice of resources, whether image, text or a combination of resources (Marchetti and Cullen, 2016, p.41). The choice of modes is thus a key factor when shaping meaning.

The application of a multimodal approach to language teaching thus 'focuses on the combination of text, audio and image as individual modes and how these can be creatively combined to produce meaning [and] encourage interaction and learning in the classroom' (Marchetti and Cullen, 2016, p.39). Van Leeuwen (2014, p.281) also refers to multimodality as 'the integrated use of different semiotic resources (e.g. language, image, sound and music) in texts and communicative events'. A multimodal approach to language learning thus implies the use of a wide variety of semiotic resources in the language classroom through the use of a range of multimodal strategies in teaching and learning activities. It can be argued that any learning activity, language or otherwise, is naturally multimodal as teachers use a variety of semiotic resources to convey information. These resources may include their voices, gestures, body language, written texts, powerpoint presentations, video, audio resources and others. It can further be argued that learning is more effective when information is presented in more than one mode. Mayer and Anderson (1992), for example, showed that when learners were studying the operation of a bicycle tire pump, their understanding was better when a dual coding model was used, i.e. animation presented concurrently with narration.

Why a multimodal approach?
This article advocates the adoption of a multimodal approach to LSP learning for four main reasons: to prepare LSP learners to negotiate the complexity of the communicative landscape of their relevant occupational discourse community; to enhance their LSP language learning experience; to

assist in the acquisition of professional and social competences; to keep pace with this rise in multimodality afforded by digital media.

As already mentioned, the current communicative landscape is complex with digital technologies mediating many of our daily interactions. The rise in multimodality is a particularly striking trend in technologically-mediated communication with oral, written and visual channels of communication converging all of the time. If we consider, for example, the multimodal ways in which meanings are made on the World Wide Web or in interactive multimedia, the convergence of all kinds of media together with the proliferation of new media increases the need to develop pedagogies which "empower learners of all kinds to engage critically and effectively with them" (Gollin-Kies, Hall and Moore, 2015, p.44). These changes in communication have strong implications for approaches to language learning and teaching:

> Changes in communication inevitable lead to changes in language and require the language teacher to be aware of and contemplate the implications of these complex phenomena. (Marchetti and Cullen, 2016, p.41)

Early, Kendrick and Potts (2015, p.448) also draw attention to the key argument of scholars of multimodality, that the full range of semiotic resources must be addressed when making sense of today's complex communicative landscape:

> Scholars of multimodality (…) have long argued that understanding the contemporary communicative landscape requires addressing the full range of semiotic resources used within a community and/ or society. That landscape includes the constantly shifting digital technologies that mediate many of our daily interactions (…).

While Early, Kendrick and Potts (2015) and Marchetti and Cullen (2016) were referring to language learners in general, it is particularly important for LSP learners to keep pace with changes in communication as it is a central tenet of LSP teaching and learning that their language learning be realistic (García Laborda, 2011, pp.104), that they use 'real world' language in 'real life situations' (Secules, Herron and Tomasello, 1992), that they keep pace with how "technology is used in real-life professional practices" (Arnó-Macía, 2014, pp.15-16). Communication in the 21st century is complex, proliferated by digital technologies which blend a variety of modes to create meaning and LSP learners must be able to negotiate this multimodal communicative landscape in order to enter their

relevant occupational discourse community and communicate effectively within it. In their learning, they must therefore address all semiotic resources to keep pace with the complexity of communication in contemporary society.

The use of a multimodal approach also enhances the language learning experience of the LSP learner. Firstly, it enables LSP teachers and students engage with large amounts of multimodal data which provide excellent opportunities for language learning (Gollin-Kies, Hall and Moore, 2015, p.43). It is also clear that while a multimodal approach to learning in general is effective, it is particularly effective when it comes to language. If anything, the notion of multimodality enables us to address the richness of human communication which involves the use different modes of communication to convey meaning (Marchetti and Valente, 2017, p.260). Vigliocco, Perniss and Vinson (2014) highlight for example that language learning cannot exclusively focus on the dual categories of text and speech, that other elements such as gestures must also be considered as channels of expression. Learners must engage with different semiotic resources in the course of their language learning as other modes can play a critical role in the language acquisition trajectory. While several of the above-mentioned arguments can be applied to language learning in general, they are particularly relevant for LSP learners as they are aiming to enter very specific discourse communities. They must thus be equipped with the competencies necessary to engage with all of the semiotic resources which form part of the communicative fabric of that discourse community.

Martínez Lirola (2016, p.77) further highlights the role of a multimodal approach in the acquisition of social competences, arguing that that the use of multimodal activities and resources in the foreign language classroom enables students to 'increase their motivation and acquire different social competences that will be useful for the labour market such as communication, cooperation, leadership or conflict management'. While Lirola is referring to general language learners, this factor is particularly important for the LSP learner who is preparing to enter a professional discourse community. Arnó-Macía (2014, p.9) also highlights the role played by LSP courses in the development of professional communication skills. A multimodal approach helps LSP learners to acquire social and professional skills vital for communication within their discourse community.

The concept of multimodality in language learning is not a revolutionary one. It can be argued that language has always been multimodal and it has always been 'a mixture of sound, words, images created in the mind, and gestures used in contexts full of objects, sounds, actions and interactions' (Gee and Hayes, 2011, p.1). It can further be argued that while multimodal perspectives on teaching

and learning languages are only appearing in literature on language learning in recent years, many teachers were already intuitively incorporating multimodal practices and elements to their teaching (Knox, 2008, p.140). However, what has changed and continues to evolve, is communication in contemporary society. For the LSP learner, it is particularly important to keep pace with the rise in multimodality afforded by digital media as it is a central tenet of LSP that their language learning must be both contextualised and authentic (see Section on 'Digital Video Creation in LSP').

A MULTIMODAL APPROACH IN PRACTICE; THE CASE FOR THE USE OF DIGITAL VIDEO AS A MULTIMODAL TEACHING AND LEARNING TOOL IN LSP

On a practical level, how can a multimodal approach be applied to LSP in Higher Education? Here we take the example of digital video creation as a multimodal teaching and learning tool. Digital video creation provides an ideal example of a multimodal language learning activity as it uniquely enables learners to engage with a very wide range of modes including text, audio, still and moving images, music, speech and gesture to create meaning. While the area of video creation in LSP is largely unexplored, research in the related fields of LSP and video in the language classroom in general, point to video creation as a particularly appropriate multimodal teaching and learning tool in LSP.

Video in the language classroom

In terms of video in the language classroom, video-based methodologies are well-established in second language teaching. According to Goldstein and Driver (2015, p.1), the earliest paper on the subject dates back to 1947 and was an article by J.E. Travis on 'The Use of the Film in Language Teaching and Learning'. In 1983, Willis established key roles for video in the classroom such as language focus, skills practice, stimulus and resource material (Willis, 1983, pp.29-42) and during the 1980s and 1990s, a vast quantity of video materials were specifically developed for use in the foreign language classroom, and language methodologists encouraged teachers to integrate video into foreign language teaching (Allan, 1985; Cooper, Lavery and Rinvolucri, 1991). However, during the 1980s and 1990s, video was largely used as a static resource with classroom activities centred around viewing and listening to the video, or teaching the culture of the target language (Gardner, 1994; Nikitina, 2010). Video was often seen as a type of reward or light relief, often shown on a Friday afternoon or at the end of term.

However, in recent years, advances in digital technology have created exciting opportunities for using video in language teaching and learning. Video digital technology has made it easier to produce and edit video in a classroom setting as it is highly accessible with much of the technology

already existing on students' mobile phones, ipods and ipads. On the internet, video editing software such as *Windows Movie Maker* can be downloaded for free and students can edit their videos easily. Research on video production as a tool for language learning and teaching has thus started to emerge with researchers examining the potential of digital video creation as a tool to enhance language learning. (Dal, 2010; Goldstein and Driver, 2015; Hafner and Miller, 2011; Shrosbee, 2008). Several case studies have been carried out in which researchers evaluated the effectiveness of video-making projects conducted in their own language classrooms (Goulah, 2007; Gromik, 2012; Kearney, Jones and Roberts 2012; Naqvi and Mahrooqi, 2016; Nikitina, 2010; Reyes, Pich and Garcia, 2012). Between 2008 and 2010, the European funded *Divis* project *(Digital video streaming and multilingualism)* also aimed to encourage, motivate and equip language teachers to include video production in their teaching[10]. The abovementioned studies demonstrate that digital video creation is not a new idea, and indicate that it is becoming an increasingly popular practice amongst researchers and teachers. However, it is also clear that very little research has been conducted on the integration of digital video creation in language teaching, and even less on its implications for developing language skills and other skills such as critical thinking, social and collaborative skills (Naqvi and Mahrooqi, 2016, p.51). Caws and Heift (2016, p.129) further argue that 'the current culture of CALL, and, more specifically, the growing role of digital media in the daily life of learners, cannot be ignored'.

Digital video creation in LSP

Research in the field of LSP also points to digital video creation as a very appropriate multimodal teaching and learning activity in this domain. Firstly, LSP is traditionally a multidisciplinary activity which requires the learner to engage not just with the target language but also with disciplinary knowledge. Digital video creation enables language learners to link the learning of the target language with the learning of other content linked to their discipline. It further enables them to do this within a realistic context, reinforcing the principle that tasks for LSP learners should be as realistic for the learners' language goals as possible (Laborda, 2011, p.104) and use 'real-world' language in 'real-life' situations (Secules, Herron and Tomasello, 1992). LSP learners can thus blend language learning with disciplinary learning in a 'real-world' multimodal context through video production.

LSP teaching must also move with developments in new technologies as it is vital that 'LSP methodologies should be rooted in how technology is used in real-life professional practices' (Arnó-

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[10] www.divisproject.eu

Macià, 2014, pp.15-16). Video creation also assists the LSP learner in the acquisition of a wider range of professional and social skills. Arnó-Macià (2014, p.9) draws attention to the centrality of social and critical skills for the LSP learner, arguing that LSP courses play a vital role in the integration of professional communication skills with key social and critical competences that students need to participate in society. It is particularly important that LSP learners acquire those communication skills necessary to participate in 21st century society. Goldstein and Driver (2015, p.117) cite the acquisition of '21st century skills' as amongst the goals of any digital video creation project:

The primary goals are *situating language through practical engagement* in the creation of digital artefacts. This is achieved through the process of guided reflection, critical thinking, performance, debate, design, creativity and other competences often referred to as '21st century skills'.

Video production enables LSP learners to think critically about the topic they have chosen to present, to express their ideas and opinions, to debate, to perform and above all to be creative. It gives learners choices, not only about what to say, but also how to say it and how to present a point of view (Dal, 2010, p.5). The development of these skills is vital for the LSP learner, and the use of this tool further enables them to do so in a multimodal context, allowing them the choice to select particular modes to shape the meaning they wish to create (see Section on 'Towards a multimodal approach to LSP').

The task-based nature of digital video creation is equally advantageous for the LSP learner. Video production is very much a learner-centred, practical, hands-on, creative project. It is essentially a form of task-based learning which embraces the social constructivist view of constructing knowledge and meaning in a social context through practice (Arnó-Macià, 2014, p.14; Goldstein and Driver, 2015, p.118). Nikitina (2010, p.22) argues video-making projects include all the core elements of progressive language pedagogy.

(…) involving language learners in the production of digital video in the target language follows constructivist perspectives on teaching and learning since the main tenets of progressive language pedagogy, such as learner-centeredness, activity-based learning, and a communicative approach, put emphasis on the active involvement of the learners in the teaching/learning process and call for collaboration between learners. All these elements are present in the video-making activity.

Through video creation LSP learners learn to negotiate meaning through the creation of a digital artefact. Students become 'producers' of language (Dal, 2010, p.3; Shrosbee, 2008, p.75). This is vital in language learning as every human is both a producer and a consumer of language and digital media enable learners to be both producers and consumers of language (Gee and Hayes, 2011, pp.

2-3). By producing videos on subject areas relevant to their discipline, they produce language, negotiate meaning, communicate and collaborate and thus engage in a multimodal language learning activity which is both meaningful and pedagogically effective.

Digital video creation in the LSP classroom; a case study[11]

In 2017, a study was carried out with students in the National University of Ireland, Galway. The study was based on a digital video creation project carried out with a group of second year undergraduate students on the BSc in Biotechnology programme, who also studied French as part of their programme. The students were asked to create short videos in French on areas of contemporary Biotechnology research of their choice, and produced videos on a variety of topics including hybrid embryos, genetically modified foods, the Zika, animal testing in Biotechnology research etc. The effectiveness of this multimodal teaching and learning tool was subsequently evaluated through an investigation of student perceptions of the usefulness of this activity, and a subsequent comparison of this data with an analysis of the digital artefacts created. The quantitative and qualitative data gathered was indicative of an overwhelmingly positive response to the use of this tool in LSP. The participants in this study found it to be a very helpful means of improving their language skills, especially in the domain of the acquisition of specialised vocabulary. In particular, the usefulness of this project to improve their pronunciation, accent and general speaking skills was highlighted, and participants explained that digital video creation gives learners the unique opportunity to see and hear themselves and to self-correct before submitting the final product. Teamwork, organisational, communication and video production skills were all identified as key competencies acquired during the course of this project, thus demonstrating that video creation can play a key role in the acquisition of professional and social skills, a factor identified as a key tenet of LSP courses (see section of 'Why adopt a multimodal approach'). 'Fun' was a frequent term used by students in feedback gathered, and responses showed that that students appreciated the opportunities to creative and to engage in task-based learning that this project gave them. Students thus perceived digital video creation as more than just a means to improve their language skills, but also as a means to acquire other key social and professional skills in a creative and fun way. The analysis of the videos indicated that these findings could be substantiated, and the high quality of the videos produced demonstrated that engaging in digital video production had had a strong impact on these learners. The analysis also revealed that the students had engaged with a variety of modes when creating the videos including moving images, still images, speech, audio, music,

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[11] For a full account of this study see Rodgers, Ornaith & Ní Dhonnchadha, Labhaoise. 2018. Digital Video Creation in the LSP Classroom. *The EuroCALL Review* **26**(1), pp.43-58.

gestures and text. They had chosen particular semiotic modes and combined them in specific ways to create meaning (see Section on 'Towards a multimodal approach to LSP').

This study corroborated studies which point to video creation as a pedagogically useful tool for language learning and teaching and highlighted the pedagogical potential of this multimodal teaching and learning tool in the LSP classroom. Above all, it gives a very practical example as to how a multimodal approach can be integrated into LSP courses in Higher Education. It demonstrates that digital video creation enables learners to keep pace with the multimodality afforded by digital media and means that their language learning is both contextualised and authentic. The application of this multimodal tool also assists LSP learners in the acquisition of those professional, social and communication skills deemed necessary to participate in 21st century society (see section on 'Digital video creation in LSP').

CONCLUSION

LSP learners in Higher Education are in a unique situation in the sense that they are non-specialists both in terms of the language they are studying and their primary area of study. They are, however, seeking to enter the discourse community of their discipline and as language teachers, our role is to use the methodologies and activities necessary to help them to achieve this goal. The field of LSP is thus, by its nature, driven by the need to respond to students' linguistic needs. This article demonstrated how LSP has evolved over the years in response to the changing needs of learners (Sections 1 and 2.2) and in recent years factors such as increasing globalisation and the development of new communication technologies have transformed LSP teaching and learning (Section 2.3). However, several researchers have highlighted the need to rethink approaches to LSP in light of the complexity of today's communicative landscape (Section 3). Digital technologies mediate many of our daily interactions and the rise in multimodalities is a strong feature of technologically-mediated communication. This article advocates the application of a multimodal approach to LSP learning in Higher Education so that learners can engage with a wide range of semiotic resources when studying a language. Learners must be able to keep pace with the complexity of communication in today's society and to negotiate the multimodalities that permeate it.   In this article, digital video creation was taken as a practical example of how a multimodal approach can be taken to LSP in Higher Education (Sections 4.1 and 4.2). This multimodal tool enables learners to blend language learning with disciplinary learning and simultaneously develop other professional skills such as critical thinking, creativity, teamwork, organisational skills and other 21st century competences. It further provides them with an opportunity to produce language and create meaning in a multimodal way using a wide variety of semiotic resources.

This article seeks simply to highlight the need to consider a multimodal approach to LSP teaching in Higher Education, and digital video creation is but one of many multimodal tools that can be used. Going forward, LSP researchers should consider examining the integration of other multimodal teaching and learning activities in the Higher Education classroom in order to prepare learners for the complex communicative landscape that awaits them in the discourse communities of their relevant disciplines.

Address for correspondence: ornaith.rodgers@nuigalway.ie

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Interdisciplinary EAP: Moving Beyond Aporetic English for General Academic Purposes

Jenna Bodin-Galvez

The Language Centre, University of Leeds.

Alex Ding

School of Languages, Cultures and Societies, University of Leeds.

ABSTRACT:

This article documents and reflects on the development of an interdisciplinary English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP) course. Historically, there has tended to be a dichotomous discourse within the EAP community regarding the relative merits and shortcomings of adopting either a general or specific approach to teaching English for Academic Purposes. The arguments for both of these positions are explored and particular attention is paid to the often very underwhelming arguments for EGAP.

Having explored the arguments for general and specific orientations to teaching EAP, one of the authors reflects on her experience of developing and teaching on an EAP course with an interdisciplinary focus as a means of overcoming the often unimaginative approaches to dealing with cohorts of students from different disciplines.

The final section of this article critically examines understandings of specificity, interdisciplinarity and disciplinarity from within EAP, and, based on these observations, we make some tentative suggestions as to how interdisciplinarity can provide a useful platform for discussions with students on the social and ideological dimensions of knowledge production.

KEYWORDS: English for Specific Academic Purposes; English for General Academic Purposes; Disciplinarity; Interdisciplinarity; Course Design

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this short piece, which can be qualified as speculative and provisional, is *not* primarily to try to enter into the considerable long-standing dichotomous and ideational discussions of the merits and shortcomings of English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP) and English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP). Rather, this thought piece documents and reflects on our attempts to reimagine, rethink and move beyond the often rather uninspiring and emaciated tropes that characterise arguments for EGAP.

To achieve this, we initially review some of the most frequent and substantive arguments that dominate EAP with regards to, firstly, ESAP and then EGAP. Particular attention is paid to the largely aporetic nature of arguments for EGAP in order to reimagine EGAP from within an interdisciplinary framework.

We then draw on our experience of developing interdisciplinary presessional EGAP programmes at the universities of Leeds and Nottingham to reflect on the affordances and constraints of adopting a distinctive interdisciplinary framework for EGAP.

Thirdly, and briefly, we consider theoretical and ideological issues, from a largely social realist perspective, around notions of disciplinarity, 'normal' vs 'hyper' interdisciplinarity, and we question the frequent equivocation of disciplinarity with specificity.

In lieu of a conclusion, we return to aporia - the sense of doubt, puzzlement, impasse and perplexity – that frames much of the discussion of specificity and EGAP and, in the spirit of a thought piece, invite you to contribute to our understanding and development of interdisciplinary ESAP.

ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC ACADEMIC PURPOSES

The issue of specificity in EAP and ESP more generally has been a longstanding preoccupation for practitioners and researchers alike that stretches back to at least the 1980s (e.g. Hutchinson and Waters, 1987) and the 'notion of specificity is at the heart of most definitions of EAP' (Hyland, 2018: 17). Hyland claims:

> The issue of specificity … challenges EAP teachers to take a stance on how they view language and learning, and to examine their courses in light of this stance.
> Hyland, 2016: 17.

As such, specificity, for all EAP practitioners, is a central concern not just in terms of course design, teaching and rationale but also, equally fundamentally, in terms of practitioner identity, agency and recognition. Two recent review articles (Flowerdew, 2016, and Hyland, 2016) outline the handful of the most persuasive, persistent and frequent arguments for ESAP. Unsurprisingly, their respective review of key arguments overlap considerably and are briefly outlined below.

Perhaps the most persuasive and central argument for ESAP relates to the multifarious differences between disciplines. These differences are seen as so fundamental that they preclude any satisfactory generic approach to teaching EAP. Hyland states that 'disciplines are largely created and maintained through the distinctive ways in which members jointly construct a view of the world through their discourses' (Hyland, 2016: 20-21). The notion of community, and specifically communication *within* a disciplinary community (Hyland, 2006), is central to ESAP. Differences between disciplines provides the basis for justifying ESAP. These differences can be summarised as follows (synthesised from Hyland, 2006):

- Disciplinary forms of argument;
- Knowledge attribution (from actors in the field, to schools of thought through to non-attributed canonical forms);
- Writing style (e.g. relative readability, sentence length, use of sub-technical lexis);
- Citation practices;
- Rhetorical structure(s);
- Stance and voice and,
- Writer engagement strategies

This partial picture of differences *between* disciplines can be further complicated by differences *within* disciplines where, for example, disciplines display non-cumulative knowledge structures (in Kuhn's (1970) terms 'pre-paradigm' or in Bernstein's (2000) terms 'horizontal knowledge structures') where knowledge is more segmented and such disciplines are typically 'a series of approaches that

develop by adding another approach alongside existing approaches' (Maton, 2011: 63). In these cases, disciplines (such as sociology) are likely to display some or all of the differences bullet pointed above in part because there may be competing theoretical orientations and commitments (including fundamental differences in ontological and epistemological beliefs, methodologies and methods, ideological orientations…) *within the discipline.*

It has been argued that both language and literacy are not generalisable across disciplines (Murray, 2016) and, therefore, by focusing on specificity, students are gaining knowledge directly relevant to, for example, the epistemology, genres conventions and language of their discourse community (Anderson, 2014; Wingate, 2018). This is reflected in the philosophical perspective of social constructivism, which argues that communicative practices, more specifically how discipline-specific views of the world are jointly constructed through discourse within communities, both create and maintain these disciplines (Basturkmen, 2003). Understanding of and exposure to this is crucial for students to gain membership of their specific communities of practice and disciplinary communities.

A common argument is that subject lecturers (Flowerdew, 2016; Hyland, 2016; Prior, 1998) lack either or both the expertise and the inclination/time to teach or develop the specific disciplinary literacy skills that their students require. In addition, subject lecturers may also consider academic and disciplinary conventions to be transparent or self-evident. Flowerdew (2016) considers this scenario as an opportunity for EAP practitioners to engage in a useful division of labour with subject lecturers whereby EAP practitioners engage with the writing/language in the discipline and the subject lecturers focus on the content. Flowerdew (2016) claims that the substantial body of ESAP research on disciplinarity can then be integrated into teaching ESAP classes where students can be encultured and socialised into the discursive conventions and practices of their discipline (Swales, 1990). This ESAP approach also enables practitioners to obtain greater professional recognition, improve self-esteem, reach equity with 'academics' and engender greater practitioner motivation (Flowerdew, 2016). It requires more qualified practitioners and 'elevates' the importance of their work (Hyland, 2016). An additional argument for ESAP is that it has face validity for students and is therefore a source of motivation (Basturkmen, 2003; Flowerdew, 2016; Hyland, 2016).

ENGLISH FOR GENERAL ACADEMIC PURPOSES

When compared to ESAP, the discussions of EGAP are generally uninspiring, possibly outdated and occasionally defensive, with the main justifications for EGAP relating to 'contextual exigencies' (Hyland, 2016:23) such as financial and logistical barriers to teaching ESAP. Alexander et al. (2008: 26) claim 'most EAP classes…must be general because they contain a mixture of subject areas', with literature often citing student numbers, resources and issues with accessing subject specific content as the main reasons for taking an EGAP approach (Flowerdew, 2016).

As with ESAP there is a common core of a handful of arguments for EGAP and, with a few exceptions, most of these arguments are historical and seem less plausible as more research has emerged within ESAP. The first of these arguments, again summarised largely from Flowerdew's (2016) and Hyland's (2016) recent reviews of ESAP and EGAP, suggest that there is no need for practitioners to teach the specialised language of the disciplines as these special features will be taught by content lecturers or learned once the students are studying in their respective schools and departments. Instead, practitioners can more usefully focus on those features of language that make up a 'common core' across all disciplines (Bloor and Bloor, 1986). Significant at the time, Hutchinson and Waters' 1987 book also argued strongly for this approach. This approach entails teaching generic features of academic language such as register (e.g. lexical density, nominalisation) and including aspects of language such as metadiscourse and hedging. These ideas about generic

features of language have had a prolonged life (perhaps beyond their credibility) in part due to just how amenable these ideas of generic academic language are to publishers of highly lucrative academic study course and text books bought by many students around the world. In addition, a common trope is that students at lower levels are not yet ready for specificity (Hyland, 2002).

Similar to generic features of academic language there is also an argument for identifying skills and study activities (such as note-taking, listening to lectures, paraphrasing) deemed common to all disciplines which can then be operationalised in a range of contexts and disciplines (Hyland, 2016). Again, it is not difficult to envisage the commercial appeal of such arguments.

As disciplinary strangers, it has also been argued (cf. Spack, 1988; Sloan and Porter, 2010) that EAP practitioners have neither the confidence nor the expertise, nor, indeed, the qualifications to deal with the specificity of subject/discipline specific language and content and therefore Spack (1988:29) argues that practitioners should teach 'general principles of inquiry and rhetoric'. Raimes (1991), in a similar vein, suggests that academic writing should be located within the liberal arts and, by doing so, this would raise the profile and professionalism of the practitioner instead of adopting the 'butler's stance' by being subservient to disciplinary demands and power.

One of the most striking theoretical justifications for EGAP focuses on the differences between education and training, arguing that EGAP is the former, and ESAP the latter (Widdowson, 1983). Education, here, is defined as preparing students for a wide range of needs, and thereby having a wide focus, with training seen as providing students with a 'restricted competence to deal with defined tasks', due to focusing solely on specific skills and schemata, thereby having a narrow focus. Huckin (2003) claims that ESAP forecloses creativity and promotes a dull and rigid conformity to convention entailing the reproduction of unimaginative and formulaic texts without preparing students for their less predictable future communicative needs.

Thus far, the arguments above both for EGAP and against ESAP will be very familiar to practitioners and will also perhaps seem rather tired and unhelpful. The few more positive reasons for adopting EGAP are discussed below.

Feak (2011; 2016), an advocate for EGAP who highlights the growing trend towards interdisciplinarity within higher education, justifies EGAP, especially for taught post-graduate students, with the rational that it is the students', rather than the practitioners' responsibility to notice, and thereby understand, their disciplinary conventions. Expanding on this, this paper centres on the rationale for EGAP with an interdisciplinary focus, arguing that this approach enables students to gain the benefits from and beyond ESAP, highlighting that perhaps disciplinary identity is further developed through contrasting disciplinary differences, rather than focusing solely on one. A similar argument is made by Swales and Feak (2012) who encourage students to compare their disciplinary experiences through contrasting rhetorical analysis of disciplinary texts.

Bruce (2005) offers a principled approach to developing an EGAP writing course based on a cognitive discourse model operating with the four most commonly recurring rhetorical types; rhetorical focus, gestalt structure, discourse patterning, and principal internal discourse patterning (Bruce, 2005: 244). This approach entails developing an analytical syllabus organised using the non-discipline specific discourse unit of the cognitive (rather than social) genre. Bruce provides a theoretically rigorous and practical approach to develop an EGAP writing programme. However, perhaps due to the prevalence of arguments for ESAP and also possibly due to the fact that understanding and adopting Bruce's approach requires some effort (compared to most of the arguments above for

EGAP) and investment to understand the theory behind this approach, it is unfortunate that this cognitive genre approach to EGAP has not been as influential as it should have been.

An emerging theoretical framework that is beginning to re-orientate ideas about teaching and framing EAP is Legitimation Code Theory (LCT). LCT, rooted in social realism, building on Bernstein's work and aligning with SFL, is complex, rich and dynamic and focuses on knowledge in terms of its epistemic and social relations:

> LCT aims to provide concrete tools to research and to change educational practices by investigating the underlying codes that are at the heart of what is considered 'legitimate' in knowledge practices across institutions and disciplines.
> Monbec, 2018:90.

Work in this area is only just emerging but work by Brooke (2017), Ingold & O'Sullivan (2017), Kirk, (2017/2019) and Monbec (2018) may soon provide enough confidence and evidence to invigorate the reshaping, rethinking and development of what has been to date often rather emaciated arguments for EGAP.

Our final observations on EGAP are also true of ESAP (although probably less damming) and they relate to critical strands within and beyond EAP which perceive EAP practices from a hierarchical and often binary ideological perspective. EGAP does not come out well from these perspectives. Critical approaches to EAP tend to operate with the trope of EAP as 'taught by unreflective instructors blindly resolved on enforcing orthodoxy' (Hyland, 2018: 383) in which:

> Both academic literacies and Critical EAP invite practitioners to adopt a 'transformative agenda' (Lillis & Tuck, 2016:30) rather than the dominant 'normative' orientation in EAP (ibid.) and a failure to adopt such an approach implies adopting an 'accommodationist ideology' (Benesch, 1993: 711) entailing 'political quietism' (Benesch, 2001:41) and fulfilling a colluding 'technician' role (Morgan, 2009) working against the best interests of students (Hyland, 2018).
> Ding, 2019: npng.

Recently, for example, Jenkins (2016) has labelled 'general' EAP courses as 'Traditional' with:

> [r]esearch and publications at this end of the conforming scale (particularly EAP materials for students) tend to be concerned with standards, to assume and/or focus on idealized native English academic norms, and not to question whether these norms are the most appropriate globally or why they should still be considered in some way better than other possibilities.
> Jenkins, 2016: 49.

From an ELFA perspective EGAP would suffer criticism for promoting idealised native academic norms. ESAP, through genre and corpus approaches, would be less susceptible to the harshest of these criticisms but would nonetheless be considered a conformist rather than challenging approach to teaching EAP (Jenkins, 2016).

The choice then is not simply between a narrow ESAP or generic EGAP approach to framing and teaching EAP but, more broadly, situating praxis within the critical discourse in and beyond EAP that provokes deeper discussions about the purposes and practices of EAP. These rather binary and absolute options regarding the ideological orientations and theoretical commitments of EAP have, historically, mirrored dichotomous debates over the relative merits of ESAP and EGAP. However,

there is a sense now that ESAP and EGAP is less about binary choices and more about situating options and choices on a spectrum (Hyland, 2016): 'the choice between one or other side [ESAP or EGAP] depend[ing] upon practical circumstances more than ideological positioning' (Flowerdew, 2016: 8). Hyland, however, although acknowledging that EGAP approaches have some merits they are nonetheless second best:

> Essentially, however, these [EGAP] can only bridge the gap between the kinds of language students learn and use at school, which are typically often proficiency-focused personal essays, to the specific demands of disciplinary writing.
> Hyland, 2018: 391.

REFLECTIONS ON AN INTERDISCIPLINARY FOCUS IN AN EGAP PRESESSIONAL PROGRAMME

This section was written by the first author Jenna Bodin-Galvez and is based on her experience of developing and leading a pressessional EGAP course at the University of Leeds. Her observations echo many of the experiences of the second author, Alex Ding, during his time at the University of Nottingham developing a similar course.

Approaching EGAP with an interdisciplinarity focus enables disciplinary content to be addressed with mixed disciplinary groups; with students focusing on the same goals but from different disciplinary perspectives. This approach meets the increasing trend towards interdisciplinarity in universities (Feak 2011), and enables EAP practitioners to facilitate, but not to lead, the students' understanding of their discipline specific knowledge, thereby addressing the second of the BALEAP (2008) competencies, disciplinary differences, to 'guide students to investigate the genres and expert practitioners of their specific discourse communities'. In addition, as Hyland (2002) notes, although disciplines view knowledge and the world differently, students are often expected to cross boundaries, for instance when discussing problems and conducting research, and therefore need to develop complex skills to operate in a wide range of social and academic environments. Addressing content in a multi-disciplinary environment enables students to work on interdisciplinary communication, and to begin to understand that, throughout their academic careers, they will encounter diversity.

Through this approach, students are able to develop their disciplinary knowledge - possibly through rhetorical consciousness raising (Hyland 2002) - as in ESAP, which can aid student motivation (Feak 2011), It has been suggested that, through working with students from different disciplinary backgrounds and contrasting how their disciplines function, students may more easily be able to see how their discipline views and constructs knowledge (Hyland 2002; Swales and Feak, 2000), for example by examining the way cognitive genres are constructed across disciplines (Bruce 2008). Therefore, it could be argued, students on a EGAP programme with an interdisciplinary focus can develop a stronger disciplinary identity than through ESAP. As Alexander et al (2008: 26) note;

> EAP is principally an endeavour in which students acquire the generic tools to research the language and culture of their academic discourse community for themselves and this can be achieved in mixed or subject specific groups.
> Alexander et al (2008: 26).

The Academic English for Postgraduate Studies (AEPS) Level Three presessional course at the University of Leeds follows such a model. This ten-week course runs three times each academic year, to three different cohorts of students with a minimum English language proficiency entry level of IELTS 5.5. It centres around a different ambiguous and abstract theme each term, for example 'risk'

or 'time'. Students address the theme in relation to their discipline, writing a paper, presenting at a conference and participating in a seminar. For example, with risk, students addressed the question 'What role does risk play in your discipline?' in both the paper and at the conference, based on their interpretation of the question and their readings. Following the conference, students then conducted a seminar in which they discussed how attending presentations in a range of disciplines at the conference developed their perspectives and understanding of 'risk'. Throughout the term, students work towards these goals, developing their academic language and literacy in their discipline, whilst also developing their interdisciplinary knowledge.

This approach entails a number of the benefits of ESAP and gives the course face validity (Hughes 2003). For instance, students are developing both their disciplinary knowledge and identity, starting to gain membership to their particular communities of practice and are writing in appropriate cognitive and social genres (Bruce 2008) developing their disciplinary language and literacy. However, due to the interdisciplinary element, there are additional benefits, including enabling a mixed-disciplinary group to be focused on the same goals, while approaching these from different angles, and students beginning to gain a greater understanding of their own discipline, through a comparison with others. This also allows them, as mentioned above, to analyse how knowledge is constructed, for instance whether it is empirical and objective, or explicitly interpretive (Kirk 2015), and to understand how language is used in their discipline when compared to others; thereby developing a stronger academic identity. It also aids students in their development as independent learners, such as developing the ability to mine texts for appropriate discourse and language features, and to find their own sources, rather than these being provided, which is often the case in ESAP.

The course at Leeds has been successful, as evidenced in the report from the external examiner, who commented that 'students in this level have the opportunity to really engage with language, literature and ideas in their particular discipline which offers the best preparation for their academic future', and feedback from students, with 98% of students agreeing, in the most recent feedback, that the programme prepared them for post-graduate study, including comments such as 'the course is so beneficial on our Master's degree' and 'It is good to think deeply about my discipline'. However, although overall the course has generally been a success, there are still a number of challenges.

The first is that this approach, unlike ESAP, relies on students having disciplinary knowledge, which is not always the case. Those that do not have a solid base in their discipline often find the course overly challenging, leading to them focusing on trying to pass, rather than focusing on the learning process. Moreover, it does not always match with students' expectations, with them regarding a presessional course as a 'language course', rather than one that aims to help students to develop both academically and linguistically. This often leads to students not fully understanding the benefits until on their Master's programmes, with feedback at the end of term, such as 'I think teachers should remember we are pre-sessional students, not Master's students', developing into 'The course developed my academic skills….many students have a misconception about such a programme to only help their general English' when on their Master's programmes. However, the biggest challenge is that this approach can lead to an anti-scientific bias, as the genre of their main writing task is an essay, when, as Gardner et al (2018) note, in physical sciences, the majority of assignments are reports. In addition, practitioners are drawing on their previous writing experience when guiding students, which is often humanities based. It, therefore, relies on the students having a good understanding of scientific writing, or being prepared to challenge the writing expectations and 'norms' in the EAP classroom.

IN LIEU OF A CONCLUSION : DISCIPLINES, INTERDISCIPLINARITY, HYPER-DISCIPLINARITY, SPECIFICITY, & APORETIC EGAP.

Neither of us would suggest that the EGAP course described above resolves the perennial issues of ESAP or EGAP and, in a number of key ways, we acknowledge that much could still be developed and refined on this course. However, experience of teaching and developing this interdisciplinary approach to presessional EGAP has made us think much harder about; interdisciplinarity, disciplines and specificity. This thinking has taken us beyond the EAP literature and into the realms of social realism and the sociology of knowledge. Our first set of observations are based on a chapter by Moore (2011).

Rhetorically speaking, interdisciplinarity has often been accompanied by hyperbolic 'rhetorical inflation' (Moore, 2011: 90) whereby interdisciplinarity is associated with progressive political positions serving the disadvantaged and marginalised and can be neatly contrasted with elitist, conservative, reactionary disciplinarity serving the interests of the dominant class/group. Moore labels this form of discursive interdisciplinarity 'hyper-interdisciplinarity'. In addition, this discursive position claims that disciplines are arbitrary, historical, social constructions without any special or defining epistemological status. We would also argue that there are neoliberal variations on hyper-interdisciplinarity whereby the rhetoric of interdisciplinarity is a useful tool to reconfigure disciplines (and courses) into profitable commodities that can be sold to students and render the university more attractive to research funders through, for example, the trope of interdisciplinarity as a key means to solve (profitably) 'real-world problems'.

However, whether from a neoliberal or progressive perspective, this hyper-interdisciplinarity can be contrasted with routine, mundane interdisciplinarity. Abbot (2001) states that 'the emphasis on interdisciplinarity emerged contemporaneously with, not after, the disciplines' (Abbot, 2001: 132) and he suggests this emerged in the US in the 1920s. Interdisciplinarity is, then, routine, normal and an everyday feature of academic life and interdisciplinarity did not follow from disciplinarity but grew alongside. There is, in short, nothing special about interdisciplinarity.

Moore goes on to make three very interesting distinctions as to how disciplines can be understood which provide a much more nuanced understanding than is often the case in EAP. Firstly, disciplines can be distinguished by their ontologies and methodologies. Secondly, by how disciplines are located around the university. And thirdly, how disciplines are organised professionally through, for example, associations, conferences, papers and people.

The last point we would like to draw from Moore (2011) concerns the purpose(s) of interdisciplinarity. Moore, posits that the 'problem' defines the nature of interdisciplinarity. It might be case that disciplines are brought together to solve a problem and then disperse. This is not interdisciplinarity rather a temporary configuration of parts of disciplines. It is ad hoc and unlikely to have a permanent impact on the disciplines. Disciplines, however, need problems to continue and develop; they are integral to its stability, identity and continuation.

What does all the above have to do with ESAP or EGAP? Firstly, it suggests that EAP does not fully consider the routine and mundane nature of much of interdisciplinarity. *Specificity* especially as it tends to be equated/elided/confused with *disciplinarity* seems to produce terminology and approaches to framing ESAP (and EGAP) whereby the interdisciplinary lives and needs of students risk being occulted and neglected. Specificity (for students) may often not be located within but among the disciplines. Boundary crossing (Feak, 2016; Hyland, 2016) and the 'rhetorically complicated life' (Hyland, 2016: 23) of interdisciplinary studies are acknowledged occasionally but

little significant pedagogic attention has been devoted to this. This observation points to a way forward moving beyond the rather aporetic history of EGAP with tropes of novice practitioners enacting emaciated study skills courses and unable to envisage EGAP as anything other than limited in effectiveness and scope and always second best to ESAP.

If we take the views here on interdisciplinarity seriously then we can begin to think of EGAP pedagogy and syllabi differently. It also, and finally, suggests that a vital component of an interdisciplinary EGAP programme must make visible the social dimensions of knowledge production. Students need to be aware of and consider the issues raised in this section, for example: to understand that knowledge can be framed through rhetorical hyperbole and ideological positioning, forms and iterations of interdisciplinarity may exist primarily to generate profit, and that interdisciplinarity may in some cases be quite ephemeral. Ultimately, students are members of and participants in the university not only apprentices being socialised into the disciplinary or interdisciplinary practices of their respective programmes and departments, and, as such, considerations of interdisciplinarity, as conceived here, enable conversations and perspectives to emerge as to the purpose and values of universities.

Address for correspondence: J. Bodin-Galvez@leeds.ac.uk

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Reviews

#SEC2019: Learning Spaces: A review of the 2019 Annual Student Education Conference at The University of Leeds

Jody Bradford

The Language Centre, School of Languages, Cultures and Societies, University of Leeds

Key words: Learning spaces; language teaching; pedagogy; multi-modality; learner analytics; action; student and teacher well-being

The annual Student Education Conference in Leeds took place on 10th and 11th January. This presented a real opportunity to engage with some current thinking regarding pedagogy and, as the title of the conference suggests, learning spaces. Although a university-wide conference, this theme can appeal to language teachers at the University of Leeds for a number of reasons. There appears to be an issue of a lack of, or a perceived lack of teaching space appropriate to language teachers in particular. Due to the more interactive way in which we often conduct our lessons in languages, seminar and flat floor rooms are much more feasible for delivering effective classes: this can differ from discipline teaching, which (depending on the discipline) may be more lecture theatre or laboratory based. The conference did broach relevant current thinking and proposed solutions to this challenge, in order to move forward with our future generations of learners, whilst also providing perspectives and scholarly approaches concerning teaching and pedagogy, with some emphasis on research therein.

Although there were many themes and paradigms approached at the conference of possible interest to language teachers, this review will attempt to address the readers of the Language Scholar with only the most pertinent and accessible information which may be applied or pursued in the space we have at Leeds and elsewhere. It aims to be reflective, yet concise and practical in nature with an eye to being useful and insightful while considering some possible future implications of learning spaces and pedagogy in language teaching. If you would like any more information or academic contacts relating to the concepts and applications from the conference, please see the address for correspondence at the end of the review.

The key themes of the conference appeared to address several progressive areas. Could the application of learner analytics, the emergence of immersive technology and the more readily available facility of multi-modal learning resources and environments convince students and

teachers of an authentic and accessible approach? By authentic, this means an approach which allows students to explore, discuss and form relationships in a classroom which is contextually relevant to their world. This question should be unpacked and applied to our professional situations and areas of concern at the university. Is it possible to find a solution to both a real and perceived lack of space and favourable work environment, particularly during the summer at the Language Centre, for example?

The opening keynote speech by Adam Finkelstein of McGill University in Montreal explored ideas, concepts and also physical design ideas of learning spaces in action. Even changing the classroom in small and meaningful ways, such as moving furniture and adding extra whiteboards can make a great impact on both student and teacher engagement and well-being. Most of us, as language teachers, are used to applying these changes in the classroom and seeing them work to great effect. We should not forget the power that these kinds of classroom adjustments can have, even amongst perceived backdrops of formality in higher education. Current discussions around mental health also, rightly, point out that both student and teacher well-being are paramount to effective teaching and learning in the classroom, and to contribute (hopefully) to a sense of fulfilment for both parties. By using and manipulating what is available and in front of us in the classroom can help to contribute to this, by helping us, as teachers, to feel in control of our own environment: this confidence in our own learning environment can then help to reassure students and lower anxiety levels in the classroom. Adam also explored the 'marrying up' of the ideal with the practical and achievable. Despite other fascinating talks that followed during the conference on innovative learning spaces across the world by architects and project leaders, Adam stayed on the teacher's level: in that he accepted, due to budget allocation and HE allowances and funding, sometimes there were big frustrations regarding the 'rolling out' and installation of such comfortable and standardised learning spaces. This, however, is not an excuse for us not to employ our own expert take on learning spaces conducive to our own pedagogical style and wellbeing in the classroom, using and adapting the tools that are available to us, while also employing an openness to new ideas, techniques and institutional change. For example, Adam referred to James Lang's (2016) article 'Small changes in teaching: The first 5 minutes of class', which refers to the relationships we build with our students in those precious couple of minutes before formal class time starts – these couple of minutes of interaction can go much further in building relationships than arriving exactly on time, or shuffling papers at the desk. Adam also outlined the importance of seemingly small logistical set-ups: how the furniture is positioned and how the lighting is configured can have both a subtle and significant impact on our

behaviour as teachers, which of course can hugely influence our students and their perspectives on learning in our spaces.

During the second day of the conference, there was a panel discussion led by a range of speakers, including a student, architect and the two keynote speakers. Key aspects of this Q&A session relevant to Language Teachers included themes we are used to addressing, as actors in the classroom. These include the consideration of the use of informal, as well as formal, spaces. As many of us did and continue to do as students and learners and have been used to doing as language teachers in various environments, we should expand (again!) our thinking to using spaces beyond the classroom. These could include informal spaces, such as meeting rooms, cafes and library shared spaces. We can and should view campus as a 'living laboratory': as teachers or researchers or both, we should be able to use physical spaces, whether formal or informal, as spaces in which we can teach, collaborate, access and duly filter appropriate information and observations. This equally extends to our virtual learning and teaching spaces, where the use of learner analytics can help us to provide quality input and motivate our students to 'study smart' and can also help us to manage our work load more effectively. Questions of ethics related to learner analytics are incredibly important and clear guidelines need to be established and reflected on. All this being said, it became apparent through this conference that, if used properly and sensitively, learner analytics could open several doors in education when considering student learning methods and approaches, teacher workload and innovative curriculum design.

The question of how we can achieve a fully integrated learning experience was also posed. Bearing in mind the generation that we now teach and future generations of students to come, we must accept that we are dealing with learners who do not necessarily remark upon the difference between virtual and physical space. That is not to say that students do not value teachers and physical spaces; it is to say that students are beginning to accept the blended learning style approach as a norm rather than as an exception and using this to their advantage. As teachers, we can harness this digital fluidity and adaptability that students undoubtedly now possess to our advantage. Students who have grown up with smart technology are seemingly more able to process and filter the masses of information easily available to them by using tools and learning experiences that did not exist in the past. As teachers, we should recognise this potential of moving seamlessly between virtual and real spaces, and harness it; knowing that this could help to address, in part, the issues we may have with physical space on campus.

Looking forward, we can and should take some of these progressive ideas from the conference into account, whilst also maintaining our expertise as practitioners, educators and researchers in pedagogy in the classroom to encourage ourselves and our peers to make the small and meaningful changes that are within our control and which can have a great impact on people.

Address for correspondence: j.bradford@leeds.ac.uk

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