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Edited by Bee Bond and Kazuki Morimoto

Editorial Board

The Leeds Language Scholar Journal

The Language Scholar is an open access and peer-reviewed journal. Its main objective is to provide a platform to promote the scholarship of learning and teaching languages.

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

Bee Bond and Kazuki Morimoto

In this short editorial, we look back at the last two years of the Language Scholar to celebrate its growth and development.

Building on the strong foundations created by the first editorial team, we have published six issues from 2018 to 2020 (Issue 3-8). These have included three special issues which have focused respectively on content-based teaching; Arabic teaching and Study Abroad, each acting as conference proceedings for events that have been run or organised by colleagues from Leeds. The Journal has also strengthened its focus on language teaching; we have redeveloped our aims, the submissions categories and guidelines and collaborated on a manifesto that outlines the approach to scholarship that underpins the ethos of the Journal.

The Journal continues to focus on providing supportive and developmental feedback to authors who are new to writing for Journals and on supporting and encouraging submissions that break genre norms for academic communication.

This issue exemplifies some of this approach, with a Scholarbit from Siriol Lewis that looks at the use of emoticons for feedback – something that following the sudden shift to online teaching in 2020, many teachers are beginning to see the value of; and a paper that takes the form of a written conversation between colleagues – Marc Jones and Jon Steven – as they reflect on how they develop their own classroom teaching materials. Neil Allison's paper combines creative methodologies with sound theoretical frameworks as he considers subject specific reading strategies for English for Academic Purposes through an Exploratory Practice lens. Hira Hanif has written a thorough and comprehensive literature review on the role and use of L1 (first language) in an English language classroom. Finally, Natalia Fedorova has reviewed a one-day event held at the University of Leeds that focused on different understandings of criticality in Higher Education.

The next issue will have a new co-editor, Martin Ward, who we wish to warmly welcome to our team. After this publication, Kazuki Morimoto, one of the Co-Editors, is leaving the Journal in excellent shape and we look forward to seeing the direction Martin will take it in. We hope to continue to develop our journal as a flexible multimodal platform where both language researchers and practitioners can share their findings and reflections.

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Papers

Duoethnography of Two EFL Teachers Developing Their Own Classroom Teaching Materials

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ABSTRACT

The authors examine and reflect upon their thought processes, events and stimuli that led them from using materials to producing materials. This is conducted as a duoethnography in order to interrogate personal experiences as 'data' for analysis. Further discussion centres on the rewards and challenges involved in creating materials for one's classroom. The development of classroom materials design skills is discussed as a journey from adapting (or 'forking') existing materials to inventing and developing novel materials. The authors' motivations toward producing materials, in particular the production of materials as 'busy work' as opposed to the intrinsic motivation to produce context-appropriate materials, is discussed, as are the challenges in using existing commercial materials, particularly global coursebooks, for language teaching. Additionally, limitations for materials imposed by organisations and institutions are discussed, with regard to learners' assumed abilities, as well as the need for materials that can go beyond limitations placed upon commercial materials designers. The authors hope that materials development in language teaching organisations is mentored by experienced developers and also that labour expended is paid rather than assumed to be an ancillary duty. Organisations should consider the time and level of skill required and take these into account.

KEYWORDS: duoethnography, English, materials, professional development

INTRODUCTION

MJ: Materials development for English Language Teaching (ELT) appears to be led by a blend of superstition and science. Global coursebooks tend to be focused upon syllabi consisting of discrete linguistic items arranged around carrier topics. These linguistic items are the same in various coursebook series because 'this is how it has always been done', despite SLA research evidence showing that such discrete linear grammar learning is not how languages are learned (Doughty, 2003). An additional problem is highlighted by Masuhara and Tomlinson (2008):

> "By trying to satisfy two different groups of learners, coursebooks seem to be unable to set clear objectives and to choose suitable approaches. As a result, neither GE nor EFL users seem to feel that their materials completely satisfy their needs and wants." (p.35).

In this duoethnography, two teachers interrogate our journey as materials developers for our own classes. In particular, we examine our development of supplementary as well as primary teaching materials. While we do not review the literature systematically, as is standard in many scholarly publications, we seek to address the literature as we see it become relevant to our narratives. There is also a lack of scholarly study by teachers about their own classroom practices and journey into materials development, and we aim to provide an insight into our experience of this.

METHODOLOGY

MJ: To identify how materials design can facilitate teacher development or become an obstacle toward it, a qualitative method is more likely to lead to a greater breadth of exploration of the issues. Ethnographies of particular groups tend to focus upon their feelings, beliefs and how these are expressed in their lives and in relation to their lived experiences. This becomes more deeply focused, almost becoming a case study of one individual in the case of autoethnography, although this form carries risks associated with rigour. According to Delamont (2009), "It is a reasonable position to argue that the main focus of social science should be analysis of social settings and actors to whom the researcher has had access, not the introspections of the researcher." (p.58). Additionally, "autoethnography is antithetical to the progress of social science, because it violates

the two basic tasks of the social sciences, which are: to study the social world and to move their discipline forward." (p.60)

One of the strengths of duoethnography, therefore, is the advantage of the focus which autoethnography brings through using a limited number of participant researchers, while having a second party provide critical support and ensuring that the work does not degenerate into simple "me-search", and that these roles switch within different sections of the work. In doing so, "Duoethnographers are encouraged not to place themselves as either heroes or victims but,... they are read as individuals trying to make sense out of past events and the stories of others." (Norris and Sawyer, 2012, p.16).

This provides a clear way out of the potential trap of self-indulgence when talking about one's own experiences, beliefs and approaches to life. However, that is not to say that what duoethnography produces is universal truth. As Norris and Sawyer (2012) go on to state, "Truth and validity are irrelevant. What exists is the rigor of the collaborative inquiry that is made explicit in the duoethnography itself", (p.20) and additionally that "One does not impose her/his meanings onto the other; rather, one trusts in the nature of the storytelling process, recognizing that change will emerge as deemed relevant by the Other. Each will change but not in the same way. In so doing, duoethnographers escape the potential 'tyranny of consensus.'" (p.22).

While assuming that we both intend to be rigorous in our enquiry, we shall not centre our enquiry around items of literature, the avoidance of which is espoused by Norris and Sawyer (2012), at the outset I had ideas about literature that I would probably end up looking at due to my familiarity with the field of materials development which had built up when I gained academic library access as part of my first Master's degree study. Additionally, one of my coworkers is an author of duoethnographies in TESOL (Lowe and Kiczkowiak, 2016; Lowe and Lawrence, 2018). While he did not coerce me into undertaking a duoethnography, he has expressed enthusiasm for the medium. Although my primary academic research interest is largely quantitative research in listening, phonology and pronunciation, this duoethnography would provide a useful insight into teachers' praxis of, reflection on, and reflection due to materials development for their classrooms, which I would hope triggers critical thoughts upon our stories as well as stimulates new stories, even those that directly contradict ours.

AUTHORS' BACKGROUNDS

MJ: I think it is only fair to state that we have lived together in the same large shared house before, worked for the same language school company before, and I've worked together with you in two of my previous places of work up until just nine months ago. The bulk of my work has been in teaching business English through agencies, though with significant amounts of school and university work in there, as well as teaching young learners who have either lived overseas and acquired significant proficiency in English or who attended English immersion kindergarten. Is that significantly different to your employment background?

JS: Very similar. I have worked in a variety of contexts, which certainly is advantageous for building experience; language schools, on-site business English classes at companies, and teaching at private schools or colleges. I also spent a number of years working for a contracting company which sends teachers to public schools across Japan. Coming to Japan from a context of administrative work in the UK, in which one does not usually take one's work home, it was a big shock for me to encounter employment practices which assume unpaid preparation time. In teaching, perhaps that is simply the nature of the beast.

MJ: Well, maybe it is and maybe it isn't. This is definitely one of the reasons that teachers can be deterred from developing their own materials: when they are already taking work home with them, whether marking or planning or both, perhaps there isn't adequate time in the day to create materials and critically evaluate them. It is certainly used as an argument for coursebooks, but I see it as an argument for reducing the teaching load of a teacher or a group of teachers in an organisation so they can create, trial, edit and reiterate on the design of materials that meet their contextual needs.

The reason I began to write my own materials was a dissatisfaction with the materials I was required to use with non-English-major undergraduates at a university in Tokyo. I was working as outsourced staff and therefore needed to use the assigned coursebook but I was also free to use supplementary materials. When I began to get more interested in what Willis and Willis (2008) describe as Task-Based Teaching but would probably be better represented as Task-Supported Language Teaching (TSLT) (Ellis, 2008), I started to create my own tasks and used the assigned coursebook for Focus on

FormS (Long, 2014). This served the purpose of paying lip service to the assigned materials while providing more interesting and/or pedagogically relevant activities in lessons.

JS: What prompts own material design? I think for me, it is a need for extemporization-too much time and effort foreseen in teaching items or points that would be beyond the grasp of the learner group.

MJ: Personally, I am fine with having learners work with ungraded, potentially difficult texts, provided I have adequate time available to teach strategies for dealing with the difficulties within. I tend to see undemanding activities in coursebooks and I need materials that will provide adequate exposure to the language, facilitate adequate task completion by providing information required, or be an appropriate task model. I also believe that it is easier for me to understand my own learners' needs than it is for a materials writer located thousands of miles away, who may never have taught in my setting and, in spite of a probable understanding of how a foreign language is acquired, has commercial pressures from a publisher to produce saleable materials, usually worldwide and often in a format that is easy to follow for a novice teacher.

However, I'd like to turn this around and ask you what prompted you to start. What was the initial event that triggered the action of making classroom materials?

JS: well, as someone new to teaching, and indeed new to Japan, my first encounter with the term, 'materials development' was a negative one. The conversation school teacher or the Assistant Language Teacher (ALT)[1] might be told to make materials to keep in stock, or for other teachers. For example, I was told to make colour flashcards or print cards for games which did not relate to anything I was teaching. I have to ask myself if the point of this task was to inspire teachers to make their own materials, or merely to have them do something, a strategy akin to a fast-food restaurant worker being told to grab a broom and sweep the floor when there are no customers. A number of teachers currently in such positions will see that the parallels do not stop there, where the hourly pay rates of fast-food workers are not dissimilar to their own. Whatever the motive, it certainly raised my awareness and gradually gave me greater agency with regard to material development. It

[1] In public schools in Japan, English classes are often taught by a Japanese teacher of English (JTE) with a non-Japanese, perceived 'native speaker' ALT for naturalistic input and interaction.

is possible to see two ends of the scale here; the resentment which occurs from developing materials without agency, and the pride and joy of creation when creating materials for oneself.

QUALITIES OF MATERIALS

JS: I think it might be relevant to define what we mean by original materials. Would you agree that in Japan, success is a result of continual development rather than individual creativity and originality? The culture of copying to achieve perfection. Most of my materials are exactly this, I have taken and developed ideas from other sources, so they are a continuation, and in some respects a 'higher form' of a technique (as it is more current than previous iterations).

MJ: I don't think it's easy to personalise originality. Nobody can copyright the present perfect form, nor can anyone copyright a prototypical food order conversation. I think, if I understand you, you seek to differentiate between more developed materials inspired by an original commercial source and novel materials that have completely unique tasks and approaches to using texts. I think there is a balance between building upon a copy and, to borrow a metaphor from software development 'forking' it along a new developmental path with more novel activities or situation-appropriate activities.

I had been quite comfortable making my own materials when I was working in primary schools in the UK. In fact, quite a lot of the time, the schools that I worked at had materials to work with but which were insufficient, given the need to differentiate lessons and keep up with government guidelines that felt as though they were in constant flux during this particular two-year period. However, upon returning to Japan and being employed at a language school, such skills were rarely needed and certainly rarely valued by my managers.

JS: How can you assess the effectiveness of your materials? Tomlinson (1998) advises looking into research findings in SLA. But if material creation gives a teacher a greater sense of efficacy, then it follows that the materials will be effective, at least indirectly.

MJ: It's worth assessing anything we plan to do in the classroom regarding intended outcomes, and SLA should be the main field informing this. Hunches regarding one's own efficacy may be just that. Sometimes teachers that are ineffective have unreasonable beliefs about themselves having high levels of efficacy in their practice (Wyatt, 2018). One thing that I wonder about regarding this is whether teachers with low-levels of efficacy are even aware of SLA research evidence. It is possible that such teachers are basing their ideas of efficacy upon observation of learner achievement that may occur in spite of poor efficacy and poor materials. Certainly I have seen materials produced by teachers for use with their classes that were inappropriate. However, I have also seen teachers use and administrators advocate the use of inappropriate published materials. The only difference, in my opinion, is that the latter are given a veneer of legitimacy by a publishing company's brand name. This, in my opinion, only delegates the role of materials evaluator to a third party who doesn't know your learners. However, this is not to say that one's own materials are not evaluated. Usually there's a colleague to check things with, and learners will make it clear what is difficult to understand, or if the materials are just unappealing.

CONFLICT IN TEACHER MATERIALS DESIGN AND DEVELOPMENT

JS: I find difficulties in adjusting the extent of the designer schemata (the knowledge and belief systems the designer brings to the design activity) to suit superiors. Simply being told that supplementary materials can only have words which are in the students' textbooks makes design frustrating and time-consuming.

MJ: I have thankfully never been in that position but I can only imagine the frustration it would bring. Did you have to stick to the same word class as well (e.g. if you used 'fish' as a noun, would 'fish' as a verb be acceptable?

JS: Same word class, yes. It is interesting how the superiors fixed such parameters. I had this experience when I was an ALT, effectively solo teaching but answering to the Japanese teacher. From what I gathered, they knew that this (using words not in the textbook) might make themselves vulnerable to criticism which would begin with, "we haven't studied that word yet", but which would, more importantly give students or parents an opportunity to attack something else about their teaching. Teacher insecurities is a topic for another time, though. It also suggests that the

teacher must make her way through the textbook at the pace of the least able student, and that there is very little confidence in students' abilities to assist or collaborate to negotiate meaning.

Returning to materials, I can appreciate the fact that the nature of materials I developed and how I used them lay within the purview of my employer or client, but I definitely felt devalued (Ellis and Shintani, 2014). I believe this strategy strongly impacts negatively on teacher efficacy.

MJ: So it's a negotiation of materials use. This is interesting in that the power is laid bare: the employer/client provides the materials but is not held responsible for how they are used. The teacher finds the materials wanting and then needs workable materials and is expected to supplement rather than replace them. However, materials are mediated by clients and employers; many of the people having a direct say in this are not educators, nor even knowledgeable about pedagogical principles.

At the junior high school I was a teacher at, when myself and the teacher I worked with decided to work on our own materials it was rooted in a mixture of motivations. On my part, I found the materials too basic and sometimes lacking a sense of logic and connection to the learners' lives. My partner was trying to mitigate the circumstances of precarious employment in the overall teaching landscape by implementing his own materials which would make him more difficult to replace with a less-experienced teacher from a dispatch agency. The lack of connection and logic that motivated me provided him with an adequate excuse, or at least a sufficient additional reason, for his endeavour. When it was discovered that we were largely paying lip service to the book due to a lack of appropriacy, the school actually supported the idea of our use of materials, though not monetarily.

JS: Hopefully this was a win-win situation all round. The motivation of your partner is seen to different extents throughout the world of education, where materials are produced in-house, or lecturers are publishing books; naturally, vested interests come about. I don't want to come off as negative here, I think an attempt to disentangle education and finance from each other would be unrealistic and at this stage counter-productive.

MJ: I agree. Obviously one enters into an employment agreement to obtain monetary gain and it may be the case that a certain protectionism rears its head, given the rising precarity in teaching. Certainly in the Japanese context, with many educators on fixed-term contracts of one year, and often capped, the need to safeguard a livelihood is understandable. Additionally, I think that materials design could also be used as a failsafe, in that if one's main mode of employment were to disappear, there would be tangible assets left over, which could be monetized. Unfortunately, I do not know how tenable this would be. A lot of materials simply reiterate what is already out there in terms of being grammar and lexis activities with a carrier text, either spoken or written. Therefore, the market may not support this, although seeing the number of coursebooks that are more or less identical, perhaps I am naive.

I am still unsure whether I started making my own materials because of precarious employment and I wanted something I perceived as worthwhile to invest my time in, or whether it was in spite of the precarious employment with several part-time jobs? I was rather nonplussed with the books I was required to use when I was in full-time employment, though skilled enough to turn them to most purposes I believed the classes needed. However, when I went part-time with the language school I had been teaching with, I decided to use more and more supplementary materials in on-site classes at companies until it reached the point that there were lessons when the books barely supplemented the supposed supplementary materials.

JS: It is encouraging to see awareness of materials development being raised. Bouckaert (2018) discusses the boons of the 'emancipation from impulsive and routine practice' (p.11), the creative process, professional development and client satisfaction as the fruits of teachers' labors. At the same time, as materials development becomes accepted as the norm, I fear that in some contexts, it is having a severe impact on the workload of a vast number of teachers who are at the low end of the pay scale, where materials development and syllabus creation are not stipulated as job requirement criteria, but the teacher is expected to teach thirty to forty lessons per week. In an increasingly competitive market, with companies using loopholes such as eleven-month contracts and pay only actual classroom time, and where globalization means that companies from other countries are offering lower cost online lessons, many teachers are being pushed to deliver high quality lessons which their remuneration does not reflect. Such companies tend to already provide insufficient materials and support knowing that at the end of the day, the teacher will not want to look unprofessional nor undergo the intense stress of standing at the front of a class of forty

students (with a Japanese teacher who feels that the presence of another teacher is undermining their presence), while using inadequate materials; instead, the teacher will make materials in their own time, the lesson will go smoothly, the client will be satisfied and the company will appear to be providing teachers of high quality. The weight of this workload deficit, however, will continue to be borne by the teacher alone.

MJ: My first materials for the English Language classroom with real purpose were tasks with which to use authentic listening texts and aid learners with developing listening skills in contrast to simplified English in the coursebook which was ostensibly for 'Intermediate' learners. One of my major irritations was the difference between natural English that could be encountered on the internet --or even naturally-delivered scripted English for television series and films-- and the book. As Ableeva and Stranks (2013) state, "The real purpose of many listening materials, then, appears quite clearly to be one or more of the following: topic extensions; *exemplification of grammar; exemplification of functional or lexical items of language; lead-in to a learner speaking activity*." (p.206. Emphasis mine).

Many of my early tasks were judged too difficult by the learners but with the conviction that this was based upon sound pedagogical principles, I coerced them to persevere. In hindsight, this should have been done gradually, perhaps beginning with the warm-ups that my line manager advised to mitigate the lateness of students yet still providing a meaningful first 15 minutes of lesson time.

JS: Do you see your listening materials through the eyes of a positivist? Are there 'perfect' listening tasks 'out there'?

MJ: I don't think I've ever thought about the 'perfect' activity. I think I have a perspective of gaining greater pedagogical appropriacy through trial and error. This might not always be something that learners want to do, but it is important to remember that they are not the only stakeholders involved in their education. I am moving on from what Field (2008) calls "the Comprehension Approach", to a pedagogy of ensuring that students get listening skills development along with comprehension, not just practice with a handful of ill-thought out questions.

My rationale is to expose learners to phonological occurrences not present in their L1, raise awareness of these by making them more salient, and then hoping that with repeated practice and exposure along with use of metacognitive strategies (pace Vandergrift, 1997; Goh, 2008), this will lead to more effective listening.

MATERIALS DEVELOPMENT FOR LEARNERS RATHER THAN TEACHERS

JS: As 'reflective practitioners' (Schön, 2008), our professional identities are bound to our experience and technical expertise. If an individual is shaped by and shapes an environment by interacting with it (McGrath, 2016), then material creation shapes the students into individuals who can perform as directed by their teacher. They are being taught to replicate his or her approaches to problems, ideas of solutions. This causes me to wonder just how transferable or generalisable these skills are for students. Are they not simply learning teacher-specific skills and how to adapt and cater to any teacher's idiosyncrasies?

MJ: I can see where you are coming from here, in that learners learn to deal with teachers' explicit as well as implicit objectives (cf. notions of the hidden curriculum, in Friere, 2000). However, I think this happens at different levels, the micro level being the lesson objective and its base unit (linguistic form, notion/function, task), moving up to the teacher's objective, the syllabus and curriculum designers' objectives and the macro level of language policy.

Going back to the teachers' explicit and implicit objectives, I think that my own materials implicitly promote my own views of what should happen in the classroom, in that learners should be exercising as much autonomy and/or responsibility for their own language learning as possible. There are minimal rubrics, occasional exemplar answers to questions and usually tasks that require learners to discuss ideas or answers with their classmates, which should lead to an increased focus on meaning and, implicitly, form. However, I would say that by providing an affordance for autonomous use of English, and learner-led focus on form, that this provides less in the way of catering to my own personal whims but more in the way of catering toward helping themselves learn the language, regardless of which teacher is present.

JS: Are your materials suited to the socio-cultural context (in Japan, for example, the interlocutors are talking in a ramen restaurant rather than a taco joint)? But more interestingly, and remaining in the Japanese context here, do you try to bring in Japanese English speakers when you create them? And going further, do you think their level or ability is important?

MJ: I'm quite conscious that a lot of my learners have little intention of using English very much at all, and that if they do, it will be in Japan with both non-Japanese and Japanese speakers of English. I try to provide a range of speakers in the texts that I source and I am particularly conscious of what best simulates likely situations beyond the classroom. Therefore, static texts such as dramas from North America, which are popular for both entertainment and education, and authentic conversations between international interlocutors play a large part in the materials I curate and supplement for the classroom.

As for 'level', I must say that I am sceptical of the term. I think it has lost its meaning, and I am much more likely to focus upon the ability to complete a given task. That being said, when one knows one's learners, it becomes easier to select tasks based upon complexity and likelihood of satisfactory completion. When asking learners to process texts that require attending to large amounts of information and processing unfamiliar phonological information (e.g. unfamiliar phonemic qualities, novel phonotactic sequences, elements of connected speech, prosody, etc.) I tend to edit the text for length.

CONCLUSION

MJ: The motivations for producing materials of one's own may be complex. It can be a resented task if seen merely as busy work but can be intrinsically rewarding when evaluated as a useful, even as an additional task, due to the improvements in the materials available for use. Materials production for 'busy work' is unprincipled production of materials for a lesson activity that may never arise, whereas the rewarding production of materials is situationally relevant, with a specific group, community or type of learner in mind, and most importantly the materials are planned to be used.

Further to the motivational aspect of materials development, while creativity in materials development may be an intrinsic reward for some people, it is also work and teachers should be

compensated fairly for doing it. It is advisable to provide experienced teachers time within their schedules to develop, trial and edit materials, and to provide mentoring to inexperienced teachers who are beginning to develop their own materials.

Bearing this in mind, it would be useful for teachers to produce materials for their own classes if it is prudent to do so, for their organisation where such labour is fairly compensated rather than exploited by means of token internal recognition, and for the wider ELT community at large if they seek to make connections with other practitioners for collegiate dialogue, which may be particularly welcome for those who feel isolated in smaller organisations.

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Impediments to the Adoption of Subject Specific Reading Strategies in EAP – Exploratory Practice with Hohfeld's Jural Relations

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ABSTRACT

English for Academic purposes (EAP) is increasingly being influenced by theories of literacy and reading to learn, with the EAP practitioner training students in reading skills and strategies that incorporate engagement with disciplinary specifics. However, little is known about EAP practitioners' and EAP students' attitudes to disciplinary or subject-specific reading strategies. This study involved a survey of 81 EAP practitioners, and mixed-methods with students on EAP for Law courses to explore the impediments to the adoption of subject-specific reading strategies. To provide tangible context, a reading strategy for law students known as Hohfeld's Jural Relations is described in detail and employed and evaluated as part of exploratory practice. It is concluded that EAP teachers are sceptical on the importance of subject-specific reading strategies while students are more likely to adopt strategies once they are aware the strategy is a respected means to gain subject-specific understanding. This article will be of particular interest to teachers of EAP for law and law teachers unfamiliar with Hohfeld's work.

KEY WORDS: reading strategies, EAP, ESAP law; Hohfeld's Jural Relations; teacher and student beliefs

INTRODUCTION

English for Academic Purposes (EAP) sits as a field within English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and applied linguistics (Hamp-Lyons, 2011, p.89), with much of the application being as an education activity to support and improve students' language and thus their performance in specific contexts

(academic contexts and/or specific academic subjects). The focus in this article is on how we improve students' reading if university reading is *reading to learn* not *learning to read* (Maclellan, 1997). Since much of EAP teachers' pedagogical activity involves working with students who are not studying linguistics, education, EAP, ESOL, or related fields, to what extent are EAP teachers motivated and equipped to support and improve those students' performances (their skills in learning)? While there is of course an option for EAP teachers to work more closely with subject teachers, the starting point would still require an acceptance that improving reading as a general skill is insufficient and that an important part of the EAP teacher's remit is to help students read to learn. An increasingly sizeable literature in education and SFL (second or foreign language, including EAP) views reading as a literacy (for example Barton, Hamilton, Ivaniúc, and Ivanič, 2000; Lea and Street, 2006; Lillis and Scott, 2007; Abbott, 2013), that it is rooted in a need for the reader to interact socially with the writer and the writer's society. It also incorporates an understanding of power (Lea and Street, 2006, p.8). These arguments about literacy and power make it particularly valuable in widening participation (Lea and Street, 2006), for example for working with international students and those from backgrounds somewhat distanced from tertiary education in terms of academic or social capital.

With numerous arguments, supported by empirical research, proposing more integration of reading education and the development of disciplinary knowledge (e.g. Hunter and Tse, 2013; Hamp-Lyons, p.93) it seems timeous to pursue this line of inquiry. The aims of this research were to explore EAP teacher and EAP student attitudes to academic discipline specific literacy, in particular reading strategies to aid with detailed comprehension and written output. This information will provide teachers with better understanding of potential impediments to students adopting subject specific reading strategies. For example, if an EAP teacher and EAP students did not believe subject specific reading strategies exist, it is highly unlikely they would be developed or adopted. The teacher is unlikely to teach or promote them while students' beliefs will reject or ignore them because beliefs about learning and improving reading in a foreign language are, like beliefs about any learning, critical to the adoption of new approaches to learning (Alexander et al. 2016). Further, if reading is seen as simple, students will not adopt cognitively challenging reading strategies (Simpson and Rush, 2003).

This study was exploratory, carried out largely as practitioner inquiry over several EAP courses at a Scottish University to gather sequential data. The study also included one survey of 81 EAP teachers

in Spring 2019 to capture perceptions on subject specific reading. For the purposes of providing a concrete teaching context to orientate and give meaning to the discussion on academic literacy and the results of this study's data collection, an application of a specific disciplinary reading strategy and skill is provided – the use of a strategy called *Hohfeld's Jural Relations* ('HJR') to aid in a vital reading skill: *understanding and analysing legal concepts*.

CONTEXT – DIFFERENCES IN ONTOLOGY GO BEYOND MERE VOCABULARY DIFFERENCES

Law as a discipline is often labelled a professional science, but also as a liberal art in the US (Arzt, 1988), encompassing several social sciences and humanities. Its position as both profession and academic study is not entirely comfortable and thus it is often positioned by those in the discipline simply as its own unique discipline (Arzt, 1988). Different disciplines, it would be uncontroversial to say, involve different vocabulary, but more than this, different ways of thinking about the world, with assumptions and methods forming a distinct branch of learning (Vick, 2004). To say that vocabulary differs is clearly insufficient; we must be more precise and say that ontology differs, and of course that epistemology differs (a point that the academic literacies movement considers highly important e.g. see Wingate and Tribble (2012). The vocabulary expresses what can exist within a particular discipline or world; what is reality. In philosophy, ontology is 'the set of things whose existence is acknowledged by a particular theory or system of thought' (Honderich, 2005, p.634). To give a concrete example, a *trust* in law is different from general English language *trust*; however, more crucially, in many civil law systems (contrasted with predominantly common law systems existing in Scotland, England, USA etc.) *trust* does not exist as a legal concept; thus it can only be approximated in meaning or understanding (Sarcevic, 1997). The language of law is 'system bound'. De Groot (2006, cited in Scott, 2019, p.40) considers that structural differences between legal systems are the primary problem behind translation; thus it is easy to imagine the comprehension difficulties faced by students from different legal systems when reading law texts.

Working with texts across languages, cultures, and the civil law/common law divide is not the end of the matter. Even within a superficially uniform context such as where the language is the same and the legal systems are closely connected but historically, traditionally, and culturally distinct, there can be a lack of commonality and transferability. English language is used in various legal systems, each with commonalities and distinctions (Lundmark, 2012). For example, within the UK, English and Scottish legal ontologies differ, as exemplified by a critically important concept such as *equity*

(Smith, 1954). So, even if we agreed, for the sake of argument, there were such a thing as British English, there is clearly no such thing as British Legal English. This means strategies when reading legal texts in English need to be applied that do not rely on translation or a hasty search for equivalence in order to analyse the meaning of a legal concepts. Analysing legal concepts is an essential skill of law students and lawyers, as almost every introductory legal textbook will stress.

An approach to (or strategy for) legal analysis, specifically the unpacking of legal concepts to reveal their precise nature, prior to applying typical common law legal analysis processes such as analogical, inductive, and deductive reasoning from court cases (Walker, 1992) is the Hohfeldian framework of jural relations.

EXPLANATION OF HOHFELD AND RELATIONSHIP TO ONTOLOGY

Wesley Hohfeld, an American jurist, created his system in the early 20th century, publishing it in 1913 (Hohfeld, 1913) and over 100 years later his work is highly valued by legal philosophers (Brown, 2005). Hohfeld's framework, set out in table 1, is a means of understanding legal relations and the rights of the subjects of law. It is important to state that his interest was not in translation, or even explicitly in linguistics. Hohfeld was concerned that legal rules, the essence (in a philosophical sense) of legal concepts were poorly articulated by drafters, lawyers, and scholars, and that this could even result in contradictions, contradictions that could be resolved with a more precise understanding of the relationships between subjects (Clark, 1922). In particular, use of the word *right* was imprecise. Hohfeld wanted to reduce this lack of precision. He saw law as a series of fundamental relationships and that legal *concepts* and their constituent rights, responsibilities and so on could be set out clearly and underpinned by formal logic. The relationships are of mutual entailment and he called them 'fundamental' because they underly all legal concepts, meaning that these 8 terms construct the world of legal rules, describing how the subjects (or societal agents) affect each other in law; these are legal (or jural) relations (Corbin, 1920). Analysing a legal concept through relations (though not exclusively, it is important to point out, since Hohfeld's system is not intended to cover everything about the interpretation of a concept) can be illustrated with the legal concept *property*; if one lived alone on a desert island, there would be no *property* in a legal sense since there are no entitlements; no relations (di Robilant and Syed, 2018).

Hohfeld's Jural Relations			
Primary rights		**Secondary rights (potential rights)**	
Right (legal claim against the duty bearer below)	**Liberty** (freedom from a right or duty; a privilege – a special advantage)	**Power** (legal ability)	**Immunity** (freedom from a power/control)
Duty (must act or must not act)	**No-right** (no duty to act; cannot legally stop liberty holder or legally force liberty holder to act)	**Liability** (a responsibility or be subject of someone's power)	**Disability** (no legal power)

Table 1: An explicated version of Hohfeld's system of jural relations

The top row items of table 1 are generally known as rights, but Hohfeld saw only the first one (top left) as a true right. To understand the terms in the top row, one must refer to the correlative below each. So, a true right requires there to be another who owes a duty to the holder of the right. The right holder would have a claim against the duty holder if that duty holder failed to protect the right. A contract is an example of where claim rights and the correlative duties are established: a right to performance after making payment, a duty to perform after receiving payment, and a legal claim for either's failure. By contrast, a liberty right is a freedom or permission in that there is nothing illegal about performing the relevant action but the correlative is *no right* (not a *duty*), which means if you as the liberty holder failed to perform your desired action no one will be at risk of a claim; for example, in the case of freedom of expression, no one need assist you to realise your freedom and any actions preventing your expression would not be illegal for the reason that they stopped your expression (though they might break some *other* law such as through criminal assault, or theft in the case of someone stealing your megaphone). Arguably, human rights are particularly well served by Hohfeld's system as a means to improve analysis of their true nature (Sucharitkul, 1986).

Turning to secondary rights, the term *potential rights* is informative; the *duty* to perform jury service, for example, is not a duty but a *potential* duty if the relevant state body has a *power* to call residents for jury service; as a correlative, those citizens are liable to the power; only once the state body makes a decision to operate that power does the relationship become one of right and duty. By contrast, non-residents would be immune from the state's power, and thus the state has a disability (or no power) (Nyquist, 2002). Fiorito and Vatiero (2011) see this focus on the relations between Government and citizens as being particularly informative on potential rights.

HJR is appealing because it uses terminology understandable in the legal profession and enables us to move away from the abstract to the concrete, so that we can analyse a legal relationship in its constituent parts, step by step, and in a standardised way. Also, from an onotological perspective, it helps us consider *essence* and the degree of *essence (*Honderich, 2012); for example, which features (in Hohfeld's case, which relations) are relative or context dependent, which are always necessary, and even which are unique.

The next section will consider EAP and Education's understanding of reading strategies and towards the end of that section, how HJR can be seen in terms of reading strategies.

READING STRATEGIES AND HOHFELD AS A READING STRATEGY

A problem with identifying reading strategies is the confusing terminology used in the literature. Alexander et al. (2016) in their 'retrospective and prospective examination of cognitive strategies' highlight this. Their attempt to provide clarity is by making the distinction between conscious and unconscious approaches as the key test; a conscious approach is a strategy. The problem is that with this definition, automaticity or use of a strategy subconsciously would take it outside of the definition. Expert readers often do not think of how they read, yet we would not say they have no strategies (Shanahan, Shanahan, and Misischia, 2011). For the purposes of this study, a strategy is defined as being an approach to reading that is a means to an end but is never an end in itself, whether or not it has been automatized into *skilful strategy* use. Skill, however, can be an end in itself. This would distinguish between skimming and reading for gist: skimming is not an end in itself so it is a strategy to assist with the skill of reading for gist. Literacy in this context is a combination of strategies and skills that enable understanding at whatever level is necessary for a task.

Having distinguished between strategy and skill, a problem remains. The lion's share of skills and strategies are the same and transferrable for all reading e.g. phonics, reading for main idea, inferring, identifying argument or persuasion, skimming to help understand gist, and so on. Perhaps this is the *common* core perspective (Bloor and Bloor 1986, cited in Hyland, 2002); the common core view is a pillar of English for General Academic Purposes (Carkin, 2005). If we claim that a subject-specific example of a skill is *analysing legal concepts*, as was mentioned in section 3, this could still

be viewed by an EGAP teacher as part of a general skill of understanding details or understanding concepts. A standard strategy to understand concepts or details is to use a dictionary. A general EAP teacher might work on effective dictionary use in class and then expect a law student from their class to use their own background knowledge and add the use of subject specialist dictionaries outside class, but they would still imagine the student would apply the common core ideas from class. Indeed, is use of a specialist dictionary not just a common core strategy? Consider HJR in the same terms of general – specific EAP. HJR is actually a form of analogising, which as an umbrella term is a general strategy, not a subject-specific one. Analogising aids us in the skill of reorganising and reinterpretation, to use Nuttall's terminology (1996). Is HJR a minor adaptation of a common core strategy? This article argues not. Analogising does not do justice to the action of unpacking and repacking concepts. As Hyland and Shaw (2016, p.197) argue, a key finding of tertiary EAP is that teachers should 'not only unpack the technicality and grammatical metaphor of textbooks and readings, but, critically, [must] repack them. In other words, if we analogize or explain technical meanings into everyday language, we cannot abandon students there. We need to guide them back into using the specialized knowledge and language of their disciplines.'

We can see how this works with HJR if we take an example of the term 'trust' used earlier.

Below is a synthesis of a definition from Halsbury's Laws of England and the website of a law firm, Ogiers, specialising in Trusts.

> Settlors divest themselves of legal ownership. Legal title to the trust assets is vested in the trustee and beneficial ownership to the beneficiary, although a protector may be appointed to control the operation of the trustees. There is an equitable obligation which binds the trustees to deal with the trust property (which is owned by them as a separate fund) for the benefit of beneficiaries who have an equitable proprietary interest in the trust property. In a discretionary trust, the trustee has a discretion on who benefits from the trust fund. (Halsbury's Laws of England, 98, 1, 2019; Ogiers, 2016)

Analysing the relations and unpacking the concept, we could say

- The Settlor <u>can</u> dispose of property to a trustee.
- The Settlor <u>can</u> name a protector.
- The Settlor <u>shall</u> name beneficiaries.

- The Trustee must manage property for beneficiaries.
- The Trustee must follow protector's instructions
- The Beneficiary might not receive trust property (in case of discretionary trust).
- The Trustee can to a large extent act freely in day to day managing of property in respect of settlor and beneficiary.

Indeed, if we were a practising solicitor speaking to a client, this might be the very language we should use. What must happen next, though, is that we can repackage into the specialized knowledge of the discipline, which might look like this, using HJR:

- Settlor has liberty to dispose of property to a trustee.
- Settlor has liberty to name a protector.
- A protector has power to direct trustee.
- Settlor has liberty to name beneficiaries.
- Trustee has a duty to manage property for beneficiaries.
- Trustee has a duty to follow protector's instructions.
- Beneficiary has no right to receive trust property (in case of a discretionary trust).
- Trustee has liberty in day to day managing of property in respect of settlor and beneficiary.

In addition to this process involving the skill of reinterpreting (Nuttall, 1996), HJR is a strategy that promotes deep processing (and therefore arguably more effective retention) as opposed to surface processing (Alexander et al. 2018, p.11). It is quite likely that pedagogy is what inspired Hohfeld in constructing his framework i.e. improving legal teaching (Hull, 1995, p.257). HJR has become an important contribution to legal philosophy (jurisprudence) but it was designed for teaching. Since the foundation of understanding law is understanding legal concepts, HJR is a highly effective approach to explicating the ontology of law.

Explicating the ontology of law, or understanding legal concepts is clearly essential for law students and lawyers. Despite this fact, it is clear that many users of legal language struggle with limited strategies; strategies limited to subject specific dictionaries and/or translation (for a lengthy

discussion of issues in translation see Kozanecka et al., 2017 particularly from p.77). Why has HJR not previously been labelled and promoted as a subject-specific reading strategy? A review of different materials relating to law and/or ESAP provides an idea. It appears that strategies reviewed by writers on ESAP and general education research such as *legal English literacy* omit HJR, seeing reading and writing more from a broader perspective or common core lens (as suggested by a search of 95 articles citing Deegan's 1995 work on law reading strategies). Perhaps they have been influenced by linguistics and by genre studies which are generally dominant lenses in ESP (Alousque, 2016; Wingate and Tribble, 2012). An interesting comparison is with published textbooks on academic legal skills aimed at law students such as Hanson (2009); these provide genre guidance to help read texts such as law reports, but usually do not link their guidance to education and literacy literature. HJR as a pedagogical tool is, however, occasionally mentioned in legal education literature (e.g. Hull, 1995; Nyquist, 2002) but again with little link to education and literacy research.

AIMS

The aims of this scholarship were to understand more about impediments to the adoption of effective reading strategies, particularly subject specific strategies, by exploring views of teachers and beliefs of students. To my knowledge, such research has not been carried out before though Simpson and Rush (2003) highlight its importance. There is plenty of research on factors that influence students *use* of reading strategies such as self-efficacy (e.g. Guthrie and Wigfield 1999) but not specifically their *openness* to *learn* new and subject specific reading strategies.

1. What are EAP teachers' attitudes to teaching reading in different disciplines including their attitude to subject specific reading strategies;

2. To what extent do EAP students in subject-specific contexts expect teachers to help them understand the subject;

3. Do students believe in and believe themselves open to subject specific reading strategies;

4. What might encourage adoption of HJR?

METHODOLOGY

In terms of a model that takes account of the aims of the teacher researcher in improving their own teaching, in the present case how to improve uptake of subject-specific reading skills, this research was exploratory practice (Allwright, 2003). In terms of paradigms, it was largely pragmatic (Avramidis and Smith, 1999) to obtain data that was real, although there was an element of interpretivism with subjective (individual, cultural, context dependent and relative) elements. Indeed, this was seen as a value of the approach since the underlying assumption is that attitudes or beliefs are critical to the adoption and application of reading strategies (Alexander et al., 2018). The size of sample of those taking part was, consequently, not of primary importance. Nonetheless, the convenience sample of students was typical of a UK university EAP environment. In the teacher survey, the self-selection of EAP teachers may make this sample less representative of those involved in EAP more broadly.

Due to the presence of *beliefs* in the research questions, mixed methods was chosen: group interviews with students, and surveys of teachers and students were administered. De Vaus and de Vaus (2013), when considering surveys eschew the quantitative/qualitative in favour of the perspective of structured and unstructured data e.g. unstructured qualitative data. Using their terminology, unstructured data and structured data were taken: in the case of the former, open questions, while a structured approach was taken to allow for quantification such as in teacher attitudes to reading strategies; teachers gave a Likert scale ‘value’ to how important they perceived them to be. Systematic qualitative type questions were guided by Lietz's (2010) advice on the design of such questions. Most tools allowed for deductive and inductive analysis, though there was more emphasis on the former.

There were essentially five stages to this research including the background stage. Ethical approval was gained twice to account for the different contexts and collection methods as they developed.

DATA COLLECTION STAGES

Participants were either teachers involved in EAP or law students (both pre-sessional i.e. studying full-time academic English before commencing university subject programmes, and in-sessional

post-graduate student i.e. already studying on university subject programmes). Their English levels were between B2 and C1, IELTS 5.5 to 7).

Background or pre-data gathering stage:

This was the stage when the puzzle (to use Allwright's terminology 2003, p.121) arose. HJR was taught as a reading strategy in Autumn 2017 and Autumn 2018 with international LLM students (N 21; N17, English level B2 and C1). In each year the students were canvassed via google forms, anonymously, on whether they would use HJR in the future. Question asked was:

1. Would you use Hohfeld's jural relations as a reading strategy in the future?

Of 38 responses, 4 were yes, 14 maybe, 20 no.

Common additional responses came under a cost/benefit theme e.g. 'it's too difficult'; 'it takes me a long time', 'I don't find it useful'; 'I have more useful approaches'; 'I'm not sure why it's good, and it's slow'.

This set the ground, or 'puzzle' for the subsequent four sequential stages carried out in 2019, primarily hoping to provide insights on how to make the strategy teaching more effective. The choices of respondents was based primarily on convenience or opportunity.

Stage 1

A survey (Appendix A) was piloted with three EAP colleagues, refined, and sent out in Spring 2019 on the BALEAP mailing list (a subscription email list for researchers, managers, and teachers in EAP) inviting responses from teachers involved in EAP regarding attitudes to subject specific reading strategies.

Stage 2

In Summer 2019, pre-sessional students on a law-specific five-week course were invited to give views via a log/diary (Appendix B) that contained unstructured and structured qualitative data gathering questions on their expectations of EAP teachers on a pre-sessional law course and on the existence of subject specific reading strategies; these students had IELTS reading level of 6 to 6.5. Students first took part in a group interview to clarify the meaning of key concepts *reading strategies*

and *detailed understanding*. The methods of this research had been trialled three months earlier with a EGAP course to uncover any difficulties in understanding.

Stage 3

In Autumn 2019, international LLM students participated in surveys on their attitudes to subject-specific reading strategies. Data were collected on the first day of this optional *EAP for Law* in-sessional course. This research was carried out in the light of results of stage 2 to investigate whether students were open to learning reading strategies specific to law.

Stage 4

In Autumn 2019, law students (international) at undergraduate and post-graduate level (B2 and C1 level) were taught HJR as a reading strategy and asked to provide feedback on their understanding of its purpose, value, and whether they would use it. These results were compared to previous data (from 2017 and 2018 – referred to above in background stage). Questions were based on Alderson (2000).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Stage 1 teacher data results:

Firstly, respondents indicated their context. There were 81 respondents, all falling into EAP or academic literacy in either teaching duties or disciplinary specialism. Teachers were asked the extent to which they agreed (1-7, or don't know) with the statements in table 2 regarding subject specific reading. For statement 3a – *that there are specific strategies useful for reading in some subjects, fields, or disciplines* – the mean score is slightly above 4, 4 being *neutral* or *on the fence*.

Table 3 provides more detail on question 3a. It can be seen that 39 out of 74 (52.7%) responses disagreed or were neutral on statement 3a 'there are differences between strategies by subject'. If we consider only the respondents who said that they teach ESAP, there were 31 responses in this category and only 14 agreed i.e. 45% of ESAP teachers agree there are differences between strategies by subject.

Mean and Standard Deviation on Teacher Attitudes to Difference in Reading Strategies and Who Should Teach

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
3a. There are specific strategies useful for reading in some subjects, fields, or disciplines i.e. they are not generic strategies.	74	1.00	7.00	4.2297	1.75599
3b. Any differences in strategy use between disciplines, fields, or subjects is minimal or insignificant	75	1.00	7.00	3.5067	1.62226
3c. extent to which you agree subject teachers should teach differences	76	1.00	7.00	3.7632	1.81746
3d. extent to which you agree EAP teachers should teach differences	70	1.00	7.00	4.3286	1.65697

Table 2: Teacher attitudes to subject specific reading

3a There are specific strategies useful for reading in some subjects, fields, or disciplines i.e. they are not generic strategies

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	strongly_disagree	6	7.5	8.1	8.1
	disagree	8	10.0	10.8	18.9
	slightly_disagree	11	13.8	14.9	33.8
	neutral	14	17.5	18.9	52.7
	slightly_agree	16	20.0	21.6	74.3
	agree	11	13.8	14.9	89.2
	strongly_agree	8	10.0	10.8	100.0
	Total	74	92.5	100.0	
Missing	System	6	7.5		
Total		80	100.0		

Table 3: Are there subject specific reading strategies?

If we consider all 35 respondents who feel there *are* subject specific reading strategies, we can assess the degree to which they think these differences are important. Table 4 shows that of the 35 responses, 30 consider the difference to be important.

Combining information from tables 2-4 we can thus report that only 30 of 74 respondents consider differences in reading strategies by subject exist *and* are important. Of these 30, 21 believe EAP teachers should teach specific ways of reading for a subject (total of teachers agreeing to some extent – see table 5); thus of our total sample of 81 teachers who responded to the survey, 21 (or just over a quarter) think EAP teachers should teach specific ways of reading for a subject.

3b. Any differences in strategy use between disciplines, fields, or subjects is minimal or insignificant – for those who think there are differences in reading strategies by subject.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly disagree	5	6.3	14.3	14.3
disagree	12	15.0	34.3	48.6
Slightly disagree	13	16.3	37.1	85.7
Neutral	2	2.5	5.7	91.4
Slightly agree	2	2.5	5.7	97.1
Strongly agree	1	1.3	2.9	100.0
Total	35	43.8	100.0	

Table 4: Are subject specific reading strategy differences important?

3d. For those who thought there is a difference in subject reading: Do you agree EAP teachers should teach differences?

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly disagree	1	1.3	3.0	3.0
Slightly disagree	4	5.0	12.1	15.2
Neutral	7	8.8	21.2	36.4
Slightly agree	12	15.0	36.4	72.7
Agree	5	6.3	15.2	87.9
Strongly agree	4	5.0	12.1	100.0
Total	33	41.3	100.0	

Table 5: Should EAP teachers teach subject specific reading strategies?

Stage 1 teacher data discussion

This survey was self-selecting. However, we might speculate on what type of EAP teachers are more likely to complete it and whether they are part of a more stable and motivated sub-sample. It is of clear importance to ask whether the approximately 25% of EAP teachers in this survey who seem inclined to teach subject-specific reading strategies, assuming they feel they have the opportunity, are representative of university EAP provision. It is logical to assume that those who do not particularly believe there are different ways to read particular subjects, or if there are, that those differences are minor, are quite unlikely to teach subject specific reading strategies or indeed encourage students to work on these themselves, unless it is by accident.

Bearing in mind the increasing perception over the last ten years of the importance of subject literacy in high school education literature (e.g. Moje, 2008; Shanahan and Shanahan, 2008), tertiary education literature (e.g. Brozo, Moorman, Meyer, and Stewart, 2013), and second language literature (e.g. Rose and Martin 2012; Hyland, 2002 specifically in EAP), this could be seen as a barrier to EAP teachers' preparedness for promoting literacy.

There were some noteworthy remarks in the open question/free text part of this section of the survey. One respondent, for example, stated that one reads mostly in the same way but the vocabulary is the issue. This would appear to contrast markedly with the remarks in Section 2 regarding ontology and the understanding of the meaning of words in a discipline being critical to being literate. If a student brings subject knowledge and need only translate, this may merely be vocabulary, but in law this is clearly not the case; legal concepts (vocabulary) are not learned by reading a dictionary (specialist or otherwise) but by linking meaning to the appropriate primary source and interpreting by a means recognised by that legal jurisdiction. Admittedly, some general academic words can likely be learned from a dictionary, and medical words, or engineering words from specialist dictionaries, or translated without major difficulty.

One respondent, who believed there are subject specific reading strategies and differences are important referred to Rose and Martin (2012): 'while the broad overarching strategy of genre awareness is common to each discipline, the very nature of genre pedagogy literacy assumes that empowering students to notice the particular features of a given text is what enables understanding.

As such, each particular discipline achieves its uncommon sense meaning in a particular way and that way should/must be highlighted for increased student comprehension.'

In other free text responses related to questions 1 to 4 above, 8 teachers made explicit reference to the value or importance of working with subject specialists to improve teaching of reading in EAP.

Stage 2 – Student Diaries/Logs Results and Discussion

Stage 2 data were collected from 20 students, mostly East Asian, over the five weeks of a pre-sessional English for Law course via a diary/log for students reflecting on reading attitudes throughout the course, with a particular focus on student beliefs about subject knowledge influencing reading comprehension. The pre-sessional course employs introductory level legal texts such as sections from textbooks, many recommended by the university Law School specifically for the course.

Selected data from student logs

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
before course starts relevance of subject knowledge	16	4.00	7.00	5.8125	1.10868
week 2 relevance of subject knowledge	17	3.00	7.00	5.9412	1.14404
week 3 relevance of subject knowledge	15	4.00	7.00	6.0000	.92582
week 4 relevance of subject knowledge	15	5.00	7.00	6.0667	.96115
week 1 expectation EAP teacher to help with subject	19	1.00	7.00	5.1579	1.46299
week 1 belief in subject specific strategies	19	1.00	7.00	5.2105	1.54844

Table 6: Some data from student logs on their beliefs about subject knowledge and about reading strategies.

Structured qualitative data showed that students considered subject knowledge/background knowledge to be highly relevant to how well they understood the texts (table 6). They also stated in week 1 that they felt EAP teachers should help with subject knowledge and word meaning (note that

students during stage 2 of this research were not exposed to HJR) (table 6). Students also stated that they believed there were subject-specific reading strategies (table 6). Free text responses in student logs were short enough to be capable of manual inductive and deductive analysis revealing the perceived importance of developing subject expertise to read better e.g. 'I think we now need to learn subject knowledge' and 'Difficulty because words don't translate in law'. 12 students explicitly raised one or other issue.

Stage 3 –LLM students views on subject specific reading strategies on EAP for Law course.

In September 2019, 43 Law Masters' students (of various nationalities with an approximate balance between European and East Asian, of English level B2-C1) were asked the following question after being given examples of typical reading strategies such as skimming, scanning, note-taking, translating etc.

Question: To what extent do you agree with this statement about reading in English: I would find it useful to learn new ideas for reading strategies/approaches?

Would it be useful to learn reading strategies?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Strongly disagree	7	16.3	17.1	17.1
	disagree	2	4.7	4.9	22.0
	neutral or not sure	1	2.3	2.4	24.4
	agree	11	25.6	26.8	51.2
	Strongly agree	20	46.5	48.8	100.0
	Total	41	95.3	100.0	
Missing	System	2	4.7		
Total		43	100.0		

Table 8: Do LLM students want to learn reading strategies?

Over 70% of students agree or strongly agree that it would be useful to learn reading strategies from the course they were being introduced to (an EAP course for law students).

Stage 4 – Return to original puzzle: in the light of above results, could I improve uptake of HJR by students on an EAP for law course.

The final stage involved bringing the study to a focus on the original puzzle – why were students who were on their programmes, who in theory were ready for subject specific reading strategies, not using HJR?

LLM students (15) and law undergraduate students (7) were separately taught HJR and invited to participate in a survey and group interview. This time HJR was presented explicitly as a subject specific reading strategy (a legal method, so to speak) and students shown results from the survey from stage 3.

The following questions were used, adapted from (Alderson, 2000, p.365)

1. What was the main point of the lesson?
2. When would you use the information or ideas referred to in 1 above?
3. How would you use it – e.g. provide an example?
4. Would you use it in the future?

These questions were designed to elicit the four essential elements of reading strategies: declarative knowledge (know them), procedural (know how they work – how to use), conditional knowledge (know when to use), and motivation (believe they are useful).

All 12 students who participated (7 from LLM, 5 from undergraduate) demonstrated understanding of the aims of the strategy – to develop ontological knowledge of law/to understand in detail and analyse legal concepts – and the procedure and when to use them. All (100%) said they would use the approach. Although a small sample, this is highly encouraging and contrasted markedly with 2017 and 2018 where 4 out of 38 (11%) said they would use the strategy, the main change being the explicitness of the strategy as a subject specific one.

The interview highlighted two key influences 1. the strategy was not too complicated, and more importantly 2. the strategy was part of learning the subject, as they perceived i.e. not a suggested

approach but rather a correct way/method to understand content (perhaps even meaning they saw it as a subject skill rather than a generic strategy).

COMMENTARY

These results highlight beliefs of teachers and students in an second language academic environment as regards subject-specific reading strategies. Only around 40% of EAP teachers believe that there is importance in the different ways we read in particular subjects, while only around 25% believe EAP teachers should teach differences/specific strategies for subject reading. We would have to speculate on how the remaining 75% of teachers would or do approach in-sessional or subject specific pre-sessional courses, and so more detailed research using clearer or specific examples of contexts would be extremely interesting. It is certainly noteworthy that of the 31 respondents who indicated they teach ESAP, only 14 agree there are subject specific reading strategies. Teachers exclusively involved in pre-sessional or general EAP courses might have little opportunity for subject specific reading, even if they believed there were important differences, but one might assume ESAP teachers have this opportunity.

Although the term 'strategy' can prove ambiguous, the survey was piloted and examples were provided to standardise the interpretation. It is remotely possible that subject specific reading strategies such as HJR could be interpreted by some as generic since they could fall under umbrella terms such as paraphrasing, reformulating, and/or analogising. While it is self-evident that reading in law and reading in history and biology will involve many common cognitive processes and cognitive strategies, they will unarguably involve different ontological orientations, with different views of reality, different roles of argument and the means of argument, and so on, aside from any wider social or cultural assumptions and relations between writer and reader. How do EAP teachers view this problem as treatable? HJR focuses particularly on the specific ontology of law. Should subject teachers teach this? Perhaps, but would it not be the responsibility of an EAP in-sessional teacher to, at a minimum, investigate or show an interest. Based on the reported beliefs of the EAP respondents on subject teachers teaching subject-specific reading, the average score of 'do you agree subject teachers should teach' was lower than that for EAP teachers teaching, suggesting that this may not currently happen e.g. that EAP teachers are not sufficiently turning their attention to the issue in the first place. An interesting contrast is with students' expectations of EAP teachers e.g. in stage 2 where the average student score was 5.15 (compared to 4.32 for teachers in stage 1); students tend

to expect a level of support from EAP teachers to subject specific reading that EAP teachers show lower willingness to engage with.

With the original puzzle being about adoption of subject-specific reading strategies, results from this study are particularly illuminating. Explicitly linking of a reading strategy to its position as a disciplinary learning tool would appear to influence uptake. Since it is believed students are more likely to adopt strategies and even exert serious effort to using them if they view the type of knowledge involved in a text as complex (Alexander et al., 2018), emphasising ontological difference and complexity would be valuable.

CONCLUSION

This article has described key results from a survey of 81 EAP teachers' attitudes to subject specific reading strategies and exploratory practice carried out with university students, gathering views of the relevance of subject knowledge to comprehension and attitudes to subject-specific reading strategies. In doing this, it has set out a subject-specific reading strategy for legal reading known as Hohfeld's Jural Relations which should prove useful to ESAP teachers of law. However, the results of the survey suggest a majority of EAP teachers are sceptical on the existence and/or importance of subject specific reading strategies, which would clearly affect the likelihood strategies such as HJR would be taught. Results also indicate that even were EAP teachers to teach such strategies, student uptake would be influenced by the degree to which they see them as an integral part of learning the subject, which, to use Shanahan, Shanahan, and Misischia's (2011) terminology, would require students being aware of the difference between 'content area reading' and 'disciplinary literacy', the latter including the habits of mind such as thinking and reasoning: 'deep knowledge of disciplinary content and keen understanding of disciplinary ways of making meaning' (Fang, 2012, cited in Buehl, 2017). HJR is not an essential disciplinary skill but it is a strategy that directly aids the essential disciplinary skill of analysing legal concepts and their *essence* (in this case, their rules). There is a risk, if we do not sufficiently justify the strategies we teach, that students will avoid strategies that are taught. As Kirschner and van Merriënboer (2013) observe in their discussion on digital literacy, learners may choose approaches to reading that they prefer, not what is best (2013, p.177).

Academic communication, as has been extensively considered by some writers as being about power, equality, and access to social justice (e.g. Moje, 2007) and in order to gain access and then challenge ways of thinking, one must understand the privileged or dominant ways of thinking. Anecdotally, one still hears remarks from academics in education who think students need to *work it out for themselves*. For example, in a law context Christensen (2006, p.606) cites Stratman's (1990) research in the US that legal educators believe students arrive with 'intact literacy' and believe this literacy can be transferred to legal texts.

While this article concludes the EAP teachers should assist students in subject literacy including subject specific reading strategies, it does not present a solution on how EAP teachers are to gain the recommended knowledge to enable disciplinary literacy support, other than providing a tool for ESAP law teachers. This article does recommend EAP teachers find the desire, if they do not have it already, to start to *learn*. This might include, as several respondents to the teacher survey recommend, working more closely with disciplinary experts to create instruction that promotes disciplinary literacy.

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APPENDIX A EXTRACT OF QUESTIONNAIRE USED FOR STAGE 1 TEACHER SURVEY

1. What would you consider to be your main discipline(s) or specialism(s)?

2. What do you teach at college/university?

- EAP general
- ESAP (English for Specific Academic Purposes e.g. English for Management students)
- Other

Guidance for completing the survey:

The remainder of the survey relates to your approaches and attitudes to teaching reading to adults in university or college. All questions have in mind B2+ English language level students

Subject specific reading methods, strategies, approaches

Select 0= don't know n/a = not applicable 1 strongly disagree 2 3 4 5 6 7 strongly agree

3. a. There are specific strategies useful for reading in some subjects, fields, or disciplines i.e. they are not generic strategies.

3. b. Any differences in strategy use between disciplines, fields, or subjects is minimal or insignificant

3. c. Differences in the way experts read in some subjects, fields, or disciplines should be taught by subject teachers

3. d. Differences in the way experts read in some subjects, fields, or disciplines should be taught by EAP teachers

Space for additional comments

Question 5: How influential are the following on your attitudes or approaches?

1 not an influence 2 3 4 5 6 7 very strong influence

a. your own experiences as a student at undergraduate

b. your own experiences as a student at post-graduate

c. your own experiences as a reader recently

d. EAP course book approaches

e. ideas from literature on education

f. ideas from literature on linguistics

APPENDIX B EXTRACT FROM STAGE 2 LOG/DIARY

Date or stage	**details**
A. WEEK 1	Please answer the questions below

1. To what extent do you think that subject knowledge affects your understanding of English language texts?

Choose from 1 – 7 (1 = not relevant 7 = very relevant) *7*

2. *For the next question, give each statement a number as follows:*

1 – never, 2 – rarely, 3 50-50 4 a lot 5 always

When you read something difficult in English at home, you

a) use google translate. 3

b) read several sentences or paragraphs and guess words, perhaps using dictionary later 4

c) use other English language texts to help e.g. Wikipedia in English. 2

d) use other texts in your own language to help e.g. Wikipedia in Chinese, Arabic etc. 3

e) use subject specialist dictionaries e.g. law dictionaries in English. 2

f) use translation when you see words you don't know e.g. electronic translation dictionary 4

3. 'I expect an EAP teacher (English for Academic Purposes) to help me understand subject matter of a text e.g. technical meaning of concepts. To what extent do you agree with that statement – *score 1 – 7 (1= strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree).*

5

4. I believe there are particular techniques/strategies to reading well in particular subjects – *score 1 – 7 (1=strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree).*

5

Week 2 (and repeated for week 3 and 4)

Date or stage	**details**
End of week ___	Consider any reading you did this week. **1. To what extent do you think that subject knowledge affected your understanding of English language texts?** *Choose from 1 – 7 (1 = not relevant 7 = very relevant)* *5* **2. How do you check if you've understood something enough?** *Space for free text response*

End of course (week 5)

Subject knowledge effect on your understanding

Do you want to say anything about your reflections on this?

Space for free text response

Scholarbits

“Yes, I use smiley faces in my formative feedback.” 😊

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My colleague’s bemused expression prompted me to question whether I had crossed some invisible Rubicon from skilled educator to amateurish ‘frienducator’. I was teaching on an optional postgraduate speaking course, designed to encourage student participation in business school seminars. Discussions centred around academic texts with input lessons focusing on interactive language and pragmatics. Students were also required to write weekly online reflections to which tutors responded. The reflective writing rubric comprised three sections designed to assist students to take control of their learning by reflecting on preparation, participation, and action points for future seminars. Probably the most intimidating section is the second aspect, that of participation or ‘reflection in the midst of action’ (Boud, 2001, p.13). The participant notices and then consciously intervenes, dependent on circumstances at the time, and this causes simultaneous reflection, resulting in post-event contemplation. However, as Boud (2001) notes, the notion of an audience can constrain the writer from revealing her/his true feelings, and the more intimate those feelings are, the greater the obstacle to writing truly reflectively. He also comments that ‘there is a tension between assessment and reflection that must be addressed in all courses where it may arise’ (2001, p.16). Although two reflections were formally assessed, these were submitted separately from the weekly reflections. However, irrespective of whether the reflective writing is assessed or not, it still can cause students to self-assess their vulnerability. The fear of intimacy and exposure can be overwhelming.

Higgins et al. (2010) also note that tutors must examine their own beliefs and practices regarding assessment. This can be widened to include feedback of any nature, formative as well as summative. The role of second language teaching in a HE environment can be quite opaque as the post-graduate students are already established within a reputable business school and have a high level of academic literacies but may lack confidence in L2 speaking. Indeed, the course was constructed in response to feedback from faculty requesting assistance with their students’ seminar participation skills. Communicative language teaching in a small class, plus the formative aspect of most of the

classes should facilitate a more ambient atmosphere for students to speak without fear of endangering their grades in their master's degrees. However, the core texts used in seminars from their degree courses were often lexically dense and quite abstract. Consequently, students were sometimes reluctant to engage in critical discussion, inhibited by lack of vocabulary and insufficient processing time to absorb ideas and offer detailed responses. Reflections frequently mentioned anxiety, and a sense of not being as good as peers. Students were often concerned about loss of face and expressed concern that their grammar was inadequate. Tutor feedback centred around the use of vocabulary, application of theory from the core texts and the development of interactive skills. However, inevitably, due to the content of the writing, feedback was heavily personalised. This was the only 1:1 mode of communication on this course, and feedback itself is 'a process of communication' (Higgins et al., 2010, p.270). In addition, the complex relationship between power dynamics and emotion must be acknowledged (Layder, 1997, cited in Higgins et al., 2010, p.273). Tutor feedback can be motivating, unsatisfying or demoralising, for example. If authentic reflection potentially includes an element of risk and feedback is tailored in response to the student's writing, then are emoticons appropriate?

Krohn (2004) concluded that use of emoticons in emails was generation dependent. Most of my students are Generation Z digital natives, using emoticons as semiotic tools to both save time and to convey emotions. The onus is on instructors to change and adapt to the times, otherwise they will be 'disregarded as dinosaurs' (Krohn, 2004, p.326). Since 2004, emoticon usage has become significantly more widespread, particularly through social media usage. However, while teaching staff are expected to embrace technology as part of the pedagogical toolkit, there has been less emphasis on the new digital literacy language in the HE context. In this context we must ask, 'who is the feedback for?' If it is for the students rather than the faculty's benefit, then every effort should be made to write appropriately for the audience. Is this not what we teach our students? In a recent study conducted by Marder et al. (2019), the results suggest that the students surveyed perceived the use of emoticons by instructors as signifying warmth, which may be appropriate in the case of reflective writing. They conclude that overall, the use of positive emoticons is beneficial and appropriate in HE, particularly considering the need to engage with a generation raised using computer mediated communication. However, the researchers also mention two caveats: only smiley emoticons were investigated, and research was conducted in western HE institutions. Marder et al. (2019, p.11) note that 'culturally hierarchical situations are softer' in such universities. This may cause a mild cognitive dissonance for the majority of students on this course who are from non-EU backgrounds.

Reflective writing encourages the students to expose their inner selves and consider their seminar preparation, performance and goals. However, I have also observed that for many students, this can be a rather mechanical process. Those who scrutinize criteria quickly recognise what constitutes a strong reflection and produce writing that ticks the box, but what of those students who do choose to reflect with sincerity and reveal their fears? In a 'real' conversation in a consultation, I would instinctively try to bolster the student's confidence, aiming for reassurance and boosting motivation. Therefore, it may be that we both use this channel as a substitute for a face-to-face consultation.

In view of the role of reflective writing, its use as a conduit to express anxiety, and the formative aspect, feedback language should be relevant and tailored to the situation. I argue that given the above conditions, the use of emoticons is not only appropriate, it may even be desirable. Constructing a response designed to support and motivate anxious students in an online mode must be clear and unambiguous. However, as Alshenqeeti (2016, cited in Venter, 2019, p.3) points out, emoticons may still cause confusion because the recipient is obliged to decode the symbol depending on the context and the writer/recipient relationship. My emoticon use has been restricted to ☺ with the intention that this be interpreted as friendly, encouraging and supportive. However, it may be that I have made an assumption based on my own beliefs rather than considering a cross-cultural, cross-generational boundary infused by power dynamics. Skovholt et al. (2014) observed that although the smiley emoticon usage itself has shifted from its original purpose to signify jokes and is now more often used as a softener and as an indicator of personal involvement, it was uncertain whether the smiley face would have universal interpretation. There is a risk that use of smiley faces could be construed as trivialising the reflection. Here, I am relying on my relationship with my students, trusting that they judge me to have a genuine interest and concern in their progress and well-being. I think that international students probably do not misinterpret the emoticon; however, there are still several considerations. Did the use of emoticons change my professional relationship with the students and their perceptions of me? What did this mean for those students who may have been equally concerned but did not feel able to express their anxieties in online reflective writing? Do students appreciate it? Certainly, some students appeared to be reassured, but this has not been the focus of any rigorous research. This causes a dilemma. Research may provide useful data on students' beliefs concerning the use of emoticons, but it could interfere with the discreet and personal nature of the online reflective writing. Students would also have a further reflective task: reflecting on the use or non-use of emoticons by their tutors that their own reflections had initiated. This could result in more anxiety or a more anodyne

'safe' response, thus further negating any benefits from the reflective writing process. This 1:1 communication is therefore dependent on the personalities of both the writer and the tutor. Each reflection should be regarded as a unique interaction and responses should be bespoke, as appropriate. This may or may not include the use of emoticons; however, if anxieties need to be allayed, then smiley faces may convey warmth and encouragement.

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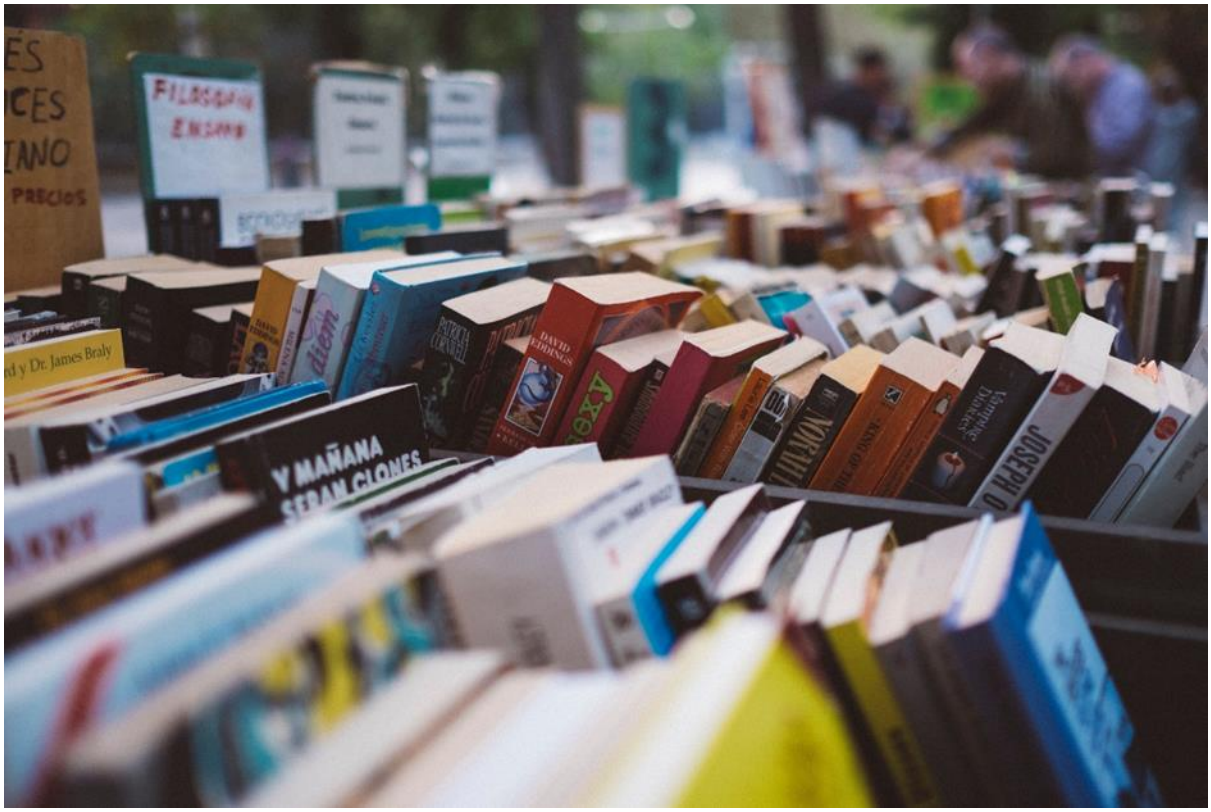
Reviews



The role of L1 in an EFL classroom

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ABSTRACT

L1 can play several functions to aid language learning in an EFL classroom. However the use of L1 to teach L2 often tends to be discouraged in language classrooms. This article explores the role of L1 in EFL education by drawing on a wide range of empirical evidence. The article will demonstrate how teachers can strategically use learners' L1 as a pedagogical recourse in the classroom and what functions L1 plays or can play in language classrooms. The article also briefly discusses the concerns of the researchers regarding the negative effects of L1. The discussion will then move on to explain its implications for sociolinguistically informed training of language teachers.

KEYWORDS: L1, mother tongue, EFL

INTRODUCTION

A large and growing body of literature has investigated the role of the use of learners' first language in teaching second language and there is a common consensus among the researchers that it plays a significant role in language classrooms. In a study of Turkish high achieving students, Eldridge (1996) concluded that contrary to the popular belief, teachers' use of learners' L1 is not counterproductive in EFL classrooms. He found that L1 was employed as a communicative strategy rather than as an 'avoidance strategy' (1996:308). The findings showed that the learners showed a 'code-switching curve'; with an increase in language competence, the occurrence of switches started decreasing. Reviewing a wide range of evidence to demonstrate the value of using learners' native language as a potentially effective strategy for teaching language learners, Yiakoumetti (2011, p.205) considers it a valuable communicative strategy. The following discussion will explore the role of L1 in second language education with some empirical evidence from a wide range of educational contexts.

However, it should be noted that the discussion in this article focuses on EFL classrooms, which are defined as classrooms where students are learning English in their home countries and usually share the same first language (Bell, 2011). Although, in some cases it is possible for EFL classrooms to have learners who don't share a common language, this article will mainly discuss the advantages and disadvantages of L1 in monolingual EFL classrooms.

TEACHERS' USE OF L1 TO PLAY SEVERAL FUNCTIONS IN EFL CLASSROOMS

Teaching vocabulary

L1 plays an integral role in language classrooms by serving a number of functions. A considerable amount of literature has explored the various functions learners' L1 plays in language classrooms (Sampson 2012, Cook & Hall 2012). Firstly, use of L1 is an efficient and effective method of teaching vocabulary. Discussing the efficacy of code-switching to L1, Cole (in Celik 2003) states that a simple translation is time saving and prevents learners' anguish. It can also be argued that compensatory aids such as miming and graded language can result into misunderstandings. Nation (in Cook and Hall, 2012) considers translation 'the most effective way of learning vocabulary'. In a small scale study carried out on Turkish trainee teachers, Celik (2003) found that teachers' use of L1 in classrooms did not only save time but also did not require any additional materials which are normally required in other vocabulary teaching strategies. However, he notes that despite these apparent advantages, use of L1 to teach vocabulary is a less widely used technique.

Function switch

Another way in which L1 is often employed in EFL classrooms is for function switch that is switching language for teaching grammar, classroom management and greetings. Macaro's (2001) analysis of trainee teachers' code-switching in France showed that the most common reason for switching to learners' L1 was for providing procedural instructions. McMillan & Rivers (2011 cited in Oga-Baldwin & Nakata 2013), Cook and Hall (2012) and Sampson (2012) are among the others who found L1 to be used for better clarity and speed of communication in classrooms. Liu et al. (2004) also observed a substantial increase in the use of L1 of South Korean teachers when these teachers explained grammar.

Affective functions

In addition, the teachers' use of learners' L1 has also been reported to play affective functions in classrooms. In an investigation of attitudes of English teachers, Yavuz (2012) noted that the teachers preferred using L1 to lower the anxiety of the learners and to break the psychological barriers before the teaching began. Oga-Baldwin & Nakata (2013) also noted the use of L1 to create positive classroom culture among Japanese EFL learners in North America. Jenkins (2010) maintains that using L1 in classroom can make the learning process less intimidating than it already is. It has also been observed that often the native language of the learners is used by leaners and teachers to show group identity and group solidarity (Sampson, 2012). Eldrige (1996, p.306) shows how the respondents in his study used the Arabic word *Yani,* which means *meaning* to show group solidarity. Similar affective functions have also been noted by Sampson (2012) and Azlan and Narasuman (2013). However, it can be argued that the teachers use code-switching to play affective functions unconsciously. For instance, Farzana (2017) found that although the teachers held positive views about L1 use and used it in their classrooms, they were unaware of the reasons of using L1. This unawareness can hinder the full exploitation of this resource.

Use of Learners' L1 to reduce cognitive load

Another way in which employing L1 can facilitate language learning is that it can be used as a strategy to help lighten the cognitive load. A simple code-switch can facilitate learning by focusing the learner's attention to work on the meaning of large chunks. In L1 only environment this selective attention is dedicated to a single communication breakdown thus slowing down the learning process. In a study, which set out to determine students' strategic reactions to their teachers' code-switching behaviors in a Chinese university, Guo (2007) found that teachers' code-switches to learners' L1 lessened learners' processing burden. He suggested that a simple code-switch of a teacher prevents a potential loss of attention focus of the learners. This view is also supported by Cook and Hall (2012), who maintain that teachers' use of L1 aids learning by decreasing the processing load for learners during cognitively difficult tasks. In the same vain, Levine (2003) notes that the teachers' strategic use of L1 can help reduce the selective attention learners apply to process the new language. Commonly used strategies such as guessing and making inferences from the context do not only use a considerable amount of selective attention but also can often lead to learners' anxiety and negativity (Levine, 2003).

Use of L1 to build on prior knowledge

A large majority of researchers now support the idea that learning is most effective when it is based on prior knowledge. This idea is supported by a number of theoretical traditions including humanistic and constructivist theories (Rostami, & Khadooji, 2010 and Philip, 1995). It has been suggested that paying attention to the knowledge that leaners bring to the classroom enhances learning. Cook and hall (2012, p.291) maintain that language learning should aim to activate learners' prior knowledge. Yavuz (2012) considers the richness of a learners' L1 knowledge and experience, a practical source for L2 learning. He also argues that a ban on L1 in a language classroom turns the learner into a 'newborn baby with an adult mind' (2012, p.4343). It is evident from the above discussion that learners' mother tongue can play a significant role in connecting the new information with existing linguistic resources. However, despite the preponderance of literature regarding the efficacy of building on existing knowledge of learners, teachers have been noted to show obliviousness towards the possible value of L1. For instance, in his study, Macaro (2001) found that the trainee teachers failed to recognize the significance of making L1/L2 associations for long-term memory.

The list of above-mentioned functions is by no means exhaustive but these are the most prominent and useful functions of L1 in a second language classroom. Due to the efficacy of this strategy, linguists discourage eliminating code-switching from language learning classroom; they argue that the L2 only approach in classroom might slow the process of language acquisition and therefore can have a negative effect on motivation and confidence (Eldridge, 1996, p.310). It has been argued that eliminating the developmental use of L1 could impede second language acquisition (Eldridge, 1996). Jenkins (2010) claims that the insistence on L2 only policy often led to confusion and frustration in her classrooms; discouraging her students from participating and experimenting with the language. Sampson (2012) considers code-switching to L1 a quicker and less ambiguous alternative to paraphrasing in L2. Overall, the above empirical evidence from a wide range of EFL contexts demonstrates that code-switching to L1 is not necessarily a result of a deficiency in L2 competence but it serves some very distinct functions in language classrooms.

NEGATIVE EFFECTS OF THE USE OF L1 IN EFL CLASSROOMS

The discussion presented thus far provides the evidence that teachers' use of L1 facilitates communication and learning, however, there are limits to how far the concept of code-switching to

L1 can be adopted by teacher in language classrooms. There is some evidence to suggest that it can have some negative effects. Eldridge (1996) holds the view that despite its short-term benefits to language learners, Switching to L1 has a 'risk of hampering long-term acquisition'. He argues that it can lead to the fossilization of learners' errors. The switches can stop being developmental and beneficial and are used as an avoidance strategy. For example, it was found in a study of Malaysian EFL learners that an overuse of L1 overtook the target language in the classroom (Azlan and Narasuman, 2013). It can also be argued that the ultimate goal of an EFL teacher is to enable the learner to use the target language without relying on the L1 and allowing learners to use L1 impedes them to achieve this goal. Sampson (2012) argues that the overuse of L1 can prevent the learners from exposure to and practice of the L2 and also does not train them for L2 only contexts. The option of resorting to L1 during a breakdown in class does not prepare the learners to deal with communication breakdowns in real life. They acquire a hybrid variety, which does not enable them to communicate with target code monolinguals (Eldridge, 1996). It is also important to note that the overuse of codeswitching is not only evident in learners' behaviors but teachers can also overemploy this strategy. This discussion shows that the teachers need to understand the notion of the optimum use of L1 in order to maximize the benefits of this resource and to avoid its negative effects.

IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHER TRAINING

Having briefly reviewed the role and the status of L1 in second language education and some ways in which it affects learning, I will now turn to its implications for sociolinguistically informed training of language teachers. It has been argued that despite a large number of empirical researches encouraging the use of L1 as a pedagogical tool, this finding does not seem to have reached the teachers (Copland and Neokleous, 2011). It can also be argued that the teachers lack sufficient and clear guidance on how to use L1 effectively and systematically in EFL classrooms. The following section will elucidate some guidelines that sociolinguistically informed teacher-training programs could follow:

Raising teacher's awareness about codeswitching

The training programs should provide the teachers with the knowledge of the theoretical underpinnings of L1 research and practices. Attention should also be given to educators' attitudes and beliefs. Many teachers believe that code-switching to L1 is counter-productive in language classrooms. It was found in a study on high school English teachers in South Korea that teachers'

beliefs tended to affect their code-switching practices (Liu et al., 2004). It has also been noted that teachers generally feel guilty about using L1 in classrooms. In an MA TESOL course held in the UK, out of a total of 18 overseas students, 11 stated that they felt guilty using L1 to teach L2 (Copland and Neokleous, 2011, p.270). Similar unease about using L1 to teach L2 was noted in a study of the beliefs of Cypriot teachers (ibid). Therefore, the teachers should be informed of the efficacy of the use of L1 and its pedagogical, cognitive and affective functions. Also, teachers should be taught effective techniques and strategies for using L1 to enhance learning. Yiakoumetti (2011) suggests training the teachers to employ the mother tongue of the learners to achieve learning objectives as oppose to using it as an "avoidance strategy'.

Raising teachers' awareness about the negative effects of L1 use

As mentioned in the introduction, it is possible for EFL classes to be multilingual. For example, Indian students learning English in their home country might speak different regional languages as L1. In such cases problems might arise, as it is not usually possible for a teacher to know all the languages of the learners. Also, if employing L1 in such situation another consideration would be that whose L1 should be employed. Therefore, the teachers should be informed of the suitable circumstances in which L1 can be employed. The teachers also need to be trained not to take L1 for granted. They need to make sure that L1 strategies are developmental and transient. Macaro (2001) maintains that teachers, particularly less experienced teachers should be provided with a clear framework. The teachers should be able to distinguish between a valuable use of L1 and a 'lazy code-switch'. They should be introduced to the notion of optimal use of L1.

In order to make the sue of L1 a part of a practical pedagogy, the teachers should be encouraged to undertake classroom research to discover the benefits of code-switching.

CONCLUSION

This article reviewed the main benefits of using learners' L1 in EFL classrooms with a brief discussion of some published empirical studies related to this issue. An attempt has been made to include researches from different parts of the world including a range of student and teacher populations to show the concerns, practices and attitudes related to this issue. The article discussed the functions L1 plays in foreign language classrooms. The discussion also highlighted the need for integrating L1

in teacher education in order to use this pedagogical resource effectively in foreign language classrooms.

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A Review of the Criticality Symposium, University of Leeds, 19 December 2019

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KEYWORDS: criticality in disciplines, critical thinking, critical EAP, critical pedagogy, argument and debate

What is criticality? The fact that the 'Questioning Criticality: What is Criticality in Higher Education?' Symposium held on 19 December 2019 posed this question indicates the complexity of the issue and the need to continue to share ideas about its meaning and place in higher education, thus attracting a good number of attendees. The symposium set out to cover a range of aspects that embed criticality: Critical EAP, criticality in disciplines, critical thinking and criticality reflections, through a range of papers and lightning talks. The programme looked promising, suggesting a wide range of voices representing various contexts within HE. The underlying theme of the symposium was how to develop learners' criticality both in a narrow context of a classroom or course and a broader context of higher education and society as a whole. A number of talks were particularly relevant to the context of teaching EAP (English for Academic Purposes) with the aim to question current practices and suggest alternative approaches to developing criticality.

Kashmir Kaur, who convened the symposium, began the proceedings with a warm welcome and introducing the theme and its complexity. It is due to its complexity that there were various interpretations of criticality presented at the symposium: from the ability to evaluate and analyse, and identify weaknesses in arguments in academic work, to being critical towards an established system such as an academic institution, a society, or government. It could be argued that all of these are pertinent to the context of EAP, justifying the relevance of the talks focussing on these aspects of criticality.

The first prominent example of the former, more language-focussed, talks was the paper presented by Dr Jonathan Leader of the University of Southampton. He provided interesting insights into his teaching with the SCOPE Framework which stands for 'Selection, Care, Organisation, Positioning, and Evaluation'. This framework provides steps for the development of a written argument, with a particular emphasis on enabling students to become 'curators' and the use of 'positioning' which is a way of identifying the types of relationships between the ideas in their writing. I particularly appreciated the display of his 'Tangle of Potential Connections' – a visual representation of the thread of an argument which could help learners show links between different authors' ideas.

Another, very practical, approach to building an argument was demonstrated in the pre-recorded video lecture by Louise Greener, Diana Scott, Andy McKay and Alex Gooch from Durham University – instead of a classical 'argument – counter-argument – refutation' - considering the 'premises' and 'conclusion'. In the context of this approach, learners evaluate an argument by questioning whether they can accept the premises, whether the premises lead logically to the conclusion, and whether the author might have neglected important points. It must be noted that it is not only the written argument that is pertinent to EAP but the spoken one too; another presentation given by Natilly Macartney (University of Klagenfurt) was concerned with how an organisation of a structured debate activity could drive an improvement in students' critical thinking skills. The class activities could include clarification and exemplification of the terms 'proposition', 'opposition', 'motion', and 'rebuttal'; using the formula 'idea – evidence – analysis' to formulate an argument; analysing recorded student debates. According to Macartney, structured debates can encourage students to see criticality as a 'set of cultural practices' (Llano, 2015, p.139) and promote 'intellectual courage, respect for alternative viewpoints, skepticism and seeing both sides of an issue' (Davies and Barnett, 2015, p.13).

With regards to the broader and more politically driven understanding of criticality, the theme of Critical EAP was rather prominent. Even though, regrettably, Dr Lata Narayanaswamy (University of Leeds) was unable to take part in the symposium with her talk on decolonisation, my interest was satisfied with Dr Lucy Watson's (University of Southampton) talk presenting her Critical EAP approach incorporating Sarah Benesch's ideas (2001) on enabling learners to become agents of social change, Place-Based learning (Sobel, 2004) with the linking of education to the local environment and global issues, and 'virtual exchange' (O'Dowd, 2018) entailing telecollaboration between students from different countries. Her message, echoing the ideas put forward by Benesch,

was of the importance to create a 'transformative space' for learners to engage with and be included in shaping the community and institution they are a part of.

Dr Lucy Watson's talk was followed by several others inspired by critical pedagogy such as the one given by Antonio Martinez-Arboleda (University of Leeds) who argued against 'textual bias' (Horner, 1999) and for the importance of recognising the sociocultural nature of literacy practices. Therefore, echoing Benesch's ideas, there should be methodology in place fostering student emancipation and contribution to society through gaining better understanding of the lives of people around them. Another talk emphasising the importance of criticality in the current social and political climate was the Skype video presentation by Professor David Webster (SOAS): he challenged the Socratic questioning tradition and argued the futility of 'modern' public debate which does not lead to changing anyone's mind but turns into a self-perpetuating cycle of confirmation bias. I found it to be a striking thought which has far-reaching implications for the teaching of criticality in EAP: how do we approach criticality so that it contributes to a culture of reasoned and constructive dialogue rather than adds fuel to the 'debate me' trend?

I think the most significant idea I took away from the symposium is that criticality does not exist in a restricted space of a classroom or a student paper but is a political and social matter and thus should be treated with increased importance. Developing criticality in EAP through the practical approaches presented by the speakers should not simply have the aim of preparing a student for successfully completing assignments in their future degree programme but developing their agency and ability to contribute to social and political change. In the 'post-truth' era critical pedagogy is relevant as ever if the culture of constructive criticism and critical consciousness are to traverse the walls of a HE institution to tackle the current societal and political issues as well as issues within the institution itself.

Overall, the Criticality Symposium delivered on the promise on the cover page of its programme to cover various aspects of criticality. The diverse perspectives presented by the speakers definitely contributed to deeper understanding of it in the HE context which was evident in the lively follow-up group discussions of the themes of the event. There is hope that such conversations will continue across higher education in the UK and beyond, as there was certainly an elated atmosphere throughout the symposium and, as it drew to a close, an explicit intention from colleagues to continue to contribute to the questioning of criticality.

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