International Corpus of Learner English

Version 3

Sylviane Granger, Maïté Dupont, Fanny Meunier,
Hubert Naets & Magali Paquot (eds)

PUL PRESSES UNIVERSITAIRES DE LOUVAIN

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ISBN : 978-2-87463-932-3
Cover : Marie-Hélène Grégoire
Printed in Belgium

Distribution : www.i6doc.com, online university publishers

Available on order from bookshops or at
CIACO University Distributors
Grand-Place, 7
1348 Louvain-la-Neuve, Belgium
Tel. 32 10 47 33 78
Fax 32 10 45 73 50
duc@ciaco.com

PREFACE

Since the release of the first and second editions in 2002 and 2009 respectively, the *International Corpus of Learner English (ICLE)* has been used in a wide range of research projects internationally, served as the basis for many MA and PhD theses and generally played a key role in promoting the field of learner corpus research. The first version of the corpus contained 2.5 million words produced by learners from 11 mother tongue backgrounds. The second version was larger in terms of both words (3.7 million) and language backgrounds (16). The current version differs from the previous ones in two major ways. Firstly, it is even larger than the previous versions, as it includes data from 25 mother tongue backgrounds, amounting to over 5.5 million words. In addition, unlike the preceding versions – which were both distributed on CD-ROMs – *ICLEv3* is hosted on a brand new web-based interface. This allows not only for easier and more flexible access but also for the regular inclusion of new subcorpora as they are completed, thereby highlighting the fundamentally dynamic nature of the *ICLE* project. Based on the abundant feedback that we have received over the years from scholars using the corpus, the functionalities that were already available in the previous versions of the *ICLE* have been enhanced significantly. The enhancement of the concordance tool and the corpus download facilities, for instance, is intended to answer the growing concern for the study of internal variability and individual differences in learner data. We hope that you will enjoy working with this third version of the *ICLE*, and we encourage you to contact us with your feedback so that we can continue to develop the corpus and cater for the needs of researchers in the best possible way.

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January 2020

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and foremost, we wish to express our deep gratitude to the *ICLE* national coordinators for their tireless efforts in collecting data and for the wonderful collaboration we have enjoyed over so many years. A long-term international project such as *ICLE* does not result in scientific output alone. It also creates bonds of friendship which will outlast the life of the project. Our thanks also go to the members of the *Centre for English Corpus Linguistics (CECL)*, not only for their invaluable collaboration at various stages of the project but also for their unfailing enthusiasm. We have also benefited from the dedication and conscientious efforts of numerous students who have contributed to the many painstaking yet necessary tasks that corpus collection entails. Special thanks are due to the beta-testers of *ICLEv3*, who have provided many useful suggestions for improvement of the interface. We also wish to express our profound gratitude to Paul Rayson, who gave us permission to use the CLAWS7 tagger to POS-tag the *ICLE* files. Last but not least, we are deeply indebted to the many learners who have agreed to contribute their essays to the corpus.

We are also greatly indebted to the various funding bodies that have supported the project over the years. The University of Louvain Research Fund played a crucial role in providing us with the initial resources to launch the project. We have also benefited from the generous support of the Fund for Scientific Research (F.R.S-FNRS) at various stages of the project and from a special research grant from the Walloon Region.

We also wish to express warm thanks to Cédrick Fairon, Director of the *Centre de Traitement Automatique du Langage (CENTAL)* of the University of Louvain, who welcomed the idea of joining forces on the design of the web interface and helped us to bring the project to a successful conclusion.

Finally, the *ICLE* project would never have got off the ground without the initial and continuing encouragement of three leading figures in the corpus linguistics field: Jan Aarts, the late Sidney Greenbaum and Geoffrey Leech. By taking a keen interest in the project at a time when the very concept of learner corpora did not even exist, they gave us the necessary confidence to move forward. We gratefully dedicate this volume to them

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES AND FIGURES

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CLAWS	Constituent Likelihood Automatic Word-tagging System
CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference for Languages
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELT	English Language Teaching
ESL	English as a Second Language
ICLEv1	First version of the ICLE CD-ROM and Handbook (Granger, Dagneaux & Meunier eds 2002)
ICLEv2	Second version of the ICLE CD-ROM and Handbook (Granger, Dagneaux, Meunier & Paquot eds 2009)
ICLEv3	Third version of the ICLE corpus and Handbook
L1	Native language
MWC	Multiword component
L2	Foreign/Second language
POS	Part of speech
SPOS	Simplified part of speech
SLA	Second Language Acquisition

1. INTRODUCTION

The *ICLEv3* web interface represents the culmination of a project that started in the early 1990s. At the time, corpus linguistics was already a well-established linguistic methodology which was showing its full potential in the field of variation studies. Using a combined quantitative/qualitative approach, corpus linguists were providing much more accurate descriptions of varieties of English than had ever been available before. Although most native varieties of English – regional, diachronic, stylistic – benefited from this new corpus approach, the non-native varieties were completely neglected, which was hard to justify given the number of non-native speakers of English in the world, which far exceeds that of native speakers. The project launched by Sylviane Granger at the Université catholique de Louvain in October 1990 aimed to bridge that gap. Initially, the project focused exclusively on the writing of advanced French-speaking learners of English, but the idea quickly caught on. Other EFL varieties were added, and the project became known as the *International Corpus of Learner English (ICLE).* A first CD-ROM was released in 2002 (Granger, Dagneaux & Meunier). It contained written data produced by learners from 11 different mother tongue backgrounds: Bulgarian, Czech, Dutch, Finnish, French, German, Italian, Polish, Russian, Spanish and Swedish. From the start we were keen to follow Sinclair's (1991) guidance that "a corpus should be as large as possible, and should keep on growing", and data collection continued uninterruptedly after the release of the first CD-ROM. A second version of the corpus was released in 2009 (Granger, Dagneaux, Meunier & Paquot), and contained 3.7 million words across 16 language backgrounds – with additional data not only from Europe (Norway and Turkey), but also from China, Japan and South Africa.

The third version of the *ICLE* is even larger than the previous ones, in both number of words (over 5.5 million) and variety of mother tongue backgrounds (it includes data from nine additional learner populations). Whilst the previous versions of the corpus were hosted on CD-ROMs, *ICLEv3* is fully web-based. New features have been added to the range of search functionalities that were already available in the second version of the corpus (these included selection of the texts based on a variety of learner- and task-related variables, and a built-in concordancer allowing for both simple lexical searches and more sophisticated searches using a POS-tagged version of the data). The new interface allows easier and more flexible access to the corpus data

thanks to the inclusion of improved corpus download facilities, more effective integration of metadata information at all stages of corpus processing, enhanced concordance facilities, and new export options facilitating further analysis and statistical treatment of the data.

This handbook is subdivided into six sections. Part I gives a general overview of the corpus, i.e. design criteria, task and learner variables, markup and linguistic annotation. Parts II and III introduce the 25 national projects: the teams that have collected the data (Part II) and the national subcorpora (Part III). Part IV contains a detailed user manual. Finally, Part V provides information on the status of English in the learners' country of origin.

I. DESCRIPTION OF THE CORPUS

1. *ICLE* design criteria

From the outset, it was decided that strict design criteria would be adopted. The reasons were twofold. Firstly, we wanted our data to have 'corpus status' and therefore decided to adhere as closely as possible to Atkins & Clear's (1992) corpus design criteria. Secondly, and more importantly, we were aware of the highly heterogeneous nature of learner language. Unless strict control was exerted over task and learner variables, the data would be difficult to interpret. The importance of rigorous data collection has been stressed by many SLA specialists. Ellis (1994: 49) highlights "the importance of collecting well-defined samples of learner language so that clear statements can be made regarding what kinds of errors the learners produce and under what conditions". Similarly, Odlin (1989: 151) insists that "improvements in data gathering would be highly desirable". The requirements set at the beginning of the *ICLE* project were the following:

- learners: young adults (university undergraduates); advanced proficiency level; learners of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) rather than as a Second Language (ESL);[1]
- language: academic writing (mainly argumentative); 200,000 words per subcorpus.

In addition, the decision was taken to record several other variables which can influence learner productions (see Figure 1). All the variables were collected via a learner profile questionnaire, which all learners were asked to fill in, and subsequently included in the *ICLE* database, where they can be used as search criteria (see Part IV).

For project-internal coherence purposes and reasons of comparability, the set of original variables has not been changed from one version of the *ICLE* to the next. For example, proficiency was operationalized on the basis of external rather than internal criteria at the start of the project and still is in the current version (but see below for more on the differences in proficiency across the learner populations represented in

[1] Note, however, that the distinction between EFL and ESL should be viewed as a continuum and that some subcorpora of the ICLE are closer to the ESL variety than others.

the corpus). It has unfortunately not been possible to record all relevant learner and task variables. One variable which undoubtedly plays a crucial role but which we have not been able to record is the teaching methodology and pedagogical materials to which the learners have been exposed. However, some relevant information about the status of ELT in the learners' countries of origin is included in Part V.

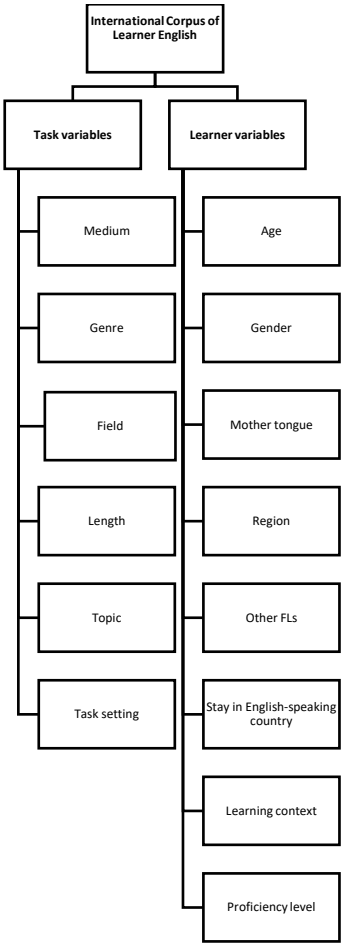

Figure 1. ICLE *task and learner variables*

2. Learner variables

In terms of learner variables, a distinction can be made between eight different variables: age, gender, mother tongue background, region, knowledge of other foreign languages, time spent in an English-speaking country, learning context, and proficiency level.

AGE

All the learners who submitted an essay to the *ICLE* are university undergraduates and therefore usually in their twenties. However, as shown in Table 1, there are some differences between the national subcorpora. The average age of the Pakistani learners, for instance, is much lower than that of the Swedish learners (nearly eight years lower).

NATIONAL SUBCORPUS	Average Age	Minimum Age	Maximum Age	Q1	Median	Q3	Without undefined	Number of undefined
BRAZILIAN	21.89	16	44	20	22	23	409	3
BULGARIAN	20.55	19	23	20	20	21	302	0
CHINESE	20.49	18	48	19	20	21	956	26
CZECH	22.07	20	29	21	22	23	239	4
DUTCH	20.75	18	43	19	20	21	257	6
FINNISH	22.73	18	49	20	22	23	385	5
FRENCH	21.70	20	38	21	21	22	344	3
GERMAN	23.39	18	36	22	23	25	414	23
GREEK	21.65	20	38	20	21	22	462	0
HUNGARIAN	23.57	19	41	21	22	24	382	54
IRANIAN	24.86	17	50	21	23	26	346	13
ITALIAN	24.59	18	42	23	24	26	382	10
JAPANESE	20.06	18	36	20	20	20	366	0
KOREAN	22.15	20	28	21	22	22	400	0
LITHUANIAN	21.76	20	33	21	22	22	375	34
MACEDONIAN	21.81	19	46	20	21	22	311	24
NORWEGIAN	23.94	18	55	20	22	25	287	30
PAKISTANI	19.79	18	28	19	20	20	306	0
POLISH	23.39	19	38	22	23	24	357	8
RUSSIAN	21.20	17	36	19	20	21	261	15
SERBIAN	22.17	18	38	21	22	23	325	0
SPANISH	21.72	17	54	19	21	22	243	8
SWEDISH	27.74	19	71	22	25	29.5	331	24
TSWANA	22.47	17	40	20	23	25	443	76
TURKISH	22.08	19	38	21	22	23	280	0
ICLEv3	22.27	16	71	20	21	23	9163	366

Table 1. Learners' age

GENDER

As the humanities tend to attract more female than male students, it has not been possible to collect a well-balanced corpus in terms of gender. As shown in Table 2, 77% of the *ICLE* data have been produced by female learners. Some subcorpora are more female-dominated than others: the proportion varies from 60% in the Tswana corpus to 96% in the Greek corpus.[2]

NATIONAL SUBCORPUS	PERCENTAGE FEMALE	PERCENTAGE MALE	PERCENTAGE UNKNOWN
BRAZILIAN	61.89%	38.11%	
BULGARIAN	82.78%	17.22%	
CHINESE	63.95%	35.64%	0.41%
CZECH	72.02%	27.57%	0.41%
DUTCH	73.38%	26.62%	
FINNISH	85.13%	14.87%	
FRENCH	87.61%	12.39%	
GERMAN	78.03%	21.28%	0.69%
GREEK	95.67%	4.33%	
HUNGARIAN	78.67%	21.33%	
IRANIAN	73.82%	26.18%	
ITALIAN	91.84%	8.16%	
JAPANESE	72.95%	26.50%	0.55%
KOREAN	75.25%	23.75%	1.00%
LITHUANIAN	92.91%	7.09%	
MACEDONIAN	83.28%	16.72%	
NORWEGIAN	74.13%	25.87%	
PAKISTANI	65.69%	34.31%	
POLISH	80.00%	19.45%	0.55%
RUSSIAN	84.42%	15.22%	0.36%
SERBIAN	77.85%	22.15%	
SPANISH	86.45%	13.15%	0.40%
SWEDISH	76.62%	22.54%	0.85%
TSWANA	59.73%	36.61%	3.66%
TURKISH	81.43%	18.57%	
ICLEv3	77.20%	22.38%	0.42%

Table 2. Learners' gender

[2] The learners could choose one of the following three gender options when filling in the learner profile questionnaire: (i) female; (ii) male; and (iii) unknown. In future versions of the corpus, however, the learners will also have the option of selecting the 'non-binary' category.

MOTHER TONGUE

The *ICLE* learners represent a large variety of mother tongue backgrounds: Bulgarian, Chinese (Hong Kong and Mainland China), Czech, Dutch (Belgium and the Netherlands), Finnish, French (Belgium), German (Austria, Germany and Switzerland), Greek, Hungarian, Italian, Japanese, Korean, Lithuanian, Macedonian, Norwegian, Persian (Iran), Polish, Portuguese (Brazil), Punjabi (Pakistan), Russian, Serbian (Serbia and Bosnia and Herzegovina), Spanish, Swedish (Finland and Sweden), Tswana (South Africa), Turkish and Urdu (Pakistan). In order to have a more precise picture of the learners' language backgrounds, we also recorded which other languages they speak at home. These languages are listed in decreasing order of use as first, second or third 'language spoken at home'.

MOTHER TONGUE	NUMBER	PERCENTAGE
Chinese-Cantonese	814	8.54%
Tswana	519	5.45%
Swedish	472	4.95%
Greek	458	4.81%
German	445	4.67%
Hungarian	436	4.58%
Portuguese	412	4.32%
Korean	400	4.20%
Italian	398	4.18%
Polish	386	4.05%
Japanese	366	3.84%
Persian	350	3.67%
Lithuanian	335	3.52%
Russian	330	3.46%
Serbian	327	3.43%
Macedonian	317	3.33%
Norwegian	316	3.32%
French	314	3.30%
Bulgarian	300	3.15%
Turkish	286	3.00%
Dutch	262	2.75%
Finnish	261	2.74%
Spanish	250	2.62%
Czech	241	2.53%
Punjabi	174	1.83%

Chinese	160	1.68%
Urdu	132	1.39%
Chinese-Mandarin	8	0.08%
Albanian	6	0.06%
Bosnian	2	0.02%
Arabic	2	0.02%
Aromanian (Vlach)	1	0.01%
Other	39	0.41%
Unknown	10	0.10%

Table 3. Learners' mother tongue

REGION

This variable covers the learners' country of origin. It is especially relevant for languages which are spoken in more than one country, such as:

- Chinese: Mainland China and Hong Kong;
- Dutch: Belgium and the Netherlands;
- German: Germany, Austria and Switzerland;
- Swedish: Sweden and Finland.

KNOWLEDGE OF OTHER FOREIGN LANGUAGES

This factor is useful to record as the learners' L2 may be influenced not only by their mother tongue, but also by their knowledge of other foreign languages. Table 4 lists learners' top foreign languages (>1%).

FOREIGN LANGUAGE	NUMBER	PERCENTAGE
No other foreign language	3370	35.37%
German	1722	18.07%
French	1440	15.11%
Russian	578	6.07%
Spanish	452	4.74%
Italian	358	3.76%
Dutch	216	2.27%
Swedish	214	2.25%
Afrikaans	108	1.13%

Table 4. Learners' top foreign languages

TIME SPENT IN AN ENGLISH-SPEAKING COUNTRY

While a large proportion of the learners (52%) reported no stay in an English-speaking country, 19% reported a stay of 3 months or more and 11% a stay of less than 3 months.

NUMBER OF MONTHS	NUMBER OF LEARNERS	PERCENTAGE
0	5001	52.48%
1	600	6.30%
2	433	4.54%
3	280	2.94%
4	314	3.30%
5	95	1.00%
6	220	2.31%
7	51	0.54%
8	52	0.55%
9	63	0.66%
10	98	1.03%
11	43	0.45%
12	235	2.47%
13	11	0.12%
14	12	0.13%
15	31	0.33%
16	6	0.06%
17	11	0.12%
18	25	0.26%
19	1	0.01%
20	4	0.04%
21	1	0.01%
22	3	0.03%
23	2	0.02%
24	70	0.73%
More than 2 years	183	1.92%
Unknown	1684	17.67%

Table 5. Time spent in an English-speaking country

LEARNING CONTEXT

All the learners who contributed data to the corpus learned English in a non-English-speaking country. For them, English is therefore a foreign rather than a second language. It is clear, however, that the line between EFL and ESL can be extremely fuzzy. As appears from the Status of English sections in Part V, the learners' exposure to the English language may be quite limited in some countries and quite extensive in others. Referring to the situation in Norway, Johansson (this volume, p. 168) points out that from being a foreign language, English is now "approaching the status as a second language". In Hong Kong, however, the reverse trend has been observed: "Some linguists used to argue strongly that English is the secondary language of Hong Kong but then conceded to agree that English is an auxiliary language. Now, English is mostly regarded as a foreign language here" (Lin, this volume, p. 157). What is certain, however, is that all the learners represented in the *ICLE* corpus learned English primarily in a classroom setting,[3] despite some individual and group variability in extramural exposure to English (i.e. English encountered outside the classroom).

NATIONAL SUBCORPUS	0 YEAR	1 YEAR	2 YEARS	3 YEARS	4 YEARS	5 YEARS	6 YEARS OR +	UNKNOWN
Brazilian							100	
Bulgarian			0.66	0.66	1.32	37.09	60.26	
Chinese		0.20		0.61		0.31	98.88	
Czech		0.41	1.65	4.12	48.97	6.58	36.63	1.65
Dutch			0.76	2.28	31.18	17.87	47.15	0.76
Finnish				0.51		1.03	97.69	0.77
French			0.86	7.49	46.40	8.36	32.28	4.61
German				0.69	1.37	7.32	90.39	0.23
Greek					0.43	2.60	96.97	
Hungarian			1.83	1.15	16.51	5.28	69.72	5.50
Iranian			0.56	2.23	2.23	4.46	80.78	9.75
Italian			1.28	1.53	1.28	30.36	56.63	8.93
Japanese							100	
Korean							100	
Lithuanian	0.24			0.24	1.22	1.47	96.82	
Macedonian		0.30		0.30	0.90		97.61	0.90
Norwegian			0.32				97.48	2.21
Pakistani							100	
Polish		0.27	1.10	1.37	52.60	8.49	33.70	2.47

[3] Some of the Chinese data came from learners who were studying at the University of Portsmouth in the UK. These learners contributed their data some 1-2 months after starting their studies in Portsmouth.

Russian		0.36	5.07	1.45	0.72	8.70	80.07	3.62
Serbian					0.62		99.38	
Spanish		0.80		4.78	3.98	2.79	82.07	5.58
Swedish			0.28	0.28		0.85	85.92	12.68
Tswana				0.19		3.08	96.72	
Turkish				0.36	2.14		97.50	
ICLEv3	0.01	0.08	0.48	1.05	7.13	5.25	83.82	2.18

Table 6. Years of English at school (in percent)

PROFICIENCY

The aim of the project was to collect data from advanced learners. At the outset of the project, in keeping with Atkins & Clear's (1992) guidelines, we defined this notion on the basis of external rather than internal criteria: most *ICLE* subjects are university undergraduates in English (usually in their third or fourth year). To ensure comparability, this initial decision was also adhered to in the subsequent versions of ICLE. However, as is to be expected when relying on external criteria, a quick look at some sample essays shows that the corpus contains differences in proficiency levels (both across and within subcorpora). Therefore, it seems more appropriate to say that the proficiency level ranges from higher intermediate to advanced. With a view to gaining better insights into the differences in proficiency across subcorpora, we submitted a random sample of 20 essays from each of the 25 subcorpora to a professional rater who was asked to rate them on the basis of the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR)* descriptors for writing. Although these results are clearly tentative, on account of both the reduced size of the sample and the fact that each text was assessed by only one rater, we have decided to include them here (see Table 7) in order to draw users' attention to the potential impact of proficiency differences on results.[4]

The results paint a contrasting picture. While 61% of the sample essays were rated as advanced (C1 or C2), the proportion is much higher in some subcorpora, even reaching 100% in the case of Swedish, but can be as low as 5 or 10% in others. Although these results need to be firmed up on the basis of more rigorous assessment methods, they are a clear

[4] Note that the *ICLEv1* and *ICLEv2* samples were assessed by different raters, albeit on the basis of the same rating grid. The same rater assessed the *ICLEv2* and *ICLEv3* samples.

indication that some of the *ICLEv3* subcorpora are in the higher intermediate range while others clearly qualify as advanced.

MOTHER TONGUE	B2 (AND LOWER)	C1	C2	TOTAL
Brazilian Portuguese	8	9	3	20
Bulgarian	2	16	2	20
Chinese	19	1	0	20
Czech	11	9	0	20
Dutch	1	11	8	20
Finnish	3	8	9	20
French	3	11	6	20
German	1	12	7	20
Greek	6	13	1	20
Hungarian	2	13	5	20
Italian	10	9	1	20
Japanese	18	2	0	20
Korean	15	4	1	20
Lithuanian	7	8	5	20
Macedonian	4	4	12	20
Norwegian	8	7	5	20
Persian	7	11	2	20
Polish	1	12	7	20
Punjabi/Urdu	15	5	0	20
Russian	3	15	2	20
Serbian	4	11	5	20
Spanish	12	8	0	20
Swedish	0	14	6	20
Tswana	18	0	2	20
Turkish	16	4	0	20
ICLEv3	**194**	**217**	**89**	**500**

Table 7. CEFR results – 20 essays per subcorpus

3. Task variables

The objective of the *ICLE* project was to collect learner productions that shared a large number of task variables, notably in terms of medium (writing), genre (academic essay), field (general English rather than English for Specific Purposes) and length (between 500 and 1,000 words). A large degree of freedom was left to the national coordinators as regards the topic and other task variables such as timing, exam conditions and use of reference tools. All these variables are recorded in the database and can be searched in order to compile homogeneous corpora.

GENRE

As shown in Table 8, the majority (94%) of the *ICLE* texts are argumentative essays. This text type allows for discourse-oriented (cohesion, coherence, argumentative patterns, etc.) as well as lexical and grammatical exploration. Given the difficulty of collecting this type of material, it was agreed that national coordinators could if necessary include up to 25% of literary essays (typically literature exam papers). Apart from the special case of the Italian subcorpus,[5] the proportion of argumentative essays ranges from 79% (Spanish corpus) to 100% (Brazilian, Bulgarian, Chinese, Greek, Hungarian, Iranian, Japanese, Korean, Macedonian, Pakistani, Russian, Turkish and Tswana corpora).

NATIONAL SUBCORPUS	ARGUMENTATIVE	LITERARY	OTHER
BRAZILIAN	100%	-	-
BULGARIAN	100%	-	-
CHINESE	100%	-	-
CZECH	81.07%	18.93%	-
DUTCH	95.82%	4.18%	-
FINNISH	91.54%	8.46%	-
FRENCH	85.01%	14.99%	-
GERMAN	96.57%	3.43%	-
GREEK	100%	-	-
HUNGARIAN	100%	-	-
IRANIAN	100%	-	-
ITALIAN	33.93%	15.56%	50.51%

[5] 50% of the Italian essays were written on the basis of an article which served as a starting-point for the students. Although these essays are argumentative, we have classified them in a special category labelled 'other' on the interface, as the language used in the article may have had an effect on learner output.

JAPANESE	100%	-	-
KOREAN	100%	-	-
LITHUANIAN	92.67%	7.33%	-
MACEDONIAN	100%	-	-
NORWEGIAN	98.42%	1.26%	0.33%
PAKISTANI	100%	-	-
POLISH	98.90%	0.82%	0.27%
RUSSIAN	99.64%	0.36%	-
SERBIAN	99.08%	0.92%	-
SPANISH	79.28%	20.72%	-
SWEDISH	85.07%	14.93%	-
TSWANA	100%	-	-
TURKISH	100%	-	-
ICLEv3	94.08%	3.82%	2.10%

Table 8. Proportion of argumentative essays

All the essays are unabridged and have an average length of 605 words. However, there are differences between the subcorpora – from an average of 387 words in the Tswana subcorpus to 901 words in the Dutch subcorpus (see Table 9).[6]

NATIONAL SUBCORPUS	Average Length	Minimum Length	Maximum Length	Q1	Median	Q3
BRAZILIAN	500.06	206	976	439.75	511	562.25
BULGARIAN	668.63	216	2289	447	562.5	909.75
CHINESE	502.12	138	1151	436	502	553.75
CZECH	833.19	231	1514	591	844	1017.5
DUTCH	900.50	319	4239	532	639	1163.5
FINNISH	710.13	272	1797	558.25	651.5	824.25
FRENCH	653.88	220	2211	514	586	723
GERMAN	531.39	155	2101	350	486	665
GREEK	571.99	332	1058	522	553	608
HUNGARIAN	478.58	352	744	448	477	503
IRANIAN	633.11	228	1238	516.5	617	733.5
ITALIAN	576.64	189	1277	500	558	632
JAPANESE	549.07	399	1006	487	520	579.75
KOREAN	561.64	324	984	503.75	524.5	597
LITHUANIAN	577.08	212	1301	505	545	637

[6] The number of words per text was computed with CLAWS7. The only change that was made with respect to the default counting method of CLAWS7 is that punctuation marks (e.g. commas, apostrophes, full stops, etc.) were *not* counted as words in *ICLEv3*. Note that in the previous versions of *ICLE*, a different programme was used to compute word counts. As a result, the number of words for the subcorpora that were already part of *ICLEv1* and *ICLEv2* is slightly different from that recorded in Granger et al. (2002) and Granger et al. (2009).

MACEDONIAN	653.10	467	1176	506	587	807
NORWEGIAN	674.14	321	1782	549	625	749
PAKISTANI	649.96	69	1851	535.5	598	710.75
POLISH	645.40	230	1109	539	626	727
RUSSIAN	833.50	107	3087	567.5	809	1068.75
SERBIAN	623.45	310	1144	521	605	715
SPANISH	796.61	224	3447	536	662	938.5
SWEDISH	567.51	235	1279	503	546	608.5
TSWANA	386.53	92	991	292.5	374	471.5
TURKISH	716.43	500	1423	580.75	716	826
ICLEv3	605.16	233.41	69	4239	488	550

Table 9. Average essay length (in words)

TOPIC

The *ICLE* essays cover a wide range of topics. However, some topics recur in the corpus because many coordinators used the list of suggested topics provided by the coordinating team in Louvain (see Appendix 2). Table 10 lists the ten most popular topics[7] and specifies the number of *ICLE* subcorpora in which each of them is found. The subcorpus that represents the largest proportion (20% or more) of the texts associated with a topic is provided in brackets.

Essay topic	Number of essays	Subcorpora
Some people say that in our modern world, dominated by science, technology and industrialization, there is no longer a place for dreaming and imagination. What is your opinion?	696	18/25 (20% Bulgarian)
Most university degrees are theoretical and do not prepare us/students for the real world/life.	615	21/25
Marx once said that religion was the opium of the masses. If he was alive at the beginning of the 21st century, he would replace religion with television.	484	16/25 (32% Greek)
The prison system is outdated. No civilized country should punish its criminals: it should rehabilitate them.	392	17/25 (44% Iranian)
In the words of the old song: "Money is the root of all evil".	262	16/25

[7] There may be more essays associated with some topics as the titles associated with a particular topic were sometimes formulated slightly differently. To get a more precise view users are advised to use keywords as search variables on the interface. For example, for the first title in Table 10, entering *science*, *technology* and *world* generates 710 texts.

Poverty is the cause of the HIV/AIDS epidemic in Africa.	243	1/25 (100% Tswana)
Feminists have done more harm to the cause of women than good.	219	18/25 (21% Greek)
In the 19th century, Victor Hugo said: "How sad it is to think that nature is calling out but humanity refuses to pay heed". Do you think it is still true nowadays?	186	14/25 (51% Greek)
Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of banning smoking in restaurants.	180	3/25 (87% Chinese)
In his novel "Animal Farm" George Orwell wrote "All men are equal, but some are more equal than others". How true is this today?	166	14/25 (30% Bulgarian)

Table 10. Top ten essay topics

TASK SETTING

This variable refers to three task conditions: whether the task was timed or untimed, whether or not it was part of an exam, and whether students were allowed to use reference tools (such as grammars and dictionaries) to complete the task. Timing and exam status are clearly linked: a timed essay is usually part of an examination; an untimed essay is usually written at home. The majority of the *ICLEv3* essays are of the latter type: they are untimed (60%) and not written under exam conditions (62%). Slightly less than half of the essays (44%) were written with the support of reference tools. As shown in Tables Table ***11*** to Table ***13***, however, there is extensive variation among subcorpora with respect to these three task variables.

NATIONAL SUBCORPUS	Untimed	Timed	Unknown
BRAZILIAN	100%	-	-
BULGARIAN	100%	-	-
CHINESE	14.77%	83.20%	2.04%
CZECH	97.53%	0.41%	2.06%
DUTCH	84.03%	5.32%	10.65%
FINNISH	63.33%	35.90%	0.77%
FRENCH	80.40%	15.56%	4.03%
GERMAN	51.03%	41.65%	7.32%
GREEK	-	100%	-
HUNGARIAN	0.92%	72.71%	26.38%
IRANIAN	100%	-	-
ITALIAN	33.16%	64.29%	2.55%
JAPANESE	37.43%	56.01%	6.56%
KOREAN	100%	-	-

LITHUANIAN	28.12%	71.88%	-
MACEDONIAN	74.93%	25.07%	-
NORWEGIAN	97.79%	2.21%	-
PAKISTANI	100%	-	-
POLISH	66.30%	32.88%	0.82%
RUSSIAN	82.61%	3.62%	13.77%
SERBIAN	47.38%	52.62%	-
SPANISH	66.14%	14.34%	19.52%
SWEDISH	35.77%	60%	4.23%
TSWANA	100%	-	-
TURKISH	100%	-	-
ICLEv3	60.80%	35.46%	3.74%

Table 11. Proportion of essays written under untimed conditions per subcorpus

NATIONAL SUBCORPUS	Examination	Not an examination	Unknown
BRAZILIAN	-	-	100%
BULGARIAN	-	100%	-
CHINESE	81.77%	14.15%	4.07%
CZECH	0.82%	97.53%	1.65%
DUTCH	13.31%	69.58%	17.11%
FINNISH	33.59%	64.62%	1.79%
FRENCH	17.29%	72.91%	9.80%
GERMAN	39.13%	52.63%	8.24%
GREEK	-	100%	-
HUNGARIAN	73.62%	-	26.38%
IRANIAN	-	100%	-
ITALIAN	60.46%	34.18%	5.36%
JAPANESE	36.89%	59.02%	4.10%
KOREAN	-	100%	-
LITHUANIAN	64.06%	35.94%	-
MACEDONIAN	24.78%	75.22%	-
NORWEGIAN	-	99.37%	0.63%
PAKISTANI	-	100%	-
POLISH	23.29%	75.89%	0.82%
RUSSIAN	11.23%	58.33%	30.43%
SERBIAN	0.31%	99.69%	-
SPANISH	28.29%	45.42%	26.29%
SWEDISH	60.56%	35.49%	3.94%
TSWANA	-	100%	-
TURKISH	-	100%	-
ICLEv3	27.74%	62.84%	9.42%

Table 12. Proportion of essays not written under exam conditions per subcorpus

NATIONAL SUBCORPUS	Use of reference tools	No use of reference tools	Unknown
BRAZILIAN	-	100%	-
BULGARIAN	10.93%	89.07%	-
CHINESE	6.62%	91.34%	2.04%
CZECH	78.60%	19.34%	2.06%
DUTCH	90.49%	4.18%	5.32%
FINNISH	59.23%	40.51%	0.26%
FRENCH	90.20%	2.31%	7.49%
GERMAN	50.34%	45.31%	4.35%
GREEK	37.66%	62.34%	-
HUNGARIAN	65.37%	8.49%	26.15%
IRANIAN	37.05%	19.78%	43.18%
ITALIAN	98.98%	1.02%	-
JAPANESE	13.11%	81.97%	4.92%
KOREAN	100%	-	-
LITHUANIAN	27.38%	71.88%	0.73%
MACEDONIAN	43.58%	50.15%	6.27%
NORWEGIAN	63.09%	36.91%	-
PAKISTANI	-	100%	-
POLISH	93.42%	4.66%	1.92%
RUSSIAN	84.78%	11.23%	3.99%
SERBIAN	18.46%	81.54%	-
SPANISH	71.71%	13.15%	15.14%
SWEDISH	24.51%	61.13%	14.37%
TSWANA	-	100%	-
TURKISH	52.14%	47.86%	-
ICLEv3	44.34%	50.38%	5.28%

Table 13. Proportion of essays written with the support of reference tools per subcorpus

4. Markup and linguistic annotation

4.1. Minimal markup

The corpus is made up of texts in UTF-8 format. The learner profile information is not integrated into the text files, but included in a database linked to the text files (see Part IV). The only markup included in the text files indicates the essay code, deleted quotes and references, and illegible words.

The following codes have been used:

- deleted quotes[8]: <*> or <quote>
- deleted bibliographic references: <R>
- illegible words: <?>

The essay titles and the students' names have been removed from the essays and replaced by a unique code (see examples below). Detailed information about the essay codes is given in Part III.

Here are a few examples:

<ICLE-DN-NIJ-0005.3>
(…) He says in chapter 5, after having been away a long time: **<*>**
And a little later he adds: **<*>** These quotations clearly show that his father is afraid.

<ICLE-FR-UCL-0001.2>
To answer this question, one should first of all consider the date of publication of the novel: written in 1927, V. Woolf's <R> belongs to the modernist period (1900-1930). Now the question is: Does the novel present the characteristics of a novel of this period?

<ICLE-FR-UCL-0048.2>
It is the christian conception of love that is criticized here. According to Vannegut the message of love presented by Jesus is not true and the <?> is responsible for this.

The texts were either submitted in paper format (in the early stages of the project) or, increasingly over time, in electronic format. In the former case, they had to be keyed in, and great care was taken to reproduce the text faithfully, i.e. without correcting the errors or

[8] Quotes have been removed except if they are very short and/or integrated into the sentence (e.g. as subject).

introducing new ones. At the very beginning of the project (see Granger 1993), our intention was to normalize some low-level errors (spelling errors, missing and redundant words). However, we soon realized that it was not easy to decide which errors should be normalized and which should not. For instance, while the words **lesure*, **mouses* and **aggressivity* are all non-English words, the first is a spelling error, the second a grammatical error (irregular plural) and the third a lexical error (word coinage). Should all three be normalized or only the first? In view of the subjectivity involved, it was decided to adopt Sinclair's (1991: 21) 'clean-text policy' and leave the text intact.

4.2. Part-of-speech tagging

All learner essays in *ICLEv3* were lemmatized and part-of-speech tagged with the *Constituent Likelihood Automatic Word-tagging System* (CLAWS) C7 (cf. Garside and Smith 1997).[9] Lists of simple words and multiword expressions for the whole *ICLE* corpus were also compiled from CLAWS-tagged learner essays (cf. Section 4.2.3 in Part IV for more information on the treatment of multiword units in CLAWS7).

The POS-tagging of the learner essays makes it possible to search for all the occurrences of a lemma (e.g. the lemma USE used as a noun), a POS-tag (e.g. all the adverbs used in the corpus) or a sequence of POS-tags (e.g. a plural noun followed by a lexical verb) in *ICLEv3*'s concordancer (cf. Section 4.3 below; see also Part IV of this handbook for a detailed description of the concordancer). It is important to note that the POS-tagged version of the corpus cannot be downloaded; it can only be queried via *ICLEv3*'s built-in concordancer.

Our decision to opt for CLAWS was based on Van Rooy and Schäfer's (2003) study, which showed that it performed better than other POS-taggers when handling learner data. CLAWS is a hybrid tagger, combining probabilistic and rule-based approaches. This hybrid approach allows CLAWS to assign POS-tags with a very high degree of accuracy overall, although Rayson (2003: 63) points to some variation in function of text type and POS-tag.

[9] See http://ucrel.lancs.ac.uk/claws/ for more details about CLAWS. We are most grateful to Paul Rayson for giving us access to the CLAWS7 POS-tagger.

Despite having been trained on native speaker corpora, POS-taggers have been found to have a high success rate with advanced learner data (Meunier 1998: 21). Their success rate has, however, proved to be very sensitive to morpho-syntactic and orthographic errors (De Haan 2000; Van Rooy and Schäfer 2003). It tends to decline as the number of errors increases (cf. Granger 2008: 265). Here are a few examples of morpho-syntactic and orthographic errors in *ICLE* which are responsible for a lower tagger success rate:

- **Mal_NP1** (*instead of Male_JJ*) characters_NN2 will_VM waste_VVI a_AT1 fortune_NN1 …
- … because_CS the_AT decision_NN1 of_IO the_AT dreadful_JJ punishment_NN1 **againts_VVZ** (*instead of against_II*) Joan_NP1 was_VBDZ …
- The_AT boy_NN1 smells_VVZ the_AT heavenly_JJ soup_NN1, draws_VVZ his_APPGE knife_NN1 and_CC cuts_VVZ the_AT old_JJ **womans_NN2** (*instead of woman_NN1 's_GE*) throat_NN1 with_IW one_MC1 hand_NN1 …
- … the_AT most_RRT **inmediate_VV0** (*instead of immediate_JJ*) aspiration_NN1 of_IO the_AT humanity_NN1

In a small pilot study carried out at the Centre for English Corpus Linguistics on the second version of the *ICLE*, we checked the accuracy rate of 51 POS-tagged learner essays representing the 16 mother tongue backgrounds available in *ICLEv2* (c. 42,000 words). The results were quite satisfactory, with accuracy rates varying from 95% to 99.1%.

A word of caution is in order though. It is important to bear in mind that the accuracy of the POS-tags in *ICLEv3* has **not** been checked[10] and some of the tags are therefore likely to be incorrect. Researchers who wish to base their analyses on the POS-tagged version of the corpus are therefore advised to carry out a small-scale pilot study to check the output of any query involving POS-tags, as suggested by Granger (1997a: 372): "linguists who want to use linguistic annotation tools to

[10] The only errors that were corrected pertained to punctuation. A large number of punctuation marks were tagged by CLAWS as nouns, adjectives or adverbs, for example. In such cases, the POS-tags assigned by CLAWS were automatically changed into 'PUNC' tags (see Part IV for a list of all the tags used in *ICLEv3*).

analyze a particular grammatical variable should start with a small-scale pilot study to compare results of fully manual retrieval from a raw corpus and fully automatic retrieval from an annotated corpus."

4.3. Built-in concordancer

In addition to helping learner corpus researchers build corpora that match a number of learner and task variables (e.g. a corpus of argumentative essay writing by French learners of English in untimed conditions), *ICLEv3* gives access to a concordancer that allows researchers to query learner subcorpora without having to leave the web-based interface. More precisely, the *ICLEv3* concordancer makes it possible to search for word forms, lemmas, multiword units and part-of-speech tags. Concordances generated through the *ICLEv3* interface can be exported in a number of formats, thus facilitating further analysis and treatment of the data outside the interface. A detailed description of *ICLEv3*'s concordancer is provided in Part IV of the present handbook.

II. PROJECT TEAMS

The *ICLEv3* is the result of close collaboration among a great many researchers and institutions at an international level. This section lists the collaborators in each participating team.

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Turkish subcorpus

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III. *ICLEv3* CORPUS BREAKDOWN

1. General Breakdown

The corpus comprises 9,529 essays for a total number of 5,766,522 words distributed over twenty-five national subcorpora. Each national subcorpus contains c. 200,000 words. Table 14 illustrates the distribution of essays/words per national subcorpus.

NATIONAL SUBCORPUS	Number of essays	Number of words	Average Length	Minimum Length	Maximum Length	Q1	Median	Q3
BRAZILIAN	412	206,024	500.06	206	976	439.75	511	562.25
BULGARIAN	302	201,925	668.63	216	2289	447	562.5	909.75
CHINESE	982	493,080	502.12	138	1151	436	502	553.75
CZECH	243	202,464	833.19	231	1514	591	844	1017.5
DUTCH	263	236,831	900.50	319	4239	532	639	1163.5
FINNISH	390	276,950	710.13	272	1797	558.25	651.5	824.25
FRENCH	347	226,896	653.88	220	2211	514	586	723
GERMAN	437	232,219	531.39	155	2101	350	486	665
GREEK	462	264,260	571.99	332	1058	522	553	608
HUNGARIAN	436	208,663	478.58	352	744	448	477	503
IRANIAN	359	227,287	633.11	228	1238	516.5	617	733.5
ITALIAN	392	226,043	576.64	189	1277	500	558	632
JAPANESE	366	200,958	549.07	399	1006	487	520	579.75
KOREAN	400	224,655	561.64	324	984	503.75	524.5	597
LITHUANIAN	409	236,027	577.08	212	1301	505	545	637
MACEDONIAN	335	218,789	653.10	467	1176	506	587	807
NORWEGIAN	317	213,701	674.14	321	1782	549	625	749
PAKISTANI	306	198,887	649.96	69	1851	535.5	598	710.75
POLISH	365	235,571	645.40	230	1109	539	626	727
RUSSIAN	276	230,045	833.50	107	3087	567.5	809	1068.75
SERBIAN	325	202,621	623.45	310	1144	521	605	715
SPANISH	251	199,948	796.61	224	3447	536	662	938.5
SWEDISH	355	201,467	567.51	235	1279	503	546	608.5
TSWANA	519	200,610	386.53	92	991	292.5	374	471.5
TURKISH	280	200,601	716.43	500	1423	580.75	716	826
ICLEv3	9529	5,766,522	605.16	233.41	69	4239	488	550

Table 14. Distribution of essays/words per national subcorpus

2. Breakdown per national subcorpus

Each subcorpus is subdivided into several batches, which roughly correspond to the various data collections performed in each university (i.e. they include essays that come from different years of study and/or are collected at different points in time). Batches can contain a variable number of essays. The batches and essays are identified by means of the following coding system.

Each batch was given a 5-character code. The first two letters of this code stand for the national subcorpus, as listed in Table 15.

NATIONAL SUBCORPUS	NATIONAL CODE
BRAZILIAN	BR
BULGARIAN	BG
CHINESE	CN
CZECH	CZ
DUTCH	DB/DN[11]
FINNISH	FI
FRENCH	FR
GERMAN	GE
GREEK	GR
HUNGARIAN	HU
IRANIAN	IR
ITALIAN	IT
JAPANESE	JP
KOREAN	KR
LITHUANIAN	LT
MACEDONIAN	MD
NORWEGIAN	NO
PAKISTANI	PA
POLISH	PO
RUSSIAN	RU
SERBIAN	SE
SPANISH	SP
SWEDISH	SW
TSWANA	TR
TURKISH	TS

Table 15. List of two-letter national codes per subcorpus

[11] Depending on whether the essays were compiled in Belgium (DB) or the Netherlands (DN).

These two national letters are followed by the institution code and the batch number. Each institution was given a unique two-letter code: e.g. NI for Nijmegen, MO for Moscow, UL for Lund (see list of codes in Appendix 1). Here follow a few examples:

FRUC3 stands for French subcorpus, Université catholique de Louvain, 3rd batch
FRUB1 stands for French subcorpus, Université libre de Bruxelles, 1st batch
LTVI1 stands for Lithuanian subcorpus, Vilnius University, 1st batch
LTVY5 stands for Lithuanian subcorpus, Vytautas Magnus University, 5th batch.

The following tables provide the breakdown per national subcorpus. The batch codes are given in the first column and the essay codes in the second. The essay codes are made up of the batch number followed by the individual number of each essay in the batch. It is important to note that there is not always an exact match between the range of essay numbers and the actual number of essays. In the course of the project we have had to discard a number of essays, usually because we did not have the necessary learner profile information. This explains the 'gaps' in the coding system. For instance, the essay codes might lead one to expect that there were 61 essays in the Czech batch CZPR3 (essay codes from 0001 to 0061), but in fact the batch only contains 53 essays. Similarly, in the Dutch corpus, the DNNI1 batch did exist at one stage but subsequently had to be discarded for lack of information about the learners.

The third column in the tables indicates the breakdown of the corpus in terms of text type: A for argumentative, L for literary and O for Other. The fourth and fifth columns respectively give the number of essays and the number of words included in each batch.

2.1. Brazilian

The Brazilian subcorpus comprises 412 essays for a total number of 204,305 words (see Table 16).

BATCH	ESSAY CODES	TEXT TYPES			Number of ESSAYS	Number of WORDS
		A	L	O		
BRFF1	BRFF1062-1106	45	0	0	45	21,375
BRMG1	BRMG1107-1311	203	0	0	203	100,993
BRRC1	BRRC1001-1016	16	0	0	16	7,208
BRRF1	BRRF1312-1328	17	0	0	17	9,114
BRRS1	BRRS1024-1061	39	0	0	39	21,596
BRSC1	BRSC1017-1022	6	0	0	6	3,476
BRSM1	BRSM1347-1410	64	0	0	64	30,539
BRSS1	BRSS1329-1346	18	0	0	18	9,720
BRSU1	BRSU1411-1414	4	0	0	4	2,003
TOTAL		**412**	**0**	**0**	**412**	**206,024**

Table 16. Brazilian subcorpus

The essays were provided by nine different institutions: one large batch was compiled at Minas Gerais Federal University; eight smaller batches came from Fluminense Federal University, Rio de Janeiro Catholic University, Rio de Janeiro Federal University, Rio de Janeiro State University, São Paulo Catholic University, São Paulo Methodist University, São Paulo State University and São Paulo University.

2.2. Bulgarian

This national table (see Table 17) is one of the simplest of all as the Bulgarian corpus contains one single batch made up of 302 argumentative essays for a total number of 201,925 words. All the essays come from the same institution, Sofia University "St. Kliment Ohridski".

BATCH	ESSAY CODES	TEXT TYPES			Number of ESSAYS	Number of WORDS
		A	L	O		
BGSU1	BGSU1001-1302	302	0	0	302	201,925
TOTAL		**302**	**0**	**0**	**302**	**201,925**

Table 17. Bulgarian subcorpus

2.3. Chinese

The Chinese subcorpus comprises 982 essays for a total number of 493,080 words (see Table 18).

BATCH	ESSAY CODES	TEXT TYPES A	L	O	Number of ESSAYS	Number of WORDS
CNHK1	CNHK1001-1788	781	0	0	781	386,430
CNUK1	CNUK1001-1187	135	0	0	135	74,519
CNUK2	CNUK2001-2044	19	0	0	19	8,012
CNUK3	CNUK3035-3066	13	0	0	13	5,391
CNUK4	CNUK4001-4038	34	0	0	34	18,728
TOTAL		**982**	**0**	**0**	**982**	**493,080**

Table 18. Chinese subcorpus

The Chinese component comes from two institutions: one large batch from the English Language Centre, Hong Kong Polytechnic University, and four smaller batches from the University of Portsmouth (UK). The Chinese learners who contributed data to the Portsmouth subcorpus are mostly from Mainland China with a small minority (about 10%) from Hong Kong and Taiwan (see also footnote 3).

2.4. Czech

The Czech subcorpus comprises 243 essays for a total number of 202,464 words (see Table 19).

BATCH	ESSAY CODES	TEXT TYPES A	L	O	Number of ESSAYS	Number of WORDS
CZKR1	CZKR1001-1010	10	0	0	10	6,279
CZPR1	CZPR1001-1046	0	46	0	46	28,263
CZPR2	CZPR2001-2060	58	0	0	58	47,879
CZPR3	CZPR3001-3061	51	0	0	51	48,297
CZPR4	CZPR4001-4022	22	0	0	22	20,403
CZPU1	CZPU1001-1016	15	0	0	15	12,891
CZUN1	CZUN1001-1043	41	0	0	41	38,452
TOTAL		**197**	**46**	**0**	**243**	**202,464**

Table 19. Czech subcorpus

These essays were provided by four different institutions: University of Education Hradec Kralove, Charles University, J.E. Purkyne University and Masaryk University.

2.5. Dutch

The Dutch subcorpus comprises 263 essays for a total number of 236,831 words (cf. Table 20). DB stands for Dutch data from Belgium and DN for Dutch data from the Netherlands. The Dutch data were provided by four different institutions:

- three in the Netherlands: the University of Nijmegen, the University of Groningen and the University of Amsterdam;
- one in Belgium: Katholieke Vlaamse Hoogeschool, Antwerpen.

BATCH	ESSAY CODES	TEXT TYPES			Number of ESSAYS	Number of WORDS
		A	L	O		
DBAN1	DBAN1001-1034	34	0	0	34	18,454
DBAN2	DBAN2001-2059	59	0	0	59	37,365
DBAN3	DBAN3001-3073	73	0	0	73	41,565
DNAM1	DNAM1001-1024	23	0	0	23	28,847
DNGR1	DNGR1001-1009	9	0	0	9	10,356
DNNI2	DNNI2001-2006	6	0	0	6	10,416
DNNI3	DNNI3001-3008	5	3	0	8	11,546
DNNI4	DNNI4001-4014	9	4	0	13	20,839
DNNI5	DNNI5001-5012	8	4	0	12	21,271
DNNI6	DNNI6001-6017	17	0	0	17	23,689
DNNI7	DNNI7001-7009	9	0	0	9	12,483
TOTAL		**252**	**11**	**0**	**263**	**236,831**

Table 20. Dutch subcorpus

2.6. Finnish

The Finnish subcorpus comprises 390 essays for a total number of 276,950 words (see Table 21). It is subdivided into three parts, given the specific context of production and its variety of speaker profiles: (1) Finnish, (2) Swedish from Finland and (3) bilingual Finnish-Swedish essays.[12]

[12] See Part V for more information on the language situation in Finland.

BATCH	ESSAY CODES	TEXT TYPES A	L	O	Number of ESSAYS	Number of WORDS
Finnish						
FIHE1	FIHE1001-1030	30	0	0	30	19,566
FIHE3	FIHE3001-3006	6	0	0	6	4,290
FIJO1	FIJO1001-1039	39	0	0	39	36,138
FIJO2	FIJO2001-2005	5	0	0	5	6,407
FIJO3	FIJO3001-3031	31	0	0	31	26,417
FIJY1	FIJY1001-1088	87	0	0	87	57,564
FIOU1	FIOU1001-1008	0	8	0	8	5,427
FITU1	FITU1001-1005	5	0	0	5	3,487
FITU2	FITU2001-2009	0	9	0	9	6,858
FITU3	FITU3001-3009	0	9	0	9	6,382
	Total	**203**	**26**	**0**	**229**	**172,536**
Swedish	**from Finland**					
FIAB1	FIAB1001-1082	82	0	0	82	53,644
FIAB2	FIAB2001-2012	12	0	0	12	6,796
FIAB6	FIAB6001-6020	20	0	0	20	14,814
FIAB7	FIAB7001-7005	0	5	0	5	3,194
FIAB8	FIAB8001-8002	0	2	0	2	1,088
FIHE2	FIHE2001-2002	2	0	0	2	1,261
	Total	**116**	**7**	**0**	**123**	**80,797**
Bilingual	**Finnish-Swedish**					
FIAB3	FIAB3001-3026	26	0	0	26	15,821
FIAB4	FIAB4001-4003	3	0	0	3	1,569
FIAB5	FIAB5001-5009	9	0	0	9	6,227
	Total	**38**	**0**	**0**	**38**	**23,617**
GRAND TOTAL		**357**	**33**	**0**	**390**	**276,950**

Table 21. Finnish subcorpus

The Finnish component of the corpus contains 172,536 words and was collected at the Universities of Helsinki, Joensuu, Jyvaskyla, Oulu and Turku. Two Finnish institutions, the Universities of Abo and Helsinki, provided 80,797 words. The university of Abo also contributed some

data from bilingual Swedish-Finnish speakers for a total number of 23,617 words.

2.7. French

The French subcorpus comprises 347 essays for a total number of 226,896 words (see Table 22). The French component comes exclusively from Belgium, more particularly from three institutions: the Université catholique de Louvain, the Université libre de Bruxelles and the Université de Liège.

BATCH	ESSAY CODES	TEXT TYPES			Number of ESSAYS	Number of WORDS
		A	L	O		
FRUB1	FRUB1001-1030	30	0	0	30	18,842
FRUB2	FRUB2001-2030	30	0	0	30	18,135
FRUC1	FRUC1001-1104	99	0	0	99	59,643
FRUC2	FRUC2001-2073	0	52	0	52	49,596
FRUC3	FRUC3001-3099	73	0	0	73	37,820
FRUL1	FRUL1002-1037	35	0	0	35	23,708
FRUL2	FRUL2001-2029	28	0	0	28	19,152
TOTAL		**295**	**52**	**0**	**347**	**226,896**

Table 22. French subcorpus

2.8. German

The German subcorpus comprises 437 essays for a total number of 232,219 words (see Table 23).

BATCH	ESSAY CODES	TEXT TYPES			Number of ESSAYS	Number of WORDS
		A	L	O		
GEAU1	GEAU1001-1108	106	0	0	106	39,513
GEAU2	GEAU2001-2049	49	0	0	49	12,750
GEAU3	GEAU3001-3100	99	0	0	99	69,352
GEAU4	GEAU4001-4014	14	0	0	14	8,515
GEBA1	GEBA1001-1064	64	0	0	64	30,834
GEDR1	GEDR1001-1026	26	0	0	26	15,978
GESA2	GESA2001-2011	8	1	0	9	10,027
GESA3	GESA3001-3018	18	0	0	18	13,777
GESA4	GESA4001-4014	14	0	0	14	9,152
GESA5	GESA5004-5045	24	14	0	38	22,321
TOTAL		**422**	**15**	**0**	**437**	**232,219**

Table 23. German subcorpus

As well as the data collected by the universities of Augsburg and Dresden in Germany, the German corpus includes some material from Switzerland (University of Basel) and Austria (University of Salzburg).

2.9. Greek

The Greek subcorpus comprises 462 essays for a total number of 264,260 words (see Table 24). All the essays are argumentative, and come from the same institution: Aristotle University of Thessaloniki.

BATCH	ESSAY CODES	TEXT TYPES			Number of ESSAYS	Number of WORDS
		A	L	O		
GRAR1	GRAR1001-1155	155	0	0	155	89,670
GRAR2	GRAR2001-2063	63	0	0	63	35,820
GRAR3	GRAR3001-3047	47	0	0	47	27,844
GRAR4	GRAR4001-4095	95	0	0	95	53,045
GRAR5	GRAR5001-5102	102	0	0	102	57,881
TOTAL		**462**	**0**	**0**	**462**	**264,260**

Table 24. Greek subcorpus

2.10. Hungarian

The Hungarian subcorpus comprises 436 argumentative essays for a total number of 208,663 words (see Table 25). All the essays come from the same institution: Eötvös Loránd University.

BATCH	ESSAY CODES	TEXT TYPES			Number of ESSAYS	Number of WORDS
		A	L	O		
HUEL1	HUEL1001-1073	73	0	0	73	34,065
HUEL2	HUEL2001-2125	125	0	0	125	60,729
HUEL3	HUEL3001-3090	90	0	0	90	42,713
HUEL4	HUEL4001-4148	148	0	0	148	71,156
TOTAL		**436**	**0**	**0**	**436**	**208,663**

Table 25. Hungarian subcorpus

2.11. Iranian

The Iranian subcorpus comprises 359 argumentative essays for a total number of 227,287 words (see Table 26). The texts come from five different institutions: Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Golestan

University, Hakim Sabzevari University, Imam Reza University and Khayyam Institute of Higher Education.

BATCH	ESSAY CODES	TEXT TYPES			Number of ESSAYS	Number of WORDS
		A	L	O		
IRGOL1	IRGOL1001-1043	43	0	0	43	21,539
IRMA1	IRMA1001-1047	47	0	0	47	30,886
IRMA2	IRMA2001-2011	11	0	0	11	8,289
IRMA3	IRMA3001-3019	19	0	0	19	11,264
IRMA4	IRMA4001-4020	20	0	0	20	12,792
IRMA5	IRMA5001-5016	16	0	0	16	8,812
IRMA6	IRMA6001-6007	7	0	0	7	5,219
IRMA7	IRMA7001-7054	54	0	0	54	37,593
IRIR8	IRIR8001-8013	13	0	0	13	6,880
IRKI9	IRKI9001-9044	44	0	0	44	24,620
IRMA10	IRMA10001-10014	14	0	0	14	9,717
IRSAB11	IRSAB11001-110017	17	0	0	17	11,472
IRMA12	IRMA12001-12009	9	0	0	9	5,241
IRMA13	IRMA13001-13002	2	0	0	2	1,304
IRMA14	IRMA14001-14043	43	0	0	43	31,659
TOTAL		**359**	**0**	**0**	**359**	**227,287**

Table 26. Iranian subcorpus

2.12. Italian

The Italian subcorpus comprises 392 essays for a total number of 226,043 words (see Table 27).

BATCH	ESSAY CODES	TEXT TYPES			Number of ESSAYS	Number of WORDS
		A	L	O		
ITB01	ITB01001-1002	0	0	2	2	1,107
ITB02	ITB02001-2003	3	0	0	3	2,196
ITB03	ITB03001-3003	3	0	0	3	2,005
ITB04	ITB04001-4002	2	0	0	2	934
ITB05	ITB05001-5005	5	0	0	5	2,838
ITB06	ITB06001-6005	5	0	0	5	2,874
ITB07	ITB07001-7004	0	0	4	4	2,679
ITB08	ITB08001-8004	4	0	0	4	1,967
ITB09	ITB09001	1	0	0	1	1,030
ITB10	ITB10001	1	0	0	1	537
ITB11	ITB11001	1	0	0	1	646
ITB12	ITB12001-12004	4	0	0	4	3,195
ITB13	ITB13001	1	0	0	1	553

ITB14	ITB14001-14004	4	0	0	4	2,446
ITMC1	ITMC1001-1005	5	0	0	5	3,229
ITMS1	ITMS1001	0	1	0	1	634
ITRL1	ITRL1001-1020	20	0	0	20	15,883
ITRS1	ITRS1001-1079	15	60	0	75	37,475
ITRS2	ITRS2001-2039	39	0	0	39	19,218
ITTO1	ITTO1002-1039	0	0	38	38	22,765
ITTO2	ITTO2001-2043	0	0	43	43	25,242
ITTO3	ITTO3001-3063	0	0	63	63	38,063
ITTO4	ITTO4001-4020	0	0	20	20	12,021
ITTO5	ITTO5001-5008	8	0	0	8	4,899
ITTO6	ITTO6001-6008	8	0	0	8	4,464
ITVE1	ITVE1001-1017	0	0	17	17	9,399
ITVE2	ITVE2001-2011	0	0	11	11	5,592
ITVE3	ITVE3001-3004	4	0	0	4	2,152
TOTAL		**133**	**61**	**198**	**392**	**226,043**

Table 27. Italian subcorpus

This subcorpus contains numerous batches, many of which are quite small. Seven different institutions contributed to the Italian subcorpus: (1) Università di Torino, (2) Università di Bergamo, (3) Università di Milano-La Cattolica, (4) Università del Piemonte Orientale "A. Avogadro", (5) Università di Milano – La Statale, (6) Università di Roma – Libera Università Internazionale degli Studi Sociali and (7) Università di Roma – La Sapienza.

Many of the essays have been put in the category 'Other', because the students wrote their essays on the basis of an article which they were asked to use as a prompt for the writing task.

2.13. Japanese

The Japanese subcorpus comprises 366 essays for a total number of 200,958 words (see Table 28). Twenty-one institutions, some of which provided only one or two essays, contributed to the Japanese subcorpus: (1) Waseda University, (2) Showa Women's University, (3) Keio University, (4) Tokyo University of Foreign Studies, (5) Tamagawa University, (6) Aichi Shukutoku University, (7) Dokkyo University, (8) Fuji University, (9) Hiroshima International University, (10) Kooriyama Women's University, (11) Kyoto University, (12) Meiji University, (13) Miyagi University of Education, (14) Musashi University, (15) Nihon University, (16) Okayama University, (17)

Rikkyo University, (18) Seijyo University, (19) Shinshu University, (20) Shonann Institution of technology and (21) Tokai University.

BATCH	ESSAY CODES	TEXT TYPES			Number of ESSAYS	Number of WORDS
		A	L	O		
JPAI1	JPAI1001-1002	2	0	0	2	1,471
JPDO1	JPDO1001	1	0	0	1	699
JPFJ1	JPFJ1001	1	0	0	1	629
JPHI1	JPHI1001-1005	5	0	0	5	2,954
JPKO1	JPKO1001-1020	20	0	0	20	10,910
JPKO2	JPKO2001-2031	31	0	0	31	19,097
JPKW1	JPKW1001-1002	2	0	0	2	1,177
JPKY1	JPKY1001-1002	2	0	0	2	1,222
JPMI1	JPMI1001-1002	2	0	0	2	1,134
JPMJ1	JPMJ1001-1002	2	0	0	2	1,083
JPMU1	JPMU1001-1002	2	0	0	2	1,001
JPNH1	JPNH1001	1	0	0	1	538
JPOK1	JPOK1001	1	0	0	1	851
JPRI1	JPRI1001-1002	2	0	0	2	1,121
JPSE1	JPSE1001	1	0	0	1	842
JPSH1	JPSH1001-1004	4	0	0	4	2,463
JPST1	JPST1001-1002	2	0	0	2	1,252
JPSW1	JPSW1001-1039	39	0	0	39	18,608
JPSW2	JPSW2001-2021	21	0	0	21	11,932
JPSW3	JPSW3001-3031	31	0	0	31	16,794
JPSW4	JPSW4001-4032	31	0	0	31	16,940
JPTF1	JPTF1001-1043	43	0	0	43	23,359
JPTK1	JPTK1001-1002	2	0	0	2	997
JPTM1	JPTM1001-1028	28	0	0	28	17,072
JPWA1	JPWA1001-1019	19	0	0	19	9,567
JPWA2	JPWA2001-2009	9	0	0	9	4,316
JPWA3	JPWA3001-3020	20	0	0	20	10,209
JPWA4	JPWA4001-4012	12	0	0	12	7,320
JPWA5	JPWA5001-5029	29	0	0	29	14,741
JPWA6	JPWA6001	1	0	0	1	659
TOTAL		**366**	**0**	**0**	**366**	**200,958**

Table 28. Japanese subcorpus

2.14. Korean

The Korean subcorpus comprises 400 argumentative essays for a total number of 224,655 words (see Table 29).

BATCH	ESSAY CODES	TEXT TYPES			Number of ESSAYS	Number of WORDS
		A	L	O		
KRBF1	KRBF1001-1063	60	0	0	60	34,861
KRBF2	KRBF2001-2065	56	0	0	56	30,517
KRDG1	KRDG1002-1041	37	0	0	37	24,557
KRHF1	KRHF1001-1044	44	0	0	44	23,615
KRHY1	KRHY1001-1118	117	0	0	117	63,681
KRMJ1	KRMJ1001-1027	27	0	0	27	17,399
KRSA1	KRSA1001-1064	59	0	0	59	30,025
TOTAL		**400**	**0**	**0**	**400**	**224,655**

Table 29. Korean subcorpus

Six different South Korean institutions contributed texts to the corpus: (1) Busan University of Foreign Studies, (2) Dongguk University, (3) Hankuk University of Foreign Studies, (4) Hanyang University, (5) Myongji University and (6) Sangmyung University.

2.15. Lithuanian

The Lithuanian subcorpus comprises 409 essays for a total number of 236,027 words (see Table 30). The essays come from two institutions: Vilnius University and Vytautas Magnus University.

BATCH	ESSAY CODES	TEXT TYPES			Number of ESSAYS	Number of WORDS
		A	L	O		
LTVI1	LTVI1001-1066	36	30	0	66	32,017
LTVI2	LTVI2001-2096	96	0	0	96	56,060
LTVI3	LTVI3001-3021	21	0	0	21	16,791
LTVI4	LTVI4001-4016	16	0	0	16	9,607
LTVI5	LTVI5001-5037	37	0	0	37	22,557
LTVI6	LTVI6001-6030	30	0	0	30	16,957
LTVI7	LTVI7001-7028	28	0	0	28	16,539
LTVY1	LTVY1001-1017	17	0	0	17	10,487
LTVY2	LTVY2001-2017	17	0	0	17	9,567
LTVY3	LTVY3001-3023	23	0	0	23	12,807
LTVY4	LTVY4001-4025	25	0	0	25	14,185
LTVY5	LTVY5001-5033	33	0	0	33	18,453
TOTAL		**379**	**30**	**0**	**409**	**236,027**

Table 30. Lithuanian subcorpus

2.16. Macedonian

The Macedonian subcorpus comprises 335 essays for a total number of 218,789 words (see Table 31). All the essays were collected at the same institution: Ss.Cyril and Methodius University in Skopje.

BATCH	ESSAY CODES	TEXT TYPES			Number of ESSAYS	Number of WORDS
		A	L	O		
MDCM1	MDCM1001-1170	170	0	0	170	92,360
MDCM2	MDCM2001-2084	84	0	0	84	62,406
MDCM3	MDCM3001-3081	81	0	0	81	64,023
TOTAL		**335**	**0**	**0**	**335**	**218,789**

Table 31. Macedonian subcorpus

2.17. Norwegian

The Norwegian subcorpus comprises 317 essays for a total number of 213,701 words (see Table 32).

BATCH	ESSAY CODES	TEXT TYPES			Number of ESSAYS	Number of WORDS
		A	L	O		
NOAC1	NOAC1001-1023	21	0	0	21	13,667
NOAG1	NOAG1001-1020	20	0	0	20	15,726
NOBE1	NOBE1001-1027	27	0	0	27	17,130
NOBU1	NOBU1001-1004	4	0	0	4	3,198

NOHB1	NOHB1001-1002	2	0	0	2	1,084
NOHE1	NOHE1001-1009	9	0	0	9	6,091
NOHO1	NOHO1001-1046	46	0	0	46	29,085
NOOS1	NOOS1001-1047	44	0	1	45	29,355
NOUO1	NOUO1001-1097	91	4	0	95	64,916
NOUO2	NOUO2001-2048	48	0	0	48	33,449
TOTAL		**312**	**4**	**1**	**317**	**213,701**

Table 32. Norwegian subcorpus

Nine institutions contributed to the Norwegian subcorpus: (1) the American College of Norway, (2) Bergen College, (3) Hedmark College, (4) Oslo College, (5) Ostfold college, (6) University of Oslo, (7) Agder College, (8) Buskerud University and (9) University of Bergen.

2.18. Pakistani

The Pakistani subcorpus comprises 306 essays for a total number of 198,887 words (see Table 33).

BATCH	ESSAY CODES	TEXT TYPES			Number of ESSAYS	Number of WORDS
		A	L	O		
PAAM1	PAAM1001-1009	9	0	0	9	5,144
PAAO1	PAAO1002-1025	24	0	0	24	14,192
PACJ1	PACJ1001-1017	17	0	0	17	12,960
PAGD1	PAGD1001-1005	5	0	0	5	3,107
PAGF1	PAGF1001-1098	98	0	0	98	65,752
PAGJ1	PAGJ1001-1010	7	0	0	7	4,407
PAGM1	PAGM1001-1004	4	0	0	4	2,965
PAGS1	PAGS1001-1006	6	0	0	6	3,521
PAGW1	PAGW1001-1012	12	0	0	12	7,291
PAIJ1	PAIJ1001-1004	4	0	0	4	2,451
PALW1	PALW1001-1045	44	0	0	44	27,808
PAMJ1	PAMJ1001-1007	7	0	0	7	4,465
PAPL1	PAPL1001-1004	4	0	0	4	2,620
PAQI1	PAQI1001-1004	4	0	0	4	2,750
PARJ1	PARJ1001-1009	9	0	0	9	5,279
PASU1	PASU1001-1010	10	0	0	10	6,137
PAUF1	PAUF1001-1019	16	0	0	16	10,225
PAVL1	PAVL1001-1028	26	0	0	26	17,813
TOTAL		**306**	**0**	**0**	**306**	**198,887**

Table 33. Pakistani subcorpus

The essays come from eighteen different institutions (many of which only contributed a rather small number of texts to the corpus): (1) Allama Iqbal Medical College Lahore, (2) llama Iqbal Open University, (3) Commerce College Jhang, (4) Ghazali Degree College Jhang, (5) Government College University Faisalabad, (6) Government College Jhang, (7) Government College Women Madina Town Faisalabad, (8) Government College Women Toba Tek Singh, (9) Government College Women Jhang, (10) Islamia College of Commerce Jhang, (11) Lahore College for Women University, (12) Millat College Jhang, (13) Punjab Univeristy Lahore, (14) Quaid Azam University Islamabad, (15) Rachna College Jhang, (16) Sargodha University, (17) University of Agriculture Faisalabad and (18) Virtual University Lahore.

2.19. Polish

The Polish subcorpus comprises 365 essays for a total number of 235,571 words (see Table 34). The essays were provided by four institutions: (1) Adam Mickiewicz University, Poznan, (2) Jagiellonian University, Cracow, (3) Maria Curie-Sklodowska University, Lublin, and (4) University of Silesia, Sosnowiec.

BATCH	ESSAY CODES	TEXT TYPES			Number of ESSAYS	Number of WORDS
		A	L	O		
POLU1	POLU1001-1013	13	0	0	13	8,724
POPZ1	POPZ1001-1050	50	0	0	50	33,831
POPZ2	POPZ2001-2050	50	0	0	50	28,688
POPZ3	POPZ3001-3050	50	0	0	50	33,144
POPZ4	POPZ4001-4050	50	0	0	50	35,191
POPZ5	POPZ5001-5050	46	3	1	50	31,265
POSI1	POSI1001-1013	13	0	0	13	7,899
POSI2	POSI2001-2089	89	0	0	89	56,829
TOTAL		**361**	**3**	**1**	**365**	**235,571**

Table 34. Polish subcorpus

2.20. Russian

The Russian subcorpus comprises 276 essays for a total number of 230,877 words (see Table 35). The Russian subcorpus consists exclusively of argumentative essays distributed over nine batches from the same institution: Moscow Lomonosov State University.

BATCH	ESSAY CODES	TEXT TYPES			Number of ESSAYS	Number of WORDS
		A	L	O		
RUMO1	RUMO1001-1025	24	0	0	24	5,911
RUMO2	RUMO2001-2024	24	0	0	24	16,255
RUMO3	RUMO3001-3014	13	0	0	13	10,290
RUMO4	RUMO4001-4029	29	0	0	29	18,393
RUMO5	RUMO5001-5046	45	0	0	45	27,488
RUMO6	RUMO6001-6025	24	1	0	25	26,431
RUMO7	RUMO7001-7063	63	0	0	63	71,456
RUMO8	RUMO8001-8039	39	0	0	39	40,833
RUMO9	RUMO9001-9014	14	0	0	14	12,988
TOTAL		**275**	**1**	**0**	**276**	**230,045**

Table 35. Russian subcorpus

2.21. Serbian

The Serbian subcorpus comprises 325 essays for a total number of 202,621 words (see Table 36).

BATCH	ESSAY CODES	TEXT TYPES			Number of ESSAYS	Number of WORDS
		A	L	O		
SEBG1	SEBG1001-1037	37	0	0	37	19,698
SEBG2	SEBG2001-2063	63	0	0	63	39,739
SEBJ1	SEBJ1001-1053	53	0	0	53	36,699
SEBJ2	SEBJ2001-2014	14	0	0	14	9,862
SEBJ3	SEBJ3001-3006	6	0	0	6	4,398
SEES1	SEES1001-1028	28	0	0	28	17,388
SEES2	SEES2001-2028	28	0	0	28	18,152
SEES3	SEES3001-3019	17	2	0	19	13,392
SENS1	SENS1001-1029	29	0	0	29	16,554
SENS2	SENS2001-2032	32	0	0	32	17,711
SENS3	SENS3001-3016	15	1	0	16	9,028
TOTAL		**322**	**3**	**0**	**325**	**202,621**

Table 36. Serbian subcorpus

The Serbian essays come from four institutions in two different countries: the universities of East Sarajevo and Banja Luka in Bosnia and Herzegovina; the universities of Belgrade and Novi Sad in Serbia.

2.22. Spanish

The Spanish subcorpus comprises 251 essays for a total number of 199,948 words (see Table 37).

BATCH	ESSAY CODES	TEXT TYPES			Number of ESSAYS	Number of WORDS
		A	L	O		
SPAL1	SPAL1001-01010	0	10	0	10	17,957
SPM01	SPM01005-01021	14	3	0	17	12,866
SPM02	SPM02001-02015	15	0	0	15	9,227
SPM03	SPM03001-03054	53	0	0	53	30,706
SPM04	SPM04001-04057	55	0	0	55	40,043
SPM05	SPM05001-05022	22	0	0	22	16,352
SPM06	SPM06001-06015	0	15	0	15	23,547
SPM07	SPM07001-07025	24	0	0	24	11,968
SPM08	SPM08001-08016	0	16	0	16	20,563
SPM09	SPM09001-09008	0	8	0	8	6,546
SPM10	SPM10001-10016	16	0	0	16	10,173
TOTAL		**199**	**52**	**0**	**251**	**199,948**

Table 37. Spanish subcorpus

All the batches except one came from the Universidad Complutense de Madrid. The remaining batch came from the University of Alcala.

2.23. Swedish

The Swedish subcorpus comprises 355 essays for a total number of 201,467 words (see Table 38). Most of the Swedish batches came from the University of Lund. Two batches were from the University of Vaxjo and the University of Göteborg respectively.

BATCH	ESSAY CODES	TEXT TYPES			Number of ESSAYS	Number of WORDS
		A	L	O		
SWUG2	SWUG2001-2105	94	0	0	94	50,212
SWUL1	SWUL1001-1019	19	0	0	19	11,130
SWUL2	SWUL2001-2011	11	0	0	11	6,141
SWUL3	SWUL3001-3029	29	0	0	29	16,840
SWUL4	SWUL4001-4035	34	0	0	34	20,558
SWUL5	SWUL5001-5018	18	0	0	18	10,865
SWUL6	SWUL6001-6005	5	0	0	5	2,544
SWUL7	SWUL7001-7050	46	4	0	50	28,533
SWUL8	SWUL8001-8054	9	45	0	54	30,823

SWUL9	SWUL9001-9032	28	4	0	32	17,706
SWUV3	SWUV3001-3009	9	0	0	9	6,115
TOTAL		**302**	**53**	**0**	**355**	**201,467**

Table 38. Swedish subcorpus

2.24. Tswana

The Tswana subcorpus comprises 519 essays for a total number of 200,610 words (see Table 39).

BATCH	ESSAY CODES	TEXT TYPES			Number of ESSAYS	Number of WORDS
		A	L	O		
TSKC1	TSKC1153-1517	64	0	0	64	23,333
TSNO1	TSNO1001-1516	428	0	0	428	168,142
TSPO1	TSPO1189-1422	20	0	0	20	5,030
TSWI1	TSWI1001-1007	7	0	0	7	4,105
TOTAL		**519**	**0**	**0**	**519**	**200,610**

Table 39. Tswana subcorpus

The Tswana subcorpus contains four batches of argumentative essays provided by four institutions: Kimberley College, Northwest University, Potchefstroom University and WITS University.

2.25. Turkish

The Turkish subcorpus comprises 280 essays for a total number of 200,601 words (see Table 40).

BATCH	ESSAY CODES	TEXT TYPES			Number of ESSAYS	Number of WORDS
		A	L	O		
TRCU1	TRCU1001-1177	177	0	0	177	128,614
TRKE2	TRKE2001-2072	72	0	0	72	50,837
TRME3	TRME3001-3031	31	0	0	31	21,150
TOTAL		**280**	**0**	**0**	**280**	**200,601**

Table 40. Turkish subcorpus

The Turkish subcorpus consists exclusively of argumentative essays collected from three institutions: the University of Çukurova, the University of Mustafa Kemal and Mersin University.

IV. *ICLEv3* USER MANUAL

1. INTRODUCTION

Unlike the previous versions of the *International Corpus of Learner English*, which were both distributed on CD-ROMs, *ICLEv3* is hosted on a brand-new web-based interface, available at https://corpora.uclouvain.be/cecl/icle. The ICLEv3 interface is composed of three main tools, each corresponding to one tab in the main menu bar (see Figure 2):

(i) the '**text selection**' tab allows users to build their own 'tailor-made' corpus of learner essays based on a range of learner variables (such as age, gender, mother tongue, etc.) and task variables (such as topic, timing, use of reference tools; see Section 2 for a detailed description of the 'text selection' options);

(ii) the '**text download**' tab offers the possibility of downloading these selected texts in different formats, together with the corresponding metadata (see Section 3 for more details);

(iii) the '**concordance**' tab allows users to query their corpus in a wide variety of ways. The *ICLEv3* concordancer supports various types of linguistic search, including: word forms, lemmas, POS tags, as well as combinations of word forms with lemmas and/or POS-tags. Morphological filters are also available. A detailed description of the concordance facilities available in *ICLEv3* is provided in Section 4.

Note that the information provided in this part of the manual is complemented by a series of contextual help boxes on the web interface. In addition, the 'Getting started' video, which can be accessed from the 'Getting started' panel on the welcome page, offers a quick overview of the main functionalities of the interface.

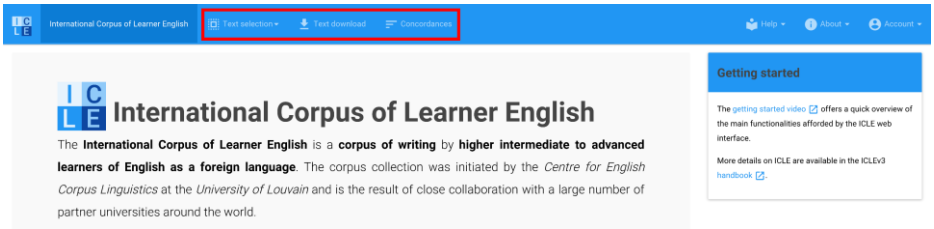

Figure 2. ICLEv3 *welcome page*

2. TEXT SELECTION

The 'text selection' tab allows users to select the texts they want to include in their corpus on the basis of the 21 learner and task variables included in *ICLEv3*. It is possible to compile learner corpora consisting, for example, of (i) essays by female French-speaking learners of English written under untimed conditions only; or (ii) 500- to 700-word essays produced by Brazilian learners who have spent at least three months in an English-speaking country. The 'text selection' menu is further subdivided into three main groups of variables (two groups of learner-related variables and one set of task-related variables), together with a 'filtering' option which allows users to select texts manually (see Figure 3).

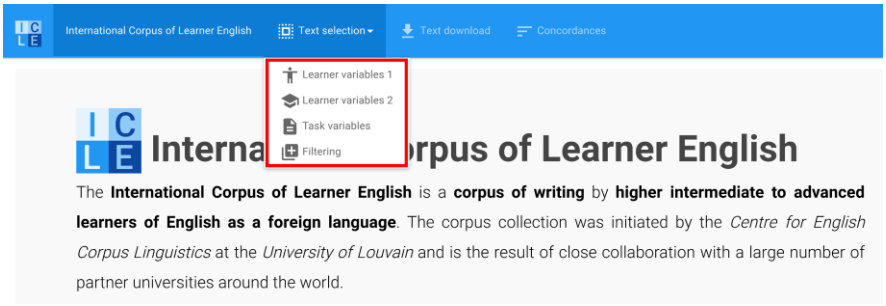

Figure 3. The 'text selection' menu

2.1. Learner and task variables

The first three tabs of the 'text selection' menu can be used to select the texts that users wish to include in their corpus, by giving access to the set of variables encoded in *ICLEv3*:

(i) **'Learner variables 1'** lists the following variables: native language, country of origin, gender, age, other foreign

languages spoken by the learner, and languages spoken at home.[13]

(ii) **'Learner variables 2'** lists the variables pertaining to the learner's education in English, i.e. number of years spent studying English at school and at university, number of months spent in an English-speaking country, and institution where the essay was written.

(iii) **'Task variables'** allows users to select texts on the basis of the following variables: file name, title, length (in words), text type (argumentative, literary, or other), conditions under which the essay was written (timed or untimed), use of reference tools, and general task type (examination or not).

In order to restrict their corpus selection on the basis of the variables encoded in *ICLEv3*, users simply need to select the desired options on each of the three pages. For example, users interested in argumentative essays produced by female learners who have spent at least three months in an English-speaking country should use the following procedure:

- select gender 'female' on the 'learner variables 1' page (see Figure 4)
- select all the boxes except '0', '1' and '2' in 'months in English-speaking country' on the 'learner variables 2' page (see Figure 5)
- select essay type 'argumentative' on the 'task variables' page (see Figure 6).

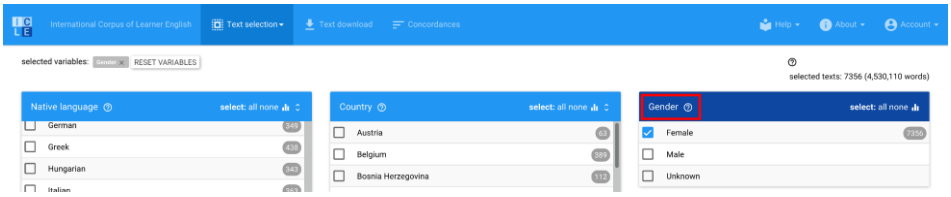

Figure 4. Learner variables 1

[13] See Part I of the present volume for a detailed description of each of the *ICLEv3* variables.

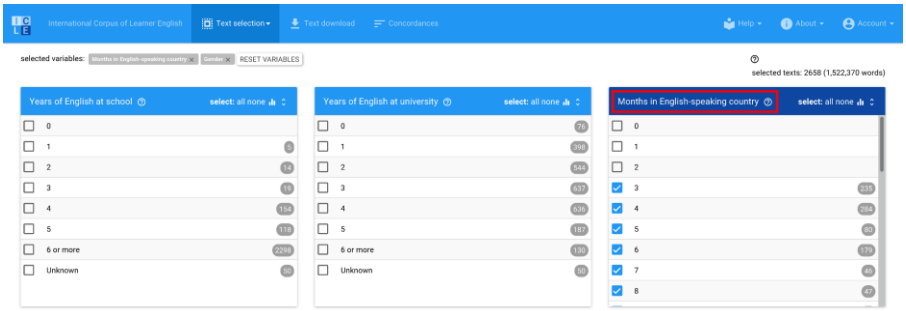

Figure 5. Learner variables 2

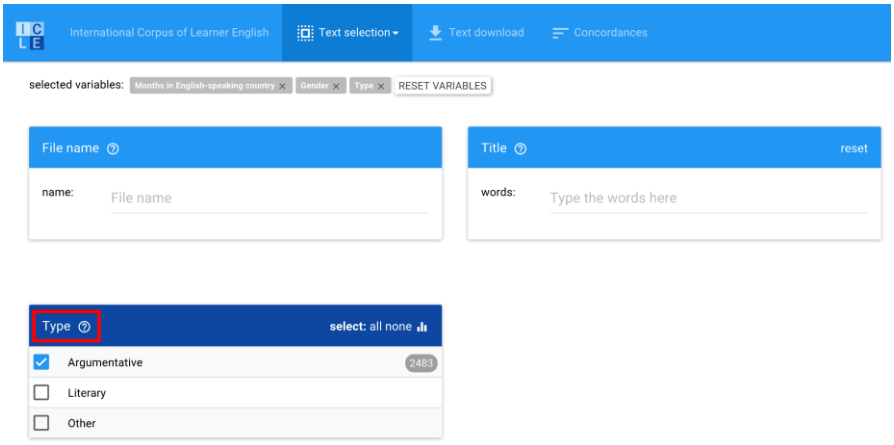

Figure 6. Task variables

Selection criteria can be combined freely with one another, both within a single variable (e.g. users can select both ‘Austria’ and ‘Germany’ within the ‘country’ variable, so as to select the texts written by writers originating from either Austria or Germany), and across variables (e.g. users can combine ‘male’ in the ‘gender’ variable with ‘Germany’ in the ‘country’ variable, so as to select only the texts that display both features simultaneously). Note also that the menu which appears in the top right-hand corner of each box gives users the opportunity to (i) (de)select all the values associated with a given variable, and (ii) plot the dispersion of the texts composing their corpus across the different levels of the corresponding variable on a bar chart (see Figure 7).

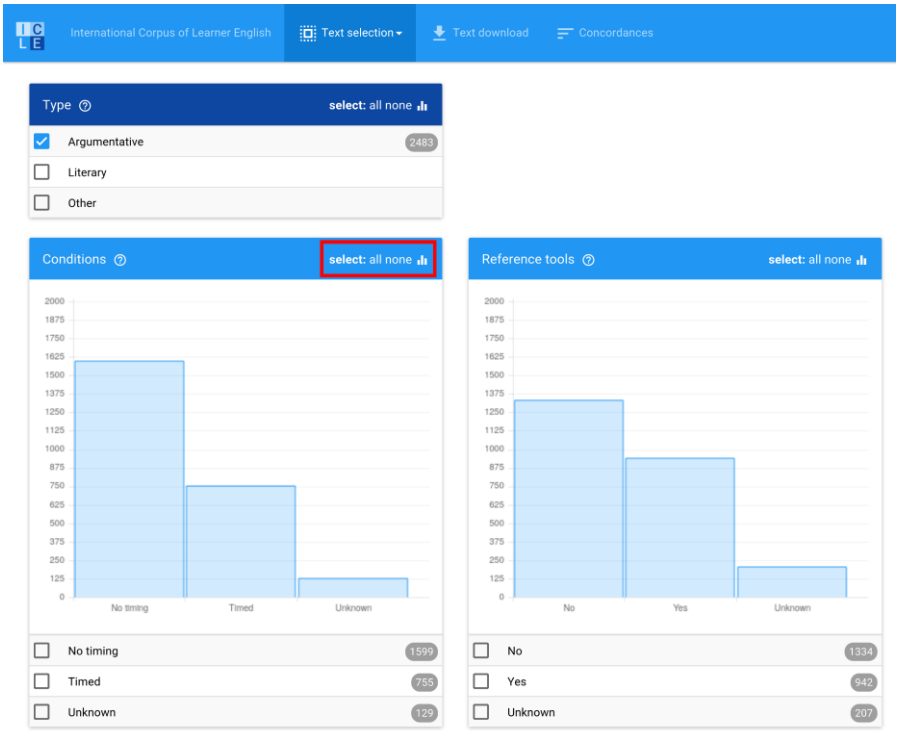

Figure 7. Graphical display of the texts within each variable

The interface offers different types of dynamic display of the selected texts. Firstly, the grey numbers that appear next to each selection criterion indicate the number of texts that correspond to that criterion in the corpus selection. For example, the total number of texts selected by the user in Figure 4 above (i.e. all the texts written by female learners) amounts to 7,356 (out of a total of 9,529 texts in the corpus as a whole). Looking at the 'native language' panel, it can be seen that among these 7,356 texts, 438 were written by students having Greek as their mother tongue, 343 were written by Hungarian-speaking learners of English, etc. Whenever a criterion is added to the selection, these grey numbers adapt accordingly. For example, selecting variables in addition to 'gender' (e.g. all the females from Belgium who also have French as their mother tongue; see Figure 8) decreases the number of texts associated with each category (only 262 texts remain in the 'female' category, as opposed to the 7,356 texts written by female students in the corpus as a whole). The total number of texts corresponding to the selection is also provided in the top right-hand corner of the page, together with the number of words that these selected texts represent (see Figure 8). This dynamic display allows users to assess how evenly

the texts are distributed across variables. For example, by selecting only the literary texts in the corpus, and then looking at the distribution of the selected texts in the 'country' variable, it can be seen that only a limited number of subcorpora include literary essays, with a majority of these 364 literary texts collected in Belgium (51), the Czech Republic (46), Finland (33), Italy (60), Lithuania (30), Spain (52) and Sweden (53). Finally, a list of the selected variables is provided in the top left-hand corner of the screen (see Figure 8). It is possible to reset these variables at any time by clicking on the 'reset variables' button. Selection filters can also be removed one by one, by clicking on the cross to the left of each individual variable.

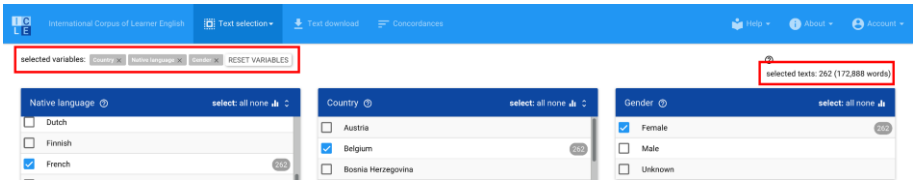

Figure 8. Dynamic display of the selected texts and variables

2.2. **The 'filtering' option**

The 'filtering' option in the 'text selection' menu allows for a fine-grained, manual selection of the essays that users want to include in their corpus. It gives the opportunity to: (i) sort the texts in the corpus according to any variable encoded in *ICLEv3*; and (ii) (de)select any text individually. Using the list of variables provided at the top of the page (see Figure 9), it is possible to choose the variable(s) to be displayed in the filtering table.

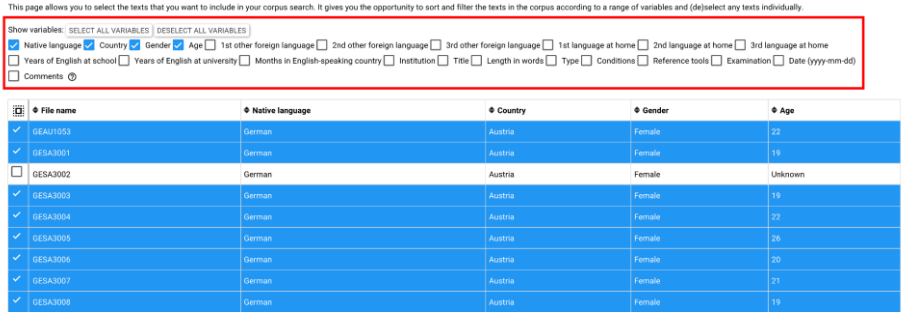

Figure 9. The 'filtering' page

The texts in the corpus can be sorted by any variable, in either ascending or descending order, by clicking on the arrows to the left of each variable name (in Figure 9, for instance, the texts were sorted in ascending order on the 'country' variable). One advantage of such sort options is that they allow users to identify recurrent patterns and/or missing values in their data set. The button that appears at the top of the first column allows users to select or deselect all the texts in the list with a single click (see Figure 9). Finally, texts can be (de)selected individually by simply (un)ticking the corresponding box in the first column of the table. For example, if users want to exclude texts for which the age of the learner is 'unknown', it is possible to deselect all the texts that display this value in the 'age' column (as shown in Figure 9).

3. TEXT DOWNLOAD

Once the texts have been selected, they can be downloaded in .zip format, together with the corresponding metadata, using the 'text download' tab (see Figure 10). The *ICLEv3* interface includes a concordancer allowing users to retrieve any word form, lemma, POS tag, etc. from the selected corpus (see Section 4). However, for more advanced processing and annotation, it is useful to be able to download the texts and upload them in external tools such as *WordSmith Tools*, *AntConc* or *R* (e.g. to compute wordlists, keyword lists, collocates and n-grams).

Users can choose a name for the zip file (e.g. ICLE_FR, if they only selected the texts produced by French-speaking learners of English). By default, the zip file generated by the *ICLEv3* interface will be 'icle_subcorpus', followed by the date and time at which the file was generated.

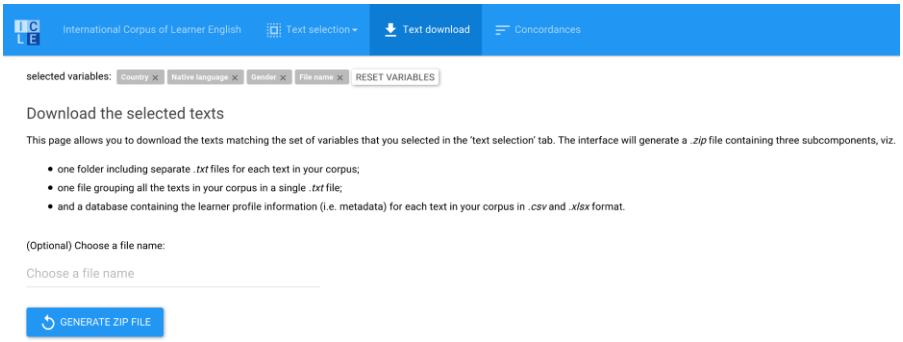

Figure 10. The 'text download' options

Clicking on the 'generate zip file' button generates a .zip file made up of three subcomponents:

(i) one folder containing separate .txt files for each text in the corpus (in UTF-8 format);
(ii) one file grouping all the texts in the corpus in a single .txt file (in UTF-8 format);
(iii) a database containing the learner profile information (metadata) for each text in the corpus in both .csv and .xlsx formats.

4. CONCORDANCE

The 'concordance' tab of the interface allows users to run a range of linguistic queries in the corpus. The *ICLEv3* concordancer offers two main research options: (i) simple search; and (ii) advanced search. It is possible to move from one type of search to the other at any time by clicking on the corresponding button (see Figure 11).

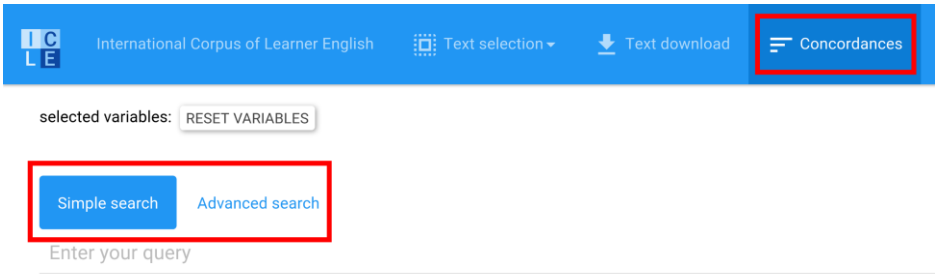

Figure 11. The 'concordance' tab

4.1. **Simple search**

The ‘simple search’ functionality of the concordance tool allows users to query any word or sequence of words in the corpus. By default, *ICLEv3*’s simple search runs a whole-word, case-insensitive search. This means that, if *language* is typed into the simple search, the tool will return all the instances of the word *language* surrounded by blank spaces, whether or not it contains capital letters (e.g. *language*, *Language*, *LANGUAGE*; see Figure 12).[14] Users who want to extract a sequence of consecutive words from the corpus (e.g. *on the other hand*) need only to type the words making up that sequence in the ‘simple search’ window, separated by blank spaces.

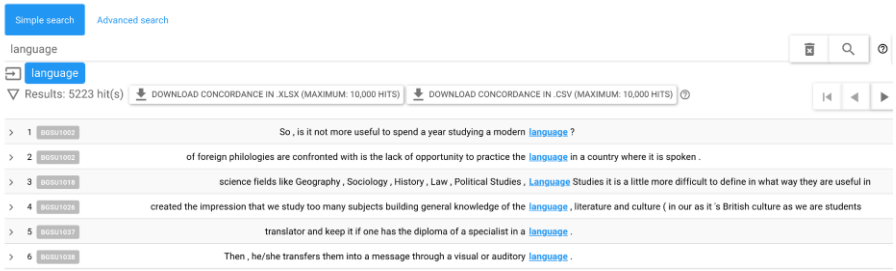

Figure 12. Simple search on ‘language’

With the simple search, it is also possible to query a sequence of words containing one or more variable slots (i.e. slots that may correspond to any single word, figure or punctuation mark in the corpus), by using the wildcard * in brackets (see Figure 13). Users need to type one (*) wildcard per variable slot of their search (e.g. if they want to look for the words *at* and *least* separated by any pair of words, they should type the following query: *at (*) (*) least*).

Finally, any query entered in the ‘simple search’ window can be deleted by clicking on the ‘bin’ icon: .

[14] A detailed description of the output of the *ICLEv3* concordances (including the ‘sort’ and the ‘download’ options) is provided in Section 4.3.

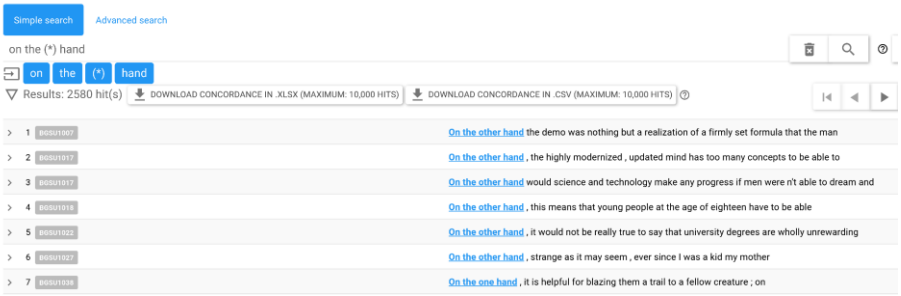

Figure 13. Querying a sequence of words containing one variable slot

Important note on apostrophes:

It is important to specify that, in order to tokenize, lemmatize and POS-tag the data in CLAWS7, sequences of words containing an apostrophe had to be separated from each other by means of a blank space. More precisely, all the apostrophes in the corpus are detached from the word that precedes them and attached to the word that follows them (as in: *I 'm*, *you 're*, *Lucy 's*, etc.). As a result, users looking for a (sequence of) word(s) including an apostrophe must always include a blank space before the apostrophe.

Another specificity of the *ICLEv3* concordance search pertains to contracted negative forms such as *can't, don't, aren't, shouldn't,* etc. In CLAWS7 the contracted negative forms in these sequences are detached from the preceding verb form. As a result, users looking for occurrences of *can't* in the corpus will need to enter the following query into the concordance tool: *ca n't* (without a blank space within the negation). In order to retrieve the instances of *won't* or *don't* in the corpus, users will need to enter *wo n't* or *do n't*, respectively, into the concordancer. Similarly, agglutinated forms such as *cannot* can only be retrieved by entering the non-agglutinated form (i.e. *can not*).

4.2. **Advanced search**

Thanks to the 'advanced search' functionality[15] of the *ICLEv3* interface, users can run a range of sophisticated queries in the corpus, such as searches based on a part-of-speech tag, or queries including one or more morphological filters (e.g. searching for all the words ending with *-able* or beginning with *de-*). For greater usability, the advanced search option of *ICLEv3* is wizard-assisted: users are presented with a series of choices for each step of the corpus query (see Figure 14).

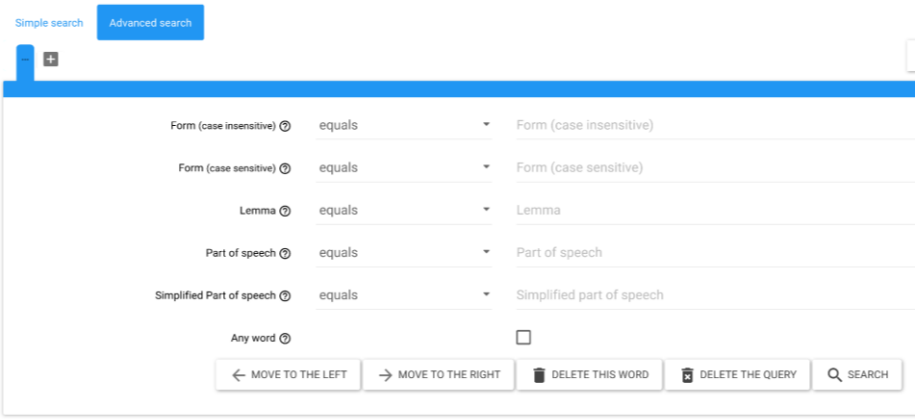

Figure 14. The advanced search wizard

The basic principle underlying *ICLEv3*'s advanced search is that each slot (i.e. word, POS tag, etc.) in the query requires the user to select one (or more) options from the menu reproduced in Figure 14. For example, if users want to extract all instances of the sequence '*it* + modal verb + *be* + past participle' from the corpus, they will need to select options from the menu four times. Any number of slots can be added to the query by clicking on the '+' button at the top of the menu. More precisely, in order to extract the instances of '*it* + modal verb + *be* + past participle', users should use the following procedure:

[15] Note that it is also possible for expert users to manually insert advanced queries directly from the 'simple search' option, provided that they are familiar with the search syntax of the interface. The interface's search syntax broadly corresponds to the PCRE (Perl Compatible Regular Expressions) syntax, with the exception that it only treats one token at a time. The PCRE syntax is available at: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Perl_Compatible_Regular_Expressions (last accessed 18/12/2019).

- type *it* in the 'form' box of the panel;
- click on the '+' button to add a second slot to the query;
- select the 'VMod' simplified POS tag in the 'simplified part of speech' box in order to extract the forms tagged as modal verbs in the corpus (cf. below for more details on the simplified POS tags in *ICLEv3*);
- Click on the '+' button again to add a third slot to the query;
- type *be* in the 'form' box of the panel;
- click on the '+' button again to add a fourth slot to the query;
- select 'VVN' in the 'part of speech' box in order to extract the forms tagged as past participles from the corpus (cf. below for more details on the POS tags).

Note that the detailed syntax of the query is provided immediately below the search panel (see Figure 15).

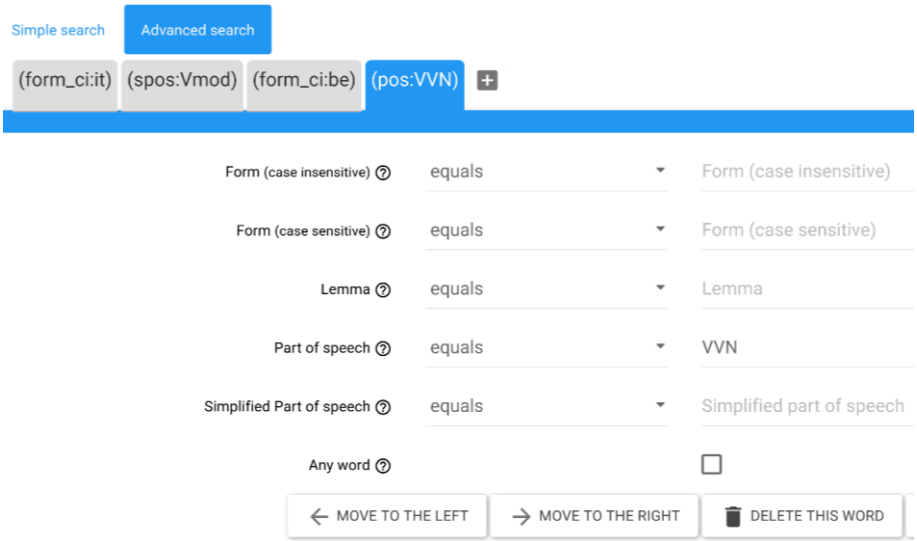

Figure 15. Example of an advanced corpus search for 'it + modal verb + be + past participle'

The search criteria for each slot in the query can be modulated in a large number of ways. Firstly, for each subpart of the query the concordancer allows users to look for (i) a form; (ii) a lemma; (iii) a part-of-speech tag; or (iv) any word in the corpus. Secondly, each of these search instructions can be further specified by selecting one of the following search filters (provided in drop-down menus to the right of each search option): (i) equals; (ii) not equals; (iii) ends with; (iv) begins with; (v)

contains; or (vi) or. Sections 4.2.1 to 4.2.7 below detail and exemplify the range of possibilities offered by the 'advanced search' tool.

4.2.1. Searching for a form

The first – and most straightforward – type of search that can be run using the 'advanced search' tool is the form-based search, which allows users to retrieve any word form in the corpus. The *ICLEv3* advanced search permits two different types of form-based search:

(i) a **case-insensitive** search, which extracts *all* the forms that correspond to the search string from the corpus, regardless of whether they contain capital letters
e.g. a search for *language* will return not only instances of *language*, but also *Language*, *LANGUAGE*, etc. (cf. also Section 4.1 on this);

(ii) a **case-sensitive search**, which distinguishes between upper- and lower-case letters
e.g. a search for *language* will return *only* instances of *language*, but not of *Language*, *LANGUAGE*, etc. Conversely, a search for *Language* will return occurrences of *Language*, but not of *language* or *LANGUAGE*.

4.2.2. Searching for a lemma

In addition to form-based searches, the *ICLEv3* advanced search also allows users to retrieve all the instances of one (or more) lemma(s) in the corpus. So, if *do* is typed in the 'lemma' window of the advanced search, the interface will return all the instances of *do* in the corpus, together with its inflected forms (i.e. *does, did, done, doing, don't, doesn't, didn't*; see Figure 16).

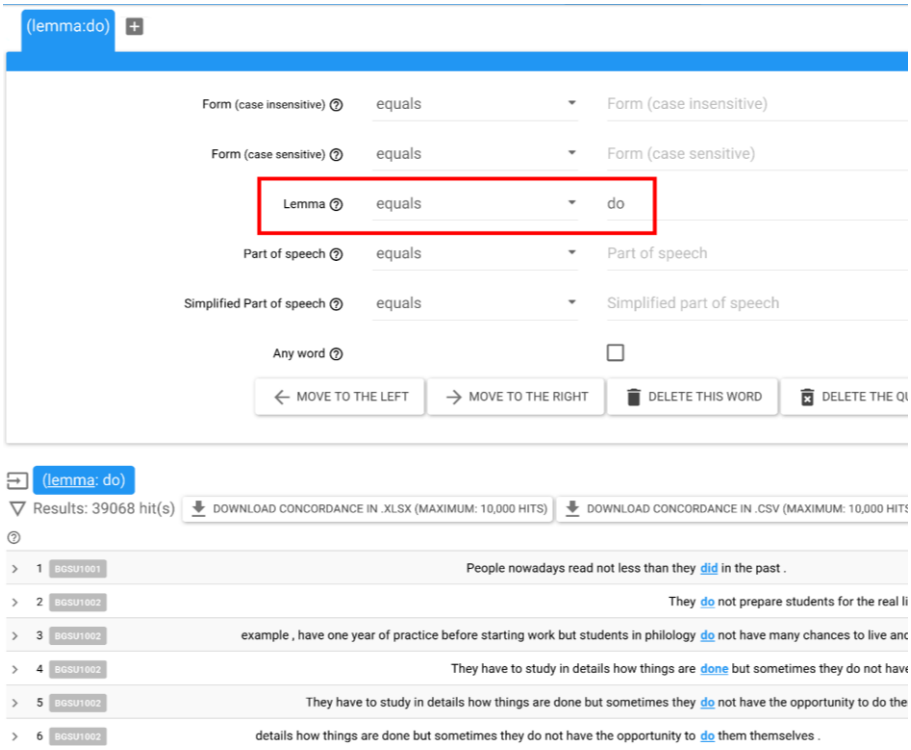

Figure 16. Searching for the lemma 'do'

4.2.3. Searching for a part of speech

All the essays included in *ICLEv3* have been POS-tagged with CLAWS7.[16] The advanced search tool allows users to search the corpus on the basis of any CLAWS7 tag. In addition, all the word forms in the corpus have also been assigned simplified POS tags, making it possible to search for general word categories in addition to the more specific ones provided by CLAWS (e.g. it is possible to search for all the nouns in the corpus with the N simplified tag as well as the more fine-grained categories of 'singular common nouns' – NN1 – or 'plural temporal nouns' – NNT2 – available in CLAWS7; see Figure 17 and Figure ***18***).

[16] See http://ucrel.lancs.ac.uk/claws/ for more details about CLAWS7.

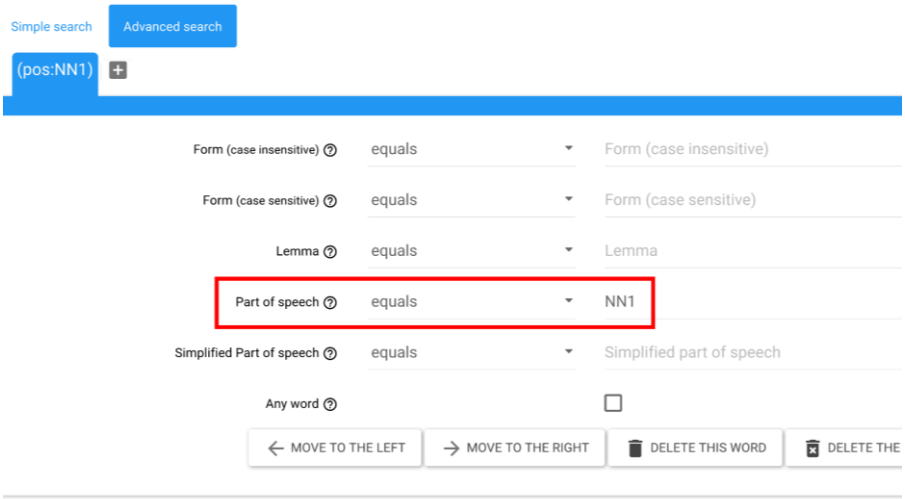

Figure 17. Corpus query based on a part of speech

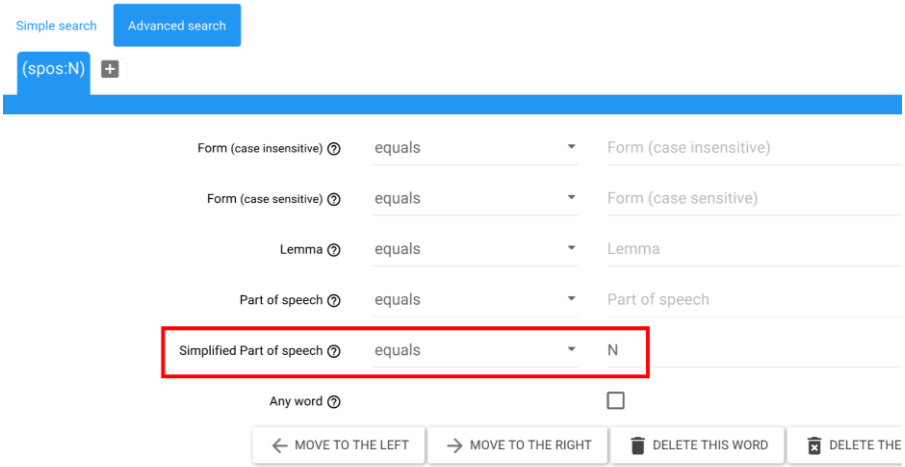

Figure 18. Corpus query based on a simplified part of speech

Table 41 contains all the tags that can be used in *ICLEv3*'s linguistic queries, with the simplified tags provided in the first column, and the corresponding CLAWS7 tags appearing in the second column, of the table. Using a simplified tag will retrieve all of its subordinate (CLAWS 7) tags. For example, a search on the ADJ tag will return all the adjectives, be they general adjectives (JJ), comparative adjectives (JJR), superlative adjectives (JJT) or catenative adjectives (JK). The last eight POS-tags in the table relate to standalone tags, which have not been assigned any simplified tag (e.g. existential *there*, formula or unclassified word). Note also that an incremental search has been

implemented in both the 'part of speech' and the 'simplified part of speech' tabs of the advanced search menu, in order to simplify the user's access to the list of tags used in *ICLEv3*.

Simplified tag	CLAWS7 tag	
ADJ	JJ	General adjective
	JJR	General comparative adjective (e.g. older, better, stronger)
	JJT	General superlative adjective (e.g. oldest, best, strongest)
	JK	Catenative adjective (able in 'be able to', willing in 'be willing to')
ADV	RA	Adverb, after nominal head (e.g. else, galore)
	REX	Adverb introducing appositional constructions (namely, e.g.)
	RG	Degree adverb (very, so, too)
	RGQ	Wh- degree adverb (how)
	RGQV	Wh-ever degree adverb (however)
	RGR	Comparative degree adverb (more, less)
	RGT	Superlative degree adverb (most, least)
	RL	Locative adverb (e.g. alongside, forward)
	RP	Prep. adverb, particle (e.g. about, in)
	RPK	Prep. adv., catenative (about in 'be about to')
	RR	General adverb
	RRQ	Wh- general adverb (where, when, why, how)
	RRQV	Wh-ever general adverb (wherever, whenever)
	RRR	Comparative general adverb (e.g. better, longer)
	RRT	Superlative general adverb (e.g. best, longest)
	RT	Quasi-nominal adverb of time (e.g. now, tomorrow)
CCO	CC	Coordinating conjunction (e.g. and, or)
	CCB	Adversative coordinating conjunction (but)
CSU	CS	Subordinating conjunction (e.g. if, because, unless, so, for)
	CSA	As (as conjunction)
	CSN	Than (as conjunction)
	CST	That (as conjunction)
	CSW	Whether (as conjunction)
	BCL	Before-clause marker (e.g. in order (that), in order (to))
DET	APPGE	Possessive pronoun, pre-nominal (e.g. my, your, our)

	AT	Article (e.g. the, no)
	AT1	Singular article (e.g. a, an, every)
	DA	After-determiner or post-determiner capable of pronominal function (e.g. such, former, same)
	DA1	Singular after-determiner (e.g. little, much)
	DA2	Plural after-determiner (e.g. few, several, many)
	DAR	Comparative after-determiner (e.g. more, less, fewer)
	DAT	Superlative after-determiner (e.g. most, least, fewest)
	DB	Before determiner or pre-determiner capable of pronominal function (all, half)
	DB2	Plural before-determiner (both)
	DD	Determiner (capable of pronominal function) (e.g. any, some)
	DD1	Singular determiner (e.g. this, that, another)
	DD2	Plural determiner (these, those)
	DDQ	Wh-determiner (which, what)
	DDQGE	Wh-determiner, genitive (whose)
	DDQV	Wh-ever determiner (whichever, whatever)
N	ND1	Singular noun of direction (e.g. north, southeast)
	NN	Common noun, neutral for number (e.g. sheep, cod, headquarters)
	NN1	Singular common noun (e.g. book, girl)
	NN2	Plural common noun (e.g. books, girls)
	NNA	Following noun of title (e.g. M.A.)
	NNB	Preceding noun of title (e.g. Mr., Prof.)
	NNL1	Singular locative noun (e.g. Island, Street)
	NNL2	Plural locative noun (e.g. Islands, Streets)
	NNO	Numeral noun, neutral for number (e.g. dozen, hundred)
	NNO2	Numeral noun, plural (e.g. hundreds, thousands)
	NNT1	Temporal noun, singular (e.g. day, week, year)
	NNT2	Temporal noun, plural (e.g. days, weeks, years)
	NNU	Unit of measurement, neutral for number (e.g. in, cc)
	NNU1	Singular unit of measurement (e.g. inch, centimetre)
	NNU2	Plural unit of measurement (e.g. ins., feet)
	NPD1	Singular weekday noun (e.g. Sunday)
	NPD2	Plural weekday noun (e.g. Sundays)
	NPM1	Singular month noun (e.g. October)

	NPM2	Plural month noun (e.g. Octobers)
NEG	XX	Not, n't
NUM	MC	Cardinal number, neutral for number (two, three…)
	MC1	Singular cardinal number (one)
	MC2	Plural cardinal number (e.g. sixes, sevens)
	MCGE	Genitive cardinal number, neutral for number (two's, 100's)
	MCMC	Hyphenated number (40-50, 1770-1827)
	MD	Ordinal number (e.g. first, second, next, last)
	MF	Fraction, neutral for number (e.g. quarters, two-thirds)
PREP	IF	For (as preposition)
	II	General preposition
	IO	Of (as preposition)
	IW	With, without (as prepositions)
Pronindef	PN	Indefinite pronoun, neutral for number (none)
	PN1	Indefinite pronoun, singular (e.g. anyone, everything, nobody, one)
	PNX1	Reflexive indefinite pronoun (oneself)
Pronwh	PNQO	Objective wh-pronoun (whom)
	PNQS	Subjective wh-pronoun (who)
	PNQV	Wh-ever pronoun (whoever)
Pronpers	PPH1	3rd person sing. neuter personal pronoun (it)
	PPHO1	3rd person sing. objective personal pronoun (him, her)
	PPHO2	3rd person plural objective personal pronoun (them)
	PPHS1	3rd person sing. subjective personal pronoun (he, she)
	PPHS2	3rd person plural subjective personal pronoun (they)
	PPIO1	1st person sing. objective personal pronoun (me)
	PPIO2	1st person plural objective personal pronoun (us)
	PPIS1	1st person sing. subjective personal pronoun (I)
	PPIS2	1st person plural subjective personal pronoun (we)
	PPX1	Singular reflexive personal pronoun (e.g. yourself, itself)
	PPX2	Plural reflexive personal pronoun (e.g. yourselves, themselves)
	PPY	2nd person personal pronoun (you)
	PPGE	Nominal possessive personal pronoun (e.g. mine, yours)
PropN	NP	Proper noun, neutral for number (e.g. IBM, Andes)
	NP1	Singular proper noun (e.g. London, Jane, Frederick)

	NP2	Plural proper noun (e.g. Browns, Reagans, Koreas)
Vbe	VB0	Be, base form (finite, i.e. imperative, subjunctive)
	VBDR	Were
	VBDZ	Was
	VBG	Being
	VBI	Be, infinitive (To be or not... It will be …)
	VBM	Am
	VBN	Been
	VBR	Are
	VBZ	Is
Vdo	VD0	Do, base form (finite)
	VDD	Did
	VDG	Doing
	VDI	Do, infinitive (I may do... To do...)
	VDN	Done
	VDZ	Does
Vhave	VH0	Have, base form (finite)
	VHD	Had (past tense)
	VHG	Having
	VHI	Have, infinitive
	VHN	Had (past participle)
	VHZ	Has
Vlex	VV0	Base form of lexical verb (e.g. give, work)
	VVD	Past tense of lexical verb (e.g. gave, worked)
	VVG	-Ing participle of lexical verb (e.g. giving, working)
	VVGK	-Ing participle catenative (going in ‘be going to’)
	VVI	Infinitive (e.g. to give... It will work...)
	VVN	Past participle of lexical verb (e.g. given, worked)
	VVNK	Past participle catenative (e.g. bound in ‘be bound to’)
	VVZ	-S form of lexical verb (e.g. gives, works)
Vmod	VM	Modal auxiliary (can, will, would, etc.)
	VMK	Modal catenative (ought, used)
ZZ	ZZ1	Singular letter of the alphabet (e.g. A,b)
	ZZ2	Plural letter of the alphabet (e.g. A’s, b’s)
	EX	Existential there
	FO	Formula

	FU	Unclassified word
	FW	Foreign word
	GE	Germanic genitive marker - (’or ’s)
	TO	Infinitive marker (to)
	UH	Interjection (e.g. oh, yes, um)
	PUNC[17]	Punctuation mark

Table 41. List of searchable tags in ICLEv3

Important notes on multiword units:

It is important to underline that CLAWS7 treats a limited set of multiword units as single entities, and thus assigns them a single POS tag rather than tagging each of the words that make up these units (e.g. in *for example*, *for* and *example* are not tagged as ‘preposition’ and ‘noun’ respectively, but the entire sequence is considered as an adverbial unit; see Appendix 3 for a list of all the units identified as multiword units by CLAWS7, and their respective POS and simplified POS in *ICLEv3*).

This has several important consequences. First, if users search for all the instances of *example* tagged as a noun (<NN1>) in the corpus, the interface will not retrieve the instances of *for example*, as the sequence as a whole was tagged as an adverb by CLAWS7. Naturally, if the word form *example* is searched for, all occurrences of the word will be extracted, including instances of *for example*.

Second, some tags in the ‘part of speech’ drop-down menu of the ‘advanced search’ panel include figures (e.g. JJ21, JJ22; CS31, CS32, CS33). CLAWS assigns such tags to word forms that are part of a multiword unit. Thus, for example, the two forms making up the compound adjectives *old-fashioned* or *fed up* are tagged ‘JJ21’ and ‘JJ22’, respectively. The number that directly follows the CLAWS POS tag indicates the number of words included in the multiword unit (two in *fed up* and *old-fashioned*), while the last number indicates the position of a given word in the multiword unit (e.g. in *old-fashioned*, *old* received the ‘JJ21’ tag, whereas *fashioned* was tagged as JJ22; likewise, in the multiword subordinating conjunction *as long as* the first

[17] The PUNC tag is the only one that is not drawn from the CLAWS7 tagset. It was added in order to allow users to retrieve all instances of punctuation marks in one go.

instance of *as* was tagged as CS31; *long* was tagged as CS32, while the second instance of *as* received the CS33 tag).

The treatment of multiword units is different when it comes to the simplified parts of speech to which we mapped the CLAWS tags. Here, the first item of the multiword unit received the tag of the whole, and all others components received a MWC ('multiword component') tag (e.g. as_CSU long_MWC as_MWC). This system was adopted so that users typing the ADJ or the CSU tags into the concordancer would be able to retrieve all instances of adjectives or subordinating conjunctions in the corpus, including multiword units as defined by CLAWS. By contrast, the fact that the second, third, etc. words in the multiword units are assigned an MWC tag is intended to prevent a situation where a search for the ADJ SPOS, for instance, would return several concordance lines for each multiword adjective (e.g. one for *fed*, and one for *up*).

4.2.4. The 'any word' box

The 'any word' box that appears at the bottom of the 'advanced search' module can be ticked if users want to insert one or more variable slot(s) in their query (i.e. slots that may correspond to any single word, figure or punctuation mark in the corpus, and correspond to the (*) wildcard discussed in Section 4.1 above). Thus, all the forms that occur between the verb *make* and the preposition *of* can be retrieved by (i) typing *make* in the 'form' box of the advanced search module; (ii) clicking on the '+' button to add a second slot to the query, and ticking the 'any word' box; then (iii) clicking on the '+' button to add a third slot and typing *of* in the 'form' box of the table (cf. Figure 19). This query will return instances of *make use of, make fun of, make sense of,* etc.

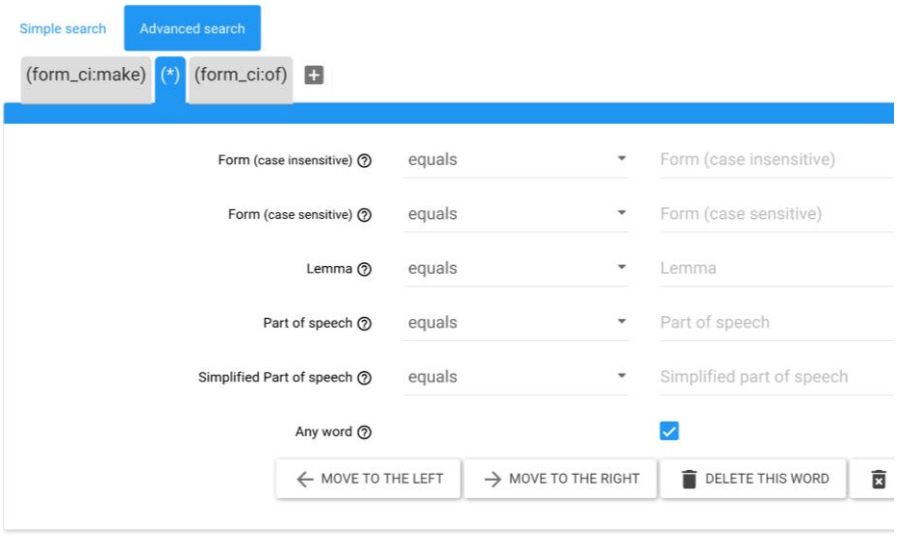

Figure 19. The 'any word' box

4.2.5. Combining search criteria

So far, the description of the 'advanced search' option has focused on corpus queries using a single search criterion. For any given slot in the advanced search, it is also possible to combine search criteria by filling in several boxes of the 'advanced search' table. For example, it is possible to retrieve only instances of *question* used as a lexical verb by (i) typing *question* in one of the two 'form' boxes (depending on whether the query needs to be case-sensitive or not); and (ii) choosing the 'Vlex' tag in the 'simplified part of speech' incremental menu (see Figure 20). Similarly, it is possible to retrieve only the occurrences of *though* used as an adverb (rather than a conjunction of subordination) by (i) typing *though* in one of the 'form' boxes; and (ii) selecting the 'ADV' tag in the 'simplified part of speech' box.

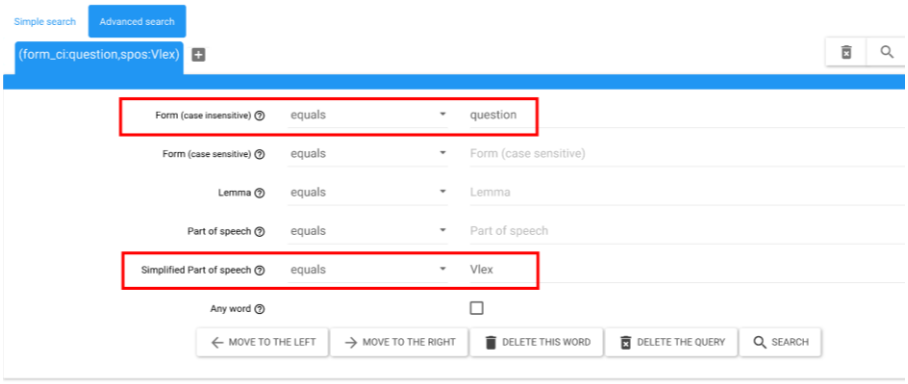

Figure 20. Searching for question *used as a lexical verb*

4.2.6. Adding filters to an advanced corpus query

Within the general search options discussed above ((i) form – case insensitive; (ii) form – case sensitive; (iii) lemma; (iv) part of speech; and (v) simplified part of speech), the advanced search module of *ICLEv3* also makes it possible to refine the corpus query by selecting a range of search filters. These filters are provided in drop-down menus to the right of each search option (see Figure 21).

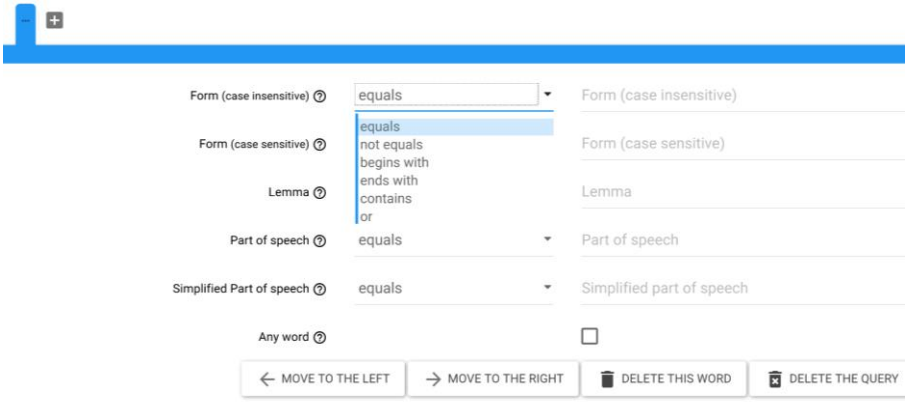

Figure 21. Adding filters to the corpus query

By default, *ICLEv3*'s advanced search queries the forms, lemmas or part-of-speech tags that match the search string: this corresponds to the 'equals' option in the drop-down menu. Table 42 below exemplifies the type of results that are obtained when 'equal' is selected within each search option.

SEARCH OPTION	SEARCH STRING	OUTPUT
Form (case insensitive)	Take OR take OR TaKe, etc.	take, Take, TAKE, etc.
Form (case sensitive)	Take	Take
Lemma	take	take, takes, taking, took, taken
Part of speech	JJ	All the forms tagged as 'JJ' (general adjectives) in the corpus
Simplified part of speech	ADJ	All the forms tagged as 'ADJ' (adjective) in the corpus

Table 42. Output of the 'equals' search filter

In addition to this default 'equals' option, *ICLEv3*'s advanced search offers a range of other search instructions allowing more sophisticated corpus queries to be designed: (i) not equals; (ii) begins with; (iii) ends with; (iv) contains; and (v) or.

a) *Not equals*

The 'not equals' option instructs the concordance tool to retrieve all the forms in the corpus that differ from the search string. This search option is especially useful when combining several search criteria in the corpus query, as described in Section 4.2.5 above. For example, if a user wants to retrieve all instances of the lemma *make* except for its progressive uses, they can do so by (i) typing *make* in the 'lemma' box of the advanced search table; then (ii) typing *making* and selecting 'not equals' in the 'form (case insensitive)' box.

b) Begins with

The 'begins with' option allows users to retrieve all the forms, lemmas or part-of-speech tags that start with the search string. So, for example, a search for the form *add* would not only return instances of *add,* but also *adds, added, adding, addition, additive, additional, address, addicted*, etc. Likewise, a search on 'C' in the 'simplified part of speech' box would return all the forms tagged as either 'CCO' (coordinating conjunction) or 'CSU' (subordinating conjunction) in the corpus.

c) *Ends with*

The 'ends with' option allows users to retrieve all the forms, lemmas or part-of-speech tags that end with the search string. For example, a search for the form *able* would not only return instances of *able*, but also *table, stable, unable, suitable, manageable,* etc. Again, this option can be useful when used in combination with other search criteria: for instance, a user might be interested in extracting from the corpus all the forms that end with *-able* and are tagged as adjectives.

d) *Contains*

The 'contains' search option can be used to retrieve from the corpus all word forms that include the search string. Thus, a search for the form *for* would return not only instances of the preposition *for*, but also occurrences of *therefore, comfort, before, forward, unfortunately,* etc.

e) *Or*

The advanced search of the *ICLEv3* interface also allows users to retrieve all instances of a (virtually unlimited) sequence of search strings in the corpus. It is possible, for example, to retrieve all the instances of *up* and *down* in the corpus by (i) typing these two words in one of the 'form' boxes, separated either by blank spaces or commas; and (ii) selecting the 'or' option in the drop-down menu. Similarly, users who wish to extract all comparative and superlative adjectives from the corpus can do so by typing the JJR and JJT tags (again, separated by commas or blank spaces) in the 'part of speech' window, and selecting 'or' in the drop-down menu.

4.2.7. Managing the advanced search

In addition to the wide range of search options that it offers, the 'advanced search' panel also includes a number of buttons that can be used to edit the corpus query (cf. Figure 22). The first two buttons that appear at the bottom of the 'advanced search' panel allow users to move parts of the query either to the left or to the right of the search. Figure 22, for example, illustrates a search for all instances of the word *information* preceded by a lexical verb (e.g. *access information, get information, convey information*). If the user changed their mind and decided to query all the occurrences of *information* followed (rather

than preceded) by a lexical verb (e.g. *information provided, information circulating*), they would simply need to click on 'move to the left'. The 'delete this word' button allows users to delete any single slot (word, lemma or POS) from the query (e.g. to retrieve instances of *information* whether or not preceded by a lexical verb). Finally, the 'delete the query' button deletes the query as a whole. Note that each time a change is made to the corpus query, the user must click on the 'search' button again so as to re-compute a concordance that takes the updated search instructions into account.

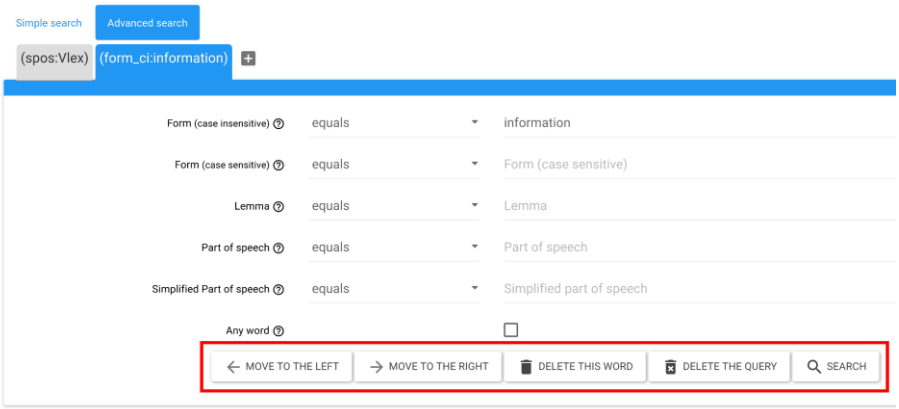

Figure 22. Managing an advanced search

4.3. **Managing the concordance**

Whether the simple or the advanced search option has been selected, the results of the corpus query are displayed as a concordance immediately below the search. For example, a simple search for the word *development* over the entire *ICLEv3* corpus generates a total of 2,345 hits, all of which appear in context in the concordance (see Figure 23). Each page of a concordance displays a maximum of 100 hits. It is possible to navigate through the pages of a concordance by clicking on the arrows on the upper right-hand side of the concordance (cf. Figure 23).

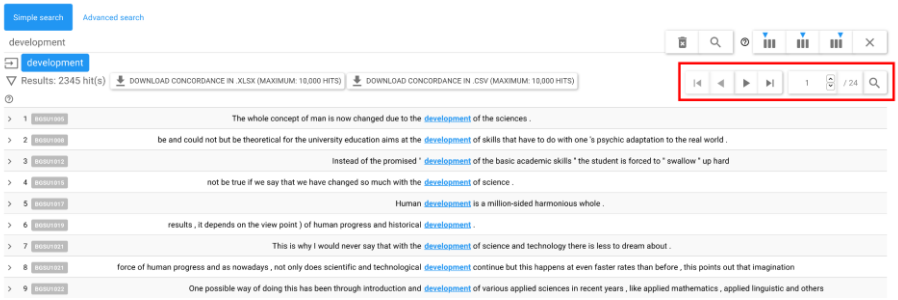

Figure 23. Concordance of development *in ICLEv3*

4.3.1. Concordance details

Each line in the concordance gives access to a range of information on the occurrence of a given word form (or sequence of words) in the corpus. Firstly, the grey box to the left of each concordance line provides the identifier of the text from which the occurrence was extracted (e.g. BGSU1005, BGSU1008). In addition, clicking either on the arrow at the far left of each concordance line or on the search word itself (in blue) gives access to:

(i) The extended context of occurrence of the word;

(ii) All the metadata associated with the text from which the occurrence was extracted;

(iii) A detailed analysis of the occurrence and the words occurring in its surrounding context in terms of lemmas, parts of speech and simplified parts of speech (see Figure 24).

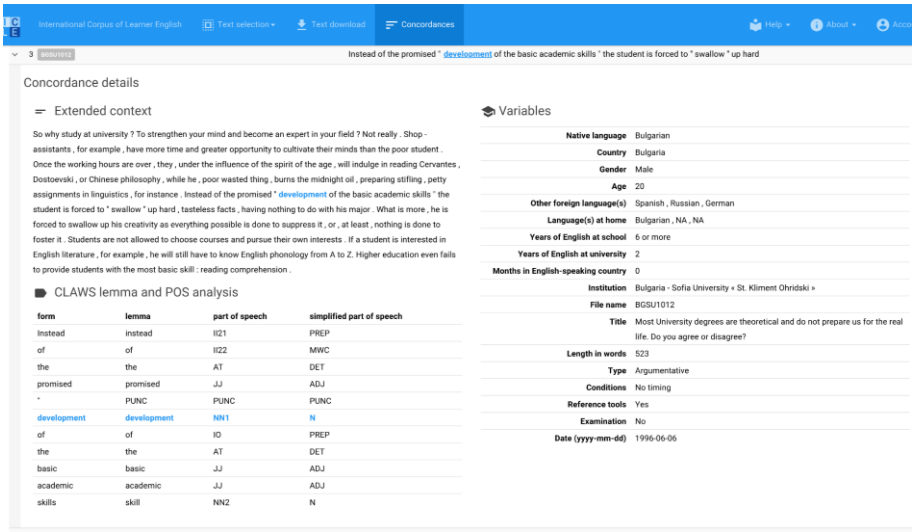

Figure 24. ICLEv3 concordance details

4.3.2. Sorting the concordance

By default, the lines of a concordance appear in their original order of occurrence in the corpus file(s). However, the *ICLEv3* concordance tool gives users the opportunity to re-sort the lines of a concordance alphabetically according to the search string and/or its surrounding context. This is useful for identifying the recurrent patterns of occurrence of a word or sequence of words in the corpus. The 'sort' module can be found in the top right-hand corner of the concordance page, and allows for three main types of sort (see Figure 25):

(i) Clicking on the first button in the 'sort' menu sorts all the concordance lines by the words that appear to the left of the search string (e.g. in a left sort of *contrary*, occurrences of *on the contrary* will be displayed before occurrences of *quite the contrary* and *to the contrary*).

(ii) Clicking on the second button in the 'sort' menu sorts the concordance lines according to the search string itself (e.g. in a central search of all the words ending with *able*, occurrences of *able* will occur before instances of *manageable*, which will be displayed before occurrences of *table*, etc.)

(iii) Finally, if the user clicks on the third ‘sort’ button, the tool will sort the concordance lines according to the words that appear to the right of the search string (e.g. in a right sort of *result*, occurrences of *result from* will be displayed before instances of *result of*).

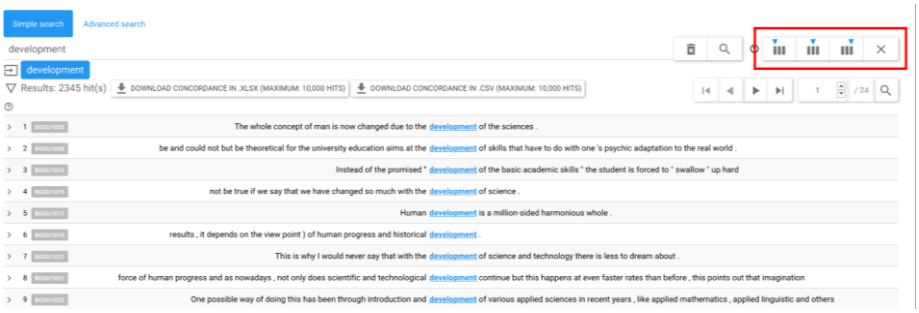

Figure 25. The ‘sort’ option

Note that these three sort options can be combined, e.g. by first sorting the concordance with respect to the search string itself, then sorting the results according to the words that occur to the right of the search string. Applied to the sequence ‘*it is* + ADJ’, this procedure will place instances of *it is clear* before occurrences of *it is important*, and instances of *it is important that* before those of *it is important to*.
Sort criteria can be cancelled by clicking on the cross to the right of the sort module. It is important to note that whenever a sort criterion is selected or deselected, the corpus search must be relaunched (by clicking on the magnifying glass), so that the new sort instructions can be taken into account.

4.3.3. Downloading the concordance

The *ICLEv3* interface also allows users to download concordances in excel (.xlsx) format, or .csv format (see Figure 26). Whichever format is selected, each concordance line in the file is accompanied by all the metadata information (learner and task variables) associated with the text from which it was extracted. This is particularly useful because the *ICLEv3* interface was developed mainly to help researchers extract the relevant dataset needed to answer their research questions. It does not provide users with the means to edit the concordance (e.g. to weed out irrelevant concordance lines), code the linguistic material, explore the dataset with visualization and descriptive statistics, or carry out statistical analyses. For these purposes, there are a variety of software

tools that are already part of the learner corpus researcher's methodological toolbox, including *AntConc*, *UAM CorpusTool*, *WordSmith Tools*, *SPSS*, *R* and *JASP*.

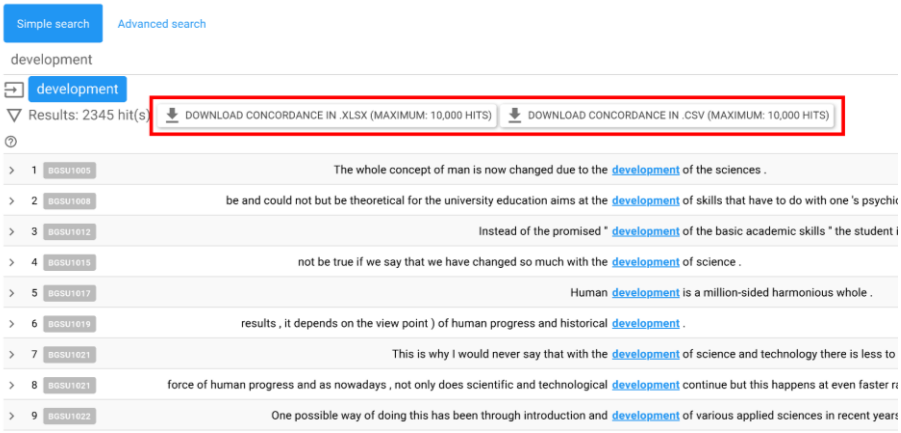

Figure 26. Downloading a concordance

Important note on the number of hits:
For technical reasons connected with the responsiveness of the interface, it is only possible to download 10,000 hits at a time in a given concordance. If the corpus query returns more than 10,000 hits, by default the interface will only download the first 10,000 lines of the concordance. One way around this limitation is to run separate searches for a given linguistic item in different subparts of the corpus (e.g. search for *do* in *ICLE* French, *ICLE* German, *ICLE* Italian, etc. separately).

V. THE STATUS OF ENGLISH

This section provides some background information on the status of English in the countries where the *ICLE* data was collected. Chapters 1 to 11, and Chapters 12 to 16 have been reproduced unchanged from the first and second versions of the *ICLE* respectively (cf. Granger et al. 2002 and Granger et al. 2009). Chapters 17 to 25 are new: they describe the status of English in the countries where the nine new subcorpora were collected (Brazil, Greece, Hungary, Iran, Korea, Lithuania, Macedonia, Pakistan, and Serbia).

1. The Status of English in Belgium

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1. The language situation in Belgium

Belgium[18], one of the smallest States of Europe with approximately 10 million inhabitants, is a politically and linguistically complex country with no less than three official languages: Dutch, French and German.

The Belgian language system is based on the four linguistic regions[19]: the French-speaking region, the Dutch-speaking region, the German-speaking region and the bilingual region of Brussels. Linguistic partition is primarily intended as a means of determining the scope of application of legislation on the use of language and the scope of decrees issued by the Communities.

While this article aims to present the organization of the Belgian educational system as a whole, the section dealing with English in tertiary education (6.2.) will focus on French-speaking Belgium as my contribution has been limited to the French subcorpus of ICLE.

2. General organization of the educational system

Since the 1988 review of the Constitution, community ministers have been granted practically all the powers in Education. On 1 January 1989, Education was transferred to the Communities.

Three types of schools ('networks' or 'réseaux) supply education:
- official education, organised by the public authorities, e.g. the French Community (free)

[18] Belgium became a Kingdom in 1830 but a number of constitutional amendments introduced in 1970, 1980, 1988 and 1993 have gradually changed the structure of Belgium into a federal State, including **three Communities:** the French Community, the Flemish Community and the German-Speaking Community. The decisive factors in determining a Community are culture and language.

[19] The linguistic regions should not be confused with the 'Regions', which are three distinct federal and territorial entities: the Flemish Region (in the north), the Walloon Region (in the south) and the Brussels Region (in the centre).

- catholic education, public grant aided schools organised by the provinces (free)
- private education, not subsidised by the state and organised by private associations or persons.

Education is divided into four levels, generally corresponding to the following age groups:
- pre-primary education (nursery school) for children aged two and a half to six
- primary education for children aged six to twelve
- secondary education for young people aged twelve to eighteen
- tertiary education[20] for young adults aged eighteen to twenty-five.

3. General note on foreign language teaching in Belgium

Some administrative aspects of foreign language teaching are governed by legislation on language. For instance, in the bilingual region of Brussels, the first foreign language in French-speaking schools is Dutch, which is compulsory, and vice versa. However, in the French-speaking and Dutch-speaking regions, students are free to select their first foreign language (Dutch, German or English). While English has generally become the first foreign language selected by Dutch-speaking students (slightly over 60%[21]), the situation in the French-speaking area is slightly different, with an almost equal 50% score for Dutch and English being chosen as first foreign languages.

The language of education is the same as the official language of the linguistic region, except for foreign language teaching. Language courses are almost[22] exclusively taught in the target language.

4. English in pre-primary and primary schools

English is generally not taught in pre-primary schools, although some schools have embarked on a pilot project for early foreign language learning, particularly immersion in English (mainly in the Dutch

[20] Tertiary education is sub-divided into university and non-university education. Non-university education may be of the short type or of the long type. Long type tertiary education is provided at university level.
[21] Exact percentages available at http://www.culture.fr/culture/dglf/rapport/1999/anglais-lang-etrang.html
[22] Except for absolute beginners

speaking region) and Dutch (in the bilingual and French-speaking region).

At primary school level, the official statements *recommend* the study of a foreign language. The French Community, for instance, encourages organization of language classes at primary education level by allocating additional teaching staff to schools that apply for it. In the Walloon Region - except in those municipalities that are adjacent to the linguistic borderline - the modern language can be Dutch, English or German. Under certain conditions, a school may propose a choice from those three languages. Discrepancies between the North and the South of the country exist: in 1991/1992 while over 20% of primary school children were offered foreign language classes in the Dutch-speaking region, the proportion was below 10% in the French-speaking region. These days, the process of learning to communicate in a modern language other than the mother tongue covers at least two periods a week in the fifth and sixth years of primary education.

A limited number of schools which have undertaken pilot projects for early foreign language learning, particularly immersion courses in English and Dutch, and whose project is selected by the Ministry, also receive support staff and teaching supervision from a panel of experts, within the framework of the promotion of the 'école de la réussite'.

5. English in secondary education

Modern languages are compulsory subjects from the first year of secondary education on, with 4 hours a week for the first foreign language. While in many European countries over 90% of the pupils choose English as their first foreign language, only about 60%[23] of the Belgian pupils do so.

From the 3rd year of secondary education students may study a second foreign language as an option. This language may be Dutch, English, German, Italian, Spanish or Arabic in a French language region and English, German, Italian, Spanish or Arabic in the Brussels Region. It is taught at least 2 hours per week.

[23] This rather low percentage is due to the fact that Belgium has three official languages and that part of the pupils prefer to study one of the two other official languages as first foreign language

From the 5th year onwards students may study a third foreign language as an option. The third foreign language is taught for 2 or 4 hours per week.

The number of hours a week devoted to foreign languages can thus vary greatly from one student to the other:
1st and 2nd year: 4h/week
3rd and 4th year: from 4h/weeks to 8h/week
5th and 6th year: from 4h/week to 12h/week

Pursuant to the decree dated July 1998, which authorises learning a language by immersion in the 'enseignement fondamental' (pre-primary and primary schools), part of the timetable of secondary education can be organised in a modern language other than French, in the form of an immersion-related learning process. It should be noted that such cases are pretty rare in Belgium, especially in official and public-grant aided schools.

Unlike the situation in some other European countries - such as in Sweden for instance where English has almost taken up the status of a second language – English in Belgium is still very much a foreign language. Despite wider and easier access to the English media and language, the input that students are exposed to is still very limited. Differences can however be found between the Dutch and French speaking regions, with more 'English' input in the Dutch area, especially through the media: while English speaking films, soap operas and even cartoons are dubbed in the French speaking region, they are subtitled in the Dutch speaking area.

As for the teaching methodology, EFL courses are taught in the target language and British English is taken as the standard norm. Contentwise, the last thirty years have witnessed a gradual shift from form-focused to meaning-focused instruction and EFL teaching is currently largely communicative in essence. In the early nineties, teaching programmes stressed the importance of communicative task-based, problem-solving activities centred on a number of basic 'themes' (hobbies, food and drink, travelling, studying, etc.). The importance of focus on form was considered subordinate and this status has gradually

evolved from subordinate to virtually inexistent in the most recent teaching programmes[24].

6. Tertiary education

6.1. Introductory note

As of the beginning of the academic year 1995/1996, long type and short type non-university tertiary education establishments were regrouped in thirty Hautes Ecoles (with an average of 2,000 students) in order to attain quality targets and assemble the necessary resources to perform their tasks, by for instance pooling teaching staff and certain infrastructures. The Hautes Ecoles are created by means of voluntary mergers based on a joint pedagogical (projet pédagogique), social and cultural plan.

University education is provided in establishments with university status or assimilated status. The French Community has three full universities (the Catholic University of Louvain, the University of Liège and the 'Université Libre' (liberal latitudinarian university) of Brussels. Smaller-sized institutions offer limited access and provide either only the first two years of the curriculum or a limited number of disciplines.

6.2. English in tertiary education

English is an option in many tertiary education degrees and a vast majority of these degrees include compulsory ESP and EAP courses.

Students who wish to become English language specialists can follow three different types of study curricula: translator and interpreter (non-university level) and master in 'Germanic[25]' languages and literatures (university level[26]).

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[24] See « Programmes de l'enseignement secondaire – langues germaniques ». Ministère de l'Education Nationale (1985, 1993 & 2001 versions)

[25] In Belgium, the term 'Germanic languages' encompasses Dutch, English and German

[26] The length of such university curricula is 4 years, but will soon be extended to 5 years in the framework of European harmonization.

As my contribution to ICLE has been limited to the French subcorpus, this section will focus on the curriculum of French-speaking university students specialising in English.
As access to most Belgian university curricula do not require entrance examinations, first year students often display a wide range of proficiency levels in English (from advanced to lower intermediate in some cases). University students who wish to become English language specialists[27] cannot limit themselves to the sole study of one foreign language and must combine the study of two (so-called) 'Germanic languages', i.e. English and Dutch or English and German.

The four-year curriculum generally includes a limited number of 'cours généraux' (like philosophy, history or economics) taught in the students' mother tongue and many 'cours de spécialité' (language-oriented courses) exclusively taught in the target language, i.e. English for the English courses. British English is taken as the standard norm.

The so-called language courses include:

- proficiency courses centred on the 4 skills.
- linguistic courses
- literary courses
- cultural topics.

Contrary to what is the case in some other countries, English proficiency courses are given throughout the 4[28] years of the university curriculum. Receptive and productive skills are practised. The stress is laid both on fluency and accuracy in oral and written production.

Linguistic courses and seminars encompass a detailed study of the grammar and a large range of other specialized linguistic topics such as phonology, morphology, syntax, contrastive linguistics, diachronic linguistics, sociolinguistics, corpus linguistics, etc. Literary courses include the study of genres, literary analysis, the literary history and the study of specific authors or periods. Culture related aspects include both 'C' culture (English and American history, economy, religion, art) and 'c' culture topics (hobbies, food, entertainment, behaviour, etc).

[27] No specific entrance requirements or exams are required in Belgium
[28] This is due to the rather low level of some students when they enter university

English being a foreign language in Belgium, students have little exposure to English input outside the classroom. This is particularly the case in French-speaking Belgium where, except for English songs on the radio or actual British or American media, most English-speaking films are dubbed[29] in French and English newspapers, books or novels are not usually available in shops (except perhaps in Brussels). University students are therefore encouraged to take part in exchange programmes (such as the Erasmus programme) but only a minority of the students spend a long period of time in English speaking countries.

7. The importance of foreign languages in general and the teaching of English in particular

The Belgian State and Communities, as convinced Europeans, have played an important role[30] in promoting the study of foreign languages in general and English in particular. The objectives established for courses in modern languages for the third 'degré' of secondary education stress the importance of extending this general education to the European dimension, in exhibitions, meetings, events, games, the realisation of projects, slides and videos. Learning foreign languages indeed heightens awareness of the European identity and dimension.

As early as 1976, the Council of Europe and the European Community[31] called on Member States to extend language teaching and learning, and encouraged them to ensure that all pupils would learn at least one European foreign language. During the next two decades, teaching and the promotion of languages and innovative language teaching methods were at the heart of further Community actions and programmes. In 1995, the European Commission's White Paper, Teaching and learning - Towards the learning society, stated that "upon completing initial training everyone should be proficient in two Community foreign languages". And the knowledge of at least three languages was declared an essential qualification for citizens willing to make a full contribution to the construction of an integrated Europe and to benefit from the professional and personal opportunities offered by the single market.

[29] This is not the case in Dutch-speaking Belgium
[30] Particularly in the last two decades.
[31] Information contained in this paragraph, found at:
http://www.eurydice.org/Documents/ProfileFLT/en/ProfileFLTEN.pdf

European bodies have also fostered mobility by implementing exchange programmes such as LINGUA and LEONARDO for younger pupils/students or ERASMUS and SOCRATES, which concerns tertiary education exclusively. Other programmes like COMETT also favour co-operation between universities and business, relating to training in technological fields; and the TEMPUS Programme, launched in 1990, was the first programme for Trans-European mobility in tertiary education. It supported student exchanges in tertiary education, particularly for nationals (both students and teaching staff) of Central and Eastern Europe, so as to enable them to step up relations with the European Community.

The importance attached to the knowledge of foreign languages is also largely represented in the population and an opinion poll recently conducted in Belgium on a representative sample of adults showed that the mastering of the mother tongue, foreign languages and mathematics were considered, in that order, to be the most important subjects in secondary education. Although Belgium[32] still has a long way to go to catch up with the level of English proficiency of some of its European partners, our country has (over the last ten years) shown one of the highest increases[33] in the proportion of citizens with a relatively good knowledge of English.

[32] especially the French-speaking region
[33] Exact percentages can be found at:
http://europa.eu.int/comm/education/languages/fr/lang/europanlanguages.html

2. The Status of English in Bulgaria

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1. The language situation in Bulgaria

Bulgaria has a population of some 8.5 million people (2001) and the native language of the vast majority is Bulgarian. There are several minority groups in the country who speak Turkish, Romany, Hebrew or Armenian at home, but they are all bilingual and use only Bulgarian outside their small communities. Apart from the 10-minute news coverage in Turkish, which the Bulgarian national television station started broadcasting daily only a year ago, Bulgarian is the language of the media, the Parliament and all official bodies.

Since the beginning of the 20th century, learning a foreign language has been part of compulsory education. English, French and German were the three choices of foreign languages offered to students. After World War II, Russian became the first compulsory foreign language for Grades 3-11 (ages 9-18), while English was one of the options for a second foreign language in secondary school (ages 14-18). From the early 1980s, due to the increasing influence of the English-speaking world and the spread of global communications, more and more Bulgarians felt the need to study English and chose it as a subject at school.

At present, nearly all public schools offer courses in English as a compulsory part of the curriculum and many private schools meet the enormous demand for additional study through extracurricular courses for all ages and levels. As a result, most educated Bulgarians today have some knowledge of English, although it has the status of a foreign rather than a second language.

2. Foreign language policy in primary and secondary schools

In Bulgaria, primary education for children between the ages of 7 and 14 (grades 1-8) is compulsory. Although secondary education is voluntary, almost all pupils continue their studies after grades 7 or 8 in vocational or more academically-oriented high schools where they

prepare for university. Depending on the type of school, secondary education lasts for four or five years.

The study of English as a first foreign language starts in the 5th grade (age 11) as a compulsory subject (very few schools nowadays offer other foreign languages) and is studied by all pupils until the last grade. In grades 5-8 (ages 11-14), pupils reach upper-intermediate level and at the end of each year, on the basis of continuous assessment, they are given marks on a six-point scale. If pupils go on to a vocational school, they continue to study the same foreign language (usually English), reaching various levels of knowledge depending on the quality of teaching and the number of teaching hours the school offers. Some of the non-vocational schools are specialized in teaching languages. In these schools, selected students continue their education in classes where they study one foreign language more intensively with 20 teaching hours per week during the first year and some 10 teaching hours during the next four, during which they also start learning a second foreign language. At least two other subjects (History, Geography, Physics, Chemistry or Biology) are studied in the respective foreign language. By the end of the 12th grade, the students have attained an advanced level of foreign language acquisition. There are English, Russian, French, German, Spanish and Italian language schools, although English language schools are by far the greatest in number.

After the democratic changes in the country in the early 1990s, more people could travel but very few could afford to go abroad for summer courses. So most Bulgarian pupils acquire their knowledge of English in school and through the media (TV channels which are not dubbed, newspapers, magazines) and the Internet.

3. The university context and the status of English

All Bulgarian universities have a very strict selection procedure based on admission test results and secondary school results.

An admission test in English (approx. advanced level) is an obligatory requirement in the humanities. All students who apply for courses in English Language and Literature have to sit an English exam, as do any students applying to study Economics, International Relations and Law, Political Sciences, Psychology, Pedagogy, Mathematics, Linguistics

and Literature of other languages (Scandinavian languages, Turkish, Armenian, Japanese, Arabic, etc.), as well as applicants for other subjects where proficiency in English is essential.

Until 1997, all university courses comprised five years of study, which led to a Master's Degree. In 1997, most Bulgarian universities introduced 4-year study programmes leading to a Bachelor's Degree and 3-term (1.5 years) Master's Degree programmes for those wishing to continue their education and capable of passing special admission exams.

The medium of instruction in Bulgarian universities is Bulgarian, but a 2 to 3 year course in one foreign language (usually English) is compulsory for all students no matter what their major.

4. The curriculum of English Language, Linguistics and Literature in Bulgarian universities

Several universities in Bulgaria have English Departments offering English Language, Linguistics and Literature as a major subject called English Philology. The entry level of the applicants in these departments is advanced and the medium of instruction for all subjects taught in the Bachelor's and Master's Degrees is English. In the 4 academic years of the Bachelor's Degree programme, students attend courses on English language, linguistics and literature simultaneously. English is taught mostly in seminars and practical classes integrating all four skills. Some of the seminars and workshops focus on translation, grammar and writing. All 300 teaching hours per academic year prepare the students for the end-of-year exam in Practical English. At the end of the second year, the level of FLA of the students correlates with Cambridge Proficiency. In the next two years, the same skills are further developed in similar courses through seminars and practical classes.

From the first to the last academic year, in addition to practical English, students attend courses in all the theoretical disciplines: General Linguistics, Phonetics and Phonology, Morphology, Syntax, Text Linguistics, Semantics and History of the English Language. The classes are organized into lectures (60 hours per subject) and seminars (60 hours per subject). The study of English and American literature and culture is also a compulsory part of the Bachelor's Degree programme. The lectures (60 hours per year) and the seminars (60 hours

per year) introduce the students to different periods of the literature and history of Britain and the United States. At the end of each of these linguistics and literature courses, students are given a mark on a six-point scale based on an exam (most often written), a term paper, and the continuous assessment of the amount of work done in the seminars.

Latin (60 hours) and one other foreign language (a total of 360 hours) are other compulsory subjects in the Bachelor's Degree programme.

In addition to these compulsory courses, there are elective courses on Translation Studies, Interpreting, Teaching and Testing, Applied Linguistics or particular periods of English or American literature.

By the end of their studies, students have attained a very high level of proficiency in English, and the practical and theoretical knowledge they have acquired in university enables them to work as highly-qualified teachers, translators or interpreters.

5. Approaches to the teaching/learning of English

The approach to teaching English in most Bulgarian state and private schools in recent years could be described as a mixture of the communicative, functional and traditional. The wide variety of textbooks available on the market gives teachers and students greater freedom to choose the teaching materials that best suit the needs of a particular group of students according to age and the goals of foreign language teaching. The objectives and grading of foreign language teaching are laid down in national curricula and there are usually several titles of textbooks recommended each year by the Ministry of Education to be used in state schools, all based on the communicative and functional approaches. Individual teachers do, however, have the right to introduce additional material.

Universities have even greater autonomy in choosing appropriate teaching methods and materials. Quite naturally, teachers in the Departments of Medicine, Law, Engineering, Business, Economics and Natural Sciences offer English for special purpose courses focusing on the development of those skills the students will need in their future work. In the English Departments, the communicative approach is the most widely used and equal attention is given to listening, speaking,

reading and writing, as well as translation. In class and for self-study, nearly equal amounts of fiction and non-fiction are used.

The teaching of English in Bulgaria relies mostly on printed and audio material. In many schools and universities, students have computers but they are not used in foreign language teaching. There is usually only one native British or American teacher per 100 students in each of the secondary schools and universities, so most of the teaching is done by Bulgarian teachers of English.

6. Types of exams in English

There are no special testing centres in Bulgaria and so far no national tests in English. The Ministry of Education administers only one exam in English for all students in the specialized English language schools after their first year. The exam consists of a written and an oral section, and tests all four skills. The expected level is upper-intermediate.

A great number of pupils from the state secondary schools attend private schools and lessons in their free time where they prepare for the TOEFL, SAT and Cambridge exams with a view to applying for foreign universities and studying abroad. Despite their generally very good results, however, most of them stay in Bulgaria for various reasons.

This academic (2001/2002) year marked the beginning of a radical reform in secondary education. The Ministry of Education and Science launched a nine-year project aiming to create national testing centres and to introduce national tests of most subjects, including English. Universities, however, plan to stick to their strict admission procedures and exams in the future.

The respective departments of the individual universities draw up their own admission tests. The English tests are written and, for most universities, include some or all of the following elements: dictation, translation, grammar, essay-writing and reading comprehension.

7. Role of argumentative writing in teaching English to Bulgarians

In theory, argumentative writing is part of nearly all English courses for all levels, but in practice little attention is paid to the development of writing skills, especially in the secondary schools. Only students in the

English departments have separate courses on writing where they learn paragraph and text structure and systematically develop an ability to produce coherent texts.

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Further information about the language situation in Bulgaria and the Bulgarian educational system can be obtained from the Ministry of Education and Science (Министерство на образованието и науката) http://www.minedu.government.bg/. Specific information on the curricula and courses in English at Bulgarian universities is available from the individual departments (e.g. Sofia University, *St. Kliment Ohridski*, at http://www.fcml.uni-sofia.bg/depart/engl.htm).

3. The Status of English in the Czech Republic

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1. The sociolinguistic situation of the Czech Republic

The official language has been Czech since 1993 when the federation of Czechoslovakia split into two independent countries. Until then there were two official languages: Czech and Slovak. Though the federal state had its problems, they were not linguistic in nature. As the two languages are very similar, there were no problems in understanding each other, either in listening or reading. Speaking or writing, however, required some learning.

Historically, there was a strong German influence until the end of World War I, as both the Czech and Slovak halves of the former Czechoslovakia were part of the Austro-Hungarian Empire for some three hundred years. Even after 1918, the Czech part of the country retained a large minority of German speakers in certain regions: along the border with Germany and Austria, in Prague and Brno and in several other regions in Moravia. The German-speaking minority had a choice of education in either German or Czech, and this choice extended to university education too. The situation changed rapidly once Hitler came to power. The border regions, under the influence of the National Party, strongly supported the Sudeten stance, and even the minority inland could opt for German nationality. The German nationality had the obvious advantages of being on the more powerful side, although it also held the disadvantage of military service duties in the Wehrmacht. By the end of the war, linguistic problems were a long way down the agenda; the German population was expelled in a highly emotive fashion, and the scars on either side remain. The pre-war German-speaking minority included Jewish communities, the largest of which was probably in Prague. Very few returned from the concentration camps at the end of the war.

Recently, minority languages have benefited from renewed recognition, including Polish, Slovak, German, Romany and Vietnamese, although the latter is not in the mainstream. However, not much attention has been paid yet to the fact that Czech is a second language for a growing number of immigrants.

The three hundred years of Austrian rule in our country was a historical period of Germanization, which brought about a "Revival" movement to save the Czech language. The new interest in the Czech language had many positive sides. The language was returned to literature, education and science; it was studied and described. Unfortunately, in the 18th and 19th centuries, linguistic traditions excluded the study of spoken language as such, and therefore also the language of uneducated (mostly illiterate) rural communities. These had little contact with the German-speaking urban communities, and German had far less influence on their language than on the language of urban working class people and of the educated middle classes. In fact, most of the "Revival" movement leaders were not native speakers of the Czech language, and their Czech was the written language of the pre-Habsburg Empire. As a result, our present linguistic tradition is highly prescriptive: language is seen as something that has to be looked after all the time, something to be learnt and kept pure. Changes are not considered natural, they are either allowed or disallowed, depending on what the Czech Academy of Sciences decides. The gap between the language people use and the language prescribed can no longer be simply described as non-standard versus standard or as uneducated versus educated.

2. Foreign language policy in Czech education and society

There is a long tradition of foreign languages in our education, as the number of speakers of Czech has never exceeded 10 million. Until World War II, German was the most widespread - indeed, it was compulsory at secondary school-, followed by French. English was a new language that was first taught only at business-oriented secondary schools. After the war, Russian was the only compulsory foreign language in public compulsory education for several decades, except for a short period before 1968. A few secondary schools also offered options, mostly German and English, from the beginning of the 1960s. Russian remained compulsory in the school system until 1989, at which point it was replaced by English or German. Gradually the pupils' parents have been given more choice, limited mainly by the availability of suitable teachers. Many secondary schools today have two compulsory foreign languages, with schools in larger cities offering a broader choice, including French, Spanish and Italian. The official policy is for all children to learn two foreign languages before the age of 14. At this point, the nine-year so-called "basic schools" must

provide 5 years of instruction on one foreign language. Schools with extended language curricula offer two foreign languages, one of which begins two years earlier. The number of lessons per week also exceeds the required minimum of three. Schools have been struggling with a lack of foreign language teachers. One foreign language is a compulsory subject at school-leaving examinations (maturita) in most secondary schools. Although the quality of teaching has improved over the last ten years, the proficiency of secondary school-leavers varies considerably depending on the type of secondary school and on the school management policy. The Ministry of Education is introducing the so-called "external maturita" project to maintain comparable standards in all subjects across the country. However, the project does not seem to cover changes in teacher education. Except in large cities, neither the students nor the teachers have contact with foreign languages outside school. The long and successful tradition of dubbing films and TV programmes will be hard to break, among other reasons because it creates well-paid jobs for a relatively small but influential community. Study visits abroad remain an opportunity for a privileged few, as funding comes entirely from international sources.

For ten years, English language teaching enjoyed strong support from the British Council, especially at primary and middle school level, through teacher training projects covering mostly modern methodology and language improvement. Unfortunately, the Czech Ministry of Education appears to have taken this for granted, and no measures have been taken to maintain the standards in teacher training in the future.

Besides the foreign language teaching provided free of charge for all children at school, numerous private language schools offer a rapidly expanding variety of courses for children and adults alike. The courses for adults include company training for employees.

3. English in the university context

Some universities offer degree courses for students majoring in English philology, as well as English courses for all their students, while all universities offer ESP courses to all their students. Students must pass entrance examinations for all Czech universities. The exams include a foreign language component, generally English or German, for all students (applicants to philological departments have different entrance requirements). The reform in the school-leaving examination system

should provide the universities with reliable information on the applicant's language skills without further entrance testing.

Over the past ten years, all universities, including technical universities, have paid much more attention to foreign languages. They offer a broad choice of foreign language courses, with all graduates now expected to attain a certain level of language skills. These changes have been strongly conditioned by the requirements of potential future employers. Some universities, so far mostly the Faculties of Medicine, offer university courses for foreign students where English is the medium of instruction.

Arts Faculties have departments specialized in translation studies, offering degree courses for translators and interpreters. Recently some newly-established institutions started offering lower degree courses with English learning focused on management, tourism, etc. Three-year lower degree majors, so-called "fasttrack courses", were introduced for foreign language teachers (mostly English). The idea was so alien to our school system and its legal requirements that the problems in schools soon put an end to the experiment.

Teachers of English at all levels of public education (including universities) are mainly Czech. Native speakers of English are far more numerous in private language schools, which can offer more attractive salaries.

Examinations, both at schools and universities, are traditionally oral. Written tests were recently introduced on a large scale, but essay writing is not considered vital for Czech students, either in their mother tongue or in a foreign language, and the relevant skills are not taught at school.

4. The study of English as a major

There is a relatively short tradition of English Philology in our Faculties of Arts, as the first Chair at Charles University in Prague was only founded by Professor Mathesius in the early 20th century. The English departments offer degree courses in linguistics and literature, plus a so-called "teaching option", which provides graduates with the qualifications to teach at secondary schools. Primary and middle school teachers of English attend courses in the Faculties of Education, where

the study programmes in the English departments include lectures and seminars in English linguistics, British and American literature, ELT methodology and courses in language skills, and practice teaching in schools. Like students of any other subject, they have to take courses and pass exams in two other foreign languages. Their degree courses include programmes in the departments of Psychology and Pedagogy. Single majors are exceptional. In the Faculties of Arts, the combinations of subjects cover only the humanities, while in the Faculties of Education, the combinations can cover all school subjects.

Faculties of Arts offer five-year double major degree courses, while Faculties of Education offer four-year double major (and exceptionally single major) degree courses. Both faculties have entrance examinations, although they differ greatly. Faculties of Arts require knowledge of grammar, literature, and a general knowledge of British and American history, culture and institutions, as an indication of the candidate's serious interest in English Philology. Faculties of Education have entrance examinations based on language skills and general reading experience. The applicants should have an intermediate to upper-intermediate level, as secondary school-leavers have had eight or more years of English at school.

Some faculties have already introduced the European credit system, while others are preparing for its introduction.

Generally speaking, the courses in the Faculties of Arts take a more traditional, literature-oriented approach, while the Faculties of Education are more methodology-oriented, both in linguistic and literary disciplines. Native speakers of English are rare in both faculties. The students in the Faculties of Arts have to go through a careful entrance selection process, while Faculties of Education have to accept students with good, rather than excellent standards. Compulsory school education must be provided for all children and the State must have an adequate number of teachers: for this, the onus is on the Faculties of Education.

The British English standard is gradually giving way not so much to American, Canadian or Australian English, but rather to international standards. At school, there is no official preference, while the Faculties of Education must keep in closer touch with reality than the more scholarly-oriented Faculties of Arts.

Students tend to seek opportunities to spend longer periods of time in the USA, rather than in Britain, although Australia is becoming quite popular among male students. Only a fraction of our students have the opportunity to enjoy one-term international programmes or one-year stays at foreign universities. Au pairing is the prevailing form of self-supporting long-term stays abroad, for young women and men alike.

4. The Status of English in Finland

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1. Sociolinguistic and educational background

Finland is a bilingual country. It was part of Sweden for about 700 years and although the Swedish-speaking minority now numbers only about six percent, both Finnish and Swedish have the status of official languages. The Swedish population, numbering about 300,000, is concentrated along the coast in the south and west and has its roots partly in the administrative upper classes of early centuries, but also in the farmers and fishermen in the coastal areas. Swedish used to be considered an upper-class language, but since the early 20th century, the social structure of the Swedish-speaking Finns has been no different from that of the Finnish speakers.

The Swedish speakers have separate schools and a Swedish-language university, Åbo Akademi. Helsinki University is also bilingual. The relation between the language groups is free from conflicts, as is demonstrated by the fact that Finnish speakers or complete bilinguals by family background make up more than 20% of the student body at Swedish-language schools as well as at university level.

The official status of Swedish and the absence of serious language problems in the country do not, however, mean that all, or even most, Finns can speak Swedish. In fact, most Finns, especially young ones, are much more fluent in English than in Swedish. In the Finnish educational system the choice of the first L2, at the age of nine, is open, as long as a sufficient number of students opt for a particular language. The popularity of English is shown by the fact that more than 90% of Finnish nine-year-olds (or their parents) choose English at this stage. Less than 4% opt for Swedish or German, and less than 2% for French. In the school-leaving examination at the age of 19, students have to write at least two languages apart from their L1. In nearly all cases, the languages are English and Swedish, and quite a few take an exam in German or French as well. Most Finns these days have had ten years of English when they take the school-leaving exam. Some 60% reach this stage, which is a basic requirement for university studies, though good results do not guarantee university entrance, as universities have their

own additional entrance exams. Less than half of school-leavers can get into a (traditional) university. As a result, nowadays vocational institutions, many of which have recently been accorded university status, provide places for many of the other school-leavers, while a relatively small proportion go to a university abroad.

Ten years of English at school should ensure reasonable language proficiency, and most school-leavers certainly have a fairly good command of the language, oral as well as written. Those who study other subjects than languages at university generally have to pass an exam showing their competence in English, but the starting level here is generally high and the so-called university language centres actually teach more German and French, since these languages are far less known. The language centres are an important part of traditional universities in Finland. They cater for all language teaching outside the actual language departments, and all university students, regardless their field of study, must document knowledge of at least two other languages than their L1.

English teaching in Finland is in a favourable position not only because the importance of knowing English is generally recognized, but also because English is the dominant language of pop culture as well as of TV programmes (which are subtitled, not dubbed).
English-only satellite TV is also very popular among young people. In schools, the grammar-translation method was the prevailing choice until the mid-seventies, primarily because the school-leaving exam comprised only translation from and into the foreign language. When a more comprehensive type of exam was introduced at that time, teaching also changed, above all paying more attention to oral skills. For practical reasons, however, oral production is still not included in the school-leaving exam. In most, if not all schools, explicit grammar teaching still has an important position. Native speakers of English as teachers at school level are few and far between.

Immersion teaching in Finnish schools started on a systematic basis in 1987. At that time, it was natural to concentrate on Swedish, since native speaker competence was available in many parts of the country. Today it is estimated that more than 3,000 Finnish students are involved in Swedish immersion programmes. Due to the general success of these programmes, experiments also started in the nineties with mostly partial immersion programmes in English, but the number of these, though

increasing, is still quite limited, partly because the number of native English speakers within the educational system before university level is very limited.

2. University departments of English

In all Finnish university English departments, the medium of instruction is English throughout. In the Finnish university system, at least two and usually three subjects must be studied, making exclusive concentration on English language and literature impossible. Most of those who take English study it as their main subject, and are also required to write an M.A. thesis of some 70 to 90 pages on a linguistic or literary topic. After a recent university reform, students should be able to complete their degree in five years, but since many students take jobs during the later part of their studies, the time of study often exceeds this norm.

At most universities, English is the most popular subject within the humanities. This is also shown by the large number of candidates taking part in the various department entrance exams in English, which in many cases today are both proficiency- and content-based. Less than half (and at some universities considerably less) of the applicants are accepted. The final choice is based partly on the general results in school reports and the school-leaving exam, partly on the special entrance exam. Thus the starting level of proficiency is high, and while the first years of studies generally involve some concrete proficiency teaching, students during their last years are expected to manage without these contact hours and to develop their proficiency to near-native level by reading and by frequent writing of essays on language and/or literature.

While proficiency teaching does not take up a very large proportion of the contact hours, students are tested on their mastery of both oral and written productive proficiency. Receptive skills are generally not tested since students master these reasonably well at the outset of their studies. The geographical variation is mostly taught in a special course. British as well as American native speakers generally make up about half of the teaching staff at a Finnish university English Department.

Apart from the proficiency component, the syllabus comprises a language component (linguistics, history of English, in most departments also second language acquisition), a literature component

and a ‘realia’ component (history, society, education and media in both the UK and the USA). The proportion of these components varies between the universities, but generally the linguistic component is the dominant one. Nearly all departments also require a compulsory stay in an English-speaking country, varying between 4 and 8 weeks. Many universities make use of the possibility of sending groups of their students to be taught at universities in Britain or the US. Students can specialize in linguistics or literature if they, as most do, take English as their main, and not their secondary subject. The main responsibility of English departments is to train teachers of English for Finnish schools, and this is done in collaboration with the Faculties of Education. Some universities also train translators and interpreters of English, but this is done by units separate from the English departments.

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5. The Status of English in Germany

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English is undoubtedly the most prominent foreign language in Germany. It is overwhelmingly – though not exclusively – taught as the first FL in secondary schools, and as efforts to implement foreign language teaching in primary schools are already underway, it will undoubtedly obtain a similarly predominant position there. While Germany shares this state of affairs with most parts of the non-Anglophone Western world, there are some peculiarities to the German sociolinguistic and educational situation that deserve further attention.

1. Linguistic diversity

With its one official language, Germany appears to be a relatively uniform speech community. Yet this uniformity is only superficial: Danish and Sorbian are both officially recognized as indigenous minority languages and Frisian and Low German could also be included in this category (all four together c. 270,000 speakers). In addition, immigrant languages, most notably Turkish, Serbo-Croat and – of late – Russian, have gained in importance within society and the educational system, with an estimated 7.5 million speakers. For a considerable number of beginners, therefore, English is not the second but rather the third language, and this is not even counting those who choose, for example, French or Latin as their first foreign language at school. In these circumstances, we can hardly speak of a homogeneous learning context, either within the classroom or throughout the various schools and regions.

Furthermore, there is considerable variation within what is commonly referred to as 'the German language'. The country itself has always been characterized by its regional variations, linguistically, culturally and politically. Regional identities are strong and regional accents and dialects are diverse and relatively stable. The vast majority of Germans, including those who see themselves as standard speakers, tend to have regional features even in careful pronunciation (König 1994:245). This has its effects on FL pedagogy: it has repeatedly been asserted that, for the acquisition of pronunciation at least, the ability (not the willingness!) to accommodate 'up' and 'down' in one's native

language, i.e. to a more 'standard-like' as well as to a more (socio-)regional accent, is a strong favourable indicator. Likewise, there have been numerous investigations into regionally-conditioned 'interference' in English as a second language; in fact, it is very hard to recognise a 'common core' in German speakers' English accents. The stereotypical German accent belongs to northern and north-western Germans, while Bavarians or Saxons, for example, have an altogether different accent, especially as far as vowel qualities are concerned. It is dubious, however, whether such L1-induced variation exists in *written* 'German English' as well. Regional variations in this case would more likely be due to differences in the respective educational systems.

2. Educational diversity

Given the federal structure of Germany, i.e. its division into 16 federal states (*Bundesländer*), and the fact that education is the most important prerogative of the individual states (*'Kultushoheit der Länder'*), there are marked differences in the respective educational contexts. This regional diversity dictates why, how and which foreign languages are learnt and used. There are, for example, regional affiliations with neighbouring languages – as in the case of French in Saarland and parts of Baden-Württemberg – or historical affiliations, such the links of Hamburg and Niedersachsen with English (although such affiliations have started to give way to the world-wide predominance of English). However, the educational traditions and idiosyncrasies of the various *Bundesländer* themselves predetermine FL teaching to an even greater extent.

From an organizational point-of-view, the educational systems differ mainly at the secondary level and in terms of how far they have incorporated comprehensive-type schooling. As there is not enough space to go into greater detail here, the rule of thumb is: the politically more liberal *Länder*, such as North-Rhine Westphalia and Bremen, have introduced a large number of comprehensive schools (*Gesamtschulen*), while more conservative ones, such as Bayern and Baden-Württemberg, have largely preserved the traditional tri-partite secondary system which streams pupils into (from bottom to top) *Hauptschule*, *Realschule* and *Gymnasium* at the age of ten. Yet it must be noted that all pupils across the country – irrespective of schooling – are required to learn at least one foreign language, while those aspiring to *Abitur*, the *Gymnasium's* school-leaving certificate, must learn at

least two and often three foreign languages. In 1994, 96% of all pupils had learnt English at some stage in their schooling (cf Bliesener 2000).

Finally, the former division of Germany further complicates the issue. Over the last ten years, Eastern Germany has seen a rapid and fundamental move from Russian to English as its first and predominant foreign language. In this respect, too, the two former German states have converged considerably. Incidentally, the East has once again had to adapt to Western circumstances with the Eastern *Länder* largely adopting the Western curricula. Yet initially, this drastic overturn met with major obstacles: there were huge deficits in teacher training, both quantitatively and qualitatively. In the days of the GDR, learning and using English was, in typical 'dialectic' manner, officially discouraged but still institutionalised. Travelling was difficult and authentic English-language media and literature were not readily available on a wider scale. Despite such hindrances at the outset, however, recent developments are very encouraging: initial lack of experience and target language exposure has often been offset by a surplus of enthusiasm.

3. *Abitur* and English language teaching

The distinction between traditionally liberal and conservative *Länder* is also evident in their respective educational aims and values. In Bayern and Sachsen, for example, the *Gymnasium* tends to be more canonic, more geared towards formal structures and encyclopedic knowledge – perhaps even more elitist – than in the more left-wing *Bundesländer*. The latter tend to focus more on real-world, everyday skills than on the traditional notion of *Bildung*. This also affects English language teaching: grammar and literature, for example, do not receive equal attention everywhere, and what are felt to be 'formal mistakes' are likewise dealt with in different ways. Despite these divergences, however, there is a large common core of standards to which every federal state has agreed to adhere and which is laid down in a charter called *Einheitliche Prüfungsanforderungen* (*EPA*). These standards guarantee an acceptable degree of unity within the diversity of the federal system.

The German subcorpus of ICLE (G-ICLE) only contains essays written by university students of English who all had to take the *Abitur* in order to get into university. The term *Abitur* can be loosely translated as 'A-Levels': while in the British system, students only follow their preferred

special (A-Level) subjects in the last two years of secondary education, German students also have to take a large number of subsidiary subjects along with their two special subjects. In these last two years, there is a kind of 'selective' continuous assessment leading up to the final examinations which are taken in the two special subjects (*Leistungskurse*) and two subsidiary subjects (*Grundkurse*). Since 1997, one foreign language has to be taken through to the *Abitur* as either *Grund-* or *Leistungskurs*. While this is usually English, there is no guarantee that a university student of English actually took English in his or her last two years at school. Ideally, they would have taken it as a *Leistungskurs,* which would mean five hours of English per week.

Despite the large amount of continuous assessment for the *Abitur*, the finals still cause a considerable degree of 'washback' (i.e. they influence, and even dominate, a large amount of the classroom activities leading up to them), which lends them a significance that goes beyond the individual exams themselves. Unfortunately, there is even more diversity in the way these are administered. There are some states, such as Bayern, Baden-Württemberg and Sachsen, which have central administrations; this means that all *Abitur* candidates in one year sit the same exam, set by the Ministry of Education. The advantages of such a uniform exam are obvious: it helps to enforce the same standards at all schools, to objectify assessment and to promote state-wide comparability, thus providing a controlling element for the teachers. On the downside, a centrally set examination also increases washback by forcing the teachers to spend their time preparing *potential* exams rather than preparing exams that reflect the proceedings of the course *post hoc*. In non-central administrations, there is much greater pedagogical flexibility, but also – so critics say – little overall quality control. The German states are divided by the debate as to which system is more desirable, and this divide roughly correlates with that of the traditionally liberal versus conservative *Länder* mentioned earlier.

All states, however, share the common denominator that secondary EFL teaching is becoming increasingly text-based and thematically oriented towards the final exams and that the oral component is regrettably under-emphasized in *Abitur* assessment. Even where oral tasks are included, they are predominantly cognitive rather than communicative. In the face of washback, such an examination practice makes it difficult to pursue a communicative methodology in the higher years, which in turn results in deficits not only in oral communication,

but also in stylistic competence. For example, school-leavers have an insufficient grasp of the conventions of spoken versus written English, not to mention the multiple varieties of English. Exposure to largely text-based teaching at worst leads to stilted and unidiomatic EFL production, at best to a rather de-contextualised command of English. On the plus side, most *Leistungskurs*-leavers have a reliable command of cognitive grammar; their vocabulary, especially at the more formal end of the scale, is usually broad and diversified, and their spelling largely conforms with convention – often more so than that of native writers of the same age.

4. English language teaching at university level

At tertiary level, English is taught in a variety of contexts, philological and otherwise. In view of its outstanding importance as a medium of international communication, and given that there are very few disciplines in which international contact is irrelevant, it is easy to see how EFL also plays a role in non-linguistic and non-literary degrees. Indeed most academic subjects explicitly, optionally or at least potentially include an English language component. This applies to universities as well as *Fachhochschulen*, which roughly correspond to Britain's former Polytechnic Colleges.

In non-philological contexts, EFL typically consists of a mixture of general language skills and specialized task- and subject-oriented elements, all incorporated under the heading of 'English for Special Purposes' (ESP). The exact nature and amount of ESP instruction depends on its significance for the respective subjects and on the faculties' ability and willingness to provide the necessary resources. At the upper extreme, there are even efforts to introduce English-language courses in economics and technological subjects – mostly taught by Germans in what is meant to be 'International English'. Linguistically, of course, this is a highly dubious undertaking, but it mirrors the rather naive view of the English language and its perceived 'easiness' among the many people who use English professionally. Yet since such courses have already been implemented at several German universities, there seems to be a patent need for International English to make the courses more 'globally compatible'. In response, some linguists have begun to advocate the teaching of an international, non-native variety of English.

Those university courses which explicitly focus on English language and literature fall roughly into three categories, leading to (a) special-skills degrees in translation and interpreting, (b) the degree of *Magister Artium* (*MA*), and (c) teaching degrees (*Staatsexamina*) qualifying to teach English at the various types of schools mentioned above. The contributors to G-ICLE are students of categories (b) and/or (c).

The degree of *Magister* (b) typically requires a minimum of four years' study and includes one or two sub-disciplines of *Anglistik* (English Studies), such as English or American Literature, English Linguistics and TEFL Theory (*Didaktik*). Some universities have also recently introduced shorter Bachelor's Degree programmes as well. Both types of courses are entirely at the respective faculties' discretion and regrettably differ enormously in the amount and quality of practical language training. This has led to a state of affairs where an MA degree is generally not seen as a reliable indicator of actual English-language skills. For G-ICLE this is fortunately not an issue, as almost all the student contributions were sampled at the University of Augsburg, where MA students are required to take the same practical language training as those who study to become teachers of English at *Gymnasium* level.

A teaching degree (c) typically requires about six hours of practical language training per week in the lower years, ranging from grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation classes to essay writing, translation, oral exercises and *Landeskunde* (cultural studies). Practical language training is almost exclusively taught by native speakers of English. In addition, students take introductory seminars in the academic sub-disciplines of *Anglistik* mentioned above. These latter classes are predominantly, though not exclusively, taught in German. In years three and four, the subjects studied remain largely the same with increasing emphasis on academic research. Around mid-course, students usually spend a period of six months or one academic year in an English-speaking country, studying or working as language assistants. This stay abroad is not obligatory, but it is strongly encouraged: in practice, it is widely accepted that students who do not go abroad will stand little chance of entering the state school system. In terms of English-language skills, the system tacitly acknowledges three basic tenets of advanced foreign language pedagogy:

(1) In the later stages, language proficiency cannot really be 'taught'; it can only be actively acquired, and it is this process which can and should be structured and facilitated.
(2) Language acquisition, especially at a more advanced age and stage, can be seen as interaction between cognitive structuring and communicative practice, here provided as a combination of formal instruction and immersion into the target-language environment.
(3) Learners differ as to which of the two components is more beneficial to them; for optimal effect, however, both are indispensable.

At the end of their course, future teachers of English take their first state examination – which again differs substantially from one *Bundesland* to another – and leave university for two years of teacher training (*Referendariat*). Teacher training culminates in the second, mainly practical state examination; the combination of both exams gives the overall mark which ultimately decides whether or not a given candidate is accepted as teacher of English at a German state school.

5. Summing up

The preceding sections have attempted to sketch the diverse conditions under which English is taught and learnt in the German educational system. The main emphasis has been on higher education, the context which fostered the contributions for G-ICLE. Given the limited space available, this has necessarily led to a number of notable omissions: little has been said about teaching methodology and nothing about EFL in non-academic professional training and the private sector, for example.

Yet one thing should have become clear: the educational conditions in Germany are notoriously variable across the country, for English language learning as much as for other subjects. In this view, it would certainly be rewarding – albeit hardly practicable – to sample and analyze G-ICLE 'sub-subcorpora' from the various *Länder* of the Federal Republic of Germany. Such nationwide comparisons are sorely needed to detect the deficiencies in each system and to effect the necessary changes. To date, the only instrument for cross-federal analysis is the national foreign language competition (*Bundeswettbewerb Fremdsprachen*). Even this competition is not

promoted equally in all German states, and until very recently, comparing results from one *Bundesland* to another was not officially sanctioned.

If properly monitored, German educational diversity could be one of the great strengths of the federal system, generating healthy competition between the different systems. Likewise, a gradually uniting Europe will increasingly thrive on the multiplicity of its regions. For English as a foreign language, the future may even see the emergence and general acceptance of different varieties of non-native English. Meanwhile, however, the aforesaid must suffice as an approximation of the 'common core' of English language teaching in Germany.

Further reading:

- Bausch, K-R., Christ, H. and Krumm H-J., eds (1995) *Handbuch Fremdsprachenunterricht*. Tübingen: Francke.

For the status and objectives of English as a foreign language at German schools see 'Englisch' by K. Knapp (pp 365-9), for foreign language teaching at German schools see pp 104-118 (I. Gogolin, W. Arnold and K. Schröder), and for foreign language training at university level see 'Fremdsprachen an Hochschulen' by K. Vogel (pp 118-24) and 'Fremdsprachenunterricht an Hochschulen' by H. Pürschel (pp 528-31).

- Bliesener, U. (2000) *Fremdsprachenunterricht in Deutschland* (= *FMF-Schriften* 5). Berlin: FMF & Langenscheidt.

A state-of-the-art report of foreign language teaching in Germany, covering the political preconditions and presuppositions governing the system, educational and curricular implications of FL teaching, as well as recent trends in, and future requirements for, teaching practice and teacher training.

- Finkenstaedt, T. and Schröder, K. (1992) *Sprachen im Europa von morgen*. Berlin: Langenscheidt.

A far-reaching yet accessible essay on the implications and requirements of FL learning and teaching in the European context, with particular emphasis on the educational goal of *Rezeptive Mehrsprachigkeit* ('receptive multilingualism').

- König, W. ([10]1994) *dtv-Atlas zur deutschen Sprache. Tafeln und Texte*. München: DeutscherTaschenbuch Verlag.

A concise introduction to the history and structure of the German language, with maps and statistics; see in particular for the dialects and varieties of present-day German.

- Schröder, K.,(ed.) (1992) *Situation und Probleme des Fremdsprachenunterrichts und der Fremdsprachenlehrerausbildung in den Neuen Bundesländern. Anspruch – Wirklichkeit – Entwicklungsmöglichkeiten*. Augsburg: Universität.

Proceedings of a colloquium on foreign language teaching and teacher training – past, present and future – in Eastern Germany. In particular, see 'Anspruch und Wirklichkeit des Fremdsprachenunterrichts vor und nach der Wende aus der Sicht einer Lehrerin' by S. Exner (pp 16-20), as well as 'Universitäre Fremdsprachenvermittlung im Umbruch. Unter Berücksichtigung der Lehrerausbildung' by K. Hengst (pp 52-9), and 'Anglistik und Englischlehrerausbildung vor und nach der Wende: Verstand und Unverstand' by W. Strauß (pp 118-24).

- Timm, J-P., (ed) (1998) *Englisch lehren und lernen*. Berlin: Cornelsen.

See 'Englischunterricht heute: Perspektiven für morgen' by W. Zydatiß (pp 15-21) for the present state and future prospects of English language teaching, as well as the various sections on methodology and skills training.

6. The Status of English in Italy

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1. The sociolinguistic situation of Italy

The official language of Italy is Italian, which is currently used by the vast majority of its nearly 58 million inhabitants, despite the remaining cases of adult illiteracy and the recent wave of extra-European immigration, which has created a growing need for Italian as a second language in education. Several minority languages are recognized in bilingual areas such as French in *Valle d'Aosta*, German *in Alto Adige*, Slovenian in *Venezia Giulia* along with Sardinian, Ladin, Albanian and Occitanian, which are used in some small, very old communities.

Italian became the national language of the country only after the birth of the unitary state in 1870, with a marked difference remaining between the learned written literary and bureaucratic registers and the more popular spoken ones. The strong tradition of local dialects has gradually evolved into regional forms of Italian. Even educated people do not use a standard pronunciation, like the British Received Pronunciation, RP or the General American, GA. Pronunciation rather reflects the different cultures and local traditions that even a unified Italy has not cancelled out. The process of national standardization for written Italian has been increasing in speed since the 1950s through compulsory education, media (especially the radio and later television) and internal immigration due to the industrial development in many Northern areas. This type of standard Italian is often labelled as "average/general Italian" ("Italiano medio").

Italian is a Romance language, still deeply imbued with its Latin and Greek roots. Its development is not controlled by any authoritative institution such as the *Académie Française*. The Florentine *Accademia della Crusca*, which used to play this role in the 16th century, is now no more than a prestigious scholarly institution without any strongly explicit normative role. The Fascist linguistic policy, which lasted until 1945 and was nationalistic to the point of banning the use of foreign words, was the last example of prescriptivism. The present attitude of acceptance of foreign words, mainly from American English and British English, can be interpreted as a reaction to that purist historical

phase. Today some speakers of Italian feel that the large number of English words is the sign of the economic and cultural subordination of Italy to the United States, which may prove dangerous to the "integrity" of the Italian language, while others see this as a sign of the openness and vitality of contemporary Italian.

2. Foreign language policy in Italian education and society

At the beginning of the 21st century, while English is not compulsory in education, it is actually the most widely studied and requested foreign language in Italy. In the 1980s it replaced French as the most popular foreign language in the public school system, and is now taught in both primary and secondary schools along with a very limited number of other European languages, such as Spanish, German and Russian.

The widespread achievement of a high level of competence in the use of foreign languages in Italian society has been delayed partly because of the need to promote standard Italian at the expense of dialects and partly because of the centrality of classical languages in élite education. These educational and cultural priorities may also explain the choice of dubbing films and TV programmes, which is still the rule in Italy, rather than subtitling them.

Since the 1990s, the levels of proficiency in English at the end of secondary education have improved steadily. However, they still vary considerably depending on the type of school attended (classical, scientific, technical, professional and modern language secondary schools), the years of study (from a maximum of 10-12 to 3 to none), the opportunities for study visits abroad, the quality of the teaching received and the objectives and the methodology adopted, ranging from the communicative approach that is common in primary and middle school to the prevailing emphasis on the reading and translation of literary or ESP texts in secondary schools.

Thanks to the new reform of primary and secondary education, which will be gradually introduced over the next few years, Italy is coming closer to satisfying the European requirements, that is competence in two European foreign languages, besides the mother tongue, in compulsory education, starting from the earliest classes.

3. English in the university context

The study of English at university in Italy takes place in two different contexts: that of future specialists in foreign languages, cultures and literature, and that of future specialists in other subjects who study English for professional or academic purposes in different fields such as economics, science, medicine or communication studies.

In the former context, the prevailing Italian tradition has been humanistic and focused mainly on literary, historical and philological contents and methods, with practical competence in the use of the language subordinate to this tradition. The standard four-year degree was named "Foreign Languages and Literature", but was actually more literature than language oriented.

As for most university degrees in Italy after 1968, access to the foreign language and literature degree has not been limited in terms of *numerus clausus* or entrance standards. Compulsory attendance cannot be officially required. While these choices may appear to be very student-friendly and 'democratic', they have certainly made it difficult to plan effective and efficient foreign language teaching. Over the years, the more general consequences have been a very high drop-out rate, a prolongation of university studies for a high percentage of students and rather different, often unsatisfactory final standards of achievement in all subjects and also in foreign language use.

There are very few public professional schools that offer separate training for interpreters and translators. Such schools require both the passing of a selective entrance exam and compulsory attendance. Finally, some schools, both public and private, offer students three-year diploma courses in the practical use of foreign languages in the fields of tourism, business and international communication.

English has rarely been used as the medium of instruction for specialists of other subjects in Italy. However, since handbooks and research papers in many academic fields are written in English, faculties such as Medicine and Engineering require a certain level of competence in English reading skills in specialized subjects. Some of them, such as the Faculties of Science, Economics and Political Sciences, have traditionally proved to be more sensitive to the teaching of English for academic purposes than others such as Law and Arts.

The recently passed university reform adopts the prevailing European framework of a three-year first degree, followed by a two-year specialized degree and by MAs and PhDs. The role of foreign languages has been reinforced in many ways, by making compulsory competence in at least one foreign European language in all degrees and by recognizing the scientific status of the subject called "English Language/Linguistics" as separate from "English literature".

4. The study of English as a specialist subject

English is never studied on its own but always in combination with another foreign language and culture in order to encourage a comparative approach. Until now, no entry level of competence in English could be required officially. However, students are increasingly expected to have an intermediate competence in English when they enter university: indeed, this will become the rule under the new university reform.

For specialists, English is taught for either 4 or 3 years (the reform will soon introduce the European credit system) through a variety of courses and seminars on literary, cultural, historical and linguistic topics. In many universities, basic courses are offered in Contemporary English and the History of the English language along with more specialized courses about different areas of English or textual analysis. Usually these courses are taught by permanent staff; they are initially given in Italian and in the more advanced stages of the curriculum in English. As in the Italian university tradition, most exams are oral, although written evaluation and tests may be used if so chosen by the lecturers.

Practical classes in English are given by special staff who have been hired as native speakers of English and who work under the supervision of permanent staff. Since the 1970s, such human resources and other resources such as language centres have been promoted in most Italian universities in order to raise the students' standards of practical competence in the use of foreign languages. Practical classes are usually taught for 4/6 hours a week during the academic year for a total of 90 to 120 hours per year. The students' growing competence in English is tested in many ways, either on the four skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing in relation to a variety of literary and non-literary written and oral genres and/or in relation to the ability to read, analyse

and translate literary texts or to present and discuss linguistic issues. A typical component of the 3rd and 4th years is the writing of argumentative essays, either about literary or general cultural and social issues, which have been collected for the ICLE project.

The EFL methodology is often communication-oriented and is linked mainly to the teaching and testing traditions of English-speaking countries, which are particularly rich and influential. The British standard has ceased to be the only accepted model as was the case 20 years ago, and both professors and lectors now use their own native standard, be it British English, American English, Canadian or Australian English, or even international standards. However, British English remains the most widespread model among secondary school teachers and students because of geographical proximity and tradition. The choice of a model is influenced by students' study visits abroad. A period abroad is strongly recommended, but not compulsory. However, the percentage of students who choose to spend a term or a year in a foreign university through the Socrates exchange programme is continually on the rise.

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7. The Status of English in The Netherlands

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1. Sociolinguistic situation

The official language spoken in The Netherlands (population 16 million) is Dutch. Most of the regional and urban dialects (Weijnen (1941) distinguishes 7 main regional dialects) are mutually intelligible, although speakers from geographically distant regions have more problems understanding each other. Standard Dutch is taught at all primary and secondary schools in The Netherlands.

> Frisian has been given a special status: it is recognised as a separate language. It is spoken only in the province of Friesland, in the north of the country (over 600,000 inhabitants), by an estimated 400,000 people. Most speakers of Frisian these days are bilingual. Frisian is taught as a second language in primary and secondary schools in Friesland.

There are an estimated 3 million non-native inhabitants, approximately half from so-called "Western" countries and half from "non-Western" countries. The arrival of large numbers of migrant workers in the 1960s and 1970s, particularly from Mediterranean countries, led to the emergence of a number of minority languages. There are currently an estimated 300,000 Turkish and an estimated 250,000 Moroccan inhabitants. In a growing number of primary schools, these languages are also formally taught to children from these language backgrounds.

English is not used as an official (second) language. In a growing number of multinational corporations in The Netherlands, however, English is used as the language of communication, increasingly also for internal purposes.[34]

[34] For a recent study into the genres and discourse strategies in English used by Dutch writers working in multinational corporations, see Nickerson (2000).

2. Foreign language policy

Traditionally, three foreign languages, English, French and German, were compulsorily taught and tested at secondary schools (all levels, except lower vocational schools). Since the early 1970s, when the secondary school system underwent a massive overhaul, secondary school pupils have been obliged to take a minimum of one foreign language up to examination level. Most pupils who do not wish to specialise in languages choose English as their one and only foreign language. In many schools, it is *de facto* the compulsory foreign language. In a small number of secondary schools, Spanish or Russian is taught on an experimental basis.

In the late 1980s, it was decided that English should be taught from the penultimate years of primary school, which has given English a special status in foreign language teaching.[35] Children are now formally taught English from age 10, which means that depending on the type of secondary school they attend, the Dutch are taught English for at least six to eight years.

It should also be noted that the Dutch, and especially Dutch children, are exposed to a great deal of English on Dutch television, which has always broadcast many English language (and especially American) programmes. Foreign language programmes on Dutch television (and foreign language films in Dutch cinemas) are never dubbed, but always subtitled. Everybody in The Netherlands agrees that, while the preference for subtitling is largely economically motivated (it is cheaper than dubbing), the extra amount of exposure to the foreign language is an additional stimulus to the language learner's passive command of that language.

3. The university context and the status of English

English at tertiary level is taught as a full-time subject at universities or teacher training colleges. No special qualifications are required to enter university courses of English, other than the completion of the highest

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35 A similar situation used to exist for French, which was taught in the last two years of Dutch primary schools until the late 1960s, when it was abolished as a primary school course.

level of secondary school, or the successful completion of the first year of any tertiary vocational school. At other tertiary vocational training colleges, English is taught as a subsidiary course. In these cases, the English course is considered to be a continuation of the secondary school course. Contrary to practice in many countries, English is NOT taught as a subsidiary course in any other university programmes, such as law or social sciences.

As a subsidiary course in vocational training, English has no special status. Teacher training colleges offer a four-year programme leading up to a so-called "second grade teaching qualification", which qualifies graduates to teach English in the first three or four years of Dutch secondary schools. Universities also offer a four-year programme, but this is more academic in nature, devoted largely to literature and linguistics courses, and does not lead to any special teaching qualification. Instead, a university graduate can take a postgraduate teacher training programme (i.e. after the completion of the full four-year programme), which is a full year course leading to a first grade teacher qualification. This is a qualification for teaching English in all years of all types of secondary schools in The Netherlands.

English is not taught as a subject in any ESP or EAP courses at Dutch universities, because most university students will have acquired a sufficient command of English in secondary school to read any English literature on their subjects. Those academics wishing to acquire a more advanced command of English are sometimes offered writing courses on an individual basis.

4. The English curriculum in the humanities

English is taught both at university level and at teacher training level, as a four-year full-time course. In universities, the emphasis in the final two years is on English linguistics and/or literature, while the first two years have a more substantial language proficiency component. In teacher training colleges, the emphasis is on language proficiency and didactics.

Most university and teacher training college departments employ a number of native English-speaking staff, although there is no official policy and numbers tend to vary. Also, there is no official policy on the native model presented. Traditionally, it used to be the British model,

but American is increasingly common, in any case receptively. In some departments, e.g. in Nijmegen, there is a special "stream" in which students can take American phonetics, pronunciation, and listening and speaking courses, in parallel to courses on the British variant.

Individual universities and colleges naturally have their own specialties, but it is fair to say that all universities pay attention to the following:

- English proficiency
- Old English language and literature
- Middle English language and literature
- English (i.e. British) literature
- American literature
- Modern English linguistics

Each university makes its own selection of courses related to the above-mentioned fields, in terms of periods, areas, authors and/or subjects (e.g. 19th century English novel, Shakespeare, 20th century American drama, generative syntax).

Teacher training college graduates can take a special two-year university course leading to a university degree. This programme is mainly composed of literature and linguistics courses.

English language students at teacher training colleges are required to spend three months at a teacher training college in an English-speaking country. Students at universities are encouraged to spend six months or a full year in an English-speaking country. However, there are insufficient financial means to make a stay abroad a compulsory part of the university curriculum. As a result, fewer than 20 per cent of the university students of English actually stay abroad for an extended period of time.

5. Approaches in the teaching/learning of English

The teaching of English and other foreign languages in The Netherlands was based on the "grammar–translation" method until the early 1970s. The main emphasis was on grammatical theory and written proficiency, such as translation, composition and letter-writing. Grammar schools

also devoted time to the literature of the foreign language, mainly in the last two years of schooling. Hardly any attention was paid to oral skills.

From the mid-1970s the approach was more or less radically turned into a system placing great emphasis on so-called communicative skills. This meant that less attention was paid to grammatical theory, and more time was devoted to listening and reading skills and oral proficiency. The central school-leaving examination, which had thus far basically consisted of a translation test from L2 into Dutch, was replaced by a reading comprehension test, based on multiple-choice questions on a number of text fragments. The so-called "oral part" of the school-leaving exam, which had been an interview on a number of novels that the candidate had read, was replaced by a battery of tests, comprising listening tests, letter-writing, composition, and oral proficiency.

Although many English teachers consider that this approach has a number of drawbacks, it is still largely in use today. The latest development has been the introduction of the "studiehuis" (literally: *study house*) in the final years of secondary school, in which pupils are required to work on projects, both individually and in small groups, with regular tutorial-style sessions. The oral part of the examination has been replaced by a dossier system, which the pupil must complete before the central examination. There are plans to give the pupil a certain amount of freedom in determining the level at which various skills need to be mastered.

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Up-to-date information on the status of teaching in The Netherlands can be found at the official web site of the Dutch Ministry of Education at http://www.minocw.nl/onderwijs/index.html.

8. The Status of English in Poland

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1. Sociolinguistic situation of the country

In the aftermath of World War II (the Holocaust, Soviet-forced migrations), Poland became to a large extent a linguistically homogeneous country. The official language, Polish, is spoken by over 98.5% of the population. Minority groups have been largely Polonized, especially in cities. German descendants, the largest minority group, reside mainly in Silesia (the south-western region of Opole in particular), and only a few of them are German-speaking (0.2%). The two major Slavic minorities are Ukrainian (0.6%) and Belorussian (0.4%). The former group populates the north-western parts of the country, and, to a lesser extent, the south-east, where they are more conscious of their national heritage. The mid-eastern stretches of the country are home to communities of Belarusian as well as of Lithuanian origin. Since the withdrawal of the Russian garrisons from Poland after the collapse of the Warsaw Pact, there have been few Russian residents in the country. The Yiddish-speaking Jewish population, which was thriving prior to the last World War, is now minute and predominantly Polish-speaking.

Standard Polish is the dominant medium among Polish speakers. The amount of contemporary regional variation is limited. The most prominent dialects, preserved predominantly in the speech of older generations, are: Great Polish (mid-west), Pomeranian (north-west), Silesian (south), Little Polish (south-east), and Mazovian (mid-east). Kashubian (Cassubian), often classified as a Polish dialect, is, historically speaking, a separate language. Also, some characteristics of urban speech (*gwara miejska*) have occasionally been retained, mainly among older users, in cities such as Warsaw or Poznań.

Despite the growing recognition of and openness towards English, it has remained a foreign language in Poland and is not used in any official settings. However, English has become a much more living language than it once was, with steadily increasing numbers of English-speaking business people and tourists visiting the country. The last few years

have seen an unprecedented upsurge in the activities of British book publishers. The ongoing computerization and globalization in communications have likewise stimulated the proliferation of English, though currently the trend in the field is to target the Polish customer more directly, by using Polish. It may be disappointing for a Polish learner of English that many materials once only available in English are now released in Polish. Cable television channels, such as MTV or Eurosport, have now been Polonised, as have many popular software programs, for which menus and manuals are no longer available in English.

Language education, particularly in English, with its privileged status as the major language for the European Union and the native tongue in the only remaining world superpower, is perceived as a top priority by most Polish families, for whom knowledge of foreign tongues is a sine qua non for professional success in the future. Unfortunately, the reality is that the people have uneven access to the English medium and to English education. City-dwellers are in an obviously privileged position compared to poorer communities (especially in rural Poland), where ELT facilities may be scarce.

2. Foreign language policy in primary and secondary schools

Like in many other European countries, Poland's system of education remains under state supervision. While the running of the primary level institutions is the particular concern of local communities, the laws, curricula, personnel, and materials and partly also methods of instruction are determined by the Ministry of National Education and Sport. This is also true for private institutions (secondary schools, universities).

The primary and secondary levels of the Polish system of education are under reconstruction at the moment. This description recognizes these changes, but views them from the perspective of the conditions under which the Polish part of the ICLE corpus was developed (hereafter called PICLE). It will undoubtedly soon prove necessary to update the Polish sub-corpus, as not only the formal but also the informal settings of English use in Poland are changing rapidly.

Compulsory schooling begins at the age of seven. Until September 1999, the 8-year primary school programme (*szkoła podstawowa*) was

the first stage of education in Poland. After primary school, students could apply for admission to secondary schools: general middle schools (*liceum*, *liceum ogólnokształcące*, *liceum techniczne*, *technikum*) or middle vocational schools (*liceum zawodowe*, *szkoła zasadnicza*). Currently new types of schools are being introduced which offer 6 years of elementary education (primary school - *szkoła podstawowa*), 3 years of secondary general education (*gimnazjum*), 3 years of secondary specialized education (*liceum profilowane*), 2 years of vocational education (*szkoła zawodowa*) and 2 years of supplementary secondary general education (*liceum uzupełniające*). The transitional period, lasting until the spring of 2004, will feature elements of both the old and the new systems.

The architecture of the schooling system in Poland has been greatly affected by the consolidating segment of private education institutions. Today, not only private language schools, whose flagship is usually English, but also private secondary schools and universities run extensive and diversified foreign language programmes. Bilingual schools, which first opened in 1991, represent a growing, albeit fairly elitist type of secondary education. A rare but potential option to begin foreign language education as early as possible is to enrol in a private nursery school featuring e.g. English. However, the majority of learners follow the formal path as provided by the state-run schools.

Modern foreign languages are taught at Polish schools in obligatory as well as optional and extracurricular settings. Prior to the reform, obligatory courses in English began at the age of 11, i.e. in the fifth form of primary school (six 45-minute periods weekly, usually offered in three 90-minute blocks) and continued throughout the secondary level. At *liceum ogólnokształcące*, another obligatory foreign language course would be introduced (with a total of 18 weekly periods, or nine 90-minute blocks in total assigned to both languages). Under the reform, foreign language education begins one year earlier, i.e. in the fourth form of *szkoła podstawowa* (8 periods), and is developed further in *gimnazjum* (9 periods). *Liceum profilowane* will again offer courses in two foreign languages (10 periods for the first foreign language and six periods for the second one). These will be minimum requirements; both local authorities and school heads will be entitled to expand the offer within their respective powers.

English remains the most popular foreign language in Poland. One in two students in Poland has participated in some form of obligatory or optional ELT courses. Currently, on average, about 47% of all Polish school-learners take obligatory English courses (German - 31%, Russian - 16%, French - 4%), and about 5% take optional English lessons (German - 1.5%). There is an average 13% gap between attendance in the large cities and in rural Poland. However, the proportion of English learners has increased dramatically everywhere over the last 10 years. In 1990, only 14% were taking English lessons at school, in 1992 – 23%, in 1996 – 35%, in 1998 – 41%. The recent boost has also greatly affected German education (a change from 13% in 1990 through 25% in 1997 to 32% in 1999). French has retained its 4%-4.5% share of the FLL market; whereas Russian has suffered a major setback, its overall trend since 1990 mirroring in reverse that for English (52% in 1990; 34% – 1992; 22% – 1996; 16% – 1999).

Regionally, the percentage of English learners varies between under 40% in south-western Poland, where German enjoys a commanding position, to well over 55% in eastern and south-eastern Poland. Most of the essays in the PICLE corpus have been contributed by students of English at the Adam Mickiewicz University (AMU) in Poznań, which is located in the mid-west. This region (*Wielkopolska*), bordering on the western *Lubuskie* and south-western *Dolnośląskie (*Lower-Silesian) provinces, is marked by a strong position of German in the foreign language education curriculum. However, since the percentage of local students is quite low in the Poznań School of English, the overall national figures appear more representative of the PICLE contributors' background than the specific Poznań or *Wielkopolska* statistics.

It is difficult to assess the levels of proficiency achieved at particular levels. Special curricula are prepared under the auspices of the Ministry of National Education, which do not, officially, correspond to any of the known degrees (certificates). It has been common practice among teachers to expect the secondary school-leaving exam (*matura*) in English to approach the FCE level. This unspoken standard will probably establish itself with the extended level of the new *matura* system (as of 2002), which will feature an obligatory written part in the foreign language exam. Currently, secondary school graduates' knowledge of a foreign language is only examined orally, although a student may also choose to take the written component.

3. The university context and the status of English

Both state and (since 1990) private institutions of higher education exist in Poland. In 1998, the first state and private vocational schools of higher education also began to appear. Study programmes can take the form of daily, evening or extramural studies and distance learning courses. The prevalent form is daily studies. The degrees awarded up to the graduate level include:

- the professional title of *licencjat* (equivalent of BA) is awarded following the completion of 3 (or 3.5) years of professional training. Holders of this degree are still rare since the 3+2 system is still young. English departments use this system to educate future teachers, who do not need an MA degree to qualify for the profession. There had been growing pressure to open such an option due to the lack of English teachers following the introduction of a new educational policy in 1989, which guaranteed a choice of a foreign language at school to all-level learners and students.

- the professional title of *inżynier* (equivalent of B.Sc.) is awarded following the completion of 3.5 or 4 years of professional studies in technical areas, agriculture, economics and business.

- the title of *magister* (equivalent of MA or M.Sc.) is awarded following the completion of a five-year programme of uniform Master's Degree courses in a given discipline.

The title of *magister* can also be obtained following the completion of 2 or 2.5-year complementary Master's Degree courses, for which holders of the professional title of *licencjat* or *inżynier* are eligible. Those wishing to continue their education can apply for a four-year Ph.D. course, a successful completion of which will confer on them the degree of *doktor* in the pertinent study discipline (e.g. English linguistics or English literature).

In order to enter the English programme at a university, the candidate must:

- have graduated from secondary school and have a *matura* certificate;

- take and pass an entrance exam as provided by a respective university. Universities are largely autonomous institutions in this respect: there are no centralized standards in either the study programme or in the entrance exam policy. The Poznań School of English gives its candidates a written English test at an approximately intermediate level. The bulk of the test consists of grammar (multiple-choice, Polish-English translation), lexicon (gap-filling, multiple choice, word formation) and listening comprehension. The written test is followed by an oral test in which the candidate is engaged in discussion on a short text read silently beforehand and then in a free discussion on a given (often text-related) topic. The Polish part of the exam comprises an interview designed to check the candidate's acquaintance with basic Polish language linguistics, Polish and Anglo-Saxon literature, as well as British/American culture. Other English Departments in Poland offer similar entrance exams, sometimes with additional or different forms, such as a short written literary essay and reading comprehension (Lublin University), role-playing (Wrocław University), discussion of a chosen proverb (Toruń University), or a written test on Anglo-Saxon cultural aspects (Opole University). Some universities have not included an oral exam at all (Warsaw University). In line with the new educational reform, and the new standardized format of *matura*, some departments have already decided to remove the entrance exam and to base their recruitment entirely on the new *matura* results. While the Poznań School of English has opted to keep the entrance examination, as of 2002 only the written and spoken components of the English exam will be used.

At Adam Mickiewicz University, as in most Polish universities, all classes are conducted in Polish. However, modern language faculties teach many of their subjects in their respective language; the primary medium of instruction in the Poznań School of English is therefore English. Other faculties may decide to conduct classes in English, but this is not a standard. Details vary from institution to institution.

4. The English curriculum in the humanities

Most English students in Poland pursue the five-year study programme, ending with the *magister* (MA) diploma. To reach that point, they must complete all subjects and internships or practice included in the

programme of study, submit and defend a diploma project or thesis and pass a diploma examination. There is, as yet, no credit system, although international transfer of points in accordance with the ECTS scheme is possible.

The PICLE corpus has been largely sampled from Poznań School of English students. The five-year syllabus applied in the School is largely linguistics-oriented when compared with the syllabi used at other institutions in Poland. The list of over a dozen different subject lectures and classes includes, e.g. English phonology, English syntax, Anglo-Saxon culture, comparative grammar, literary theory, English literature, American literature, ELT methodology, etc., as well as many specialized seminars and proseminars.

As a result, the School of English students in the upper years of study enjoy a high level of linguistic consciousness. Both officially-published ranking lists as well as informal comparisons seem to indicate that Poznań students appear, on average, more proficient in English than their peers from other departments in Poland. Unfortunately, many courses are still taught in teacher-centric ways, while limited funding and space make it next to impossible to furnish adequate self-access study centres or computer laboratories. Indeed, there is only one computer lab on the School of English premises, available exclusively to third or higher year students. Students do have other alternatives when conducting research: University library, British Council Library, etc., but the information system requires more integration and computer adaptation, which are now in progress. CALL and corpus linguistics resources are available but only to seminar students, since the number of machines where these can be tested is limited.

As far as practical English (or *General English*, as it is called) is concerned, the expected levels of instruction and achievement at the School of English correspond roughly to:

Year 1: (upper-)intermediate
Year 2: upper-intermediate/advanced
Year 3 and above: advanced

Moving up the years, there is a shift in emphasis from grammatical to lexical requirements in the end-of-year examinations. The study syllabus is currently under reconstruction as part of the general overhaul

of Poland's educational system. The School of English extramural study programmes and combined English-Russian specialization share many of the same subjects, although the quotas are slightly reduced and proficiency expectations perhaps a bit lower.

The writing courses offered in the Poznań School can be summarized as follows[36]:

Year 1 - Introduction to written English: the basic paragraph format (based on expository modes, such as definition, comparing and contrasting, process analysis, cause and effect, examples, etc.), short summaries, and formal letter writing.

Year 2 - Expository writing: Second-year students are taught the skill of planning and developing full 500-word expository essays.

Year 3 - Argumentation: Third-year students cover inductive and deductive thinking strategies and argumentative paragraph modes. Students also cover basic research techniques and conventions, and complete (in the second semester) a research project.

Year 4 - Expressing Rhetorical Thought in Writing: Fourth-year students write on a chosen theme throughout the year, from which they must produce a portfolio. They also complete a major research project.

Year 5 - The MA dissertation: Daytime fifth-year students have no writing course. Extramural students are taught thinking strategies in writing, research skills, critical reading, and also revision and editing skills.

5. Approaches in the teaching/learning of English

The role of grammar in the teaching of English has traditionally been quite strong in Poland. Communicative methods have been making (quick) inroads only recently, and — given the broad typological difference between English and Polish — learning grammar is not

[36] More information about the English study programme at the Poznań School of English can be obtained from the School's web site: http://elex.amu.edu.pl/ifa/; details of the writing syllabi can be acquired from Przemek Kaszubski's page at http://main.amu.edu.pl/~przemka/ifawrit.html.

likely to disappear, certainly *not* at post-beginner levels of teaching. English is taught at schools mainly from integrated skills course-books, with the writing component quite systematically downplayed. The courses at the Poznań School of English, and at most other departments of English, also rely on integrated skills textbooks, however the material is often broken down into separate spoken, written, grammatical and phonetic components of the overall *General English* subject. As a result, the methodologies applied are most likely to be pragmatically eclectic.

Educational trips abroad, training and exchange programmes are an option available to few, and only when appropriate agreements are negotiated between interested parties in Poland and abroad. There is no formal requirement, even in the English departments, for students to take overseas courses, though more and more participants in the Erasmus or TEMPUS programmes are dispatched to various EU Member States (not only English-speaking ones). Primary and secondary students receive exposure to English abroad even more sporadically.

With respect to pre-University learners, an increasingly popular form of English education is summer English camps. They offer a high standard of teaching, with experienced native or Polish educators frequently in charge of the language module. Aside from the host of private language schools, private lessons represent a continuously popular form of learning English: these are often given by native Britons and Americans to those preparing to take international certificate examinations or to wealthier youngsters eager to learn to converse in English. Most recently, Polish Internet sites specializing in English have become part of the ELT picture - these offer information about schools as well as language material for self-study. Naturally, for many, the Internet has in general become one of the chief sources of English learning.

There are, however, still comparatively few self-access resources within schooling institutions. Certainly, access was even more limited a couple of years ago for the students who contributed the PICLE essays. Although the Ministry of National Education has been funding projects such as *The Internet in every Gimnazjum*, furnishing schools with computer laboratories and multimedia educational packages (e.g. EURO-PLUS), the number of workstations as well as instructors

qualified to use them as teaching aids is far from sufficient. This lack is particularly acute in the poorer, rural parts of the country. The situation is improving but there are certainly no standards in place yet; many teachers and pupils make efforts to this end on an individual basis, as the number of computerised households in the nation continues to increase.

Perhaps for reasons of political sentiment, American English appeals strongly to many, and especially to younger Poles. This is not matched by the supply of teaching material, the majority of which comes from British publishers. In the end, it is probably the British variety that receives wider treatment. Learners' awareness of the differences between the two major varieties often falls short of reality, especially for production. The Poznań School of English represents an exception since from the very start of their University career, the students are streamed into either British or American programmes depending on their ability and/or personal preference. This policy of specialization policy is unique among all the English departments in Poland, and, if studied in the PICLE papers, would be an unrepresentative depiction of the average Polish student of English.

The role of native-English teachers can be significant, as indicated earlier, although it is only systematically the case at tertiary level. Primary and secondary schools only rarely get to employ foreign teachers.

Schools typically prepare students in general, pre-academic English. Texts and genres are selected and studied according to this criterion rather than for an ESP purpose. To assess a level of standardization would be difficult, however, as there are more and more schools specializing in particular usage contexts such as business negotiations, etc.

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- Polish Official Statistics: http://www.stat.gov.pl/english/index.htm (English version)
- School of English in Poznań: http://elex.amu.edu.pl/ifa/ (in English)
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9. The Status of English in Russia

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1. Introduction: a look back at history and traditions

The English language is sweeping through the modern world to reach each and every region, locality and country, people of all nationalities, ethnic groups and citizenship. Its already firmly established role as an international *lingua franca* is getting stronger every day as the world moves towards *globalization* - a world-wide informational space operated by the common medium of communication.

Russia is by no means isolated from this process. Having a unique geographical position, it emerges as a vast territory on the fringes of Europe and vast expanses in Asia. From this point of view, Russia is both a European and an Asian country, although its educational tradition since the 18th century and Peter the Great has been largely oriented towards the Western world.

For centuries, foreign languages have enjoyed the highest prestige in Russia. In the 18th century, Latin and German dominated intellectual studies before the Russian language was introduced in science and education. The 19th century is known as the era of French, which was used as a mark of social class, education and respectability shared by the aristocracy and the privileged. Even Leo Tolstoy's great epic *War and Peace* begins with 'small talk' in French at a Princess's *soirée* in St. Petersburg. The 20th century saw the rise of German as an important and promising means of communication between the two World Wars. But this was not to last since after World War II, it became obvious that the future in developing a world-wide medium of communication was with the English language.

The 'Iron Curtain' years in Russia deserve special note, since at that time all attempts at introducing cultural and educational values from the West were treated with suspicion and criticism. The only source of knowledge about the 'outer world' was classical literature, mostly in translation. The first authentic English course ever to reach Russia was C.K. Eckersley's *Essential English* introduced to university students in the mid-1960s. The 1970s and 80s brought a considerable element of

democratization with people beginning to travel more freely and international contacts at the official level becoming increasingly frequent. All this paved the way for the drastic changes which occurred in the beginning of the 1990s with the political reforms known as *perestroyka.*

The contrast with former 'old regime' times could not be starker. Foreign languages and English in the first place immediately became indispensable for everyone who wanted to be a success in the newly formed business deals, national and international projects. The country was becoming part of the world's economy and, at individual level, everybody followed suit. A most striking change was "an unprecedented and ever-increasing urge for foreign language learning - mostly and overwhelmingly English. Despite considerable efforts by dedicated people the demand for English studies in Russia still far exceeds the supply" (Ter-Minasova 1997: 47).

The sociolinguistic situation in Russia since the 1950s has predetermined the main directions in language studies. Lack of professional and personal contacts, a communicative deficit and scarcity of language practice have resulted in the dominance of one type of resources: until recently, English in Russia was taught almost exclusively on the basis of written materials. Russian learners studied English 'the hard way': there were few opportunities for personal communication or travel abroad, let alone for education or training at a European or American institution.

With *perestroyka* the Russian people were also to discover the existence of cross-cultural barriers. They faced the double effect of the distance factor: geographical distance plus the variations of culture, attitudes, perceptions as well as educational traditions they were carrying in their minds. The global process of integration into the international dimension involved many issues, of which the foreign language factor was seen as the primary one.

2. The sociolinguistic situation at present

To many Russians, the expansion and hegemony of the English language was understandable because for a long time the Russian language has reigned supreme over countless minority languages and dialects in the multinational Russia. It was also the official language in

the former Soviet Union States and an obligatory subject at secondary schools in East European countries. Although its territory has been shrinking over the past decade, Russian is still *the* official language in the whole of Russia and *an* official language in most of the former Soviet Union Republics, now the Independent States.

There are more than 100 vernacular languages and dialects used by the native population of Russia. Typologically they belong to different language families, which is another reason for the Russian language to be employed as a means of multinational communication. The new concept of schooling emerged in the late 1980s and was based on the assumption that "all nationalities had the right to be taught in their own language and each nation had the right to its own national school" (Sutherland 1999: 152). National languages were thus introduced in primary school, but higher education was continued in Russian. Besides "it was also important that people should not cut themselves off from world culture. It was not good to retreat into a national reserve away from the achievements of others. National schooling needed to be developed as part of an international culture" (Sutherland 1999: 155). The reforms have resulted in the development of national educational programmes in some of the major regions of the Russian Federation - Dagestan, Tatarstan, Sakha, Altai and others.

2.1. English at secondary schools

Since *perestroyka* foreign language policy in Russia has been aimed at promoting the subject further, especially in secondary education. There are essentially two types of secondary schools: general and specialized. In specialized schools, a foreign language is introduced from the age of 8, and in general schools only from the age of 10. More than two thirds of all specialized and general schools offer English as the main foreign language which is a compulsory subject. French, German and recently Spanish are also taught in both types of schools, but on a smaller scale. These languages can also be offered as options in schools specially oriented towards the Arts, the so-called lycées and gymnasia.

2.2. English in tertiary education

At university level, the status of English has remained unfailingly high. Faculties of the Humanities include a foreign language at the entrance exam level. Institutes of Foreign Languages as well as specialized

Language Centres in tertiary education have a highly competitive entrance exam in English for applicants wishing to enroll as English majors. The qualifications needed to pass this exam require more years of study than is provided by general schools, so most applicants enrolled are from specialized schools.

The university course takes 5 years of study at the end of which students are entitled to a Diploma of Higher Education. This degree certifies that they have completed a full programme at a Higher Educational Institution and have been awarded respective qualifications. The Higher Education Diploma roughly corresponds to the MA level at universities in Europe. It also entitles graduates to apply for a 3-year postgraduate course if they want to continue towards a Ph.D. degree.

2.3. English and other foreign languages

English Departments in Russian universities are traditionally the largest in terms of the number of teachers and students. Most pupils entering the university are ready to take the entrance exam in English because this is the language most studied at secondary schools.

In the Humanities, the main foreign language is taught for 5 years at intermediate and advanced levels to specialists in languages, literature and culture. At the Faculty of Philology at Moscow Lomonosov State University, for example, nearly 20 languages (English, French, German, Spanish, Portuguese, Italian, Swedish, Dutch, Irish, Polish, Slovenian, etc.) are offered as the main subject. But English surpasses them all by the number of teachers and students involved. Usually there are three or four times more students studying English than Spanish, French or German; and other languages - Italian, Dutch, Swedish, etc. are offered on an alternating basis, i.e. once every two or three years. Recently, there has been a noticeable increase in the number of learners of Spanish both in secondary and tertiary education.

3. Methodology: curriculum in English

At the university level, English is taught extensively to non-specialists in ESP and EAP courses. The ESP methodology has been developing in Russia most successfully since late 1970s, resulting in an impressive array of publications, programmes and curricula. Analysis of the learner's needs, integration of theory and practice, learner-oriented

teaching, "peer-tuition", the modelling of registers and genres are just a few of the directions most explored and developed in Russia.

The English curriculum in the Humanities encompasses a variety of subjects. Usually there are 12 to 14 hours per week including both lectures and practical classes. General lecture courses include the history of English (there are also separate courses in Gothic and Latin), British and American studies, linguistic disciplines (phonetics/phonology, lexicology, morphology, syntax, linguo-stylistics) and teaching methodology. The medium of instruction is English. Literature and literary criticism are taught both at lectures and seminars probing deeply into the literary tradition and evolution beginning from antiquity up to present day. Here the medium of instruction is Russian.

Students choose their own special courses and seminars as part of academic research work leading to course and diploma papers.

Translation studies and practical translation are taught systematically to students in translation departments in accordance with the respective curricula.

Specialization workshops are an interesting feature of Russian English-learning: these provide opportunities for students to perform in English actively while discussing philological issues and analysing original texts. The main objective of these classes as well as of the whole programme in general is not only to acquaint students with particular areas of knowledge but, first and foremost, to enable them to use English effectively as a tool of their trade.

3.1. Teaching materials, norms and priorities

In ELT methodology, the direct method has prevailed since late 1960s with the learner's communicative skills being tested in the first place. In spite of the fact that for a long time literature and written materials remained the only evidence of language use, spoken skills have been considered most important. Written tests and essay writing form but a small part of language exams.

Most English language teaching in Russia is done with the help of non-native teachers with occasional interventions by British or American colleagues, if the opportunity presents itself. As for the teaching model or 'target', most departments have until recently been British standard-oriented. British English is viewed as best for teaching purposes as compared with the less uniform American variant. Nowadays, however, this tendency is changing as the rules and norms of pronunciation are getting more relaxed.

Much attention is given to the distinction between productive and perceptive knowledge in language teaching. This determines the type of texts and genres used. In developing productive skills, the emphasis is on informative and argumentative texts - newspaper feature articles, British and American studies materials, commentaries and subject publications. Recognition skills or 'vocabulary at large' are taught with reference to classical and modern literature beginning with Shakespeare.

The audiolingual method is another favourite, as most universities are equipped with language laboratories. The same cannot be said about CALL methodology. Although computer labs are available at some universities, they are mostly used to teach general courses in word processing and Internet operations.

Over the past decade, Russia has witnessed a rapid development of a new generation of English learners. Predominantly young and affluent, they travel the world, have business relations with foreign partners, use Internet on a daily basis and frequently enjoy a wide range of international entertainment - videos, music, movies, radio and TV programmes. Not all students, however, can afford to go abroad on their own, while the opportunities for organized periods of study in an English-speaking country remain extremely scarce. The English Department of the Faculty of Philology at Moscow Lomonosov State University has been lucky to reach an agreement with the University of Copenhagen where some of our students are happy to take part in English language studies.

Finally, it should be mentioned that the professional associations of language teachers are an important factor contributing to the development of EFL in Russia. Some of them, like LATEUM (the Linguistic Association of Teachers of English at the University of

Moscow), a newly elected member of FIPLV (Fédération Internationale des Professeurs de Langues Vivantes), are international, with members not only in Russia but also in former Soviet states and Eastern European countries. In September 2001, LATEUM celebrated its 10th anniversary as the first international English language association formed in Russia.

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10. The Status of English in Spain

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1. The Sociolinguistic Situation of Spain

Although Castilian is the only language spoken nationwide, there are three other official languages in Spain: *Galician* in the northwestern part of the country with 3,173,400 speakers; *Euskera* (Basque) in the Basque Country with 580,000 speakers; and *Catalan*, spoken in Catalonia, Valencia (with a variety called *Valenciano*) and the Balearic Islands (with a variety known as *Mallorquín*) with 4,000,000 L1 speakers and another 5,000,000 as L2 or L3 speakers.

Apart from these native languages, Spanish schools promote foreign language learning at all educational levels. While in the past, French was the most widely taught foreign language, today English as a foreign language (EFL) has undoubtedly gained the first position, as an obligatory subject from the third grade in primary school all the way through secondary school. The use of English is also common in professional circles. The awareness of the fact that English is an international language is at the root of this shift. It is also the reason why English is included in the national curriculum.

2. Foreign language policy in primary and secondary schools in Spain

In infant schooling, from 0 to 6 years, the teaching of English is not compulsory, although some private schools (especially bilingual schools) offer a foreign language (FL) as early as the age of 3.

Primary education is divided into three stages: the 1st stage from 6 to 8 years old, the 2nd stage from 8 to 10 years old, and the 3rd stage from 10 to 12 years old. At this level of education, an FL becomes an obligatory subject from the age of eight (3rd grade). There are three hours of

instruction per week, although again some private institutions may increase the number of hours.

Secondary education is divided into two stages: the 1st stage from 12 to 14 years and the 2nd stage from 14 to 16 years. English is normally the first FL, but students may also choose between French or German, if provided by their schools. There are three hours of instruction per week, with a maximum number of 30 students per class. The final two years of secondary education, called *Bachillerato* (from 16 to 18), are not compulsory; however, for students continuing during these last two years, an FL is obligatory and students may also choose a second FL.

In both primary and secondary education, assessment is continuous and global. There are no official examinations for English, with each teacher or school designing their own exams.

Regarding professional qualification, teachers of English in secondary education need a degree in English Philology. Teachers in state schools must pass a public certification exam (*oposición*) in order to obtain a post. In all cases, teachers must complete a course in the Methodology of English Language Teaching (*C.A.P.*) before they can actually start working. In primary education in state schools, instructors must have a degree in Magisterio (three years at a teachers' college) with a major in English language; they are also required to pass a public certification exam.

The curriculum for both primary and secondary schools is established through general guidelines by the Ministry of Education, which also authorizes the books that are published. However, schools and teachers are required to draw up specific syllabi for their schools at each level of primary and secondary education. Teachers are free to choose their own materials.

3. The University Context and the State of English

In order to enter a Spanish public university, students are required to have a secondary school diploma and to have passed a battery of university examinations (mathematics, history, Spanish language [Castilian], foreign language, etc.) established for two broad areas of study, the Humanities or Sciences. A foreign language test (one hour) is an obligatory component of these entry exams (*Selectividad*). Most students

choose to take the English examination (instead of French or German) and in general, students entering the Humanities achieve approximately a *First Certificate* level, although there are significant differences in levels of achievement between urban and rural areas.

The Humanities account for 9.42% of all students in Spanish universities. In this area of studies, the teacher/pupil ratio is high (1/19), but much higher specifically in English Philology (1/60). The Humanities' student population is mostly female (67.36%).

The Spanish university curricula have become increasingly complex since the central government transferred competencies in education to the autonomous governments (the Basque Country, Catalonia, Andalusia, etc.). However, the Social Council of Universities, a federal commission, continues to regulate the compulsory subjects, while the individual universities establish their own obligatory and elective subjects. The Spanish Association of Anglo-North-American Studies has been instrumental in bringing together the Chairs of English Departments so that the English curricula do not differ widely from one university to another.

Nevertheless, because some universities have adopted a four-year course of study, while others have maintained a five-year programme, the degrees awarded may not be totally equivalent. The types of official degrees obtained in English Philology, as regulated by the Social Council, are: *Licenciado* (roughly equivalent to an American Bachelor's Degree, for 4 or 5 years' of study) and *Doctorado* (Ph.D., 20 credits of taught classes, plus 12 credits of tutored research work and a thesis). In addition, some universities offer Master's Degree programmes. They are not regulated by the Social Council and may have widely differing standards.

The course of studies in English Philology is divided into two stages: the first stage, 2 or 3 years (depending on the university) with a primarily English-based curriculum and the second stage (2 years) with a totally English-based curriculum. First and second level studies are comprised of between 300 and 450 credits, depending on the university (a credit is equivalent to ten hours of class). A typical five-year course of studies in English Philology has a total of 320 credits (180 credits in the first stage and 140 credits in the second). The course of studies in English Philology comprises the major subjects, the compulsory

subjects set by the university, and elective subjects. English Philology students may specialize in English linguistics or English literature.

Most of the English Philology courses comprise both lectures and practical classes. Practical courses tend to be along the lines of *Phonetics and Phonology*, *Intonation of English*, etc. Literature courses are mainly lectures (*The Theatre of Shakespeare*, *Literature in the USA*, *The Western Novel*, etc.). Classes usually have a large number of students (60 or more) and there is little use of CALL resources.

Because obligatory and elective subjects are established by each university, the curricula for English Philology may differ considerably from one university to another. However, most English departments have included in their curricula courses to provide for: proficiency in the four skills, with courses such as *Academic Reading and Writing*, *Listening Comprehension*, and *English Grammar;* awareness of the structure and uses of present-day English, with courses such as *English Language I and II* and *Varieties of English;* knowledge of discourse, covered in courses such as *Pragmatics*, *Textual Analysis* and *Discourse Analysis*; knowledge of the historical development of English, with courses such as *Evolution and Development of the English language*, and *Old* and *Middle English;* awareness of cultural contexts, with courses such as *Culture and Society in the British Isles*, *American Culture and Society*; etc.; knowledge of the literary traditions regarding both British and American Literature (and sometimes Commonwealth Literature), with courses such as *The British Novel in the 20th Century*, *American Fiction*, and *British Theatre*, etc. Most Departments of English Philology also provide limited professional training for future teachers and translators, with courses such as *Methodology of Teaching EFL* or *Translation Studies*.

In most Spanish universities, the Departments of English Philology are also in charge of English for specific purposes, taught in areas such as economics and business administration, social services, and medicine, etc.

4. Approaches to the teaching of English as a Foreign Language in Spain

In primary and secondary schools, the most widely used approaches to the teaching of EFL is communicative methodology although teachers are free to be eclectic. Most Spanish classrooms make little use of newer technological resources (Internet, CDs, etc.). The most widely used variety is British English and the most commonly used types of texts are those included in the textbooks themselves.

Direct contact with native speakers of English is not frequent; however, in the last years of secondary education, many students use their summer holidays to study an English course abroad.

Most exams in primary and secondary education test competency in the four skills. In the final years of secondary school, there is a strong emphasis on writing skills, in particular on argumentative text, since the English test in the university entrance exam is heavily weighted towards writing.

In the university context, ESP courses focus mostly on reading skills, while in English Philology, exams evaluate competencies in the four skills (including oral examinations) plus the contents of the literature and linguistic courses.

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11. The Status of English in Sweden

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1. The language situation in Sweden

Sweden has nearly 9 million inhabitants (1999). The native language of the great majority of Swedes is Swedish, but there are also some indigenous minority languages (Finnish and Samish) used by small groups of people in the northern part of the country. Since the 1950s, there has been a sharp increase in immigration, especially from the other Nordic countries and from the former Yugoslavia, Greece, Germany, Turkey and Italy. More recently, the numbers of political refugees, especially from Bosnia, Iraq, Iran, and Turkey, have multiplied. Today every 20th person living in Sweden is a foreign citizen and every 10th was born outside the country.

Despite the multicultural character of present-day Sweden, Swedish is the natural language used by most Swedes. It is the language used in Parliament, by official bodies and in the media. Standard spoken Swedish is largely based on the dialects of the region around Stockholm, but there are many regional varieties.

English has been a compulsory language in Swedish schools since the 1950s and, owing to the increasing political, economic and cultural influence of the English-speaking world, English has almost taken on the status of a second language. The impact of English is especially strong in the popular spoken media, such as films (which are not dubbed), television and popular music. English is also used as a 'company language' in many export firms and is necessary in many branches of higher education such as science and technology. A good command of English is considered essential for most jobs. A foreigner visiting Sweden can normally expect to get along quite well in English.

2. Foreign language policy in primary and secondary schools

The public school system in Sweden comprises a nine-year compulsory basic school for children between the ages of seven and sixteen and a voluntary three-year upper secondary school providing broad-based education linked to vocational training or a more academically-oriented

preparation for higher education. Almost all pupils go on directly from compulsory school to upper secondary school and complete their schooling after a total of twelve years.

English is the first foreign language in Swedish schools and has been a compulsory subject for more than 45 years. Most schools offer English from Grade 3 or 4 (age 9 or 10), but in some schools it is introduced as early as Grade 1 or 2 (age 7 or 8). A second foreign language, usually German or French, is introduced in Grade 6 or 7 (age 12 or 13) as an option. In upper secondary school, a third foreign language can be chosen, most commonly French, German or Spanish. Nowadays Latin and Greek are studied by very few pupils in upper secondary school.

End of term grades (on a five-point scale) have to be given from Grade 8. In English, national proficiency tests are produced for Grades 5, 7 and 9 in compulsory school and once in upper secondary school. The tests involve all four skills. In upper secondary school, the students' written proficiency is generally tested by means of guided compositions based on newspaper articles or similar material.

In Grades 1-6, English is taught by class teachers with limited training in English; from Grade 7, English is taught by subject teachers who have studied the language at university for at least one year, but often longer. In addition, all language teachers have done a year of didactics at a teachers' training college and teaching practice in schools.

British and American English have equal status in the teaching of English, but by tradition the British variety predominates. Summer courses in Britain are popular among pupils in the higher grades of compulsory school, and an increasing number of upper secondary students spend a year at a high school in the U.S.A.

3. The university context and the status of English

About a quarter of all Swedish students go on to higher education at university or college after leaving upper secondary school. To be eligible for university studies, all students must have completed upper secondary education with a passing grade in Swedish and English. In addition, each university programme has specific entrance requirements. Since the number of applicants often surpasses the number of places available, each university department has a selection

procedure that is based mainly on secondary school results and/or a special higher education aptitude test.

At university or college, students can either take individual single-subject courses or follow a specified study programme, both leading to a degree. Most students aim at either a Bachelor's Degree, which requires three years' full-time study and includes one major subject studied for at least three terms (1.5 years), or a Master's Degree, which requires four years including a two-year major subject. There are also professionally oriented programmes of varying length in areas such as law, medicine, engineering, agriculture and education. Postgraduate studies leading to a doctoral degree take a minimum of four years of full-time study after the completion of an undergraduate degree.

Continuous examinations are held throughout a course, either by means of written or oral examinations or through seminars with papers. Grades are given on a three-point scale: Pass with Distinction, Pass, and Fail.

Most students entering a Swedish university have had nine years of English at school. Although Swedish is generally used as a medium of instruction (except in the foreign language departments), textbooks in English are compulsory in many university courses and a good command of English is essential for most students. Many English departments in Sweden offer special courses for students of other subjects where proficiency in English is essential, e.g. technology, economics, medicine and law.

4. The English curriculum in the humanities

English as a university subject can be studied as an individual course or as part of a study programme leading to a teaching diploma. Many students taking English as an individual course leave (or start on another subject) after a term or a year, but students studying English as a major for a Bachelor's or Master's Degree (which includes at least one other subject) have to take a three-term course (1.5 years) or four-term course (2 years). Students aiming for a teaching diploma in compulsory school generally study English for one year only, while those planning to teach English in upper secondary school have to complete a two-year course, half a year of which is normally spent at a university in an English-speaking country.

The first year of English studies focuses on spoken and written proficiency, but also includes obligatory courses on various aspects of the language (grammar, phonetics, the history of the language, regional variation, etc.) and on the cultural (literary, political and social) aspects of the English-speaking world, especially in Britain and the U.S.A. Second-year students continue their proficiency training, but they also have to make an in-depth study of a linguistic or literary topic and present it in the form of a term paper.

5. Approaches to the teaching of English

In compulsory and upper secondary schools, a communicative and functional approach to foreign language forms the basis of the teaching, curricula, grading and national tests. Traditional grammar teaching plays a subordinate role. The objectives and grading criteria are laid down in national curricula, but little is said about the content or the methods to be used by the individual teacher. The teacher has great freedom in the choice of textbooks and supplementary materials such as newspapers, films or TV programmes. Teaching includes all four skills, but in practice the main emphasis is on speaking, reading and listening comprehension. The scope given to English composition varies from school to school and from teacher to teacher. Most students get little or no training in academic or argumentative writing in English.

At universities and colleges, the methodology used in foreign language teaching is more eclectic and largely dependent on the aim of the course (proficiency, awareness of the structure of the language, etc.). Teaching is generally conducted in English by a mixture of Swedish and native British and American teachers. Classes vary in size, from general lectures to seminars and smaller groups. The number of hours per week varies from course to course. Engaging the learner is a goal at all levels, but this is often not achieved because of large class sizes.

Both literary and non-literary texts are included in the curriculum, although literary texts tend to dominate the students' reading. The attention given to English composition varies greatly from university to university. Generally, students have to take some composition classes and their written proficiency is tested at least twice during their first year, generally in the form of free or guided composition. However, there is no national policy regulating the teaching and testing of written proficiency in English and each university is free to create its own

programme and its own norms. Since most students studying English at Swedish universities take comparatively short programmes (1-2 years), they get very little systematic training in academic or argumentative writing.

6. Changes

The Swedish educational system underwent several substantial changes in the closing decades of the 20th century. New national curricula for the compulsory and upper secondary schools came into force in 1994 and a further reorganization took place in 2000. In 1977 and 1993, far-reaching reforms affected the higher education system, giving universities and colleges increased autonomy in the organization of studies, admissions and use of resources. These changes make it difficult to give a comprehensive picture of the Swedish educational system and to generalize about the educational background of advanced EFL students in the 1990s. The above survey of the Swedish school system largely describes the situation in the 1980s, while the description of higher education reflects the 1990s.

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12. The Status of English in Hong Kong

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1. Language use in Hong Kong

The status of English in the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region is very unique. Together with Chinese, English is one of the two official languages of the government, but it is neither the *lingua franca* in people's daily life nor the operating language of the Executive and Legislative Councils. It is supposed to be the official medium of instruction for all tertiary and most of the secondary level of education, but various languages or codes are employed in actual teaching contexts. The status of English in Hong Kong has also been changing. Some linguists used to argue strongly that English is the secondary language of Hong Kong but then conceded to agree that English is an auxiliary language. Now, English is mostly regarded as a foreign language here.

2. English as a Foreign Language

This status of the English language is the result of Hong Kong's experience as a British colony for 150 years, till its handover to China in 1997. Hong Kong is mainly a Chinese community, with 95% of the population being ethnic Chinese. The *lingua franca* of the community is Cantonese, the mother tongue of the majority population, and the second language for other parts of the population, whose mother tongues are other Chinese dialects such as Chiu Chau or Shanghainese. During the 150 years of colonial governance, the former British sovereign power exercised top-down policies which favoured the hegemony of British rule (Glenwright 2003). In spite of the very obvious Cantonese-dominated language environment, English was made the official language and used widely throughout the Civil Service, including the Executive and Legislative Councils, and even the Urban Councils (Cantonese simultaneous translation was made available here). This top-down policy also led to English being the official medium of instruction for all the universities and most of the secondary schools. All of this added to the impression that English was the second language of Hong Kong.

However, if the real use of English in Hong Kong is carefully studied, it will not be difficult to find that English has never been a second language for "the majority of the population" although it might once have been a second language for "a small elite of the population" (Falvey 1998: 77). This can be most obviously observed from the context of the use of English in the education sector. Until very recently, the majority of the secondary schools in Hong Kong advertised themselves as English-medium schools. In reality, except for a small number of elite schools, what this meant to most schools was that anything in written form, for example, textbooks, examination papers and some writing on the board were in English but all teaching in class was mainly in Cantonese mixed with English technical terminology (code mixing), or in a constant switching of Cantonese and English (code switching). In some schools, a pattern of language use, which has been termed as the "bilingual instructional genre" (Pennington 1998: 7), has also been identified. This means that in the classroom the teacher introduces the content of lessons in English and then provides definitions, examples and explanations in Cantonese. When the topic has been fully discussed, the teacher will switch back to English to summarize the main points and start a new topic.

In the tertiary teaching contexts, the situation is not much better. Although English was made out to be the official teaching medium, language use in the lecture halls/rooms varies greatly, from teaching delivered fully in English to fully in Cantonese. Which language to use and how much of it to use may depend upon three principal factors: (1) the field of the study - much more English is used in lectures on accountancy than in those on, for example, electronic engineering; (2) the language proficiency of the lecturer; and (3) the sense of identification with or need for English from both the lecturer and the students. In the field of science, a particular characteristic of language use has also been identified, in which different languages are employed in different instructional domains. So, for example, lectures are delivered in English, code switching is employed in tutorials, and Cantonese (except for some technical terminologies) is used in laboratories (Pennington 1998).

3. English Teaching in Secondary and Primary Schools

This limited and variable use of English in both secondary and tertiary education indicates clearly that, instead of being a second language, English functions as a foreign language in Hong Kong. This foreign status of English also means that students here have to rely heavily on their English lessons to improve English language skills. In Hong Kong, English is a mandatory subject for secondary, primary and even most kindergarten schools. English is taught as a subject and grammar teaching is often the focus of class activities. Following the various changes to methods of foreign language teaching which have occurred over the years, the teaching of English in Hong Kong has also undergone a great many mutations, from traditional to behaviouristic, to communicative and then to task-based forms of teaching. However, these changes may serve rather to enhance the image of the Government's Education Department – which is responsible for initiating many of the campaigns to transform teaching practice – than to influence classroom practice in a substantive manner, as, despite such a string of interventions, most teaching in the classroom remains characterized by 'the three Ts' paradigm: teaching-centred, textbook-centred and test-centred' (Morris & Chan 1998). Such a profile is hardly surprising though, considering that 85% of English teaching staff are either non-English majors and/or untrained as professional teachers (Falvey 1998). To solve this problem, and to broaden the actual range of teaching methodology used, the Government has taken new initiatives in the last few years. One of these is to request that all service English teachers pass a language benchmark test. Another is to recruit at least one native English teacher (known as a NET) to teach English for every primary and secondary school. This is to assist local teachers to improve language proficiency and teaching method as well as to provide a better language environment for students. Both of these initiatives have met with a positive public response.

4. Influence of Chinese language on English learning

Since the *lingual franca* in the community is Cantonese, a dialect of Chinese, local residents' English is heavily influenced by Chinese, and the aspect of language use that is most seriously influenced by this is typology. The typology of Chinese, according to Li and Thompson (1976), is topical prominent, meaning that instead of putting the emphasis on the subject of a sentence, which is the case in English, the

Chinese language places emphasis on the topic of the sentence. When learning English, Chinese learners have to move from the Chinese topical prominent typology to the English subject prominent typology, and this has resulted in problems of topicalization in the use of English by Chinese learners. The areas that most reflect this problem are the overuse and misuse of the English existential constructions (*see* Lin 2003) and overuse, underuse and misuse of English pronouns (*see* Lin 2002).

5. Still the 'High' Language of the Community

In spite of all these problems in teaching and learning English, the English language still enjoys a prestigious status in Hong Kong. Even after the handover in 1997, when Putonghua started to become increasingly important, English is still considered as the 'high' language, related to "success, stylishness and academic achievement". It now has further associations with "newness, youth and modernity" (Pennington 1998: 13). This is partly the result of association with an international anglophone culture, and, perhaps more importantly, the result of Hong Kong's special position as an international financial, logistic, aviation and tourism centre, and position as a gateway to the outside world for Mainland China, both of which positions require facility in English.

The government has also assured the status of English, by maintaining it as one of the official languages of the government and the medium of instruction at all tertiary institutions after the handover of Hong Kong to China. The local residents echo the government's voice in this respect and have given an even higher status to English. Their stance can be witnessed by the public's unprecedented reaction to the government's decision to mandate the unqualified English-medium secondary schools to teach in the medium of Chinese. Although the decision might be pedagogically necessary, the majority of parents would make any possible sacrifice to ensure that their children enter an English-medium school. Those who failed to get their children into an English-medium school will make sure their children attend some English tutorials schools, which is why such schools flourish at every corner of Hong Kong.

Language use in the Hong Kong mass media also reflects the general public attitude in regarding English as the 'high' language, and has even reinforced such an attitude. This occurs not only through the continuing popularity of the local English newspaper, *South China Morning Post*, the two local English TV channels and several English radio channels, but also through the development of what is known as a 'bilingual radio genre' on one of Hong Kong's radio channels. On this channel, the presenters switch from Chinese to English frequently according to the various segments of the programs, such as news, traffic and weather reporting, music commentary, and interaction with callers on the phone. This mode of language choice is unique, serving the function of both attracting audiences from the middle and upper-middle classes, and also maintaining solidarity with the general audience, since English in Hong Kong is associated with achievement and competitiveness, whilst Cantonese with family life and the personal domain (Pierson 1998).

English has long been regarded as one of Hong Kong's greatest assets. It cannot be denied that Mainland China is becoming increasingly influential both economically and politically, and because of this, the Hong Kong SAR government has developed a new language policy of transforming Hong Kong into a bi-literate and trilingual community at ease with Cantonese, English and Putonghua. Nevertheless, English continues to enjoy a status as the 'high' language of the community, and will do so for the foreseeable future. This is not only because of Hong Kong's special position as an international hub, but also because of the fact that the continuing status of English in the community serves as a symbol that Hong Kong is still a Westernized metropolitan society, which continues to enjoy freedom and prosperity beyond 1997.

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13. The Status of English in Japan

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1. The sociolinguistic situation of Japan

The land of Japan consists of four main islands, Hokkaido, Honshu, Shikoku, and Kyushu, together with a host of smaller islands. The population of the country is about 100 million and the official language is Japanese. Currently, there are almost 2 million non-Japanese living in the land, including Koreans, Chinese, other Asians, Americans and Europeans.

It has only been a few years since signs in public places like airports and train stations started to be given in English, Korean, and Chinese alongside Japanese.

2. General organization of the educational system

In total, Japanese students have nine years of compulsory education. They spend six years in elementary school and three years in junior high school. The tuition and textbooks are free for everyone for those nine years. After completing the compulsory education, most of the students take entrance examinations to get into three-year senior high schools and many will extend their education two years further by attending junior colleges, or four years by attending universities. Recently more and more students choose to attend graduate schools and continue their studies.

There are national schools run by the national government, public schools run by larger cities and prefectures, and private schools run by educational foundations. Studying in private educational institutions costs considerably more than studying in national or public ones.

3. Foreign language policy in Japan

It was in the Meiji Period (1868-1912) that English officially began to be taught in public institutions in Japan. In most institutions it was taught by Japanese teachers and the focus was always laid on translation. Speaking and pronunciation were largely neglected. There

were a few public schools where English was taught by native speakers of English, but the grammar-translation method, which was at that time common practice in other parts of the world, was strongly supported by the Ministry of Education. The situation continued up to the end of World War II.

After World War II, the Oral Method was introduced from the U.S. Because of the insufficient professional training on the part of the teachers, however, it took quite some time before it became common practice. The Natural approach and the Communicative approach, which were introduced even later, were also only slowly and partially incorporated into the teaching method. The same can be said of the general concern with possible different learning styles of individual learners. Only recently are the teachers becoming more and more concerned with effective teaching methods and techniques for promoting students' proficiency in English.

English is one of the compulsory subjects in the entrance examinations to higher-level educational institutions. The English examination, however, still followed the traditional teaching style with its emphasis on grammar and translation. With an ever increasing number of teachers advocating reforms, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT) (formerly, the Ministry of Education) finally decided to conduct a listening test from the year 2006 in the nationwide University Center Examination.

In 1998 English was introduced as an optional subject in the elementary school curriculum. A growing number of schools are experimenting with various teaching styles, making use of songs and games, with the help of assistant language teachers (ALTs) who are native speakers of English.

4. The Ministry's course of study

In 1989, Oral Communication was added to the English curriculum for the first time as one of the subjects to be taught in high schools. With a growing interest in the ideas of "globalization," "intercultural communication" and "international understanding", a new version of guidelines for English teaching in junior and senior high schools, which focuses on the effective use of English in actual context, was launched

in 2002 and 2003. The newest version of the guidelines is now being prepared and is expected to come into effect in the year 2010.

In 2003, the MEXT published a strategic plan for bringing up Japanese with sufficient command of English in business transactions. It was titled "Action Plan to Cultivate Japanese with English Abilities." It emphasized the importance of learning not only grammatical rules but also the use of languages in real communicative situations. The goals of English learning are set as follows: Students graduating from high schools are to be able to conduct the basics of communication, such as greetings and responses and to talk on topics relating to daily life; students graduating from the university are to be able to use English in specialized fields and in international contexts (MEXT 2003). The strategies proposed to attain these goals are 1) improvement of English classes, 2) improving the teaching ability of English teachers, 3) improving motivation for learning English, 4) improvement in the evaluation system for selecting school and university applicants, 5) support for English conversation activities in elementary schools, 6) improvement of Japanese language abilities, and 7) promotion of practical research (MEXT 2003). Among others, it is proposed that the high school teachers attain the TOEFL score of 550 ~ 730. The goals of the TOEFL scores are set at 450 for high school students and 650 for college students. These goals are expected to be achieved by 2008.

The Japanese students from whom our present data were collected learned English under the 2002 and 2003 versions of the Ministry's Course of Study and finished their high school education long before the above-mentioned Action Plan was made public. In those days, the English education in Japan was still at the traditional stages and the university entrance examinations followed the same format that they had followed for years. As was noted earlier, listening comprehension was not added to the nationwide University Center Examination until the year 2006. The emphasis on grammar and reading comprehension in the entrance examination meant that the English teaching in high schools had to be conducted on conservative curricula based heavily on grammatical explanations and translation skills. There was in fact hardly any need for Japanese people to use English in their everyday life, since virtually everything was available in Japanese. Thus, English has long been considered as a school subject important only in examinations, especially in university entrance examinations.

However, there has been a slow and steady change in recent years. We now have a large number of university and high school students going overseas, especially to English-speaking countries, to improve their English skills. Many universities have exchange programs with their counterparts abroad and quite a few Japanese branches of American universities have been set up. Thus the students now have a much wider and richer range of opportunities for exposing themselves to English and both the interest in, and the need for a good command of English as a means of communication are higher than ever.

5. English in secondary education

As part of a movement to promote international understanding, English is now allowed to be taught in elementary schools and in quite a few of them, children actually enjoy learning English. In secondary schools, where English teaching is obligatory, English is taught only three hours a week. Teachers in many junior high schools find it very difficult to cover the Ministry-approved textbooks according to schedule. Some of the junior high school have ALTs (Assistant Language Teachers, i.e. native speakers of English who contribute to English classes) who teach English once a month, but when the students from whom our present data were collected were in junior high school, there were no ALTs at all, although the students had English classes for over four hours a week.

The amount of English that Japanese students learn in junior and senior high schools is extremely limited. The number of vocabulary items they are supposed to learn is limited to 900 in junior high and 1800 in senior high schools. In the latest version of the Ministry curriculum, the students are expected to be exposed to more functional and contextual varieties of English. Again, however, there was no concern for these issues when the students from whom our present data were collected were in junior and senior high schools.

6. English in the university and a perspective on the future

A recent study shows that the average TOEFL score of the Japanese examinees is about 505 (ETS 2005), which is indeed very low compared with the corresponding scores in other Asian countries. Most students learn English for over 10 years before they graduate from university, but the effects in terms of language proficiency gain are

limited. The MEXT plans to add 300 more ALTs. It is hoped that better results will be obtained in a few years.

University students usually take at least one foreign language course in their freshman and sophomore years as part of their general education curriculum. Over 90% of the students choose English as their foreign language. What they actually have, however, is only one 90-minute class in a week with no particular emphasis on practical command of the language. As a result, many companies find it necessary to give special English instruction in order to train the graduates they are going to employ.

It is crucial that all the parties concerned should make every effort to materialize the recently formulated action plan designed to bring up "Japanese with English abilities." Full cooperation among all the parties is *sine qua non* in order to achieve this common goal.

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14. The Status of English in Norway

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1. The language situation in Norway

The vast majority of the 4.6 million inhabitants have Norwegian as their native language. There are two standard forms of written Norwegian: *bokmål* (lit. 'book language), which has evolved from the written Danish used in Norway until about 1900; and *nynorsk* (lit. 'new Norwegian'), which was developed in the 19th century on the basis of Norwegian dialects. The two forms differ primarily in lexis, morphology, and orthography. The use of *bokmål* and *nynorsk* varies according to region, medium, and a variety of social factors. Although both forms are in common use, most people have *bokmål* as their primary form of written Norwegian. Pupils in the secondary school are expected to master both of the written forms, an issue which is becoming controversial.

In addition to Norwegian, there are four official minority languages: *Sami*, which is spoken chiefly in the north of Norway by about 30,000 Sami; *kvensk*, spoken by descendants of Finnish immigrants in the north of Norway; Romany (*romani* and *romanes*), spoken by Roma people. Since the 1970s there has been an influx of immigrants with other native tongues, particularly in the large urban areas. About 150 languages are represented in Norwegian schools, and more than 100 in Oslo alone. Close to a third of the pupils in the Oslo schools speak a minority language as their mother tongue. The language situation in Norway is thus becoming increasingly multilingual.

English is important as an additional language in Norway. Apart from being taught at school, it is part of the everyday life of most Norwegians. English is a dominant influence in the media (Internet, film, TV; subtitling rather than dubbing is used for films and TV shows), in advertising, popular music, computing, business, research, etc. (see Johansson and Graedler 2002). From being a foreign language, it is approaching the status as a second language.

2. Foreign language policy in primary and secondary schools

The teaching in the Norwegian schools is laid down in national curricula. English has been a compulsory subject since 1954. In the 1960s it became possible to study English from Grade 5. With the curriculum of 1974, it was introduced in Grade 4. Currently, English is taught throughout the comprehensive school (10 years) and in the upper secondary school (1-3 years), between ages 6 and 19. The majority of the students who contributed essays to the Norwegian part of the learner corpus had studied English at school for 8-10 years.

Though British English has been dominant traditionally, British and American English have equal status in the Norwegian schools. Textbooks, particularly at higher levels, commonly introduce texts representing a range of genres and regional varieties.

In Grades 1-6 pupils are taught by general teachers. For teaching on higher levels, a university degree is required, with a minimum of one year of English at university combined with a year of didactics and teaching practice. A higher degree (*cand.philol.,* see below) used to be required for teaching in the upper secondary school, but this restriction no longer applies.

The national curriculum for the Norwegian schools stresses the importance of knowing foreign languages. Apart from English, the main foreign languages taught in Norway are German, French, and Spanish. A second foreign language may be chosen in the lower secondary school. A second foreign language is required at the upper secondary level, and a third is a possible option. Mother-tongue education is normally provided for immigrant children and speakers of the official minority languages.

3. The university context and the status of English

English is important in Norwegian tertiary education, both as a subject in its own right and as an auxiliary language more generally. A high proportion of the textbooks used are in English, particularly in the sciences, medicine, and technology. Most of the theses, articles, and monographs published in these domains are in English. The dominance of English is less pronounced in the humanities, theology, law, and the social sciences. Increasingly, courses are offered in English, including entire degree programs (see further Johansson and Graedler 2002: 275ff.).

English is taught as a subject both at universities and a number of regional colleges. Students who choose English as a subject normally combine this with studies in another language. The traditional first degree was *cand.mag.*, a four-year degree with two or three subjects, each studied for one or one and a half years (*grunnfag* and *mellomfag*). Students with a good *mellomfag* could choose to go on to *cand.philol.*, a two-year degree with advanced courses in the major subject (*hovedfag*) including the writing of a thesis. Most of those who contributed essays to the Norwegian part of the learner corpus were *grunnfag* students, enrolled in their first year of English at institutions in southern Norway (about half from the University of Oslo). Recently the degree system has been changed to conform to international standards following the Bologna process (see Section 6).

4. The English curriculum in the humanities

The first-year course in English taken by the students who contributed essays to the learner corpus was quite broad and included the following elements: practical English (oral and written), English language (grammar and phonetics), British and American literature, and British and American civilisation. As there were few courses specifically designed to teach practical English, this was included as an element of other courses. Similarly, the testing of proficiency was normally integrated in exams in the content disciplines, but there was a final oral exam focusing mainly on oral proficiency.

On higher levels, students could choose, within certain limits, to specialise in linguistics, literature or civilisation. The system has been changed recently, allowing more room for specialisation and individual choice from the beginning of university studies, but there is a good deal of variation depending upon the individual institution; see, for example, the websites given in the list of sources.

5. Approaches to the teaching of English

Historically, the teaching of English in the Norwegian schools has followed international trends, going from the grammar-translation method, via approaches influenced by the direct method and audiolingualism, to a communicative and functional approach. The objectives are specified in national curricula, such as *Kunnskapsløften – Knowledge Promotion* (see the list of electronic sources). In the last

couple of decades the main emphasis has been on the use of the language, chiefly speaking, reading, and listening comprehension. Teaching is predominantly in English after primary school level. Working with authentic texts is encouraged, including a range of genres and regional varieties. As learning progresses, more emphasis is placed on learning about the language and the cultures of the English-speaking peoples. Explicit grammar instruction is emphasised less than in the past. Though pupils are expected to write texts in different genres, it is unlikely that they have been trained systematically in argumentative writing. It is a general impression among university teachers that beginning students on the whole have a good oral command of the language, while their written proficiency leaves a great deal to be desired.

At university level, the amount of teaching and the methodology vary with the institution, the topic of the course, and the individual teacher. However, all teaching, all textbooks, and all exams are in English. Exam papers are marked for both content and form. Students are encouraged, with varying success, to take part in classroom discussion and hand in papers regularly in their courses. Most of the students have not, however, gone through specific courses where they are trained in academic writing. It has been a typical characteristic of university studies in Norway that they have generally been rather free, leaving it up to the individual student to decide how, and how much, to work. This is now changing.

6. Changes

The educational system in Norway is currently changing in fundamental ways. New national curricula were launched in 2006, with more explicit requirements for the mastery of English vocabulary and grammar. The university system has gone through major changes. Following the Bologna process, new BA and MA degrees have been introduced and made compatible with international standards. In connection with the recent university reform, courses are becoming more regularised, with compulsory attendance and required papers on the part of the students. In their turn, university teachers are expected to follow up their students more closely and provide feedback on their work. There is an increased use of take-home exams and term papers. It remains to be seen whether these changes will lead to an improvement in quality and whether future students' performance will exceed that of

the students whose papers are represented in the Norwegian part of the learner corpus.

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15. The Status of English in South Africa

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1. Sociolinguistic situation

English is one of eleven official languages in South Africa, and is used as home language by about 9% of the population (about 4 million people). Most native speakers are descendants of British (mainly English) Settlers who came to South Africa in three waves during the 19th century: 1820s – working-class and lower middle class to the Eastern Cape, 1840s – upper middle class, retired army officers to Natal and 1870s – fortune seekers looking for diamonds in Kimberley or gold in Johannesburg and surrounding areas (see Lanham & Macdonald, 1979 and Lanham 1996 for detail). The other major group of native speakers are descendants of Indian labourers and traders who came to Natal in the last quarter of the 19th century, speaking five major languages. Their descendents shifted to English in the period between 1950 and 1980, so that the present situation is that only a small number (fewer than 50,000) older Indian South Africans still speak ancestral languages at home (see Mesthrie, 1992 for detail).

English is not only the native language of a sizeable minority of South Africans, though, but the most widely used language of general communication in the country. Estimates put non-native English proficiency at between 40% and 60% of the non-English speaking population (e.g. Branford, 1996; De Klerk, 1999, Mesthrie, 2004).

The corpus that forms part of ICLE is the Tswana Learner English Corpus. The speakers who volunteered data for this corpus are all native speakers of Setswana, one of the Southern Bantu languages spoken mainly in the North-West Province of South Africa, and in total by about 4 million South Africans, a number very similar to the native speakers of English. However, in the North-West Province, there are almost no native speakers of English. This means that the students who contributed to the corpus do not regularly come in contact with native speakers of English in face-to-face contact situations. (The stem "–tswana" is combined with various prefixes, depending on the context: se+tswana refers to the language, mo+tswana to an individual and

ba+tswana is the plural of mo+tswana. Botswana is the name of the neighbouring country of South African where Setswana is also spoken.)

It is important to note that while the corpus was collected entirely at South African universities and colleges, a proportion of the students are from neighbouring Botswana, a country with about 1.3 million inhabitants of which about 70% are native speakers of Setswana. They were students at the University of North-West in Mafikeng at the time of data collection, a city that is only about 25 km from the Ramathlabama Border Post between the two countries.

2. Language Policy

South Africa has one of the most liberal and pro-multilingual language policies in the world. Apart from a constitution that recognises eleven official languages (apart from English and Setswana, also Afrikaans, isiNdebele, isiXhosa, isiZulu, Sepedi, Sesotho, siSwati, Tshivenda and Xitsonga), various regulations at all levels of government are intended to promote multilingualism in the country. However, in practice many of the constitutional provisions and regulations are not implemented, resulting in a situation where English is used much more widely than any other language.

The constitution and education regulations provide for the right to mother tongue education. In practice, most South Africans receive mother tongue education up to the fourth grade, after which the medium of instruction switches to English. The situation on the ground seems to be that a lot of code-switching takes place, though (see e.g. Kamwangamalu, 2000). The one exception is the case of Afrikaans (the third largest other tongue, spoken by just more than 6 million South Africans), which is used throughout primary and secondary education. The typical Motswana child will encounter Setswana education for four years, and thereafter a code-switching mix between Setswana and English for at least the fifth to seventh grades in primary school. At high school, from eight to twelfth grade, code-switching will become less frequent and English instruction more dominant. However, the vast majority of teachers will be Setswana speakers themselves, and not English speakers.

English is taught as compulsory subject from the first year of schooling, so by the time the switch to English medium instruction takes place, a child will have had four years of English education. Thereafter, English remains a compulsory subject throughout primary and high school. A child is also required to take his/her native language, such as Setswana, as a compulsory subject throughout their primary and secondary education. In many cases, further additional languages are included in the curriculum, with Afrikaans being the most frequently selected third language subject, as is clear from the language backgrounds provided by the students who contributed to the Tswana Learner English corpus.

3. English at South African Universities

All South African universities (excluding the newly formed Universities of Technology, formerly Technikons) have departments of English or divisions of English in larger organisational structures such as Schools or Colleges. Universities of Technology have Language departments that do offer English as subject, but within the different type of programme structure.

The current first degree in humanities, a three-year Bachelor of Arts degree, requires the student to take at least two majors, one of which may be English. English is also a possible three-year major in a Communications Science degree (three or four year degrees, depending on individual universities' degree structures) or in a four-year Bachelor of Education degree. Thus, in the final year of a three-year programme, English would contribute up to half of the credits for the programme, reduced to about a third in the second year and a quarter or a fifth in the first year.

At Universities of Technology, more career-focussed programmes are offered, but these usually include one year, sometimes two, compulsory modules in English communication skills or business communication. Such courses would contribute no more than a fifth of the total credits for a particular year of a three or four year programme.

4. English in the Humanities Curriculum

At the four traditional English universities in South Africa, English departments are very similar to British universities' English departments, with an exclusive, or almost exclusive, focus on

Literature. These universities also have Linguistics departments that have a strong focus on English language, apart from more general linguistic concerns. The other universities, about twenty of them, have a more mixed approach, with mainly literature departments in some, a combined literature/language studies programme in others, while some tend to focus more on language proficiency, with a smaller component of literature. The literature curriculum varies widely, from a mainly British focus with some South African or African literature, to a mainly South African and African focus with some British and American literature. In some, the traditional canon is still the core of the curriculum with ample time devoted to Chaucer and Shakespeare, in others, a comparative approach with a South African emphasis is the backbone of the curriculum.

The curricula of the students who contributed to the Tswana Learner English Corpus are generally language proficiency/language studies curricula with some literature, but certainly not literature-dominant curricula. Most of these students take English as subject within a programme in education or communication studies. Very few South African students do pure/traditional humanities degrees with English and another language, or English and another humanities or social science subject.

5. Approaches to the teaching of English to non-native speakers

Since the late 1980s, the official approach to the teaching of English in schools is the Communicative Language Teaching Approach. This came in reaction to a more grammatically-based approach in the preceding period. In practice, however, reports indicate that many teachers still rely mainly on a teacher-centred approach where formal instruction, including grammar instruction, dominates in classrooms. This is in part due to overcrowding in classrooms. In some cases, there are reports of 80 learners in a single class.

Since the beginning of this decade, the entire education curriculum has undergone major revision in the direction of outcomes-based education. This has not had very dramatic consequences for language teaching policy, as the Communicative Approach is in principle in harmony with the basic tenets of outcomes-based education. However, the emphasis on verbal communication has become even stronger, with one unfortunate consequence being that reading and writing receive less

attention. As such, there are numerous reports that literacy levels among first-year entrants at university are declining (see e.g. Weideman & Van Rensburg 2002).

6. Research on English in South Africa

The English language in South Africa has been the subject of numerous investigations for at least fifty years (for a useful summary, see Branford, 1996). For a very long period, the main emphasis was on the English of the descendants of the British Settlers (e.g. Lanham & Macdonald, 1979). During the 1960s, Lanham conducted an investigation into the teaching of English in Soweto, the biggest black residential area in the country, and came up with some recommendations (Lanham, 1967). In the same period, Hundleby (1963) wrote a Ph.D. thesis on the pronunciation of English among the isiXhosa speakers in the Eastern Cape. However, apart from a few pedagogical pieces on common language errors by Black learners of English, little happened thereafter, until renewed interest in the English of Black South Africans arose in the mid-1990s, just after the political emancipation of Black South Africans in 1994. Since then, a number of corpus-based and other research projects were initiated. Many researchers work within a New/World Englishes framework (e.g. De Klerk, 1999, 2003, 2006; Makalela, 2004; Van der Walt & Van Rooy, 2002, Van Rooy 2006). As part of the *Handbook of Varieties of English*, Mesthrie (2004) presents a synthesis of research findings on the morphosyntactic features of the English of Black South Africans, while Van Rooy (2004) treats the phonological features. Apart from linguistic descriptions and analyses, there is also a very productive strand of language policy and language attitude research, where the position of English and its different varieties are investigated in relation to other South African languages (e.g. Coetzee-Van Rooy, 2002; Coetzee-Van Rooy & Van Rooy, 2005; Kamwangamalu, 2006).

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16. The Status of English in Turkey

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1. The sociolinguistic situation of Turkey

Turkish, a member of the Turkic family of languages, is predominant and the official language in the Republic of Turkey. There are no statistics available about how many people speak Turkish as their first language in the population of 70 million in Turkey. Most of the ethnic minorities having undergone considerable and in some cases total linguistic assimilation, the largest ethnic minority is the Kurds, a large number of whom are bilinguals, estimatedly comprise between 8 per cent and 20 percent of the country's population. (Goksel and Kerslake 2005). Turkish being the sole official language and the lingua franca for Turkey's minority groups (Dogancay-Aktuna 1998), no language other than Turkish may be taught as mother tongue to Turkish citizens in education and instruction institutions. The foreign languages to be taught in such institutions and the principles governing the schools where education is held in the foreign language are defined by laws.

English is the second language for the majority of the people, while it is a third language for ethnic minorities since they use the official language as the lingua franca and want to learn English as the international language. English in Turkey acts as the international language of access, as it has neither an officially allocated role nor a regulative function in administrative or legal contexts. Since Turkish often functions as the only lingua franca for minority groups such as the Jews, Armenians, Kurds, and Zazas, it is not used for intergroup communication. So, the instrumental use of English within public and private educational institutions is the dominant use of English in Turkey, and it is this use that also serves as the main agent of language spread (Dogancay-Aktuna 2005).

The Turkish education system defined in the Basic Law of National Education (no 1739) includes two subsystems, namely "formal education" and "non-formal education"**.** Formal education is the regular education of individuals in a certain age group and given in schools at the same level using programs specified by the educational authorities.

Formal education includes pre-primary education, primary education, secondary education and higher education institutions. Primary education involves the education of children between 6-14. Secondary education includes all institutions of general, vocational and technical education for a period of at least three years after primary education. Higher education includes all education institutions at all levels for a period of at least four semesters (2 years) after secondary education. The purpose of non-formal education is to provide education services, in line with the general purposes and basic principles of national education, along with or apart from formal education to people who have never received, or have not been able to complete their formal education (MEB 2008a).

In Turkey, the language of education is Turkish. English is the only language taught as a compulsory subject at all levels of education, having the status of a Foreign Language (EFL). German and French are offered as elective subjects in the curriculum of some secondary schools (Kirkgoz 2007a).

3. Foreign language policy in primary and secondary schools

In 1997, the Turkish Ministry of National Education and the Turkish Higher Education Council radically changed the English language policy to reform the ELT practice in Turkey. The establishment of a plan called 'The Ministry of Education Development Project'- a major curriculum innovation project in ELT - was initiated, which aimed to promote the teaching of English in Turkish educational institutions. At the level of primary education this reform has resulted in an increase in the duration of primary education to eight years from the previous five years. A further consequence of the reform was the introduction of English for Grade 4 and Grade 5 students, thus shifting the introduction of EFL from secondary to primary schools. So, English has become a standard compulsory school subject for all recipients of compulsory education since October 1997. According to the national language in education policy, children start learning English in Grade 4, continuing throughout the remaining five years of primary education (Kirkgoz 2007b).

In secondary education, schools are classified into state schools, Anadolu schools, and private schools, or colleges. Unlike private schools, for which parents have to pay tuition, Anadolu schools are state-funded. Anadolu and private schools are able to attract the nation's brightest students through a very competitive entrance examination, and provide a 1-year intensive English language program prior to the 4-year curriculum[37]. Until 1992, English was used as the language of instruction in certain subjects such as science. However, many schools have given up teaching content courses in English due to the shortage of teachers (Kirkgoz 2005).

The English language curriculum and the syllabuses of primary and secondary schools are centrally administered by the MEB (the Ministry of National Education). In order to achieve a coherent national ELT curriculum, the MEB provides comprehensive guidelines to teachers and administrators. The curriculum is divided into two stages that cover the primary (grade 4 through 8), which lays the foundation of English, and the secondary levels (grades 9 through 11) (Kirkgoz 2005). According to the MEB, the objectives of the curriculum are to provide students with an opportunity to learn at least one foreign language, and to learn a second foreign language (MEB 2008b).

4. The university context and the status of English

Like all post-secondary programs, higher education has a duration of at least two years. The system presently comprises 53 state universities, two of which are English-medium and one French-medium, and 19 private universities, 18 of which are English-medium and one German-medium institutions. In addition, some programs in the Turkish-medium state universities are carried out either wholly or partly in English, and a smaller number in German. A one-year intensive preparatory English course is required in various state universities (YOK 2008b).

Admission to higher education is centralized and based on a nation-wide single-stage examination administered by the Student Selection and Placement Center (OSYM) every year. The center was established

[37] When the Turkish subcorpus of ICLE was collected, the university students had received a 3-year education at secondary schools. As of the 2005-2006 academic year, secondary education has progressively been increased from three to four years.

in 1974 and affiliated with the Council of Higher Education in 1981. The examination, named the Student Selection Examination (OSS), consists of verbal and quantitative parts. Candidates with scores between 105 and 120 points are offered a restricted choice of higher education programs. Placement of the candidate is based upon the composite score calculated by taking into account the score of the entrance examination as well as the high school grade-point average, normalized nationally using the success of the classmates of the candidate in the entrance examination and also using a factor which depends on the high school type and the program of the candidate. (YOK 2008a)

Universities which provide English-medium instruction offer one-year intensive English education to students whose level of proficiency falls below the level in the university's language centre prior to embarking upon their academic courses. In universities where instruction is in the medium of Turkish, English language is offered as a compulsory component of the curriculum. Generally offered to first year students, the English curriculum aims at promoting students' knowledge of general English as well as equipping them with the necessary knowledge and skills to access written English publications in their subject area (Kirkgoz 2007b).

5. The study of English as a major

Since 1998 all faculties of education in Turkey have followed a standardized curriculum prescribed by the Higher Education Council. Most faculties of education offer dual (regular and evening) programs. Some modern language departments have a preparatory year in which students' language abilities are developed. Preparation for the teaching profession requires the acquisition of the necessary theoretical basis. For English teacher education courses, the knowledge base is drawn from linguistics and learning theory. Besides, the teaching practicum requires three sessions of field experience during the 4-year teacher education course; one, during the second semester of the first year and the other two in the first and second semesters of the fourth year. Students are required to do actual teaching in the last session under the supervision of the classroom teacher and a university tutor. All degrees are validated by the universities. In addition to those students studying in schools of education, students who have graduated from the modern language departments of the Schools of Science and Humanities may

also become modern language teachers. Although the aim of these departments is not to train teachers and the curriculum is therefore not a teacher training curriculum, students may go on to become teachers after completing a pedagogical training course (Tercanlioglu 2004).

The essays in the Turkish subcorpus of ICLE were collected from students studying at the Language and Linguistics department in the Faculty of Science and Letters (Mersin University) and at the department of Foreign Language Education in the Faculty of Education (Cukurova University and Mustafa Kemal University). The objective of Linguistics departments is to teach the structural and functional properties of language through theoretical and practical courses. On the other hand, the undergraduate programs of the Foreign Language Education departments consist of professional courses involving language, literature, translation, second language acquisition and second language teaching methodology as well as teaching practice in selected schools.

6. Approaches to the teaching/learning of English

Traditionally, the teaching of English in Turkey was based on a teacher-centered transmission model. The predominant method employed was grammar translation with a focus on grammar and vocabulary at the expense of communication. In the 1990s, major attempts were made to revise the ELT syllabi to incorporate communicative language teaching into the curriculum. ELT has been reconceptualized to encourage (a) students' active participation in the learning process, (b) students' use of target language in communication, (c) students' application of knowledge through projects. The new curriculum promotes student-centered learning and emphasizes the philosophy of total quality in ELT (Kirkgoz 2005).

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17. The Status of English in Brazil

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1. The language situation in Brazil

The Brazilian population was estimated to be approximately 200 million inhabitants in 2016. The official language, Portuguese, is spoken by virtually all of the resident population. Brazil is home to a large number of indigenous languages, amounting to more than 150 according to the National Geographic and Statistics Institute (IBGE) census for 2010, of which the most widely spoken are Tikuna (34,000 speakers), Guarani Kaiowá (26,500), and Kaingang (22,000). In addition, pockets of residents speak languages such as German, Polish, and Japanese in rural areas; they are descendants of immigrants who came to Brazil in the 19th and early 20th centuries. Later, immigrant groups from Korea, Lebanon, Haiti, and Bolivia, among other countries, moved in, forming foreign language speaker communities – mostly in urban centers.

Brazil is one of the most socially unequal societies in the world, which is reflected in the use of English by the population. As a general rule, having basic knowledge of English is considered a marker of social prestige. Overall, only a small percentage of the population (about 5%; British Council, 2014) speak English, but this varies enormously by economic and racial background. The most affluent individuals comprise a small percentage of the population who can speak English at an intermediate or higher level. They learn English in language institutes or through private lessons, by travelling abroad, and by attending private schools where English is taught by proficient teachers. A small but growing fraction of the population attends pre-schools as well as primary and secondary institutions where the curriculum is taught in English, in whole or in part. In contrast, the least privileged, who make up the majority of the population, have very little or no knowledge of English. Because the majority of the population cannot afford private education, they attend public schools, where the level of English language teaching leaves much to be desired. Furthermore, the public school system cannot deliver good standards of learning in most subjects, so most people have very limited or no proficiency in English.

Because social class in Brazil reflects racial background to a great extent, the majority of English speakers are generally of European or East Asian descent, which is the case with the majority of the students in the BrICLE sample; in contrast, Brazilians of African and indigenous backgrounds generally have limited opportunities for achieving success in English language learning.

2. Foreign language policy in primary and secondary schools

School is compulsory for Brazilians between the ages of seven and fourteen. Foreign language teaching has been a part of primary and secondary education in Brazil for decades, but in practice this has generally meant limited contact with the language in school. Usually only two classes per week are taught, normally by low-paid, low proficiency teachers. Class sizes are generally large in Brazilian schools, frequently ranging from 20 to 40 students. Larger class sizes are more typical of public than private primary and secondary schools. Most BrICLE students will have gone to private schools, and therefore they will have sat in less crowded classrooms. More recently, with the increased availability of online content in English, more people have gained access to spoken and written information in English outside of school. Subscription television services offer content in English.

Basic education underwent a major change in the 1990s with the *Parâmetros Curriculares Nacionais* (National Curriculum Parameters), which provide the foundation for the free public school system. These guidelines outlined a vision of foreign language teaching centered on the development of critical citizens; however, the guidelines may have underestimated the need for developing actual foreign language proficiency (Almeida, 2016) and, in so doing, failed to tackle the problem of the low standards of English in the population as a whole.

3. The university context and the status of English

The University context from which the BrICLE students were sampled consists of classes in which the primary language of instruction is Portuguese. At the same time, English has increasingly been recognized as the lingua franca of science and trade, and authorities have taken steps to promote the use of English. The government has urged universities to increase classroom teaching in foreign languages, notably English, through various programs designed to promote

internacionalização (internationalization). The federal government has put in place an exchange program (*Ciências sem Fronteiras*, Sciences without Borders) whereby students receive financial support to study abroad as part of their regular university education in Brazil. Students in this program can complete English language classes as part of the *Línguas sem Fronteiras* (Languages without Borders) scheme, whose goals are, broadly speaking, to prepare students to meet the requirements of foreign universities. University entrance exams normally comprise a written English test, often consisting of reading comprehension questions.

4. The English curriculum in the humanities

Students in Brazilian universities can graduate with a single degree in English language and literature or translation studies or with a combined degree consisting of English and an additional language. These programs typically comprise eight semesters of study, and courses cover a range of skill-based classes in speaking, reading, writing, and listening as well as numerous linguistics disciplines such as syntax and discourse analysis. Most classes involve seminars and group work, rather than lectures. The number of classes actually taught in English varies, but in most institutions the majority of classes are taught in Portuguese, not in English. Overall, the proficiency of students in Brazil graduating with a degree in English is perceived to be low, with many students resorting to private instruction in language institutes. This will probably have been the case with the BrICLE sample students.

5. Approaches to the teaching of English

Despite the ample variation in the way in which English is taught in Brazil, the BrICLE students will have probably had English classes using a wide range of approaches (translation-based, functional, task-based, critical, communicative). Classes normally focus on the four skills, with students receiving little or no training in writing argumentative texts in English in pre-tertiary education. At university level, reading in English is frequently taught using reading strategies (skimming, scanning, etc.), whereas the other skills are taught in many different ways. English for academic and specific purposes (EAP/ESP) classes are offered to students in many universities, both as part of the curriculum or as an extramural activity. The vast majority of teachers

of English in the country were born in Brazil; only a few are native speakers, usually coming from the United States and Great Britain. Nevertheless, although most interactions in English in Brazil involve non-native speakers, the native speaker is often regarded as a model. The majority of students who contributed texts to BrICLE will have had English instruction with non-native speakers.

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18. The Status of English in Greece

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1. The language situation in Greece

Greek is both the national and official language of Greece, spoken by 11 million people inside the country and another 10 million people in the Greek Diaspora (as a first or second language). Moreover, according to the Greek policy, Turkish, Latino-Hebrew and Armenian are recognized as minority languages in Greece (and therefore recognized as having some rights). Other languages currently spoken in Greece, which, however, are not officially recognized, are: Slavomacedonian, Pomach, and Vlach, a particular variety of Albanian and Rom (Dendrinos and Theodoropoulou, 2008).

Despite the fact that officially Greece is a monolingual state, the society is becoming progressively multilingual. The language profile of Greece's inhabitants has changed substantially during the last 20 years and is currently quite mixed: there are people who have immigrated from the Balkans, the countries of the former Soviet Union, Asia and Africa; more recently, Greece has been the host of thousands of refugees and immigrants mainly from Arab-speaking countries. All those people have brought with them their home languages which are used as community languages, as the Greek state recognizes the right of anyone to use his/her mother tongue privately or in public.
The Greek institutionalized education system remains a monolingual one, even though foreign language instruction in the Greek state education is compulsory. English is the first foreign language Greek students are required to study at school but it is also the language extensively used in the media (internet, films, TV; subtitling rather than dubbing is used for films and TV shows), in advertising, popular music, computing, etc.

2. Foreign language policy in primary and secondary schools

2.1 The public sector

The state school system in Greece consists of: a) a six-year primary school sector for children between 6 and 12 years old, (b) a three-year lower secondary school for students between 13 and 15 years of age,

and (c) a three-year upper secondary school for students between 16 and 18 years old. The first two sectors are compulsory whereas the last one is optional and may provide either an academically-oriented education for learners wishing to enter universities or vocational training and broad-based education. The vast majority of Greek students go on directly from compulsory school to upper secondary school and complete their schooling after a total of twelve years.

In response to the European-wide commitment to language learning (Hunt, Barnes, Powell and Martin, 2008) and the European Parliament's recommendation for promoting linguistic diversity, Greek secondary (since 1987) and primary (since 2003) education include in their curricula the teaching of English as a compulsory foreign language. It is noteworthy that foreign language tuition was included in the secondary school curriculum as early as 1836 (Dimaras, 1973: 66) and for several decades it focused on the teaching of French. Over the years there have been four major developments concerning foreign language tuition in Greece:

(a) the gradual substitution of French by English;
(b) the introduction of foreign language tuition into primary schools. This was initially implemented for the last three years of primary school in 1987, with most schools offering English. In 1991, there was a change in the primary school curriculum and English became the compulsory foreign language in all schools. In 2003, English was extended to the last 4 years of primary education and in 2011, English language instruction was introduced at the first grade in 1,000 primary schools in various geographical regions of the country. As the impact of this pilot project on children's L2 development was proven to be quite positive, it expanded to all Greek state primary schools from 2016-2017 onwards;
(c) the introduction of a compulsory second foreign language in junior high schools in 1993. Junior high school students take English as a compulsory subject and have the option of French or German as a second foreign language. In a very limited number of schools, Italian or Spanish may also be on offer. Senior high school students can opt for one language with a choice between English, French and German; and

(d) the introduction of a compulsory second foreign language at the 5th grade of primary schools in 2005. Students have the option of French or German as a second foreign language.

Regardless of the educational sector, all foreign languages in Greek state schools are taught by specialist teachers who are graduates of a foreign language university department.

2.2 The private sector

An important and rather unique characteristic of the Greek foreign language education system is the provision of intensive foreign language tuition by privately-run foreign language institutes. This targets students from approximately the age of 8 until their mid teens, although specialized courses are sometimes provided for very young children starting as early as 3 years of age. Courses offered at those institutes are optional and mostly exam-oriented as they give students the opportunity to sit for exams in order to acquire a language certificate. Greeks' perceived need for a certified knowledge of English leads the vast majority of them to take additional classes at such private foreign language institutes. Certificates are generally considered to enhance people's employability and are therefore, highly regarded. A very high percentage of Greeks hold at least one language certificate at the B1/B2 level. Thus, most students in Greece attend English language courses at both state schools and private language institutes (Mattheoudakis and Nicolaidis, 2005).

British and American English have equal status in Greek state schools as well as private language institutes, and efforts are made to introduce texts from a broad range of genres and regional varieties.

3. The university context and the status of English

To enter university, Greek senior high-school students have to pass national university entry examinations (called *panhellenic exams)* administered centrally by the Ministry of Education. Students gain a place in their preferred university and field of studies on the basis of their cumulative grade. Since a university degree is highly esteemed, entry into the public higher education system of Greece is very competitive. As Greek is the official language of the Greek state, this is also the language of instruction at all public higher education institutions, except for the International Hellenic University, whose

official language is English. English is mainly used as a medium of instruction at the two English Departments in Greece, namely, the University of Athens and the University of Thessaloniki; English is also used in courses offered to Erasmus/visiting students by some departments. ESP/EAP courses are taught at all Greek universities for most disciplines.

4. The English curriculum in the Humanities

The students who contributed essays to ICLE were enrolled in the School of English, Aristotle University of Thessaloniki, where English as a university subject can be studied in a four-year study programme that leads to a Bachelor's degree in English Language and Literature (http://www.enl.auth.gr). The School's undergraduate curriculum provides students with knowledge of linguistics (theoretical and applied), English and American literature, translation, culture and the teaching of English as a foreign language. Core, required-elective and elective courses are taught and examined in English. Courses are offered in the form of: (a) lectures, which students attend throughout their four years of study; (b) compulsory language mastery workshops in the first year, in which students hone their reading, writing, listening and speaking skills; and (c) a research project and/or diploma thesis, which are optional and usually pursued in the final year. After the completion of the first degree, students can pursue post-graduate studies that lead to M.A. or Ph.D. degrees. The School's graduates are mainly employed in primary- and secondary-education schools in the private and public sectors, but they can also find employment in translation offices, the publishing industry, or the field of professional interpreting.

5. Approaches to the teaching of English

Given that all foreign language instructors at Greek state schools are specialist teachers who have graduated from a university foreign language department, one would expect that the teaching approaches used for the instruction of foreign languages at schools would be mainly communicative and functional since these are the contemporary foreign language teaching approaches. Unfortunately, however, most foreign language instructors opt for quite traditional teaching approaches and focus on the explicit teaching of grammar and vocabulary. The development of reading and writing skills is prioritized over that of listening and speaking skills and this may be the case even in the

primary sector. Such teaching practices may be related to the exam and certificate orientation of the Greek educational system which places emphasis on accuracy over fluency and thus creates a washback effect on foreign language instruction (Tsagari, 2011).

The national curriculum provides syllabi, teaching objectives and grading criteria. Textbooks used at the primary and lower secondary sectors are books written exclusively for EFL learners of Greek state schools. At the upper secondary sector, teachers are allowed to choose a textbook from a list of commercially available books provided by the Ministry of Education.

At university level, English language learning is implemented in formal classes, and courses, credited or not, are for most departments an obligatory component of students' programmes. ESP/EAP courses at Aristotle University are taught by the Center for Foreign Languages (http://www.lance.auth.gr). Teaching is largely informed by genre theory and therefore, combines teaching disciplinary language as well as sensitizing students to text types that are part of their "disciplinary cultures" (Hyland, 2004). The use of various text types in English (such as summaries, abstracts, reviews, expository technical essays, reports) fosters in students the idea of contextualized discourse (Hatzitheodorou, 2013). Emphasis is mainly placed on the honing of reading skills. Speaking, listening, and writing skills are developed at a smaller scale, because of the large size of student audiences (Kitis et al, 2016).

6. Changes

In September 2016, a new national curriculum was launched in Greece regarding the teaching of foreign languages at state schools. The major characteristic that differentiates the new curriculum from previous ones is the organization of the language syllabus according to levels 1-6 following the scale of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, and not according to learners' chronological age and grade. In addition, emphasis is placed on the use of differentiated instruction and on the need to enable learners to develop communicative competence, language and intercultural awareness so that they can acquire the skills that will allow them to acquire the National Foreign Language Certificate (*Kratiko Pistopoiitiko*

Glossomatheias – KPG). Those changes did not affect in any way the tertiary education.

At university level, there is a dramatic rise in the number of students who wish to participate as undergraduates in foreign exchange programmes or as graduate students in postgraduate studies programmes. In addition, due to the economic crisis, more and more graduates seek employment abroad. Thus, an excellent command of English is deemed pivotal for future academic and professional success. In light of this rising demand for more advanced uses of the language, the scope of university language courses taught by the Center for Foreign Languages is extended to include competences that are closely related to academic and professional achievement as well as to increase intercultural awareness.

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19. The Status of English in Hungary

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1. The language situation in Hungary

The population of Hungary decreased from 10,200,298 in 2001 to 9,797,561 by 2017. The majority of the country's population is Hungarian (94.4%, 2001; 85.6%, 2011), but there is also an ethnic group (Roma, 3.2%) and several minority groups of which the largest are German (1.9%), Slovak (0.4%), Romanian (0.4%) and Croatian (0.3%). According to the last population census, the number of Russian, Chinese, Arabic, and Vietnamese immigrants has almost tripled between 2001 and 2011.

The official language of Hungary is Magyar (Hungarian). According to 2011 data, the largest ethnic language was Romani, and the most frequent minority languages in decreasing order were German, Romanian, Croatian, and Slovakian. Although the first English course books used in Hungary date back to the 17th century, of the foreign languages taught in Hungary, English only emerged as the primary foreign language much later. English teaching first gained some impetus at the beginning of the 19th century, and until the 1853 publication of the first Hungarian language English grammar, English was taught via Latin.

Before World War II, in Hungarian grammar schools Latin and German were the compulsory foreign languages. English was a rare option and only acquired regular subject status in 1924. In 1949, Russian became the compulsory foreign language in all Hungarian school types, and it remained so until 1989, except for a brief period after the Hungarian Revolution of 1956 against Soviet control. During these forty years, the practice of teaching subjects in foreign languages, primarily in German, French, or English, was discontinued and Hungarian-Russian bilingual education was launched by the ruling Hungarian communist elite. The teaching of western languages itself was also restricted until the mid-1960s, but since then the number of Hungarians who speak English as a foreign language has been increasing steadily (0.43%, 1960; 2.21%, 1990; 9.23%, 2001; 13.65%, 2011). This was partly due to the changes in the education system, as shall be discussed in the following sections.

Although in some domains the need for proficient English speakers became evident (e.g., from the 1990s English gradually became the common business language of international companies based in Hungary), the English language was not particularly prominent in the media before 2011. Most foreign films and TV programmes were dubbed into Hungarian, and consequently, unlike in some of the neighbouring countries like Romania, language learners had limited access to native input via cinema and television. The effects of dubbing showed most conspicuously in the non-native-like pronunciation of English language learners.

2. Foreign language policy in primary and secondary schools

In 1965 English became the second foreign language option in secondary education, and it was occasionally also taught in primary schools. However, it only started to exceed in popularity German, French and Russian in the mid-1970s. Then, in the late-1980s, the first Hungarian-English bilingual grammar schools were established (e.g., the Frigyes Karinthy Bilingual Secondary Grammar School, Budapest established in 1987 was the first school with an English-Hungarian bilingual curriculum). These schools taught several subjects in English and aimed to provide their graduates with much higher English proficiency than the other schools.

From 1945, children enrolled in Hungarian primary schools at the age of six and completed their lower- and higher primary studies at the age of fourteen. Then they could continue their studies in secondary education and, following an entrance examination, commence their universities studies. This system remained in place until the early 1990s.

In the written part of the final school leaving examination in English between 1990 and 2005, students had to complete one writing task featuring one genre: a 300-350 words long letter to a friend. Beginning with the 1990s, the language course books used were the general English course books published by international ELT publishers (e.g., Longman, OUP, Cambridge, Express Publishing); therefore, the writing tasks students graduating from secondary schools will have been familiar with were the typical course book tasks (i.e., heavily form-focused and controlled writing tasks such as letters).

In the 1990s and early 2000s, students took the final school leaving examination at the end of year 12; it served as a precondition for tertiary level studies. English was a compulsorily eligible subject at the examination, and students could take a joint school leaving-university entrance examination in English. They were exempted from the examination if they had an intermediate or advanced state language certificate or a corresponding level international one. For example, English majors applying to Eötvös University were exempted from taking the written part of the entrance examination and received maximum scores for the written part if they had a Grade A or B Cambridge Proficiency Certificate or a minimum TOEFL score of 550 points. Nevertheless, they still had to take the oral part of the examination. The university students from whom the essays for the Hungarian sub-corpus were collected took this type of final school leaving examination.

3. The university context and the status of English

Three periods can be distinguished in the recent history of Hungarian higher education: before the European Higher Education Area period (up to September 2006), and the two phases of the European Higher Education Area period, of which the first lasted from September 2006 to September 2013. In terms of post-secondary education, this meant that the students who enrolled in English major university programmes (a) completed a master's degree course in the first period; (b) could earn degrees following a three/plus two years bachelor's/master's path in the first Bologna phase; and, since September 2013, (c) they have had to choose between the bachelor's-master's division type of Bologna system training or one of three undivided teacher training master programmes. The latter three programmes give, respectively, primary (10 semesters), primary or secondary (11 semesters each), or secondary school (12 semesters) English teaching qualification.

The number of higher education institutions has decreased from 77 in 1990 to 65 in 2017. In the 1990/91 academic year, 70.8% of final school leavers enrolled in higher education, but this number has decreased to 58.67% by 2015/16. Of those who applied to higher education study programmes, 36% were accepted in 1990 and 66.7% in 2016. The number of applicants is generally higher than the number of places offered.

Except for the foreign language programmes, Hungarian has been generally used as the primary medium of instruction in lectures and seminars at universities. Students get grades from 1 to 5, where 1 is fail, 2 pass and 5 excellent. English is taught as a subject in general English or ESP courses at higher education institutions. Students are often expected to read English language academic texts. In English language and literature programmes, and occasionally in others (e.g., the Executive MBA programme at Corvinus university), English is used as the medium of instruction, and students also write and defend their theses in English. There is no preference for any national variety of English at higher education institutions, but British English and American English dominate.

The students whose essays are included in the Hungarian sub-corpus were English majors studying at the School of English and American Studies of Eötvös University, which is the successor of the first English language university department established in Hungary in 1886.

4. The English curriculum in the humanities

At the time of the collection of the essays for the Hungarian sub-corpus, English majors were allowed to choose to study one major instead of the earlier and later compulsory two, so some of the contributors were single-major students. The English majors who contributed to the ICLE received general English language training and academic skills training in their first three years of education in addition to comprehensive linguistic, literary and cultural content courses. They completed three compulsory academic writing courses, but their other language-related and content courses also included regular written assignments such as argumentative essays and source-based research papers, so they were provided with extensive writing practice. They took a language proficiency examination in their 5^{th} or 6^{th} semester, depending on their individual progress with their studies. The written part of the examination consisted of an argumentative essay and a formal letter. The essays included in the Hungarian sub-corpus were written as part of this examination.

5. Approaches to the teaching of English

In the 1980s, ELT experts started voicing a need for the modernisation of the ELT profession and drew attention to the severe lack of language teachers in Hungary. When in 1989 Russian ceased to be the compulsory foreign language, there were not enough teachers to meet the strong demand for English or other western languages. Therefore, from the 1990s the number of students enrolled in English teacher training rose annually, on average, with 2,000 students. Additionally, in 1990 the Centre for English Teacher Training was set up at Eötvös University, the Russian teacher retraining programme was launched to retrain former Russian teachers as English or German teachers, and the British Council started offering in-service training courses.

Following international ELT trends, from the 1990s the English teacher trainees have received extensive methodology training, focusing on the communicative language teaching approach. The education objectives for primary and secondary schools are specified in national curricula. English language teaching includes all of the four language skills, but in practice the main emphasis tends to be on speaking, reading and listening comprehension. The attention given to English composition varies by school and by teacher. Not all students receive training in academic or argumentative writing in English in their first 12 years of education.

It has always been therefore the task of university EAP courses to introduce students to academic language use and the conventions of academic writing, including written argumentation. From the 1990s, university faculty teaching writing classes have been both native and non-native speakers of English. Typically, language and writing courses have been 90-minute weekly classes offered to students in the early years of their training. There is no national policy regulating the teaching and testing of written proficiency in English in higher education, so each university is free to create its own programme and examination policies.

6. Changes

According to a law passed at the end of 2010, the most influential linear and digital media service providers must make available at least one quarter of their non-Hungarian language content broadcasts between 19

and 23 p.m. in the original language and with Hungarian subtitles. This law has provided media consumer language learners with access to more English language input. Cinemas, however, cater for popular demand and still screen mostly dubbed films. The internet is another influential medium, which has been providing access to vast amounts of English language content. More than 80% of Hungarians regularly accessed the Internet from their homes in 2016, and all the educational institutions have high-speed internet—schools started getting Internet access in the early 2000s.

The primary and secondary school system has undergone several changes that did not affect the essay collection for ICLE. Currently, following reforms introduced in 2004, after the completion of the four lower primary grades, children can (a) complete the four upper primary grades and continue their studies in a grammar school, secondary vocational school (from which they can go on to vocational education and training), or vocational school; (b) complete the first two upper primary grades and then, after taking an entrance examination, go on to a six-year grammar school; or (c) take an entrance examination and from lower primary school go to an eight-year grammar school.

According to the current national core curriculum (published on 4 June, 2012), foreign language education must begin in the lower primary 4th grade at the very latest. The first foreign language taught can be either English or German. A second foreign language can be started from the upper primary 7th grade. For teaching English at lower primary level, a college English degree used to be acceptable, but a university degree, including teaching practice, has always been required for higher levels.

Following the final school leaving examinations reform project concluded in the early 2000s, a new, two-level language examination was introduced in Hungary in 2005. For the first time, the examination was aligned to the Common European Framework of Reference (2001). The intermediate level was set at A2/B1, and the advanced level at B2. Starting with the 2017 May-June examinations, the intermediate level has been B1. The expected highest level of first foreign language proficiency to be reached by the final school leaving examination is B2. The examination consists of an oral and a written part and tests all the four major skills; the written part includes e-mail, note, or blog/diary entry writing tasks at the intermediate (B1) and e-mail, comment, or school magazine article writing tasks at the advanced (B2) level. The

2005 and 2017 changes concerning the school leaving examinations were definite improvements over the earlier examinations, but problems such as the lack of pilot testing and double rating have yet to be addressed.

The vast majority of language learners in all the Hungarian school types study English as the first foreign language according to 2017 data. From 2020 only those students can apply to higher education institutions who have at least one intermediate level state language certificate (i.e., B2) or an advanced level (B2) final school leaving certificate.

Following the changes in the higher education system in 2006 and 2013, the types of language and writing courses as well as the in-house language examinations have been modified. Additionally, English language students tend to write less in their content courses.

7. Conclusion

Based on the above overview, the English language skills of the students whose argumentative essays can be found in the Hungarian sub-corpus were shaped by a number of factors. The students were English majors at the School of English and American Studies of Eötvös University in Budapest. They were therefore students at the oldest and largest English department in Hungary to which the admission requirements were strict and where the entrance examination was the most competitive in the country. They started their studies in the pre-Bologna period (approximately between 2001 and 2003). This means that their English proficiency was good due to the more competitive entrance examination and higher than the current entry requirement level (cf., CPE/TOEFL based exemption criteria discussed in Section 2). At the time, English was less omnipresent outside the education context, and Internet access just started to become available in schools. Students received general English language training with mainstream ELT course books. The limited range of written genres they could practice with the course book tasks will have been negatively impacted by the single informal letter-writing task in the joint school leaving-university entrance examination in English. Therefore, most of them were first exposed to formal and academic writing practice, including argumentation, in their university courses. They wrote the argumentative essays included in the Hungarian sub-corpus in the third

year of their studies, following writing skills practice in several academic skills and content courses.

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General information on the language situation in Hungary and the educational system can be obtained from the Hungarian Educational Authority (https://www.oktatas.hu/) and the Hungarian Central Statistical Office (http://www.ksh.hu/education?lang=en).

General information on higher education can be accessed from the Hungarian Higher Education Entrance Examinations website of the Educational Authority (https://www.felvi.hu/).

Specific information on the curricula and courses in English at Hungarian universities is available from the individual university websites. For example,

- Eötvös Loránd University, Budapest (http://www.btk.elte.hu/Alias-197),
- University of Debrecen (http://tanarkepzes.unideb.hu/kepzes_osztatlan.php),
- University of Pécs (http://english.btk.pte.hu/content/full-time-degree-opportunities),
- University of Szeged (http://www.arts.u-szeged.hu/english/education/ma-programmes), or
- Pázmány Péter Catholic University (https://btk.ppke.hu/en/information-on-studies).

Further information about the history of the public education sector can be found in the *Pedagógiai lexicon* (Eds., Zoltán Báthory & Iván Falus, Keraban, Budapest, 1997, Vol. I-III).

20. The Status of English in Iran

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1. The language situation in Iran

With a population of almost 80 million, Iran, formerly known as Persia, is home to multiple ethnic groups, most notably Persians, Azerbaijanis, Kurds, Lurs and Balochs. Although Persian is the official language of the country, spoken by the vast majority of the people, a variety of other languages are spoken by different minorities. Like Persian, a number of these languages are from the Indo-European family and are very similar in morphology and syntax. Others, like Arabic and Azerbaijani Turkish, are distinct languages, but still share a large number of loan words with Persian. Every year an estimated number of 180-200 thousand individuals leave Iran to study or immigrate abroad. At the same time, the country is home to around a million Afghan immigrants and refugees.

Until recently, English and Arabic were the two mandatory foreign languages taught in the Iranian schooling system. English was chosen due to its status as an international language and Arabic is included into the curriculum as the language of the Quran, the Holy book of Muslims. As of 2015, students are no longer obligated to study English and are also given the option to choose from among German, French, Spanish and Chinese as the second foreign language studied alongside Arabic, but those who graduated prior to this date (including all the participants in the current project) are not affected by this policy shift. In spite of this, English remains the most widely-taught foreign language in Iranian schools. Although students begin to learn English from the seventh grade, it is common for many of them to attend English classes in private language schools from an earlier age. These extra-curricular English courses are more common among middle- and upper-middle-class families, who can afford such classes and more readily recognize the role of English in their children's future professional and academic success. Other than for visiting abroad, enjoying popular forms of media (English movies, music, etc.) and working in the context of academia and companies that do international business and trade, English does not play a major role in the day-to-day lives of most Iranians.

2. Foreign language education in Iranian schools

In Iran, the education system provides twelve years of schooling. For the first six years, children attend primary school (from ages 6-12), which is compulsory, and from 12 to 18, they attend high school. Schools in Iran are all gender-segregated, and are run by both the public sector, which is free-for-all, and the private sector, which charges a tuition fee. With a literacy rate of 97% for both boys and girls aged 15 to 24, Iran enjoys the highest rate of literacy in the region.

Foreign language education begins from seventh grade. English and Arabic have been traditionally taught in Iranian schools for the past three decades. Today, in spite of the recent policy to provide other alternatives, English still remains the most widely-selected foreign language in Iranian high schools. English is taught through a series of textbooks called *English for Schools.* These textbooks are designed by a team of Iranian language teaching specialists chosen by the *Organization for Educational Research and Planning*. Since Persian is written in the Arabic orthographic system, the textbooks bear the burden of introducing students to the English alphabet. Lessons are designed to engage all four skills and integrate themes and functions in each unit. This is a major departure from the previous textbooks used in Iranian schools (also locally designed), which mainly focused on reading and vocabulary. Students' performance is evaluated each year through a mid-term and a final-term examination. At the end of grades 8 and 11, students undergo a nation-wide examination. While almost all English teachers hold degrees in ELT, mostly from Iranian universities, the system lacks a rigorous training program preparing them for hands-on practice.

It is very common for Iranian students to attend extracurricular English courses at one of the many private language institutes. In fact, for many young Iranians, attending English classes is considered to be a recreational activity similar to arts, music or sports classes. Perhaps due to their commercial nature, private language schools offer classes that are very different from what is found in schools. First of all, with only a few exceptions, the textbooks used are by international publishers. The classes are very student-centered and communicative, and a greater focus is placed on oral/aural skills.

3. English in the context of higher education

Students are admitted to university programs through partaking in a nation-wide university entrance examination. The exam, which is different depending on the students' field of study in high school, includes English as one of its modules. A specialized entrance examination exists for those who wish to study majors such as English Literature, English Language Teaching and English Translation, where English is the medium of instruction. This specialized exam is norm-referenced and does not assume a minimum proficiency criterion for admission.

Regardless of their major, all undergraduate students are obliged to take a course on English. This course, which is usually offered during the first two years of study, is primarily aimed at developing students' academic reading and vocabulary knowledge. Textbooks often vary based on the students' major and are developed by the *Organization for Researching and Composing University Textbooks in the Humanities*. Most majors also require students to take a course on Specialized English, which mostly deals with introducing technical terminology of their field.

English is not the language of instruction for the majority of university majors in Iran, and only at the master's or PhD levels are students compelled to read books and articles in English. The insufficient attention paid to English at the university level becomes particularly problematic when it comes to writing scientific papers in English and getting them published in accredited, peer-reviewed journals.

4. The English Curriculum in the Humanities

The participants in the ICLE project were all students of English at university, either majoring in Literature, Language Teaching or Translation Studies. Students from all three majors take a number of shared courses during the first two years of their studies. These courses include, but are by no means limited to, grammar, reading comprehension, vocabulary, conversation and linguistics. Specialized courses begin to make their way into the curriculum from the second or third year of each program. Some universities also offer a few courses on writing including advanced writing, report writing, letter writing and essay writing. Since these courses do not exist within the core

curriculum and are believed to be optional, they can be taken at any semester in most programs.

For gaining admission to the master's or PhD programs, students must take part in a national examination. For PhD programs, universities reserve the right to hold their own examinations in addition to the one taken at the national level.

5. Approaches to the teaching of English

Until recently, the teaching of English in Iranian high schools followed the traditional grammar translation method, focusing heavily on the memorization of vocabulary and grammar rules. In general, Iranian classrooms are teacher-centered and English classes are no exception. The low level of student involvement in the classroom is partly cultural and partly due to the crowded nature of most classrooms. In contrast, in private language schools, classes are on average less crowded and follow a system of instruction and classroom management that more closely resembles that of classrooms in Western countries (some classes in private language schools are even co-educational). Teachers in private language schools are selected from among successful students and English majors at university, and proficiency in speaking is a major factor in their selection. The teacher training programs required for working in many private language schools are very similar to international English teacher accreditation courses such as the Cambridge CELTA and TESOL. For these reasons and more, there is an overall consensus that students studying at private language schools are generally more successful than those who simply rely on courses offered at school or university.

At university level, English classes are very limited and at best serve to introduce students to basic reading skills and technical vocabulary from their major. Over the past decade, it has become very common for Iranian university students to apply for master's and PhD programs abroad, especially in North American, Australian and European countries. Therefore, every year a large number of students prepare themselves for international proficiency tests such as the IELTS and TOEFL. These tests have had a huge washback effect, spurring candidates to improve their skills to levels required for studying at English-speaking countries.

6. Changes

Technological developments such as faster internet connections and the widespread use of computers and mobile phones have undeniably led to groundbreaking shifts in learning English around the world; but these changes have been particularly noticeable in Iran, a country where people under 30 form the largest population bloc. These technologies have paved the path for the consumption of English-language media, such as movies, television shows, music, video games and the like. The desire to enjoy such forms of entertainment (which are often frowned upon by government officials advocating local alternatives) alongside the great demand for higher education and immigration have greatly contributed to the learning of English in Iran.

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21. The Status of English in Korea

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1. The language situation in Korea

Koreans have traditionally placed great importance on education as a means of self-fulfilment and social advancement. Education is regarded as a high priority for South Korean families, as success in this area has cultural status and is essential to improve one's socio-economic position in South Korean society (Lee, 2014). Academic success is often a source of pride for families and within South Korean society at large.

Today, Korea boasts one of the highest literacy rates in the world, and at the same time Korean parents are among the highest spenders on English education, which accounts for the lion's share of their education budget. English is regarded as a gateway to social mobility and the middle class in society. Korean parents spend almost half of their entire household budget on private education. Given that the shadow of polarization between the haves and the have-nots looms over English education, the Korean government and its Education ministry have devised a variety of measures to tackle the issue of the "English divide" (Park, 2013). Factors affecting the polarization problem include the family's economic status, parents' educational background, private tutoring, learners' motivation, etc. As a result, a significant percentage of primary school age children receive some kind of private English education at one time or another, in addition to the already growing number of English classes offered at State-run schools (Jambor, 2014).

English education in Korea dates back to 1883 when Tong-mun-hak, a government-established institute, offered its first English programme. Since then English education has experienced ups and downs due to major historical events in and around the Korean peninsula, including the period of Japanese colonial rule. In 1955, the Korean government developed its first national curriculum for English education. From 1955 to the present day, reflecting national policy as well as societal requirements, English education policies have been primarily top-down: most of the ideas of what to teach and how to teach are decided by the government (Min, 2007). English was made a compulsory subject in secondary schools in 1973, and in primary schools in 1997.

The 1970s witnessed the predominance of test-driven, teacher-centred education, and a huge amount of grammar rules and vocabulary memorization in English education. Around the early 1980s, the government emphasized the concept of live English with a view to stressing the importance of learners' communicative ability (Min, 2007). English teaching in Korea is highly test-driven, particularly at high school and tertiary levels, with the high-stakes college entrance exam and TOEIC test determining students' futures (Shaffer, 2016), as the job market maintains an abnormally high expectation of English proficiency based on major English standardized tests such as TOEIC, TOEFL, etc. To overcome the cut-throat competition, more and more money has been spent on private English education despite some concerns over the effectiveness of the investment. Such absurd English fervour felt right across Korea can also be found overseas, as wealthier Korean parents have sent their offspring to English-speaking countries. The Korean government has been struggling to bring English education back to normal by reducing the amount of time and money Koreans spend on it.

2. Foreign language policy in primary and secondary schools

Korea has a single-track 6-3-3-4 system, which means six years of elementary school, three years of middle school, three years of high school, and four years of college and university. English education is primarily determined by the Ministry of Education, the government body responsible for formulating and implementing educational policy. The Korean government has revised its national curriculum relatively frequently, in particular its English education system to improve Korean students' English proficiency. The general objectives of English education focus on the cultivation of learners' basic communicative abilities and the promotion of an exchange between the culture of the learners and the target culture.

Although English teaching began in primary schools in 1982 as an extracurricular activity, it became a compulsory school subject for two hours for 3rd to 6th graders in 1997 (Kang, 2012). Primary school English education aims at fostering students' interest in learning English and developing basic communicative skills to enable them to understand English and express themselves in English in their daily lives with special emphasis on the spoken language (Korean Ministry of Education, 1997). The proportional approach with regard to oral and

written language skills has placed more emphasis on oral language skills in the lower grades with a gradual increase in written language in the higher grades (Min, 2007).

Since 1973, when English became a compulsory subject in secondary schools, it has been offered in level-differentiated courses based on students' proficiency at secondary school level. For each grade or stage course, three levels of classes – baseline, remedial, and advanced – are available, according to students' level of achievement. Secondary schools in Korea are divided into middle and high schools. The first and second years of middle school offer three hours of English classes per week, increased to four hours per week in the third year of middle school and the first, second and third years of high school.

3. The university context and the status of English

A large majority of Korean high school students go on to higher education at university or college. To be eligible, they are required to take the College Scholastic Ability Test or CSAT, which is a standardized test offered in November each year. All universities and colleges in Korea offer general and sometimes major-specific English courses, with a growing number making efforts to offer English-medium courses to enhance students' international competitiveness. For example, top universities provide English-medium courses, since English serves as an indispensable key to providing more successful professional opportunities in an ever-globalizing world. Every year the number of English-medium courses increases in Korea (Park & Park, 2006).

Most universities and colleges require their students to take at least one to four English courses before graduation. Students are exposed to both spoken and written English courses at tertiary levels. Even though students have opportunities to learn English, with the emphasis on the spoken language, English education at tertiary levels is still highly test-driven, mainly because of their motivation to learn English. English is regarded as one of the major factors affecting graduates' success in the job market, as many companies demand higher scores in standardized English exams, including the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC). In addition, virtually all Korean universities and colleges offer TOEIC test-preparation courses to increase graduates' employability, even though there is no government mandate

for universities to include TOEIC tests or preparation in the curriculum. The pursuit of high scores in the TOEIC tests has a negative impact on English education, as many students focus on obtaining good marks rather than learning English. Despite this negative washback effect, students learn and study English both on campus and at private language institutes. Furthermore, some students go to English-speaking countries for a year to enhance their English proficiency before graduating. In a nutshell, high scores in English aptitude tests like the TOEFL and TOEIC are basic and indispensable qualifications for job applications amid the ever-ferocious competition in the job market.

4. The English curriculum in the humanities

Students at tertiary levels, including those who have taken part in the ICLE-KR project, take English as a compulsory subject in their first or second year at university or college. Depending on the goals and plans of English education, tertiary-level schools offer different English courses, but mainly English for General Purposes.

The number of credits for students majoring in both English Language and Literature and English Education varies. Those students are required to take more English courses, including English Phonetics and Phonology, Introduction to English Linguistics, History of the English Language, English Composition, Contrastive Linguistics of English and Korean, British and American Cultures, British and American Literature, etc. Around a third to a half of these courses have been designated as compulsory, but these days more and more universities have turned compulsory into elective courses. For students majoring in English Education, a four-week teaching practice in primary or secondary schools is mandatory in their senior year. This is divided into class practice, student life guidance practice, and school and class administration practice.

5. Approaches to the teaching of English

The initial approach to English education in 1883, when English education first started, was spoken-oriented, since the teachers were native speakers of English who could not speak Korean at all. It was similar to the Direct Method, as those American teachers taught in English alone. During Japanese colonial rule, the Grammar-Translation Method was introduced and Korean teachers of English started teaching

English. After the Korean liberation from Japanese rule, Korea imported the Audio-Lingual Method (ALM), which involved many universities and colleges opening language labs to teach English on campus. ALM was popular up until the early 1990s. In 1995, the Korean government introduced Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) into the State-school English curriculum and it was subsequently extended to the tertiary level as well.

The Korean Ministry of Education and the local Offices of Education across the country relatively recently implemented the so-called "Certificate of Teaching English in English" (TEE). For the 10 years or so since 2005, Korea saw an increasing number of native English teachers in State schools, but this number has dropped under a new government plan to replace the native speakers of English with Korean teachers of English who have the TEE certificate.

6. Changes

The Korean English education system has undergone substantial changes since the first curriculum was developed in 1955. According to the latest curriculum, known as the "Revised English Curriculum" (2009), the number of new words to be learned in each grade has been reduced to minimize the learning load on students (Min, 2009). The ICLE-KR participants have received English education under the revised curriculum. In addition, the four language skills of English are taught in an integrated manner; communicative functions are the main content of oral language instruction; learners' cognitive and language level-based learning and teaching contents are recommended; and more learner-centred approaches, including more frequent pair and small group-based activities, are encouraged.

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22. The Status of English in Lithuania

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1. The language situation in Lithuania

Most of the nearly three million inhabitants of Lithuania speak the Lithuanian language, a Baltic language closely related to Latvian. The Lithuanian language is believed to be the most ancient Indo-European language still spoken, as it has preserved many archaic features from the ancestral Proto-Indo-European language. The Lithuanian language has two main dialects: the Aukštaičių (Aukštaitija, Highland Lithuania) and Žemaičių (Žemaitija/ Samogitia, Lowland Lithuania). The Aukštaičių dialect is the basis for the standard dialect of Lithuanian. The Lithuanian language enjoys the status of the state language, which was restored in 1988. The use of the Lithuanian language in various spheres of public life is regulated by the following documents: the Constitution of the Republic of Lithuania, the Law on the State Language, and the Law on Education.

Lithuania is a heterogeneous country in terms of nationalities. Apart from Lithuanians, which, according to the latest National Census of 2011, make 84.2% of the population, there are Poles (6.6%), Russians (5.8%) and others (3.4%). The need to have an integral language policy and a common integrated programme which would contain a concept for the prospects of all languages used in the country is being debated in the country.

Lithuania, being a small country, values multilingualism and understands the importance of the study of foreign languages. According to the 2011 National Census, 78.5% of Lithuanians speak at least one foreign language. Since 2001, this number has increased by almost 8 percentage points, and, as Statistics Lithuania reports, 63% of Lithuanians speak Russian, 30.4% -- English, 8.5% -- Polish, 8.3% – German. The Eurostat reports that Lithuania is the only EU member state where the share of older generation (those aged 55-64) who know at least one foreign language was higher than the corresponding share for the youngest group (those aged 25-34), with a gap of 2.2 percentage points. This is due to the fact that the older generation learnt Russian in Soviet times, whereas the younger generation has chosen English as

their first foreign language. With the entry of Lithuania in the EU, the demand for foreign languages has become even stronger. English is the first and Russian the second foreign language taught in the country. In general, it is claimed that the "multilingual situation in Lithuania is not without dynamic tensions, due to demographic and historical factors and the search for a just balance between the legitimate assertion of the state language, the full recognition of minority languages, and the growing demand for foreign languages" (for more information: Language Education Policy Profile).

2. Foreign language policy in primary and secondary schools

In Lithuania children can start compulsory education at the age of 6/7. Compulsory education as set by the Law on Education of the Republic of Lithuania lasts for 10 years (until the age of 16 or 17). After they complete the basic (lower secondary) education, they can apply for upper secondary education, which lasts for two years (17/18 to 18/19).

The official language of instruction is Lithuanian. The right of linguistic minorities to teach children their mother tongue and national history and to foster their culture is guaranteed by the Law on Education, so there are a few secondary schools where the language of instruction is Russian or Polish.

An official requirement of Lithuanian education policy is for pupils to know at least two foreign languages. Current social, cultural and economic situations dictate the need to know more than one foreign language; therefore, most schools provide the possibility to learn as many as three languages.

The teaching of the first foreign language (English or in rare cases it could be German or French) starts either in the second grade (in the case of the early foreign language teaching), or in the fourth grade of the primary school. According to the General Curriculum Plans for Secondary Education, a second and third foreign language can be chosen from English, German, French, Italian, Latvian, Polish, Russian, Spanish, etc. Statistics show that the majority of pupils choose Russian as a second foreign language, although the young generation uses mainly English outside school. It is often noted that the range of languages offered and chosen could be wider, and Romance and Nordic as well as neighbouring languages other than Russian should be

promoted and encouraged.

The standards of achievement for English are set out for four stages of teaching at the introductory, elementary, intermediary and advanced levels (as defined in the Concept of Education). At the start of secondary school, students can choose between two levels for their English classes: a B1 or B2 course, the overwhelming majority (over 80%) choosing B2. Upon completion of the secondary education, they can choose to take the matura examination of English which is aligned with the CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages) levels B1 and B2. The examination, however, is a must in order to apply for a free study place at local universities, so it is taken by the majority of school leavers (ca. 20,000 candidates over the last few years).

3. The university context and the status of English.

There are two types of higher education institutions in Lithuania: universities and colleges. Universities offer study programmes that can lead to Bachelor's, Master's or Doctoral degrees. Colleges offer studies that can award Professional Bachelor's degrees. Both universities and colleges also offer non-degree granting studies. Higher education studies are divided into three cycles: 1st cycle leads to a Professional Bachelor's or Bachelor's degree; 2nd cycle to a Master's degree and 3rd cycle to a Doctor of Sciences or Humanities degree. Applicants to the first cycle studies are required to have a Maturity certificate (upper secondary education certificate) or an equivalent certification. In addition to this, institutions can have supplementary admission requirements, such as the possession of the National Examination certificate, entrance exams, aptitude tests or aptitude interviews. The language of instruction in most institutions is Lithuanian (except foreign language departments), although there are courses offered in English, including entire degree programmes.

English is important in Lithuanian tertiary education, both as a subject in its own right and as an auxiliary subject. Universities in Lithuania have considerable autonomy and each of them can design their own curriculum. However, foreign language courses are part of the core curriculum in almost all higher education institutions for all study programmes. These foreign language courses are oriented towards developing academic and professional communication competence.

4. The English curriculum in the humanities

English as a major subject can be studied both at universities and colleges. Traditional English Philology programmes have been supplemented by other study programmes focusing on translation and cultural and literary studies.

The students who contributed essays to the present learner corpus were students majoring in English Philology. The majority of their lectures and classes were in English. They had a variety of courses, which could roughly be divided into several parts: the first part consisting of language proficiency classes such as the study of grammar, phonetics, academic writing, vocabulary enhancement and translation. The second part of the courses comprises theoretical subjects such as History of the English Language, British and American Literature, Morphology and Syntax, Stylistics, Semantics, Lexicology and Lexicography, Corpus Linguistics, Pragmatics and Applied Linguistics. The third part consists of optional courses such as courses in Cultural Studies, which comprise the exploration of the history, geography, culture and civilization of the English-speaking countries. Besides British and American Studies, students could choose courses in the field of Canadian and Irish Studies. The programme completes with the defence of the Bachelor thesis. Students majoring in English can now also choose a minor study programme of a different field or combine different courses (languages) of the main field.

5. Approaches to the teaching of English

The teaching of foreign languages, including English, has changed considerably since 1990, when Lithuania regained Independence. The Soviet educational system did not need real communication in a foreign language environment, as people were not allowed to travel abroad or meet foreigners. The foreign language teaching methodology was based on the Grammar Translation and Audiolingual methods. As a result, even after years of learning a foreign language, students were not able to use it for communicative purposes. The emphasis was on vocabulary, grammar, reading and writing, while speaking and listening were not considered to be important. Since 1990, after the restoration of independence in Lithuania, teaching / learning of foreign languages, including English, has been mainly impacted by various European trends. The most popular approaches in foreign language methodology

became courses in Communicative, Content Based Teaching and Outcomes Based Teaching.

In primary and secondary education, the fundamental principles are formulated in the *General Concept of Education* and *National Education Strategy*, which outlines the status of foreign language instruction in national education and states that the strategic vision is to increase teaching foreign languages at the secondary level of the Lithuanian educational system and to teach two or three foreign languages during higher education. The institutions of higher learning in Lithuania are granted considerable autonomy and each of them designs its own curriculum. However, foreign language courses are part of the core curriculum in all higher education institutions for all the specialities.

At university level, the content of the programme may vary from institution to institution. The students who contributed to the learner corpus were enrolled in the English Philology programme, which has the following characteristics: all lectures and seminars are taught in English; communication skills are mastered with native speakers; students are taught to be open to new cultural phenomena, to understand the main ideas expressed in major current linguistic and literary theories and to apply them in practice; special importance is given to research paper writing; the students are expected to pursue research in linguistics, both theoretical and applied, ELT, cultural studies and literature.

6. Changes

The Lithuanian education system underwent fundamental changes in the 1990s with the restoration of Lithuania's independence and dismantling the Soviet education system. Since then, the Lithuanian education system has been undergoing a continuous reform and even today the topic of reforming Lithuania's education system is part and parcel of public discourse. The policy of foreign language teaching has changed as well. Before the year 2000, it was mandatory that two languages be studied throughout the school year. Since 2000, with the introduction of *profiling* in upper secondary education, the second language has become compulsory only for those who chose the humanities programme. Since 2000, the Ministry of Education allows very limited experiments in early foreign language learning (as of 2

grade) and CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning).

The expansion of the learning environment and English language usage is making teaching English more and more challenging. This challenge should be met by constantly reviewing and updating the programmes, by introducing new approaches and methods as well as by increased willingness to cooperate across all educational sectors.

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23. The Status of English in the Republic of Macedonia

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1. The language situation in the Republic of Macedonia

Based on the data from the latest census of 2002, the Republic of Macedonia has a total population of 2,022,547. The native languages of the surveyed individuals were Macedonian (66.5%), Albanian (25.1%), Turkish (3.6%), Romany (1.9%), Serbian (1.2%), Bosniak (0.4%), Vlach (0.3%) and other languages (1%).

Macedonian is the official language in the Republic of Macedonia, along with its Cyrillic script. That said, in those units of local self-government where at least 20% of the population speaks a language other than Macedonian, that language and its script are also in official use as specified by law, in addition to the Macedonian language and its Cyrillic script. Members of the communities have a constitutionally guaranteed right to receive primary and secondary education in their native language and to cherish and further develop their own culture.

Compared to other foreign languages, English has been unrivalled in its influence on the Macedonian society in recent decades. Macedonian citizens are being massively exposed to the English language in the media, most notably on the Internet and the vast array of TV channels that broadcast their programmes in English. Even on national TV channels, British or American films are never dubbed, but always subtitled. In addition, international business communication is generally conducted in English, and most job advertisements require a decent command of the English language. The huge influence of English is also evident in the fact that English is a compulsory subject in schools starting from the first grade of primary school, at age 6.

2. Foreign language policy in primary and secondary schools

Prior to the establishment of the first English language section (called a 'lectorate') at Ss. Cyril and Methodius University in Skopje in 1950, one can hardly speak of any organised form of English language instruction at this university (Babamova, 2008: 121). This section grew into an English Seminar and, in 1964, into a separate Department of English

Language and Literature. The first series of English textbooks for Macedonian primary school learners were published in the 1960s (Babamova, 2008: 122). In the eight-year primary school system English was taught in grades V-VIII, followed by up to four years of English language study in secondary schools. Though widely popular, English at that point still did not have the status of a compulsory subject for all primary and secondary school students, as in some schools it was an optional foreign language.

As of 2004, children spend nine years in a primary school, starting at age 6. In 2007, English became a compulsory subject for all first-graders, who then continue having English lessons throughout their primary education. Information from the State Statistical Office on the primary and secondary schools in the Republic of Macedonia in the school year 2014/2015 (2015: 21) confirms that, nowadays, all primary school pupils have English as their compulsory first foreign language in grades I-IX. Another foreign language is introduced in the sixth grade, and this is most frequently German or French. Considerably fewer pupils have Italian or Russian as their second foreign language in grades VI-IX. Having said that, in some primary schools the second foreign language (German or French) is introduced along with English as early as the first grade, but the number of first-graders involved in such programmes is less than 1%.

In Macedonian secondary schools, students primarily have English as their first compulsory foreign language (97.46%), although there are some other options: German (0.32%), French (2.09%) and Russian (0.13%). The most popular second foreign language is German, followed by French, English, Turkish, Italian and Russian (2015: 45).

Macedonian primary and secondary schools give students the opportunity to receive education in their native language: Macedonian, Albanian, Turkish or Serbian.

3. The university context and the status of English

When students complete their secondary school education, they generally choose to further their education at one of the universities in the Republic of Macedonia or abroad. Bachelor's degree programmes take three to six years, depending on the chosen field of study.

The number of students who decide to pursue a master's or a doctoral degree is on the rise compared to previous decades. Based on the information available from the State Statistical Office, the number of awarded doctoral degrees has increased from 92 in 2005 to 246 in 2015, while the number of awarded master's degrees has increased from 198 in 2005 to 2,440 in 2015. Remaining competitive in the job market seems to be one of the main reasons for students to further their education after completing their undergraduate studies.

There are five state universities and more than ten accredited private higher education institutions dispersed throughout the Republic of Macedonia. All of them have specific enrolment requirements, but they most frequently rely on secondary school results, and occasionally include an admission test. At most higher education institutions, lectures are generally delivered in Macedonian, with the exception of the foreign languages departments. However, some universities also offer instruction in English or Albanian.

Within their study programmes, some faculties offer English language courses tailored to the needs of the students in those particular fields of study. For example, students at the faculties of law, economics, civil engineering, mechanical engineering, medicine, visual arts, etc. attend ESP courses that help them master the field-specific terminology in English.

On the reading lists for university students there are sometimes books originally written in English. Students, however, are not expected to read these books in the original, but can refer to their translation to facilitate understanding. This, of course, does not apply to the English Departments at the universities or the universities where English is the language of instruction.

4. The English curriculum in the humanities

By the time students enrol in the English departments at the Macedonian universities, most of them will have had thirteen years of English at school. This applies to those students who started learning English in Grade I of primary school. These students are expected to reach level B2 according to CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages) when they complete secondary school. In the course of the four years' university studies, students are expected to

gradually progress from level B2 (upper-intermediate), through level C1 (advanced), all the way to proficiency in English, or level C2 according to CEFR.

At Ss. Cyril and Methodius University in Skopje, throughout the course of their university studies, English majors have three compulsory subjects (Modern English Language, English Grammar and English Literature) covering various aspects of the general field in each subsequent semester. These three subjects constitute the basic module. In addition, students select a second module (Teaching or Translation /Interpretation) which includes courses that help students specialise in order to become teachers or translators/interpreters. Besides that, students can also choose electives that are not necessarily related to their primary field of study.

To earn a bachelor's degree, a student must earn 240 ECTS credits altogether. Study programmes are adjusted to the standards fundamental to the Bologna Process, which is why students can apply to participate in mobility programmes, such as Erasmus+.

The Macedonian subcorpus in ICLE consists entirely of argumentative essays written by students of English language and literature in Years 2, 3 and 4 at the Faculty of Philology, Ss. Cyril and Methodius University in Skopje, Republic of Macedonia. Most of them had up to nine years of English at school prior to their enrolment in the University.

5. Approaches to the teaching of English

In primary and secondary schools, English language instruction is mainly structured around the national curricula and syllabi, and is based on a coursebook by one of the major ELT publishers. The development of the four skills (reading, writing, listening and speaking) is encouraged and emphasis is generally placed on vocabulary acquisition and practice of grammatical structures. Students receive practically no training in writing argumentative essays. In state schools, English teachers are almost exclusively non-native speakers, while private primary or secondary schools employ native alongside non-native staff. The vast majority of the students who have contributed their essays to the ICLE corpus had attended state schools prior to their enrolment at the university. In the teaching process, traditional approaches are still

widespread, as well as the audio-lingual method. Communicative methods are making their way in the state schools, even though they have long been present in private language schools. Most schools are equipped with ICT equipment.

At universities, English is generally taught by non-native teachers. Native English teachers, when present, are a valuable asset to the learning process. The methods applied in English language classes in a university setting vary considerably and are largely dependent on the nature of the courses. In Modern English Language classes, teachers primarily rely on non-literary texts (found in ELT coursebooks at levels B2, C1 and C2 according to CEFR) and cover grammatical structures and vocabulary in a more interactive manner. Although British English is the variety most commonly used in these coursebooks, teachers point to the lexical differences between British and American English when appropriate. Academic writing is a constituent part of the curriculum, and in these classes students become acquainted with the principles of writing different types of academic texts, including argumentative essays. The application of technology is seen in the use of PowerPoint presentations in the delivery of lectures, the use of videos and music to enhance the learning experience for the students and the informal use of wikis, blogs, discussion forums, etc. The number of classes per course is varied. Study periods abroad are not compulsory, and student mobility is encouraged through the Erasmus+ mobility programme. In addition, many students participate in Work-and-Travel programmes in the US, seeing this as a valuable opportunity to improve their English while being totally immersed in a native English-speaking environment.

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Syllabus for English as a Foreign Language in secondary schools
http://bro.gov.mk/docs/nastavni-programi/Stranski%20jazici/Nastavna%20programa-Angliski%20jazik-prv%20stranski-I%20godina.pdf

24. The Status of English in Pakistan

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1. The language situation in Pakistan

Pakistan has a rich linguistic background with more than 60 local languages spoken across the country. Interestingly, Urdu – the local lingua franca and national language – is the mother tongue of only 7.57% of the population according to the 1998 census. Punjabi is the mother tongue of 44.15% of the population and has the highest number of speakers.

Pakistan and India have a common history prior to 1947 as part of the Indian sub-continent. English was introduced by the British rulers for official purposes and to communicate with the locals. After Pakistan gained independence in 1947, English retained its status as an official language in the country.

As an ideological State, Pakistan promotes Urdu as a symbol of Islamic identity and to meet the need for a lingua franca. Urdu has the status of co-official language in Pakistan, alongside Sindhi and Pashto. Historically, Urdu and English have competed to be the main official language of Pakistan. English, being an international language and the language of the country's elite, is used in courts of law, the army and offices and is also the medium of higher education.

There is a long history of half-hearted attempts to replace the de facto official language, i.e. English, with Urdu. The Sharif Commission (1959) acknowledged that Urdu was not ready to be used as an official language: "in approximately 15 years Urdu would reach the point of development where it could become the medium of instruction at the university level" (Mansoor, 1993: 10). Article 251 of the Constitution of Pakistan (1973) also required Urdu to be the official language within the next 15 years. In September 2015 the Supreme Court of Pakistan ordered the government to make Urdu mandatory for official and other purposes. No practical steps have ever been taken by the government to replace English with Urdu, however.

2. Foreign language policy in primary and secondary schools

During British rule in the sub-continent, there were two parallel systems of education – English medium and vernacular medium. This dichotomy still exists in modern-day Pakistan. The contesting political ideologies of the powers that be vacillated from Zulfiqar Ali Bhutto's socialist tendencies to Zia-ul-Haq's right-wing leanings in the 1970s and 1980s. Subsequently, Urdu was imposed as the medium of instruction in all government schools from Class 1, and English was not introduced until Class 6, during Zia-ul-Haq's regime. Arabic was also introduced as a subject in schools during the same regime.

English-medium fever is clearly evident in the explosive growth of private English-medium schools across Pakistan. Rahman (2005) enumerated the three types of English-medium schools in Pakistan (a) State-influenced elitist public schools or cadet colleges, (b) private elitist schools, and (c) non-elitist schools. Rahman (2002) observed that the term "English-medium" has become synonymous with quality education in well-resourced schools. Manan, Dumanig & David (2015) noted that people in Pakistan perceive early-English policy as inevitable and believe that the earlier an English-medium policy is adopted, the better. Parallel to English-medium and Urdu-medium schools, there are religious seminaries (madrassas), which adopt Urdu or the vernacular medium of instruction along with Arabic.

Following the recommendations of the Federal Government of Pakistan, Sindh and Punjab introduced English from Grade 1 in State-owned primary schools as an additional subject in 1994. However, the Government of Punjab made English a medium of instruction in schools in 2009. This decision was in line with the National Education Policy (2009), "English is important for competition in a globalized (sic) world order. The challenge is that a child is able to carry forward their cultural assets and, at the same time, be able to compete nationally and internationally (para 21)." The Punjab Education and English Language Initiative report (2014) states that the standard of English-language teaching is not very encouraging at State-owned schools due to the lack of competence and training of the English-language teachers. There is a weak framework for teacher training and the teaching material promotes cramming among students.

3. The university context and the status of English

After ten years of school education (Secondary School Certificate), students are admitted to colleges for the 11th and 12th years of education (Higher Secondary Certificate/Intermediate). English is taught as a compulsory subject in colleges. For all science courses, including biology, physics, chemistry, etc., the medium of instruction is English, but students can opt for Urdu as a medium of instruction for arts courses. After successful completion of Intermediate, students may enrol at a university or continue at college to obtain a BA. University education in Pakistan follows two streams: the annual system and the semester system. The annual system is usually for students who are studying privately, i.e. those not attending a university. The university only arranges examinations for them. The annual system follows two years of BA and two years of MA (15th and 16th years of education). English is a compulsory subject up to Bachelor's degree level but for MA programmes (private candidates) in various humanities and arts subjects there is a choice of either English or Urdu as the medium of instruction. The semester system is used by all public and private-sector universities for all enrolled students. Officially, the medium of instruction at university is English but in practice, it is bilingual.

English has consistently been chosen as a medium of instruction in higher education. Mansoor (2004) noted that the official policy with regard to language was to retain English as the medium of instruction in higher education after the country's independence in 1947, as seen in all educational policies and reports by education commissions and committees set up in this regard (1957-1998).

4. The English curriculum in the humanities

The medium of instruction at universities is English for science and humanities students. University students have to take courses such as English for Specific Purposes, Writing and Business English as minor subjects to successfully complete their degree. The availability of numerous job vacancies for English teachers attracts a great number of students to study English for their BA and Master's programmes in English Literature, English Linguistics or Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL). Students in these degree programmes usually have a background in the historical development of English and in standard and non-standard varieties of English. Students have to

submit assignments, give presentations, prepare reports and take exams in English in all the university disciplines. Professional training is available under the banner of the Higher Education Commission of Pakistan for doctors, engineers and pre-service and in-service English teachers.

Proficiency in English varies among university students, depending on the type of school they attended. Pakistan has two parallel education streams. One runs in government-owned educational institutions and middle-class private schools, where the students rely on rote learning. The examination system is chiefly writing-oriented, so the spoken aspect is often neglected. Paradoxically, writing is not taught as a skill and the students memorise the material that they reproduce in their examinations. This covers a large majority of the students in the country. In the other stream, there are elite private educational institutions, which follow the Cambridge and Oxford university syllabi and use English as the medium of instruction. This covers a small minority of the population. Students from the elitist English-medium schools are more confident and proficient in English, while students from the Urdu-medium or non-elitist English-medium schools face difficulties in using English.

5. Approaches to teaching English

Except in the elitist English-medium schools, the Communicative Language Teaching approach is not adopted. The majority of State-owned schools in Pakistan use the Grammar Translation Method because the teachers lack competence in English and are not properly trained for teaching. In these schools, the students study English as a subject; hence, the focus is only on writing skills. Recent English textbooks promote the learning of all four skills, but the untrained or poorly trained teachers are unable to follow the intended methodology in letter and spirit. The non-elitist English-medium schools take an eclectic approach and use the Oxford University Press textbooks published in Pakistan. There are hardly any native speakers of English teaching English in Pakistan.

Pakistani students are exposed to both British and American varieties of English. During higher studies, they become familiar with the differences between the spelling conventions and lexical differences in the two varieties of English. There are several varieties of English in

Pakistan with varying degrees of prestige (Coleman & Capstick, 2012). Teachers do not strictly adhere to the British, American or Pakistani standards of English[38]. There is no clear policy about the selection of a particular variety of English. Previously, textbooks mainly presented the British variety, but now up to school level textbooks are written by local Pakistani writers. The teachers claim that they are teaching British English but in reality they are using the Pakistani variety of English. The ICLE participants have been using textbooks written by Pakistanis and are taught by Pakistani teachers.

6. Changes

There have been some serious efforts to introduce change into the Pakistani education system in recent times. In Punjab, the Education and English Language Initiative (PEELI) in conjunction with the Directorate of Staff Development (DSD) launched a five-year project (2013-2018). This initiative aims to train 180,000 primary and middle-school teachers who teach English, maths, science and computer science to 15 million children aged 5-14 in over 56,000 schools across Punjab. Overall, PEELI will be helping 300,000 teachers improve their English language and pedagogical skills (PEELI One Year Report 2014). However, there is no evidence of any sudden change in the status of English in Pakistan.

7. ICLE Pakistan participants

The majority of the participants in the ICLE Pakistan corpus have been the product of Urdu-medium schools. They have read English as a compulsory subject from Grade 1 to graduation level and represent the majority of English-language learners in Pakistan. The essays in the corpus have been collected from regular university students in the province of Punjab, whose medium of instruction is bilingual.

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25. The Status of English in Serbia

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1. The language situation in Serbia

The current population of Serbia is around 7 million people, and Serbs comprise somewhat more than 80% of that total, while 88.09% of the population stated their first language as Serbian (in the year 2011). Ethnic and linguistic minorities speak Hungarian, Romani, Romanian, Albanian, and Slavic languages, most of which are South Slavic. Most people who belong to minorities are bilingual and Serbian schools provide both minority and Serbian mother tongue courses. In municipalities where ethnic/language minorities constitute more than 15% of the total population, the language of that minority is used officially, as prescribed by Serbian law. In fact, knowledge of minority language(s) is compulsory for certain positions in civil service, while certain minorities can receive education at all levels in their mother tongue.

2. Foreign language policy in primary and secondary schools

As in many other countries, English has been the most important foreign language in Serbia for almost six decades. In 2004, the Ministry of Education decided that foreign language should be a compulsory subject in the first grade of primary school. (In Serbia, primary school is intended for children ages 7-15, and has eight grades.) In 95% of Serbian schools, English is the first foreign language. English can be taught by general teachers or English teachers in grades 1-4, while in grades 5-8 it is usually taught by an English teacher, who must hold a master's degree. However, schools in some developing and rural areas are understaffed, so English can be taught by a teacher who attended English courses at university, but who majored in another foreign language or has equivalent qualifications. All secondary schools offer English and pupils are thus given an opportunity to improve their knowledge. Secondary education can last for three years (vocational schools) or four years, which is what most pupils prefer, because four-year schools allow them to enter university. In secondary schools,

English is taught by subject teachers. Although textbooks are usually British, teachers point out the differences between British and American varieties, while many of them prefer American English.

Although secondary school is not compulsory, a vast majority of pupils choose to enter secondary school. Virtually all students tend to continue learning English in secondary schools and at universities.

Apart from English, Serbian schools usually offer German, French, or Russian, while Spanish and Italian are also available.

3. The university context and the status of English

University students are required to learn at least one foreign language, although English is usually not compulsory. Still, due to its importance, more than 90% of students take up English, while others can choose between German, French, Russian, or some other language, usually Italian or Spanish. Universities offer both General English and ESP courses, although most of them are actually a mixture of these two.

Unfortunately, certain faculties and/or colleges do not recognize the importance of English; they treat it as a subject meant to fill in the number of teaching hours and do not attach much importance to ESP. The number of hours of English per week is often insufficient; many teachers have to teach large groups of students; and students often enrol with varying degrees of English proficiency, while they all have to attend the same courses. Teachers thus have to deal with large, mixed-ability classes. In these circumstances, some teachers heavily rely on grammar parsing and translation, while other skills are neglected.

English is not generally used as the medium of instruction in Serbia, and books in Serbian are commonly available. However, students majoring in certain fields, such as IT, economics, or business, cannot make much progress if they are not proficient in English, and faculties which offer majors in these subjects usually put a strong emphasis on English courses.

4. The English curriculum in the humanities

Since English is a popular field of study, a number of universities in Serbia offer English as a major subject. Students who opt for state

universities have to pass an entrance exam (CEFR level B2 at major universities), while privately owned universities and minor state universities have different enrolment policies.

The learner corpus was collected at two major public universities offering English as a major subject. These bachelor courses last four academic years and involve the study of English, English linguistics, ELT Methodology, translation, English and American literature, and, sometimes, cultural studies. Students who want to pursue teaching careers or to specialize in a particular field of English Studies must have an M.A. degree, which requires another year of study. Major universities also offer 3-year PhD courses.

Universities choose teaching materials freely, and most of them use foreign teaching materials supplemented by materials provided by the teacher. The most important course is usually called *Savremeni engleski jezik* (*Modern English*) and it includes all four skills (speaking, reading, listening, and writing), often taught as integrated skills, while some Modern English courses also include translation. Linguistics courses usually include phonology, morphology, syntax, lexicology, semantics, pragmatics, contrastive analysis, and other disciplines. Literature courses are also compulsory and mostly focus on British and American authors. Since many students want to qualify to be teachers, all English departments offer teaching methodology courses, but they are usually not compulsory because students have the freedom to choose other courses if they do not want to work as teachers.

5. Approaches to the teaching of English

Although Serbian authorities advocate the use of modern approaches, those approaches are not explicitly stated (e.g. communicative, functional); teachers are simply given a set of vague guidelines and are thus left on their own. This means that teachers have to use their creativity, and there are no comprehensive studies that give an overall picture of the approaches most commonly used in Serbian schools. Generally, teachers can be divided roughly into two groups – traditional and modern. Traditional teachers focus their classes on grammar, and translation, while modern teachers use the communicative language approach, and their classes are mostly practical.

When asked about their English classes in primary or secondary school, many university students complained about "useless classes," which often boiled down to learning grammar rules or translating while having few opportunities to speak or to practice writing, further demonstrating the traditional/modern distinction. What many teachers say also confirms these problems; while many students have some knowledge of English, they have problems with speaking or writing (Janković 2016), i.e. their productive skills must be further improved so as to help them develop their ability to communicate in real-life situations.

Luckily, foreign language programmes are almost always subtitled; the most popular films, TV series, and music are American. In addition, Internet access is cheap, and many parents encourage their children to learn English and to improve it, which is why privately-owned language schools can be found almost anywhere. These schools can often compensate for the lack of modern teaching in some schools.

6. Changes

English became the dominant foreign language in Serbian curricula in the 1970s, and now it is the most widely taught foreign language. The educational system in Serbia put a much stronger emphasis on the importance of English at the beginning of the 21st century, and it is now present in every school or university. As stated above, English is taught from first grade, and there is virtually no child who is not exposed to English. Certain changes are currently underway, and it is very likely that students will be expected to be at the B2 level when they finish secondary school.

NOTE

A part of the Serbian corpus was collected in the Republic of Srpska (one of the two entities in Bosnia and Herzegovina). The overall socio-cultural background in the Republic of Srpska may be summarized briefly as rather similar to the situation in Serbia, since both territories share a very similar historical, socio-cultural, and linguistic heritage. Therefore, only basic information on the status of English in the school system of the Republic of Srpska is provided in this note.

A great deal of effort has been put into modernisation of ELT in primary and secondary education in recent years, which seems to have led to a considerable

improvement in the overall cognitive and communicative foundations of the language learning process. According to official documents, the primary school ELT is targeted at the CEFR A2 level and the secondary school at the CEFR B2 level. The B2 level is also the enrolment prerequisite for English language and literature studies at the university.

After the official implementation of the Bologna system, the standard university scheme in the Arts and Humanities is the 4+1(+3) pattern. English Language and Literature, which was a very popular single major subject study programme for years in the old tradition, is now offered in a very similar Bologna-like pattern. The learner corpus was mostly collected at such study programmes at the two public universities. Most of the compulsory courses in the programme are focused on English linguistics, British and American literature, the language itself, and methodology courses. There are also new BA study programmes in language and literature studies including two major subjects, gaining popularity steadily, even if slowly. Several essays in the corpus were contributed by students of such a study programme in Chinese and English.

In the end, we should state that English is definitely the most widespread foreign language in the Republic of Srpska, since every primary school student starts learning it at the age of 9. Taking into consideration that there are noticeable differences among English teaching-learning contexts throughout the Republic of Srpska itself, we can say that its overall success depends on many social and general factors, apart from official educational policy. Nevertheless, some considerable progress in ELT at all levels has been evident, which, hopefully, will improve English language proficiency in general.

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APPENDIX 1: INSTITUTION CODES

INSTITUTIONS	
Austria - Paris- Lodron-Universität Salzburg	SA
Austria - Wirtschafts- und Fremdsprachenakademie Salzburg	SA
Belgium - Katholieke Vlaamse Hoogeschool, Antwerpen	AN
Belgium - Université catholique de Louvain	UC
Belgium - Université de Liège	UL
Belgium - Université libre de Bruxelles	UB
Brazil – Minas Gerais Federal University	MG
Brazil – Fluminense Federal University	FF
Brazil – Rio de Janeiro Catholic University	RC
Brazil – Rio de Janeiro Federal University	RF
Brazil – Rio de Janeiro State University	RS
Brazil – São Paulo Catholic University	SC
Brazil – São Paulo Methodist University	SM
Brazil – São Paulo State University	SS
Brazil – São Paulo University	SU
Bulgaria - Sofia University « St. Kliment Ohridski »	SU
Bosnia and Herzegovina – University of East Sarajevo	ES
Bosnia and Herzegovina – University of Banja Luka	BJ
China/ United Kingdom- University of Portsmouth	UK
China/Hong Kong - English Language Centre, Hong Kong Polytechnic University	HK
Czech Republic - Charles University, Prague	PR
Czech Republic - J.E. Purkyne University, Usti nad Labem	PU
Czech Republic - J.E. Purkyne University, Usti nad Labem	UN
Czech Republic - Masaryk University, Brno	PR
Czech Republic - University of Education Hradec Kralove	KR
Finland - Abo Akademi	AB
Finland - Helsingin yliopisto	HE
Finland - Joensuun yliopisto	JO
Finland - Jyväskylän yliopisto	JY
Finland - Oulun yliopisto	OU
Finland - Turun yliopisto	TU
Germany - Universität Augsburg	AU
Germany - Universität Dresden	DR
Greece – Aristotle University of Thessaloniki	AR
Hungary - Eötvös Loránd University	EL
Italy – Università del Piemonte Orientale « A.Avogadro »	VE
Italy – Università di Bergamo	B
Italy – Università di Milano - La Cattolica	MC
Italy – Università di Milano - La Statale	MS
Italy – Università di Roma - La Sapienza	RS

Italy – Università di Roma - Libera Università Internazionale degli Studi Sociali, LUISS	RL
Italy – Università di Torino	TO
Iran – Ferdowsi University of Mashhad	MA
Iran – Golestan University	GOL
Iran – Hakim Sabzevari University	SAB
Iran – Imam Reza University	IR
Iran – Khayyam Institute for Higher Education	KI
Japan – Dokkyo University	DO
Japan – Fuji University	FJ
Japan – Hiroshima International University	HI
Japan – Keio University	KO
Japan – Kooriyama Women's University	KW
Japan – Kyoto University	KY
Japan - Meiji University	MJ
Japan - Miyagi University of Education	MI
Japan – Musashi University	MU
Japan – Nihon University	NH
Japan – Okayama University	OK
Japan – Rikkyo University	RI
Japan – Seijyo University	SE
Japan – Shinshu University	SH
Japan – Shonann Institution of technology	ST
Japan – Showa Women's University	SW
Japan – Tamagawa University	TM
Japan – Tokai University	TK
Japan – Tokyo University of Foreign Studies	TF
Japan – Waseda University	WA
Japan – Aichi Shukutoku University	AI
Korea – Busan University of Foreign Studies	BF
Korea – Dongguk University	DG
Korea – Hankuk University of Foreign Studies	HF
Korea – Hanyang University	HY
Korea – Myongji University	MJ
Korea – Sangmyung University	SA
Lithuania – Vilnius University	VI
Lithuania – Vytautas Magnus University	VY
Macedonia – Ss.Cyril and Methodius University in Skopje	CM
Norway – American College of Norway	AC
Norway - Bergen College	HB
Norway - Hedmark College	HE
Norway – Oslo College	HO
Norway – Ostfold college	OS
Norway – University of Oslo	UO
Norway – Agder College	AG
Norway- Buskerud University	BU

Norway – University of Bergen	BE
Pakistan – Allama Iqbal Medical College Lahore	AM
Pakistan – llama Iqbal Open University	AO
Pakistan – Commerce College Jhang	CJ
Pakistan – Ghazali Degree College Jhang	GD
Pakistan – Government College University Faisalabad	GF
Pakistan – Government College Jhang	GJ
Pakistan – Government College Women Madina Town Faisalabad	GM
Pakistan – Government College Women Toba Tek Singh	GS
Pakistan – Government College Women Jhang	GW
Pakistan – Islamia College of Commerce Jhang	IJ
Pakistan – Lahore College for Women University	LW
Pakistan – Millat College Jhang	MJ
Pakistan – Punjab Univeristy Lahore	PL
Pakistan – Quaid Azam University Islamabad	QI
Pakistan – Rachna College Jhang	RJ
Pakistan – Sargodha University	SU
Pakistan – University of Agriculture Faisalabad	UF
Pakistan – Virtual University Lahore	VL
Poland - Adam Mickiewicz University, Poznan	PZ
Poland - Jagiellonian University, Cracow	PZ
Poland - Maria Curie-Sklodowska University, Lublin	LU
Poland - University of Silesia, Sosnowiec	SI
Russia – Moscow Lomonosov State University	MO
Serbia – University of Belgrade	BG
Serbia – University of Novi Sad	NS
South Africa- Kimberley College	KC
South Africa- Northwest University	NO
South Africa- Potchefstroom University	PO
South Africa- WITS University	WI
Spain – Universidad Complutense de Madrid	M
Spain – Universidad de Alcala	AL
Sweden - Göteborgs universitet	UG
Sweden – Lunds universitet	UL
Sweden - Växjö universitet	UV
Switzerland – Universität Basel	BA
The Netherlands – Free University of Amsterdam	AM
The Netherlands - University of Groningen	GR
The Netherlands - University of Nijmegen	NI
Turkey - University of Çukurova	CU
Turkey - University of Mustafa Kemal	KE
Turkey- Mersin University	ME

APPENDIX 2: SUGGESTED ESSAY TITLES

(1) Crime does not pay.

(2) The prison system is outdated. No civilised society should punish its criminals: it should rehabilitate them.

(3) Most university degrees are theoretical and do not prepare students for the real world. They are therefore of very little value.

(4) A man/woman's financial reward should be commensurate with their contribution to the society they live in.

(5) The role of censorship in Western society.

(6) Marx once said that religion was the opium of the masses. If he was alive at the end of the 20th century, he would replace religion with television.

(7) All armies should consist entirely of professional soldiers: there is no value in a system of military service.

(8) The Gulf War has shown us that it is still a great thing to fight for one's country.

(9) Feminists have done more harm to the cause of women than good.

(10) In his novel Animal Farm, George Orwell wrote "All men are equal: but some are more equal than others" How true is this today?

(11) In the words of the old song "Money is the root of all evil"

(12) Europe: loss of sovereignty or birth of a nation?

(13) In the 19th century, Victor Hugo said: "How sad it is to think that nature is calling out but humanity refuses to pay heed." Do you think it is still true nowadays?

(14) Some people say that in our modern world, dominated by science technology and industrialisation, there is no longer a place for dreaming and imagination. What is your opinion?

APPENDIX 3: LIST OF MULTIWORD UNITS (CLAWS)

Compound lexical entries	Tags (SPOS+POS)	Frequency
a bit	ADV+RR	310
a capella	ADJ+JJ	1
a fortiori	ADV+RR	1
a good deal	ADV+RR	3
a great deal	ADV+RR	64
a la	PREP+II	2
à la	PREP+II	7
à la mode	ADV+RR	1
a little	ADV+RR	266
a little bit	ADV+RR	100
a lot	ADV+RR	448
a posteriori	ADJ+JJ	1
a priori	ADJ+JJ	3
according as	C+CSU+CS	1
according to	PREP+II	3359
ad astra	ADV+RR	2
adjacent to	PREP+II	1
ahead of	PREP+II	40
all at once	ADV+RR	11
all but	ADV+RR	14
all of a sudden	ADV+RR	41
all right	ADV+RR	63
all the same	ADV+RR	33
alma mater	N+NN1	4
along with	PREP+II	244
alter ego	N+NN1	4
an awful lot	ADV+RR	2
ancien regime	N+NN1	1
and so forth	ADV+RR	70
and so on	ADV+RR	727
any longer	ADV+RR	110
anything but	ADV+RR	44
apart from	PREP+II	477
art nouveau	N+NN1	3
as against	PREP+II	2
as between	PREP+II	1
as far as	C+CSU+CS	641
as for	PREP+II	280
as from	PREP+II	10

as if	C+CSU+CS	558
as it were	ADV+RR	18
as long as	C+CSU+CS	486
as of	PREP+II	26
as opposed to	PREP+II	54
as regards	PREP+II	69
as soon as	C+CSU+CS	203
as though	C+CSU+CS	28
as to	PREP+II	191
as usual	ADV+RR	23
as well	ADV+RR	1381
as well as	PREP+II	1329
as yet	ADV+RR	9
aside from	PREP+II	21
at all	ADV+RR	1101
at best	ADV+RR	20
at first	ADV+RR	310
at large	ADV+RR	23
at last	ADV+RR	190
at least	ADV+RR	1688
at length	ADV+RR	5
at long last	ADV+RR	2
at most	ADV+RR	15
at once	ADV+RR	94
at present	ADV+RR	125
at random	ADV+RR	12
at worst	ADV+RR	6
au pair	N+NN1	1
aurora borealis	N+NN1	1
away from	PREP+II	635
beaujolais nouveau	N+NN1	1
because of	PREP+II	3309
bona fide	ADJ+JJ	1
brand new	ADJ+JJ	20
but for	PREP+II	200
by and by	ADV+RR	10
by and large	ADV+RR	15
by far	ADV+RR	35
by means of	PREP+II	239
by no means	ADV+RR	118
by now	ADV+RT	52
by reason of	PREP+II	3

by way of	PREP+II	27
cafe au lait	N+NN1	1
carpe diem	UH	3
casus belli	N+NN1	1
check outs	N+NN2	1
chez vous	ADV+RL	1
considering that	C+CSU+CS	45
contrary to	PREP+II	99
coup d'etat	N+NN1	3
coup d'état	N+NN1	2
creme de la creme	N+NN1	1
depending on	PREP+II	207
due to	PREP+II	1780
each other	Pron+Pronpers+PPX2	1779
en bloc	ADV+RR	1
en masse	ADV+RR	3
en route	ADV+RR	1
et al	ADV+RA	1
et cetera	ADV+RR	12
even if	C+CSU+CS	1289
even so	ADV+RR	37
even though	C+CSU+CS	983
even when	C+CSU+CS	184
ever so	ADV+RG	19
ever so	ADV+RR	2
every so often	ADV+RR	5
ex cathedra	ADJ+JJ	1
except for	PREP+II	90
except that	C+CSU+CS	18
far from	ADV+RG	41
far off	ADJ+JJ	4
faux pas	N+NN	1
fed up	ADJ+JJ	47
femme fatale	N+NN1	1
for certain	ADV+RR	9
for ever	ADV+RR	52
for example	ADV+REX	3802
for fear of	PREP+II	14
for good	ADV+RR	47
for instance	ADV+REX	1446
for long	ADV+RR	42
for once	ADV+RR	12

for sure	ADV+RR	147
for the most part	ADV+RR	15
for the time being	ADV+RT	21
from now on	ADV+RT	52
from time to time	ADV+RR	76
getting on for	ADV+RG	1
given that	C+CSU+CS	29
grand prix	N+NN1	1
grown up	ADJ+JJ	34
grown up	N+NN1	6
grown ups	N+NN2	18
habeas corpus	N+NN1	1
half way	ADV+RR	5
have nots	N+NN2	1
homo sapiens	N+NN1	26
id est	ADV+REX	1
in absentia	ADV+RR	1
in accord with	PREP+II	6
in accordance with	PREP+II	77
in addition	ADV+RR	842
in addition to	PREP+II	358
in answer to	PREP+II	1
in association with	PREP+II	2
in back of	PREP+II	1
in between	ADJ+JJ	1
in between	ADV+RL	30
in between	PREP+II	4
in brief	ADV+RR	27
in case	C+CSU+CS	119
in case	ADV+RR	4
in case of	PREP+II	177
in charge of	PREP+II	59
in common	ADV+RR	106
in common with	PREP+II	33
in comparison with	PREP+II	70
in conjunction with	PREP+II	1
in connection with	PREP+II	80
in contact with	PREP+II	82
in cooperation with	PREP+II	1
in defence of	PREP+II	5
in defiance of	PREP+II	2
in face of	PREP+II	3

in favor of	PREP+II	82
in favour of	PREP+II	266
in front of	PREP+II	815
in full	ADV+RR	18
in general	ADV+RR	603
in keeping with	PREP+II	8
in light of	PREP+II	10
in line with	PREP+II	6
in memoriam	ADV+RR	1
in need of	PREP+II	97
in order	C+CSU+BCL	3930
in part	ADV+RR	23
in particular	ADV+RR	182
in place of	PREP+II	6
in possession of	PREP+II	14
in private	ADV+RR	13
in proportion to	PREP+II	3
in public	ADV+RR	86
in pursuit of	PREP+II	10
in regard to	PREP+II	21
in relation to	PREP+II	70
in reply to	PREP+II	1
in respect of	PREP+II	15
in response to	PREP+II	16
in return for	PREP+II	22
in search of	PREP+II	37
in short	ADV+RR	210
in so far as	C+CSU+CS	5
in spite of	PREP+II	346
in support of	PREP+II	20
in terms of	PREP+II	343
in that	C+CSU+CS	41
in the light of	PREP+II	37
in the main	ADV+RR	2
in touch with	PREP+II	153
in vain	ADV+RR	55
in view of	PREP+II	26
in vitro	ADJ+JJ	9
in vitro	ADV+RR	1
in vivo	ADV+RR	1
inasmuch as	C+CSU+CS	7
inside out	ADV+RL	2

insofar as	C+CSU+CS	15
instead of	C+CSU+CS	48
instead of	PREP+II	1612
inter alia	ADV+RR	1
ipso facto	ADV+RR	1
irrespective of	PREP+II	23
joie de vivre	N+NN1	2
just about	ADV+RR	34
kind of	ADV+RR	51
la dolce vita	N+NN1	1
let alone	PREP+II	67
let’s	Vmod+VM	512
lingua franca	N+NN	24
lo and behold	UH	1
magnum opus	N+NN1	1
matter of fact	ADJ+JJ	198
matter of fact	N+NN1	10
modus operandi	N+NN1	1
modus vivendi	N+NN1	1
near to	PREP+II	16
nearer to	PREP+II	9
nearest to	PREP+II	2
next to	PREP+II	155
no doubt	ADV+RR	154
no longer	ADV+RR	1032
no matter how	ADV+RGQV	228
no matter how	ADV+RRQV	48
no matter what	DET+DDQV	160
no matter when	ADV+RRQV	1
no matter where	ADV+RRQV	27
no matter which	DET+DDQV	10
no matter who	Pron+Pronwh+PNQS	13
no matter whom	Pron+Pronwh+PNQV	1
no matter whose	DET+DDQGE	2
no matter why	ADV+RRQV	1
no one	Pron+Pronindef+PN1	685
none other	Pron+Pronindef+PN	1
none the	ADV+RR	1
none the less	ADV+RR	9
not withstanding	ADV+RA	2
nouveau rich	N+NN1	1
nouveau riche	N+NN1	2

now that	C+CSU+CS	155
of course	ADV+RR	2730
off guard	ADV+RR	3
off of	PREP+II	5
old fashioned	ADJ+JJ	26
on account of	PREP+II	30
on behalf of	PREP+II	32
on board	ADV+RL	5
on the part of	PREP+II	61
on to	PREP+II	68
on top of	PREP+II	63
once again	ADV+RR	135
once and for all	ADV+RR	9
once more	ADV+RR	53
one another	Pron+Pronpers+PPX1	242
other than	PREP+II	105
out of	PREP+II	1651
out of date	ADJ+JJ	29
out of touch with	PREP+II	5
outside of	PREP+II	42
over here	ADV+RL	2
owing to	PREP+II	104
par excellence	ADJ+JJ	2
per annum	ADV+RA	1
per capita	ADJ+JJ	1
per capita	ADV+RR	5
per cent	N+NNU	232
per diem	ADV+RA	1
per se	ADV+RR	8
pertaining to	PREP+II	10
prior to	PREP+II	22
provided that	C+CSU+CS	40
providing that	C+CSU+CS	6
quid pro quo	N+NN1	1
raison d'etre	N+NN1	1
rather than	C+CSU+CS	172
rather than	PREP+II	790
relative to	PREP+II	9
save for	PREP+II	2
save that	C+CSU+CS	1
seeing as	C+CSU+CS	3
seeing that	C+CSU+CS	25

sine qua non	N+NN1	1
sinn fein	N+NN1	5
so as	C+CSU+BCL	269
so called	ADJ+JJ	236
so much as	ADV+RR	14
so that	C+CSU+CS	1411
some one	Pron+Pronindef+PN1	61
sort of	ADV+RR	42
spaghetti bolognese	N+NN1	1
spot on	ADJ+JJ	1
status quo	N+NN1	20
straight away	ADV+RR	10
straight forward	ADJ+JJ	8
subject to	PREP+II	89
subsequent to	PREP+II	2
such as	PREP+II	3083
such that	C+CSU+CS	18
sui generis	ADJ+JJ	1
supposing that	C+CSU+CS	8
tabula rasa	N+NN1	3
terra incognita	N+NN1	1
thanks to	PREP+II	168
that is	ADV+REX	369
that is to say	ADV+REX	149
through thick and thin	ADV+RR	4
time and again	ADV+RR	17
to and fro	ADV+RL	6
under way	ADV+RR	3
up front	ADV+RL	1
up until	PREP+II	21
up to	ADV+RG	66
up to	PREP+II	615
up to date	ADJ+JJ	55
up until	PREP+II	21
upside down	ADV+RL	17
vice versa	ADV+RR	92
well off	ADJ+JJ	22
whether or not	C+CSU+CSW	160
wiener schnitzel	N+NN1	1
with a view to	PREP+II	8
with reference to	PREP+II	18
with regard to	PREP+II	68

with respect to	PREP+II	39

APPENDIX 4: LIST OF SEARCHABLE TAGS

Simplified tag	CLAWS7 tag	
ADJ	JJ	General adjective
	JJR	General comparative adjective (e.g. older, better, stronger)
	JJT	General superlative adjective (e.g. oldest, best, strongest)
	JK	Catenative adjective (able in 'be able to', willing in 'be willing to')
ADV	RA	Adverb, after nominal head (e.g. else, galore)
	REX	Adverb introducing appositional constructions (namely, e.g.)
	RG	Degree adverb (very, so, too)
	RGQ	Wh- degree adverb (how)
	RGQV	Wh-ever degree adverb (however)
	RGR	Comparative degree adverb (more, less)
	RGT	Superlative degree adverb (most, least)
	RL	Locative adverb (e.g. alongside, forward)
	RP	Prep. adverb, particle (e.g. about, in)
	RPK	Prep. adv., catenative (about in 'be about to')
	RR	General adverb
	RRQ	Wh- general adverb (where, when, why, how)
	RRQV	Wh-ever general adverb (wherever, whenever)
	RRR	Comparative general adverb (e.g. better, longer)
	RRT	Superlative general adverb (e.g. best, longest)
	RT	Quasi-nominal adverb of time (e.g. now, tomorrow)
CCO	CC	Coordinating conjunction (e.g. and, or)
	CCB	Adversative coordinating conjunction (but)
CSU	CS	Subordinating conjunction (e.g. if, because, unless, so, for)
	CSA	As (as conjunction)
	CSN	Than (as conjunction)
	CST	That (as conjunction)
	CSW	Whether (as conjunction)
	BCL	Before-clause marker (e.g. in order (that), in order (to))
DET	APPGE	Possessive pronoun, pre-nominal (e.g. my, your, our)
	AT	Article (e.g. the, no)

	AT1	Singular article (e.g. a, an, every)
	DA	After-determiner or post-determiner capable of pronominal function (e.g. such, former, same)
	DA1	Singular after-determiner (e.g. little, much)
	DA2	Plural after-determiner (e.g. few, several, many)
	DAR	Comparative after-determiner (e.g. more, less, fewer)
	DAT	Superlative after-determiner (e.g. most, least, fewest)
	DB	Before determiner or pre-determiner capable of pronominal function (all, half)
	DB2	Plural before-determiner (both)
	DD	Determiner (capable of pronominal function) (e.g. any, some)
	DD1	Singular determiner (e.g. this, that, another)
	DD2	Plural determiner (these, those)
	DDQ	Wh-determiner (which, what)
	DDQGE	Wh-determiner, genitive (whose)
	DDQV	Wh-ever determiner (whichever, whatever)
N	ND1	Singular noun of direction (e.g. north, southeast)
	NN	Common noun, neutral for number (e.g. sheep, cod, headquarters)
	NN1	Singular common noun (e.g. book, girl)
	NN2	Plural common noun (e.g. books, girls)
	NNA	Following noun of title (e.g. M.A.)
	NNB	Preceding noun of title (e.g. Mr., Prof.)
	NNL1	Singular locative noun (e.g. Island, Street)
	NNL2	Plural locative noun (e.g. Islands, Streets)
	NNO	Numeral noun, neutral for number (e.g. dozen, hundred)
	NNO2	Numeral noun, plural (e.g. hundreds, thousands)
	NNT1	Temporal noun, singular (e.g. day, week, year)
	NNT2	Temporal noun, plural (e.g. days, weeks, years)
	NNU	Unit of measurement, neutral for number (e.g. in, cc)
	NNU1	Singular unit of measurement (e.g. inch, centimetre)
	NNU2	Plural unit of measurement (e.g. ins., feet)
	NPD1	Singular weekday noun (e.g. Sunday)
	NPD2	Plural weekday noun (e.g. Sundays)
	NPM1	Singular month noun (e.g. October)
	NPM2	Plural month noun (e.g. Octobers)

NEG	XX	Not, n't
NUM	MC	Cardinal number, neutral for number (two, three…)
	MC1	Singular cardinal number (one)
	MC2	Plural cardinal number (e.g. sixes, sevens)
	MCGE	Genitive cardinal number, neutral for number (two's, 100's)
	MCMC	Hyphenated number (40-50, 1770-1827)
	MD	Ordinal number (e.g. first, second, next, last)
	MF	Fraction, neutral for number (e.g. quarters, two-thirds)
PREP	IF	For (as preposition)
	II	General preposition
	IO	Of (as preposition)
	IW	With, without (as prepositions)
Pronindef	PN	Indefinite pronoun, neutral for number (none)
	PN1	Indefinite pronoun, singular (e.g. anyone, everything, nobody, one)
	PNX1	Reflexive indefinite pronoun (oneself)
Pronwh	PNQO	Objective wh-pronoun (whom)
	PNQS	Subjective wh-pronoun (who)
	PNQV	Wh-ever pronoun (whoever)
Pronpers	PPH1	3rd person sing. neuter personal pronoun (it)
	PPHO1	3rd person sing. objective personal pronoun (him, her)
	PPHO2	3rd person plural objective personal pronoun (them)
	PPHS1	3rd person sing. subjective personal pronoun (he, she)
	PPHS2	3rd person plural subjective personal pronoun (they)
	PPIO1	1st person sing. objective personal pronoun (me)
	PPIO2	1st person plural objective personal pronoun (us)
	PPIS1	1st person sing. subjective personal pronoun (I)
	PPIS2	1st person plural subjective personal pronoun (we)
	PPX1	Singular reflexive personal pronoun (e.g. yourself, itself)
	PPX2	Plural reflexive personal pronoun (e.g. yourselves, themselves)
	PPY	2nd person personal pronoun (you)
	PPGE	Nominal possessive personal pronoun (e.g. mine, yours)
PropN	NP	Proper noun, neutral for number (e.g. IBM, Andes)
	NP1	Singular proper noun (e.g. London, Jane, Frederick)
	NP2	Plural proper noun (e.g. Browns, Reagans, Koreas)

Vbe	VB0	Be, base form (finite, i.e. imperative, subjunctive)
	VBDR	Were
	VBDZ	Was
	VBG	Being
	VBI	Be, infinitive (To be or not... It will be …)
	VBM	Am
	VBN	Been
	VBR	Are
	VBZ	Is
Vdo	VD0	Do, base form (finite)
	VDD	Did
	VDG	Doing
	VDI	Do, infinitive (I may do... To do...)
	VDN	Done
	VDZ	Does
Vhave	VH0	Have, base form (finite)
	VHD	Had (past tense)
	VHG	Having
	VHI	Have, infinitive
	VHN	Had (past participle)
	VHZ	Has
Vlex	VV0	Base form of lexical verb (e.g. give, work)
	VVD	Past tense of lexical verb (e.g. gave, worked)
	VVG	-Ing participle of lexical verb (e.g. giving, working)
	VVGK	-Ing participle catenative (going in ‘be going to’)
	VVI	Infinitive (e.g. to give... It will work...)
	VVN	Past participle of lexical verb (e.g. given, worked)
	VVNK	Past participle catenative (e.g. bound in ‘be bound to’)
	VVZ	-S form of lexical verb (e.g. gives, works)
Vmod	VM	Modal auxiliary (can, will, would, etc.)
	VMK	Modal catenative (ought, used)
ZZ	ZZ1	Singular letter of the alphabet (e.g. A,b)
	ZZ2	Plural letter of the alphabet (e.g. A’s, b’s)
	EX	Existential there
	FO	Formula
	FU	Unclassified word

	FW	Foreign word
	GE	Germanic genitive marker - (’or ’s)
	TO	Infinitive marker (to)
	UH	Interjection (e.g. oh, yes, um)
	PUNC[39]	Punctuation mark

[39] The PUNC tag is the only one that is not drawn from the CLAWS7 tagset. It was added in order to allow users to retrieve all instances of punctuation marks in one go.