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Leslie Bobb-Wolff, guest-editor

INTRODUCTION

The articles in this monograph issue offer and discuss different aspects of pedagogy for autonomy, that is, both teacher and learner autonomy. This is the second monograph issue of the *RCEI* on pedagogy for autonomy, the first published in 1999, issue 38. At that time, I wrote at the beginning of the introduction that "learner autonomy has developed into a central concept in foreign language learning in recent decades" (9). Eleven years on, both teacher and learner autonomy have continued to develop and become more well known due, in part, to the European Union's *Common European Framework of Reference* as well as specific national curricula explicitly including learner autonomy in their agendas. Furthermore, more and more has been published (see the reference sections at the end of each article here), more conferences are held dedicated specifically to pedagogy for autonomy, international language teacher associations have special interest groups dedicated to this area, working groups have been formed and continue to collaborate to share the ways they are working with their students, etc. To mention just one of the latter, the GT-PA (Grupo de Trabalho-Pedagogia para a Autonomia) is a learning community created in 1997 as a "small network aiming at the collaborative development of its members by exploring the idea(l) of a pedagogy for autonomy within the school context." (Vieira 2).

One difference to be noted between the two editions of the journal from that time to this, and which, I believe, points to a change from 1999 to 2010 is the fact that more of the articles here report on work being done *in* classrooms rather than articles about what we mean by teacher and learner autonomy and how they can be put into practice. It's not that the theoretical work is not important or necessary; however it also important to hear the voices of those who are trying to put pedagogy for autonomy into practice in their differing and specific contexts. One uniting theme among all the contributions here is expressed by Isabel Barbosa when she writes that "inquiry is at the heart of pedagogy and professional development."[1]

Three of the seven papers here do not directly give an account of work with language students in a classroom context but at the same time are all related to work with classroom teachers. In the lead article, Flávia Vieira describes one aspect of her work as a teacher educator, in this case with in-service teachers in a post-graduate course using a case-based approach to pedagogical inquiry with them, stating that the teachers' "active participation in self-questioning and self-evaluation as empowering processes... requires teachers to reject the role of technicians

[1] Another unifying fact, interestingly, is nearly all the contributors discuss to a greater or lesser degree their use of student portfolios and /or journals.

and assume the role of critical inquirers and constructors of change." This author here is reflecting on her role as a teacher educator, remarking that teachers must be the intellectual agents of changes that take place in schools.

In the second article in this issue, Joan Rubin also writes from the perspective of the teacher educator, in this case, doing work with teachers through in-service courses on learner self-management in a learner centred perspective. She focuses here on the challenges teachers face when they try to put learner self-management and a learner centred perspective into practice with their students and the challenges the teacher educator faces while doing in-service work helping teachers to move towards a more learner centred approach. This author notes that "teachers often bring a great deal of cognitive baggage that can impede or slow down their ability and willingness to consider a more learner-centered perspective." and explains teaching strategies she uses that can help teachers begin to consider the values of a learner-centered perspective, and to think about possibilities for this in their practice.

In the third article, again not entirely focused on experiences carried out in classrooms with students, Isabel Barbosa gives an account of her *own* development as a teacher involved in learner and teacher autonomy, from the time when she joined a course aimed at developing teacher and learner autonomy through her move from secondary school to the university and then back again to secondary school. While her aim in this paper is to reflect on the changes taking place in her own view of her role as a teacher, we also see how this evolution takes place not only within herself but working with colleagues and students; it is, at the same time, a both personal and a collaborative trip, another characteristic of pedagogy for autonomy: that it does not occur in isolation. This author also points out that "significant change is never a simple process, as it entails questioning personal beliefs and practices."

The following four articles of the monograph are written by teachers describing different ways each of them is trying to put learner and teacher autonomy into practice with their students; that is, the articles focus on the work done in their classrooms. Gina Oxbrow and Carolina Rodríguez Juárez write about their investigations into the relation between learner motivation and integrated training in learner strategies, and the influence these have on increasing their learners' autonomy. They are reporting on partial results of a longitudinal research project on the connections between these elements. Their results show an interesting increase in motivation after working with specific types of learner strategies; they also find that "the relationship between both motivation and learner autonomy is symmetric" because as students gradually acquire greater metacognitive awareness and an increase in learner autonomy, this also serves as a means to motivate them further.

In her article, Lucía García Magaldi focuses our attention on the use of metacognitive strategies, of metacognition as a necessity if we want our learners to become more autonomous of their teachers. She points out that the importance of metacognition is that it is the executive organizer of all the elements which intervene in the whole learning process; furthermore this author enjoins teachers to "accept the fact that learners are capable of metacognition and willing to learn to

use metacognitive strategies and accept responsibility for their learning process" although they obviously need encouragement and help in their work to do so.

María José Coperías Aguilar reports on the concepts of learner and teacher autonomy from a different perspective, that of intercultural communicative competence (ICC). Building on the work done by Bryam and others, this author discussed how ICC can support and strengthen our concept of learner autonomy while adding an enriching dimension to it while using portfolios for the students to self-assess the work done. She also emphasises the relationship between learner autonomy and the concept of lifelong learning and "the importance of the foreign language learner as an intercultural speaker."

In my article, I look at learning management systems in general and one of these, Moodle, in particular, describing/discussing ways in which learner autonomy may or may *not* be increased through using one of these on-line tools. I give an account of two ways I have used the activity of forum on Moodle in different subjects to help students become more responsible for their learning. I also call attention to the fact that we teachers need to learn how to use these systems in order that they do help learners become more autonomous in their learning.

Finally, in accord with the monograph section of this issue, there is also included a review by Susan Cranfield of one of the many books which have come out recently on learner autonomy, *Struggling for Autonomy in Language Education: Reflecting, Acting and Being*. We have here "accounts of personal teaching, learning and research experiences held together by the desire for transformation of educational practice through a critical observation of teaching/learning processes, reflection on implementation and change, and the building of sufficient confidence in our convictions to be able to continue to act, reflect and change in a continued cycle of improvement enhancement and empowerment."

A common link running through all the papers collected here is a concern for language learners and teachers to find ways to increase their autonomy, taking control of their own learning process. Flávia Vieira, in her article here affirms that a "commitment to a democratic view of society and education implies that only pedagogy for teacher and learner autonomy is acceptable"; I think all the other authors here would agree with this statement as well as with the reasoning that this is one of their motives behind working within a framework of pedagogy for autonomy. I also think that all the authors here would be in accord with Isabel Barbosa's statement that "Learners must become aware that they are responsible for their learning, and teachers must be prepared to accept that they can no longer control all aspects of classroom life."

Today I continue to be of the opinion that learner autonomy and teacher autonomy are necessary for improving (language) learning. Furthermore, since working to increase teacher and learner autonomy affects every aspect of the curriculum, each needs to be re-examined. Pedagogy for autonomy is still not as extended as is needed, among other reasons because of the restraints on putting it into practice, some of which are commented within the articles here. Nevertheless, the increase is notable and we need to see how much further we have moved forward in another ten years.

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TOWARDS TEACHER AND LEARNER AUTONOMY: EXPLORING A PEDAGOGY OF EXPERIENCE IN TEACHER EDUCATION*

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ABSTRACT

The same as teachers, teacher educators must go beyond the technician role and become the authors of their own thoughts and actions through developing a scholarship of teacher education: inquiring into, narrating and disseminating their own practice. This paper results from this kind of scholarship. It presents and illustrates an approach to in-service teacher development that takes professional experience as the basis for promoting teacher and learner autonomy, with a focus on how it enhances a critical view of (language) education and the ability to centre teaching on learning.

KEY WORDS: Teacher education, pedagogy of experience, teacher and learner autonomy.

RESUMEN

Al igual que los profesores, los formadores deben ir más allá de un rol técnico y convertirse en autores de sus propias ideas e iniciativas profundizando en la pedagogía de la formación: investigando, escribiendo y divulgando su propia práctica. Este artículo es consecuencia de ese tipo de indagación. Presenta e ilustra un enfoque sobre la formación continua de profesores basándose en la experiencia profesional con el fin impulsar la autonomía de profesor y alumno. También se centra en cómo dicho enfoque desarrolla una visión crítica de la educación (dentro del campo de las lenguas) y la aptitud de concentrar la enseñanza en el aprendizaje.

PALABRAS CLAVE: formación de profesores, pedagogía de la experiencia, autonomía de profesor y alumno.

1. DEVELOPING A PEDAGOGY OF EXPERIENCE: WHY AND HOW

> I strongly believe that teacher education programs —both pre-service and in-service— can have a positive influence on (re)constructing teachers' pedagogy, in so much as those programs aim at *developing teachers who can and are willing to go beyond the technician role and become the authors of their own thought and action, within an interpretative view of education*. (Vieira, "Pedagogy and" 27)

This is the last paragraph of the article I wrote back in 1999 for the *Revista Canaria de Estudios Ingleses* —"Pedagogy and Autonomy: Can They Meet?"— where I presented a framework for the promotion of language learner autonomy in the school context. As I reread the article I found myself wondering about how my ideas have translated into my practice as a teacher educator since then. I believe they have, in many different ways, and the purpose of this paper is to build on the above quotation by focussing on a particular approach I have developed with in-service FL teachers since 2002, in a post-graduate course on pedagogical supervision and language education at the Universidade do Minho.[1]

I call the approach "pedagogy of experience" (Vieira, "Para"; "Reconfigurar") since it assumes a strong connection between education and experience (Dewey), building upon the idea that professional experience plays a pivotal role in the reconstruction of professional knowledge and action. This idea is commonsensical among teacher educators, especially within a reflective paradigm. However, it is not easy to put to practice in university settings where curricula are dictated by academic disciplines, pedagogies are often distanced from professional contexts, and research regimes undervalue teachers' knowledge. In this scenario, a lot needs to be changed before teacher experience becomes the nucleus of teacher education programmes. Fundamentally, we need to acknowledge the ideological nature of schooling, the complexity and uniqueness of educational settings, and the role of teachers as intellectual agents of change. Teacher educators need to focus on teachers' agendas and support their efforts to challenge and transform educational practices through pedagogical inquiry.

Why should we challenge and transform current educational practices? Many reasons might be presented, but let me just say that "lack of democracy" is the best reason:

> [...] millions of children leave school all over the world each day no better able to engage in democratic action and make changes in their communities to meet their needs than when they entered. Rather than a curriculum that constructs subjectivities around failure, around 'knowing one's place', around complacent disregard of the misfortunes and experiences of others, around an apathetic acceptance that 'things can't change', around a meritocracy that disowns its underclass, the chance always exists for education to construct curricula for challenge, for

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* This paper integrates a line of research on pedagogy at university financed by the Centre for Research in Education, Universidade do Minho, Institute of Education.

[1] The course is part of a Master Degree on Pedagogical Supervision in Language Education offered by the Universidade do Minho to in-service teachers of foreign languages (English, French, German, and Spanish). It is taught in the first semester of the programme (37.5 hours during 15 weeks/sessions). Within this course, the term "supervision" refers to the critical regulation (planning, monitoring, and evaluation) of teaching and learning processes and its scope is broad: it includes the supervision of pre-service teachers' practicum, self-supervision conducted by any teacher, collegial supervision conducted by two or more colleagues, etc.

> change, for the development of people and not the engineering of employees. (Schostak 50)

A commitment to a democratic view of society and education implies that only a pedagogy for teacher and learner autonomy is acceptable. Autonomy is here understood as a collective interest and defined as "the competence to develop as a self-determined, socially responsible and critically aware participant in (and beyond) educational environments, within a vision of education as (inter)personal empowerment and social transformation" (Jiménez Raya, Lamb, and Vieira 1). Pedagogy for autonomy relies on the following principles (Jiménez Raya, Lamb, and Vieira 57-68):

– Encouraging responsibility, choice and flexible control
– Providing opportunities for learning to learn and self-regulation
– Creating opportunities for cognitive autonomy support
– Creating opportunities for integration of competences and explicitness of learning
– Developing intrinsic motivation
– Accepting and providing for learner differentiation
– Encouraging action-orientedness
– Fostering conversational interaction
– Promoting (teacher and learner) reflective inquiry

In the course I teach, pedagogy of experience is developed to encourage teachers to inquire into and explore teacher and learner autonomy. This has been done through "a case-based approach to pedagogical inquiry."

Like Shulman ("Theory" 543-544), I believe that cases can become the *lingua franca* of teacher learning communities:

> Cases are ways of parsing experience so practictioners can examine and learn from it. Case methods thus become strategies for helping professionals "chunk" their experience into units that can become the focus for reflective pratice. Cases therefore can become the basis for individual professional learning as well as a forum within which communities of professionals [...] can store, exchange and organize their experiences. They may well become, for teacher education, the lingua franca of teacher learning communities.

In our course, teachers analyse and produce narratives of experience, trying to answer the question "what is it a case of?" As Shulman suggests "to assert that a narrative is a *case* is to engage in an act of theory": it requires teachers to connect the narrative to personal/ other experiences, that is, to other cases, and also to "categories of experience, to theoretical classifications through which they organise and make sense of their world" ("Just" 474)). Theoretical input (on visions of education and professional development, pedagogy for autonomy, and classroom-based inquiry) is used to interpret professional narratives and to design and interpret a small-scale, autonomy-oriented classroom experiment that teachers carry out in small groups. They narrate and document it in a group portfolio, reflecting about

its value and shortcomings. In this process, they come to realise that pedagogy for autonomy is a re(ide)alistic practice situated between what *is* and what "should be." In other words, it is a pedagogy of "possibility" (Jiménez Raya, Lamb, and Vieira; Vieira, "Formaçao"; "Pedagogy for").

Pedagogical inquiry starts with the identification of problems or dilemmas, which are transformed into plans for action that incorporate the promotion of teacher and learner autonomy. My role is to support and guide the groups by providing input when needed. Classroom interventions are carried out by one teacher in each group, in one of his/ her classes. Data is collected and analysed, and a descriptive-interpretative narrative of 15-20 pages is produced. This narrative is the main element in the group portfolio, which also includes records of planning, data collection, out-of-class group meetings, course and self-evaluation. Each portfolio is assessed by the group and then by me, according to criteria related to the quality of the pedagogical experiment and the narrative. On the basis of my feedback, groups can revise their narratives as an optional task. Revised narratives have been used in subsequent years for case analysis. Sometimes, teachers present their cases in professional meetings and publish their narratives or short versions of them.[2] Whenever I write about the approach, I draw on their experience to illustrate teacher development processes. I will do so in the next section.

The approach I suggest requires that teachers participate in curricular decisions and play a decisive role in defining what and how they want to learn, that is, pedagogy becomes curriculum-in-action (Barnett and Coate). It also involves their active participation in self-questioning and self-evaluation as empowering processes whereby they take control over what counts as valid professional knowledge. It further requires a high level of commitment to educational change, which usually entails reframing beliefs and practices, exposing fears and dilemmas, taking risks in action, identifying and facing constraints, and dealing with uncertainty and ambiguity. Overall, teachers undergo a process of reshaping their professional identities.

The following section illustrates the approach by drawing on an experiment focussed on oral reading in the EFL classroom, conducted by a group of four teachers in 2009/10. An analysis of their portfolio (Teixeira et al.) shows how a pedagogy of experience can empower teachers to pursue autonomy in language education.[3]

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[2] The GT-PA —*Grupo de Trabalho-Pedagogia para a Autonomia* (Working Group-Pedagogy for Autonomy)— a group of teachers and academic researchers/ teacher educators that I have coordinated since 1997, has been an important forum for the dissemination of teachers' pedagogical experiments. For a detailed account of the GT-PA, see Vieira, "Enhancing."

[3] Permission was given by the teachers to use excerpts of their narrative and other elements in their portfolio. All excerpts presented are translated from Portuguese.

2. RECONSTRUCTING EXPERIENCE TOWARDS TEACHER AND LEARNER AUTONOMY

Inquiry and experiential writing play a crucial role in teachers' professional development:

> Through inquiry, teachers frame and reframe the issues and problems they face in their professional worlds. As teachers engage in narrative inquiry, they become theorizers in their own right, and as theorizers, they look less for certain answers and more to rethink what they thought they already knew. Thus, we believe that teachers' stories of inquiry are not only *about* professional development; they *are* professional development. Narrative inquiry becomes a means through which teachers actualize their ways of knowing and growing that nourish and sustain their professional development throughout their careers. (Johnson and Golombek 6)

I hope to illustrate these ideas in the remainder of this paper, with a focus on how a pedagogy of experience can enhance two interrelated dimensions of professional competence towards teacher and learner autonomy: "a critical view of (language) education and centring teaching on learning."

2.1. Getting Off the Rails

> The key educational issue is how to get people off the rails. If a formal curriculum is imagined as being like a chariot race where competitors go round and round in circles until some arbitrary finishing point is reached, then deliberate crashes, derailings or simply stopping and not playing the game become the only real challenges to the system. (Schostak 37).

Pedagogy for autonomy entails a deep commitment to an emancipatory view of education and a critical stance towards established regimes. It requires teachers to reject the role of technicians and assume the role of critical inquirers and constructors of change. This is exactly the view expressed by this group of teachers:

> We all feel that our students represent a continuous challenge and increasingly demand that we take an inquiry, reflective and pro-active stance towards the process of teaching and learning. By rejecting conformity and facing uncertainty, dilemmas and tensions, with a lot of persistence and effort, we chose to break with the limits of our everyday life and let subversion cross our sinuous way. (Portfolio: Introduction)

This view of what being a teacher means is in tune with a constructivist paradigm of education, in which teachers are seen as critical intellectuals who struggle for their own and their students' empowerment by rejecting a position of subjugation to authority and reclaiming the right to direct their own action in accordance with "an exciting vision of schooling," a vision that stresses "the role that education

can play in producing a just, inclusive, democratic, and imaginative future" (Kincheloe, *Teachers* 111).

These teachers, like other colleagues, admit that at the beginning of our course they were not prepared to assume an inquiry stance, although they were concerned about the extent to which their teaching was learner-centred:

> Even though it was difficult to plan and develop our case study, due to our inexperience in looking at teaching as an act of inquiry, we believe that, in a latent form, common concerns and worries were simmering, which converged towards a democratic vision of education focussed on the learner. (Portfolio: Narrative)

This latent orientation towards a democratic vision of education is something that I have recurrently observed in teachers as they start the course and we begin discussing what education is about. They are usually unsatisfied with their teaching and eager to learn about alternative practices that can make it more learner-centred, but they also feel unprepared to do it and disempowered by a school culture that stifles autonomy. Along with Kincheloe (*Teachers* 2), I can say that "Teachers understand that something is not right. My conversations with them often touch raw nerves, an anger just below the surface. Such alienation finds its origin in their perception that few in the organization respect them, few value their voices, their knowledge of the educational process." As our conversations unfold, they begin to disclose silenced beliefs and desires, but also criticisms, fears and anxieties, and they become painfully aware of the gap between their "espoused theories" and their "theories-in-action" (Argyris and Schön), which often generates uneasiness and loss of self-confidence. This process paves the way to transformation, to "getting off the rails," but real derailings can only be triggered by pedagogical inquiry and experiential learning:

> Because we are teachers, we know that applying theory to practice is not always feasible and sometimes our intentions are just on paper [...] Throughout the weeks we began to realise that our intentions were starting to materialize: at first with a lot of worries and uncertainties, not being able to delimit an area for action and find a thread of action, but then visualising a relevant, coherent path that presupposed the integration of theory and practice, based on growing processes of negotiation, in which the teacher educator's role began to fade away as our transformation as student teachers became visible. (Portfolio: Course Evaluation)

The process of transformation is not dissociated from the "nature" of the interventions teachers design and carry out in the classroom. By trying to centre teaching on learning, they question ingrained routines and imagine alternative strategies that better respond to their aspirations as professionals and to the needs of their students. As they do it, their theories and practices evolve. The following sections seek to illustrate how all this happens.

2.2. Framing a Problem

As Shulman puts it, pedagogy starts with frustration, that is, awareness that something is wrong and needs to be changed ("Toward"). This group of teachers developed an experiment on oral reading in the EFL classroom because they realised that their former practice —asking students, one by one, to read a text (any kind of text) by chunks as the initial step of reading comprehension tasks— was inadequate and needed to be reconsidered. The educational value of this traditional routine is very low, as became clear in our discussions: it does not support reading comprehension or promote reading fluency and expressiveness; it does not help the students understand how reading relates to the content and nature of the text; it does not help them realise what reading aloud entails and what can make it difficult; and it does not foster self-confidence in poor readers, those who most need help. Why, then, do teachers use this meaningless routine? I find it hard to explain. The fact is that they do, and so did these teachers before their experiment:

> Throughout our teaching practice we have realised that our students reject oral reading in a foreign language and see it as a moment of constraint and anxiety [...]. Our own attitude in class does not always promote student reflection and involvement in ways that lead them to understand, accept and adjust their reading experiences as readers. On the contrary, it leads them to inhibition or withdrawal —"teacher, I don't like reading," "teacher, I cannot read."
> Confronted with this reality we were struck by several doubts: (1) How can students be motivated to read aloud? (2) Are conditions created for expressive reading to take place?; (3) How can problem solving by the students be promoted?; (4) How can self-correction in expressive reading be promoted? (Portfolio: Narrative)

Questioning one's practice and finding an area for improvement is not as easy as the above quote may suggest. In fact, these teachers' starting point was quite different. They brainstormed several possibilities and decided to experiment with new technologies in class (podcasting). One of the teachers was very enthusiastic about technology and they all realised that students enjoy it and need to learn how to use it. However, they also agreed that technology "would only be pedagogically useful in the service of the development of other competences" (Portfolio: Introduction). After consideration, they decided that the development of oral reading competences might be an appropriate choice. Technology would be a useful resource for students to record and listen to their readings, but not the focus of their work. Later on, as they started to design learning tasks to implement in class, their attention began to focus on how to enhance the students' abilities to learn how to learn, especially by raising their awareness of oral reading difficulties and competences, and by involving them in self-correction, self-evaluation, and reflection about the approach to be implemented. In the end, they theorise their experience as a case of promoting learner transformation and autonomy:

> [...] our study focusses particularly on the students' "ability to manage learning," which is, according to Holec, the definition of autonomy, and on reflection upon

> learning, which is central for their language and learning awareness. In fact, what interested us was the process of each student's transformation. More important than the product (improving students' performance in expressive oral reading) was the process of developing metacognitive strategies [...]. (Portfolio: Narrative)

They also see their experience as a case of professional collaborative inquiry that enhanced a reflective, (self-) regulatory stance towards teaching. In sum, the problem of inadequate oral reading practices was reframed within an emancipatory view of education.

2.3. Moving from School Knowledge to Action Knowledge

In designing a plan for action, difficulties arise at various levels, from major issues (e.g. does this task promote learner autonomy?) to minor details (e.g. what title is more suitable for this task?). For these teachers, a crucial problem was the choice of the text to use for oral reading in class. Their first choices relied on the notion of "school knowledge" rather than "action knowledge" (Barnes), that is, knowledge that relates to life experience:

> After choosing our topic, the appropriateness of the text was another challenge. As we were not aware of what oral reading entails in scientific terms, our choices focussed on dialogues in which oral reading was just about using speech acts: At the Restaurant; Job Interview. In revising our plan, the teacher alerted us about the need to reconsider our choice:
> "Well, you have to think this further, because an interview is NOT a type of text to be read aloud. What types of texts are liable to be read aloud? If you want to use an interactive text, it seems to me that it will have to be, for example, a theatre play... When actors perform the play they do not read because they already learnt the text by heart, but the process to get there is an oral reading process. It might also be a dialogue in a piece of literature, since reading literature aloud is also an authentic task." (Vieira, feedback on plan, 13/12/2009). This stage was a turning point in our own learning process. (Portfolio: Introduction)

After some didactic readings, the group decided to use a simplified version of part of a play —*Cinderella*[4]— justifying their choice on the basis of task authenticity, relation to student experience (fairy tales), and linguistic appropriateness to the students' level. They were now aware of issues involved in text choice. They had somehow "de-schooled" their reasoning to make a choice that was more action-oriented and educational.

Promoting action knowledge is particularly relevant for students who come from disadvantaged backgrounds and have learning difficulties. This was the case of the class where the teachers chose to implement their plan:

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[4] *Cinderella* from Charles Perrault, retold by Dooley and Loyd, Berkshire: Express, 2004.

> Most students come from disadvantaged family backgrounds. Parents have low educational training and their relationship with their children oscillates between permissiveness and repression. All the students are marked by an experience of school failure. Overall, they have learning difficulties in oral comprehension and oral and written production as well as a low self-esteem that is evident in their fear of making mistakes and of public exposure. As regards oral reading, most students show an attitude of resistance [...]. (Portfolio: Narrative)

This was a class of 11 students who were attending a vocational programme that is equivalent to the 9th grade. Students in these programmes usually have a history of school failure and low expectations regarding academic achievement. Enhancing motivation through investment in meaningful learning is thus crucial in this context.

2.4. Subverting Routines

Along with theoretical knowledge, various forms of what Claxton calls "intuition" are needed for transformative decision-making: expertise, judgement, sensitivity, creativity, and rumination. All of these are present when teachers design and carry out their plans for action. Until a final plan is reached, several possibilities are discussed: "The imperative of an extensive working agenda was... TRANSFORMATION. Like Penelope, we wove and undid our "shawl": the plan, the objectives, the activities, the materials... were successively reformulated" (Portfolio: Introduction).

The teachers' intervention was radically different from their usual oral reading practices, although at first it seemed to be similar:

> The students organize themselves into groups and the teacher asks them to read the texts aloud. The incredulous actors begin and moments of "robot reading" follow, full of hesitations, "it's you... no, it's you," in a slow, syncopated rhythm, with strange pronunciation... They do not question the strategy, but an effort to please is noticeable. Finally, when asked about what they did, they answer "a dialogue among characters," "a theatre play," "reading" [...]
> "What type of reading?," one insists... They get to the idea of expressive reading. "Expressive Oral Reading" is written on the blackboard.
> When questioned about the easiness of the first task, the actors intervene with divergent comments: "simple text, not very long" or "because we did not know the text, it was difficult." Difficulties pour in through "brainstorming" and they seem to begin to understand that the stage director did not freak out, all this is a new performance technique that she wants to test. When confronted with the question "What is good reading?" they are still staggering and uncertainty seems to hang over their minds again: Is she thinking that we have to invert roles?/Are we supposed to be the teacher/stage director? Then the explanation comes —"You were not well instructed." "Ah!" The mystery starts to be disclosed, but the strategy of this play is not yet revealed: "It was done on purpose, later you will understand why." (Portfolio: Narrative)

The plan was developed in two sequential lessons of 90 minutes each. The teachers describe their action as "scenes," in the style of a script as above. Those scenes are summarised below based on their portfolio. Although they do not label them, they correspond to three important elements of centring teaching on learning: "awareness-raising," "self-directed practice," and "self-evaluation."

Scene 1: Awareness-raising

Sitting in groups, students are asked to read aloud a scene from the script of the play *Cinderella*; each group is asked to manage the task without any previous preparation. After a while, the teacher conducts a brainstorming activity about oral reading, in the students' mother tongue. She writes "Leitura Oral Expressiva" (expressive oral reading) on the blackboard and asks them to tell her about their difficulties in the previous task, so that awareness is raised about what good oral reading entails (pronunciation, fluency, etc.); she registers the students' problems and then asks the students to associate them with reading competences (intonation, expressiveness, rhythm, punctuation, pronunciation, fluency, understanding); finally, she asks them to fill in a text about conditions needed to develop oral reading abilities:

In order to read expressively, I need to:

1. Read the text in _____ before reading it aloud.
   a. Use support techniques as I read it: signal what I don't understand, consult the _____ and write the meaning of new words, take note of unfamiliar pronunciation, etc.
2. _____ the global meaning of the text.
3. _____ to the oral text, more than once, before reading it aloud.
4. Read it _____ several times to practice expressiveness.
5. Practise oral reading in _____ (dramatic text)
6. Train the _____ and the _____ through access to reading models.
7. Ask for the help of others (more fluent students/ teacher) to overcome my _____.

*understand *dictionary *pronunciation *listen *aloud *dialogue *silence *difficulties *intonation

Scene 2: Self-directed Practice

The students perform the tasks referred in the above text: they read the texts in silence, solve any comprehension difficulties and then rehearse oral reading; dictionaries and a CD with a model reading are provided for each group; students record their reading attempts and listen to them in their group (podcast); then each group presents their recordings to the class.

Scene 3: Self-evaluation

The teacher asks the students to fill in a questionnaire where they self-evaluate their reading performance before and after the preparation strategies implemented. This questionnaire integrates the problems pointed out by the students after the first reading (brainstorming), grouped under the reading competences analysed. Finally, students and teacher have a conversation about the whole experience.

The teachers' evaluation of their experience was very optimistic. The students' self-evaluations confirmed that when students are properly prepared, oral reading competences are developed (see results below).

	Initial reading			Final reading		
Problems[5]	√	?	x	√	?	x
Intonation and expressiveness						
I was not expressive	3	8	0	0	1	10
I read in a low voice	2	7	2	1	0	10
Rhythm and punctuation						
I did not respect the punctuation	4	3	4	0	3	8
Pronunciation						
I did not say the words well	5	6	0	1	2	8
I had difficulties pronouncing the words	5	6	0	0	5	6
Fluency						
I did not read the text throughout	3	4	4	0	4	7
I hesitated in some words	5	4	2	0	8	3
Understanding						
I didn't understand the meaning of words	4	7	0	0	1	10
I had no instructions to follow	7	3	1	0	1	10

√ - I felt the problem a lot / ? - I felt the problem a little / x - I didn't feel the problem
(Portfolio: Narrative—final questionnaire results)

The students enjoyed the lessons a lot and showed interest in repeating this type of oral reading practice. A student who had always failed English in previous years suggested: "teacher, we could stage a play." They also showed metacognitive awareness about what had been different this time. For example:

– "we were not prepared to read," "we didn't quite know what was intended" (inappropriate practices and lack of transparency can be used intentionally to provoke process reflection and greater awareness of teaching and learning)
– "our difficulties were valued" (difficulties can become positive elements in learning, provided that students are aware of them and how to surpass them)
– "with a lot of training even I can read more or less well" (sense of accomplishment and self-confidence can be raised through student preparation for tasks)

[5] The problems listed were referred by the students in the brainstorming activity after the first reading. By respecting the students' views and wording, the teachers intended to make them co-producers of knowledge and partners of pedagogical inquiry. However, we may question the reduced notion of "expressiveness" here, as it relates to the other competences mentioned separately.

– "I liked the link [podcast] as I now can practise any sentence, and that's cool!" (useful resources can enhance transference of learning)

The teachers observed that the students' strategic abilities for oral reading were differentiated, and that reflection on learning expanded their learning awareness and promoted self-direction in learning how to read aloud. The quote that follows highlights what they perceived to be the major educational purposes and gains of their experience:

> The initial moments of reflection between the teacher and the class aimed at making the students aware of difficulties, quality criteria, conditions and strategies that good oral expressive reading entails. Later on, students had the opportunity to develop self-directed learning activities. Gradually, they liberated themselves and started to look for strategies to solve their difficulties, gaining self-confidence and autonomy in accomplishing, monitoring and evaluating their performance and progress. This interactive strategic learning, as opposed to individualistic and competitive learning, is essential for students to develop cooperation, co-responsibility, self-direction, sharing and negotiation competences, allowing a higher level of commitment to the proposed tasks, making students constructors of knowledge, and respecting their interests and learning pace. This type of lessons needs to be more frequent in order to support our students, believing in their ability to create conditions for solving their problems and to assume an active role in meaning construction. This perspective is close to that of critical constructivists who "support the notion that one of the central roles of teaching entails student commitment to the process of knowledge construction" (Kincheloe, *Construtivismo* 11). For this reason, we believe that this kind of practice dilutes inequalities and injustices in the classroom, paving the way for a democratic and emancipatory school (Zeichner 26). (Portfolio: Narrative)

As a comment to the teachers' final statement—"we believe that this kind of practice dilutes inequalities and injustices in the classroom, paving the way for a democratic and emancipatory school"—I wrote: "I agree!" In fact, even though schooling socialises teachers and students into established regimes and fosters obedience to various forms of authority, it is still possible to subvert its routines and counteract its domesticating force by "travelling through the space of possibility," a provisional space that stands between what (language) education is and what it should be. As Schostak puts it, "the chance always exists for education to construct curricula for challenge, for change, for the development of people and not the engineering of employees" (50).

Surely, these teachers' experience is only a very modest contribution to subvert the *status quo*, but it is also a case of how small-scale, teacher-led inquiry *can* promote teacher and learner autonomy *to some extent*. We must not forget that these four teachers will go on teaching for many years, influencing the lives of thousands of students. If this experiment has enhanced a critical vision of (language) education as well as their ability to centre teaching on learning, then it is reasonable to expect that it will have some impact on the quality of their future teaching, and on the quality of their future students' learning.

2.5. Relearning Writing

Using writing as a tool for inquiry and professional development often requires us to unlearn what school has taught us about what counts as legitimate writing: "The discursive practices of school are always with us when we write: we do not want to be excluded, we do not wish to produce texts that are not considered worthy by our perceived readers, especially by readers who so often count as the significant others in our educational histories, such as teachers" (Karlsson 46). Paradoxically, fear of exclusion can perpetuate modes of knowing that are both domesticated and domesticating, contrary to self-discovery and the problematization of reality, as if reality were out there to be described as an objective entity separated from our selves.

I strongly encourage the creative use of language in narrative inquiry in order to counteract the disempowering effect of neutral academic discourses that say nothing about the uniqueness of pedagogical experience or its actors. Pedagogical writing demands an intimate relationship between experience, writer and text: "Writing teaches us what we know, and in what way we know what we know. As we commit ourselves to paper we see ourselves mirrored in this text. Now the text confronts us. We try to read it as someone else might, but that is actually quite impossible, since we cannot help but load the words with the intentions of our project" (Van Manen 127).

An example of creative writing is the way these teachers narrate their intervention and structure their narrative metaphorically into acts in a play:

Act I –Conspiracy on backstage...
[presentation of theme with a focus on breaking routines and promoting teacher and learner autonomy]

Act II –Preparing the stage set...
[explanation and justification of pedagogical choices]

Act III –...and assigning roles
[context and why choices are appropriate to the students]

Act IV –The stage director defines a strategy...
[conceptualisation of the case study as a teaching-research intervention]

Act V –Raising the curtain...
[descriptive-analytical account of pedagogical action, based on observation and data collection]

Act VI –Dropping the curtain...
[Final reflection on the experiment: purpose, outcomes, and implications]
(Portfolio: Table of Contents, with my explanation of content in brackets)

The staging metaphor gives prominence to the role of the students as actors and the teacher as stage director. In this case, however, the actors were not just performing a script: they participated in its writing, a subversive strategy "conspired on backstage" and later revealed to them. The metaphor also highlights the

uniqueness and complexity of pedagogical inquiry, as well as the wholeness of professional stories.

The title of the narrative —*Leitura oral... Qual é o drama afinal?* (translating literally as *Oral Reading... What's the Drama after All?*)— draws on two of the meanings of "drama" in Portuguese: a theatre play (the case story) and a tragic event (the problems associated with traditional oral reading). The question "Qual é o drama afinal?" is also used in colloquial speech to mean "What's the big deal?," inducing the idea that oral reading need not be a "tragic event" after all, provided that it is "performed" meaningfully. As I see it, this idea points out the main outcome of pedagogy for autonomy as pedagogy of possibility—what seemed "impossible" becomes "possible."

3. ALL THIS SEEMS FINE, BUT...

No "buts." Not this time. I will not refer to shortcomings of a pedagogy of experience in teacher education. I have done so in other writings (Vieira, "Para"; "Reconfigurar"), but here I decided not to do it. There is a reason.

Unlike Shulman, I think that innovation also comes from joy and satisfaction, not just frustration. Actually, positive feelings are probably the most important outcome and driving force of our struggles for autonomy in education. They motivate us to resist, persist, and move on. They invade us whenever we ask ourselves, as educators, if our action is truly "pedagogical" and, for a moment, our answer is "maybe," or even "yes." Although we know this "yes" to be provisional, even illusive, it fuels our hope for the future and other "yesses" to come. And it helps us inspire our students to experience the same as they join us in the sinuous, passionate journey of pedagogy.

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LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATION: CHALLENGES IN PROMOTING A LEARNER-CENTERED PERSPECTIVE*

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ABSTRACT

Helping in-service and/or pre-service teachers move towards a more learner-centered approach in their classrooms or self-access centers holds many challenges for the teacher educator. This paper discusses two major challenges: the teacher as learner and the role of macro-structures. The paper presents specific solutions the author has used to address the challenge of the teacher as learner and notes the critical kinds of challenges which macro-structures present for the implementation of a learner-centered classroom. For the teacher as learner, solutions include raising awareness through keeping a journal, helping teachers connect theory with their own practice, modelling by the teacher educator, providing sufficient time on task, and promoting teacher self-evaluation.

KEY WORDS: Language teacher education, teacher self-management of his/her teaching, learner-centered classroom, role of macro-structures in promoting learner autonomy.

RESUMEN

Existen muchos desafíos para el formador que quiere ayudar a los profesores a tener una docencia más centrada en los alumnos en el aula o en un centro de autoaprendizaje. Aquí se describe dos de estos desafíos: el profesor como aprendiz y el rol de las macroestructuras. Este ensayo presenta las soluciones que la autora ha encontrado para el primero de estos desafíos y señala el tipo de dificultades que tienen las macroestructuras para la implementación de una clase que se centra en el alumno. Entre las posibles soluciones para el profesor como aprendiz se incluye el llevar un diario con el fin de conectar teoría y práctica, creación de modelos por parte del formador, tener suficiente tiempo para practicar y fomentar la autoevaluación del profesor.

PALABRAS CLAVE: formación de profesorado, autogestión del profesor, enseñanza centrada en el alumno, rol de las macroestructuras.

This article reports on challenges I have encountered as a language teacher educator in settings both in the United States and abroad in courses on Learner Self-Management[1] (LSM) for pre- and in-service teachers (henceforth both will be called teachers) and in workshops of 20 hours on LSM or on Listening Comprehension for in-service teachers. Although many of these issues are not new, in this article I link the challenges to successful practices I (and others) have used in addressing them.

As many have acknowledged, helping prospective and existing teachers move toward a more learner-centered perspective can be a "long" process depending not only on the teacher as learner but also on their students, sometimes on the parents of students, on a teacher's colleagues, on macro-structures (classroom, schedules, curriculum, textbooks, and high-stakes tests), and on administrative support (Little, et al. Allwright and Hanks; Vieira "Pedagogy"; Vieira, "Addressing") for discussions of challenges facing Teacher Educators in promoting a learner-centered perspective. In this paper, I will discuss two major challenges in promoting a learner-centered perspective: (1) the teacher as learner and (2) the role of macro-structures.

CHALLENGE 1: THE TEACHER AS LEARNER

Teachers often bring a great deal of cognitive baggage that can impede or slow down their ability and willingness to consider a more learner-centered perspective. This inhibiting baggage can include their belief system about how learning occurs, their theory of teaching, a lack of knowledge about the learning process, their own experience of teaching and learning, and even according to Strage, their own personal socialization process. As Borg notes: "...teachers' prior language learning experiences establish cognitions about learning and language learning which form the basis of their initial conceptualisations of L2 teaching during teacher education, and which may continue to be influential throughout their professional lives" ("Teacher" 88).

For many teachers, their own experience as learners and any teacher education they have received helps establish the role of "teacher" as that of expert authority and evaluator, not as guide or facilitator. Rubin offers an example of how these experiences can inhibit any consideration of new ways to enhance learning "Recently, while giving a workshop on learner self-management, a teacher told me that if he did not give learners all the correct answers and all necessary information, he

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[1] According to Butler, Learner Self-Management is the ability to deploy procedures and to access knowledge and beliefs in order to accomplish learning goals in a "dynamically" changing environment.

would be failing in his responsibility as a teacher" ("Reflections" 13). This teacher's theory of teaching, like that of many others, inhibited his readiness to consider any change in the control system. As Dam noted it is often difficult for teachers to turn some or all of the control over to learners (34). Some of this resistance may also derive from a cultural bias that insists on a clear division between the teacher and the student. Where this is the case, the promotion of more student responsibility for decisions about learning means blurring the line drawn between teacher and student which would be unacceptable.

Another aspect of teaching theory that can inhibit consideration of a learner-centered perspective is the older pedagogical tradition that didn't recognize the connection between teaching and learning (Cohen). In the mid-1980's I had a phone call from a Russian instructor working in the United States but trained in a rigid pedagogical tradition who asked "I understand you're interested in teaching?" When I replied "No. I'm interested in learning." "Oh!" he said, "GOODBYE!!" (Rubin "Reflections" 10). Although this division between learning and teaching has certainly moderated over the past twenty years, in many parts of the world a focus on methodology and pedagogy without consideration of learning is not uncommon.

I can, however, report one small success which began to soften this division. My colleague Rhoda Curtis gave a workshop in Russia on some ways to promote a more learner-centered perspective. A strong objection was raised by one teacher in her workshop, telling Curtis that she had everything "under control" and didn't need this perspective. Curtis encouraged the teacher to just "try it." A couple of days later, after another workshop, Curtis was sitting in the Teachers' Lounge and the reluctant teacher burst in, exclaiming, "Look, I am here talking to you and they are working on their own!" When the self-satisfied teacher saw that she would have more freedom by using a learner-centered perspective, according to Curtis, she became an immediate convert. This small incident illustrates that it is possible for teachers to see the benefit of a more learner-centered perspective, even when trained in this rigid pedagogical tradition.

Another issue in promoting a more learner-centered perspective is making the connection between theory and practice. Chamot ("LTE") noted that while some teachers "intellectually" understand the theory of a more learner-centered perspective, once they are in the classroom, their teaching "practice" is not learner-focused. That is to say, it can be remarkably challenging for teachers to reshape the way they present material, the way they structure their exercises, and the way they facilitate a learner's discovery of their own problems and consideration of potential solutions.

Even after researching, writing about, and giving courses and workshops on LSM for over twenty years, I myself had trouble making the shift from a teacher-controlled classroom. In 1995, at the end of a summer course I taught at an American university on LSM, one student wrote: you talk about learner control but you don't allow us to take control!!! I took this very perceptive observation to heart and nowadays I do "walk the walk" as well as "talk the talk" but clearly it can take a long time and lots of self-monitoring for Teacher Educators themselves to make the shift so that they model the process.

TEACHER AS LEARNER: SOME EFFECTIVE SOLUTIONS

Over many years as a Teacher Educator, I have identified several teaching strategies that can encourage teachers to begin to address the cognitive baggage they bring, to consider the important values a learner-centered perspective can have, and to think about ways to integrate theory into their practice. These strategies, which I discuss below, include: raising teacher awareness of the learning process, developing teacher's knowledge of LSM and helping them make the connection between theory and practice, scaffolding and providing guided feedback, allowing sufficient time on task, providing expert role models, promoting self-evaluation, providing ongoing professional development to enhance teacher knowledge and skills, and encouraging a community of learning. Johnson concurs with many of these strategies noting that for concept development to emerge, "teachers must have multiple and sustained opportunities for dialogic mediation, scaffolded learning, and assisted performance as they participate in and learn about relevant aspects of their professional world" (4-5).

Raising Teacher Awareness

Just as learners may need to engage in activities that raise their awareness of how they learn, teachers also need activities to help them become more sensitive to their own learning process. One of the most effective techniques I have found to raise awareness is journal writing, specifically focused on "learning problems" encountered while taking my course or workshop on LSM.[2] Skill in writing more detailed journals can improve with time as teachers increase their observation of themselves as learners.[3]

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[2] Rubin provides a list of focused questions for teachers and learners to use while writing a diary ("Diary"):

1. What problems do/did you have in class or with your homework? How did you deal with these problems? How well did these solutions work for you?
2. As you approach a task, what do you do before, during, and after to complete the task? (Be sure to write about a "specific" task, do not state what you usually do. The closer your report is to an actual text or class, the more you will understand your patterns of problems and solutions). Do you feel that what you did was useful? If not, can you think of something else that might work for you?
3. Describe how you feel as you work on the assignment or in class? What did you do about these feelings? Did it help? If not, can you think of something else that might work for you?
4. If this is your second or third assignment, what did you do differently, based on comments on your prior assignment by the teacher or your peers? Was it helpful? If so, why? If not, why not?

[3] On only one occasion did I encounter individual teacher resistance to writing journals, though others have noted that journal writing can be overdone.

A journal entry written by a teacher in my LSM course in Mexico who was also teaching EFL in a university illustrates his changing awareness of how to incorporate a more learner-centered perspective. The journal shows the transformative process teacher Antonio is going through, thinking about how he can change the way he teaches toward a more learner-centered perspective:

> Now that I see it, I think that all these activities, among some other ones, could have been planned by them [his students]. Instead of giving them straightforward instructions, I could have asked them, after getting into groups, to think of the kind of task they had to accomplish, what actions they could undertake to do the task, what kind of materials or support they could use to help themselves, how they would have to use those materials, what product they could create to get ready for their presentation, and what other things they could do before the presentation to improve their performance on it. Then I could have recycled their own ideas to do some activities very similar to the ones they did, and probably some other ones. (From the journal of Antonio Sulaya, 2003).

A second strategy to raise awareness is to make studying a second language and writing a journal about their learning of the language a requirement for a degree or certificate in teaching. In 1981, Rubin and Henze suggested this practice, based on Henze's observations of her learning of Arabic. Other post-graduate courses have implemented this requirement as a way to increase teacher awareness of the learning process. Providing opportunities to actually experience learning was also suggested at the Open Forum at IATEFL Exeter 2008, though they added that such learning should take place in an autonomy-oriented environment. If such a class could be found, it would add a different social context to the learning process.

When time doesn't permit such a course as a requirement, asking teachers to consider how they learned vocabulary or grammar and sharing this information in class can raise awareness about different ways to learn (listed by Chamot, "LTE"). When I asked teachers in my course or workshop to do the sample memory exercise suggested by Cohen which includes sharing the strategies each used to memorize, that helped them recognize the different ways each of them approaches the task and helped them begin to recognize that sharing and considering another's learning strategies can improve one's own approach to the task (Paige et al.). Discussing elements of LSM from a daily life perspective can also raise awareness such as, for example, asking teachers to think of life situations where they usually set goals and establish criteria in their everyday life (making New Year's resolutions or saving money for a special need).

Developing Teachers' Knowledge and Making the Connection between Theory and Practice

In addition to raising awareness, reading about LSM and the learning process can also add to teachers' knowledge, provided it is accompanied by lots of

opportunity to apply this knowledge and time to make the connection between theory and practice.

An important and effective way to help teachers integrate this knowledge with what they already know is through collaboration with other teachers (Johnston; Karlsson et al., among many others who have validated the critical importance of this strategy). The following journal entry by a teacher in my LSM course in New Zealand supports the importance of sharing experiences:

> I enjoyed working in a group with other students. There is so much that can be learned from the experience of other people. It would be nice for us to have opportunities [outside of class time] to discuss our professional experiences and share our expertises. (Sharon Churchill, Feb. 17, 2007).

An example of gaining the skill required to practice the theory is the following: An experienced German teacher in my LSM class in Mexico had spent considerable time with her colleagues reading about learner strategies, learner autonomy, and learning to learn. However, after this endeavor, the group still felt frustrated and unclear about how to use the theory. While auditing my course on LSM (which included elaboration of procedures and lots of application opportunities), this teacher started trying out these techniques with her German class. For example, when presenting a grammar point to her class, she asked the class to reflect on how they could learn this point. She was impressed with the variety of ways learners came up with, many more than she herself could have thought of. In her final evaluation of my LSM course, she noted: "I have a totally different vision. I now know what to do and I feel I have lots of tools to do it."

Modeling

Teachers also need expert models to understand how LSM can function in the classroom. I model this perspective whenever I give a course or workshop by asking questions, offering choices, asking teachers to reflect, helping them recognize their own patterns of learning and rarely giving firm answers. At first, teachers are surprised and find my behavior a bit strange, but once they understand that I am modeling a more learner-centered approach, they appreciate the example.

Teachers accustomed to preparing a lesson plan find it very helpful to first see model lesson plans which incorporate LSM with content, i.e., which integrate process and content. Such model lesson plans can enable teachers to then consider ways to provide their own learners with the knowledge and skills to begin to self-manage their learning.

Scaffolding/Guided Feedback

Teachers also benefit greatly from scaffolding and guided feedback. In 2008, I gave an extended workshop for counselors in a self-access center in Mexico. During

the workshop, participants were asked to practice the skills of counseling with individual language students. While they did this, I sat in and coached the counselors.

Following is an excerpt from one counseling experience that illustrates how I scaffolded two language counselors and modeled moving toward a more learner-centered perspective for the counselors (Clemente and Rubin). This example also illustrates how the language student was helped to define/redefine his goals, establish a realistic time-line and criteria to measure his performance, learn about task analysis, to consider appropriate strategies, and identify problems and potential solutions:

> *Student 1*: "Antonio" (name changed)
>
> Antonio came in with concerns about passing the new TOEFL requirement. When asked what he specifically wanted help with, he mentioned listening and speaking (This was his goal, though not very specific). When questioned further, the two counselors-in-training realized that this student really didn't have a clear idea of what the test consisted of, nor what his real weaknesses were. It was determined that the learner needed more information: information about his skill level and information about what the test required of him. The counselors decided to give the student a sample TOEFL test. His results on the sample TOEFL test indicated that his language level was that of a beginner (Having these results increased his self-knowledge). The test also helped Antonio realize that unless he had 40 hours a week to spend for the next 4 months he would not be able to pass the test (note: this helped Antonio recognize that his goal was not realistic given the time-frame). Antonio then decided to work on the listening part of the TOEFL since he found it to be the hardest section of the exam (note: Antonio modified his goal based on the new knowledge). I then suggested that the counselors-in-training consider discussing with Antonio the kinds of genres used in the TOEFL test (i.e. that they use task classification to narrow down the task). The counselors-in-training said that the most recurrent genre types in the exam were conversations and lectures. I then asked the counselors-in-training to consider the structure of these genres and how this information might help the student listen in a more effective way (note: by so doing it would narrow down Antonio's expectations of what might happen and perhaps lower his anxiety). I also discussed with the counselors-in-training a way to identify the usual topics covered in the TOEFL listening test (note: this is also using task classification to help narrow down the task).
>
> The counselors-in-training then called Antonio's attention to the structure of the test —that is, what form questions might take (multiple choice, yes/no, fill in the blank) [note: this is a form of task classification]. Just recognizing this format improved Antonio's performance immensely. The first time Antonio took the test he got 10% but after doing a little task classification, the next time he took the test he got 48%. One can imagine how motivating that must have been for this student.
>
> My approach in working with the counselors was to suggest how they could use aspects of the LSM model to orient this particular learner with specific concerns and to educate him about what he might focus on. In a sense, I was helping them use LSM to understand practical student problems. In the future, the counselors would themselves ask their own students the same questions (about genre, format, and possible topics) in order to help the students develop the skills to learn on their own.

Of interest is that a year later, one of the counselors herself reported employing a more learner-centered perspective both in the self-access center and in her own language classes. Further, she found that "Antonio," was continuing to use some of the procedures he had learned from her.

Anna Chamot provides another example of structured feedback. Chamot asks her teachers to turn in their lesson plans mid-way through her course so that she can ask questions and suggest alternative information to consider in editing their lesson plans. Once these teachers have revised their plans, she gives them their grade. This allows teachers (as learners) to recognize that learning is a process and that structured feedback promotes the learning process as they work toward their own goals as teachers.

Allow for Sufficient time on Task

Just as learners need time to absorb the knowledge and develop skills in managing their learning, so do teachers. As Becker noted "Teachers require time for reflection, mentoring relationships, collegial interaction, expert role models, and ongoing professional development for any of these changes to be effective." I can certainly second Becker's observation. My greatest teaching success with LSM was with university level courses in which there was sufficient time for teachers to absorb and apply the material.

Longer workshops can begin to move toward a more learner-centered perspective but only if they are given over an extended period of time with sufficient scaffolding (see description of "Antonio" for such an example). Unfortunately, many institutions, constrained either by lack of funding or by scheduling conflicts, try to restrict a twenty hour workshop to two or three days, something I recommend strongly against. My counsel is that the minimum amount of time for a twenty hour workshop is five days, preferably with a weekend between. Spreading a workshop out improves the learning process considerably, giving participants time to reflect on how the workshop concepts can be adapted to their own situation.

Further, additional workshops can enable the expansion, greater exemplification and consolidation of knowledge and improvement of the skill of promoting a more learner-centered classroom. As Fulan notes "The absence of follow-up after workshops is the greatest single problem in contemporary professional development" (qtd. Becker).

Promote Evaluation

Another effective tool to increase teacher knowledge and skills in order to promote a more learner-centered perspective is to encourage teachers to continually evaluate their own success in applying LSM in their classrooms. Doing so can help persuade them of the valuable outcomes of a learner-centered perspective. Table 7.3 provide a table for teachers to use in evaluating the own effectiveness in promoting LSM (Rubin, et al. "Intervening" 159).

TABLE 7.3. EVALUATING YOUR SUCCESS IN TEACHING LEARNER STRATEGIES	
What were your goals?	
What were your evaluation criteria to know you have reached your goal(s)?	
What teaching strategies will you use to accomplish your goal(s)?	
How much time will you need to accomplish your goal(s)	
What problems arose while presenting the strategic knowledge?	
Identify any problem sources (your goals, your teaching strategies, your emotions, the amount of time for presentation)	
Identify all problem solutions (adjust goal(s), teaching strategies, pace, your emotions, amount of time)	
Type of revisions you will make next time you teach strategic knowledge	

I also encourage teachers in my LSM courses to use the five LSM procedures (planning, monitoring, evaluation, problem-identification/problem solving, problem solution implementation) as a way to study for the course. When one teacher in my class did so to study for the final and got an excellent grade, she recognized the effectiveness of LSM for studying and began to use LSM in all her language and translation courses.

One of Chamot's students, Genovese, tried out a learner-centered perspective with her own classroom (Chamot and Genovese). Chamot and Genovese "devised a plan to use print and non-print media, student choice, differentiated instruction, videotaped student presentations, and performance-based evaluation rubric." This action research, promoting a more learner-centered perspective, determined that allowing learners to choose their own topics of language study that met their own needs and interests increased their internal motivation. Clearly, as a result of reaching her goal of increasing motivation, Teacher Genovese was ready to implement more LSM in her classrooms.

Angela Burke Detjen, another teacher in my LSM class, taught a class for students who were going to participate in international mock debates. Since she wanted to prepare her students for this oral presentation, Angela and her students came up with a set of evaluation criteria for a good oral presentation, which they used to evaluate each other. The collected evaluations of each learner were given to the presenters for their consideration. Students reported that this evaluation helped them improve their oral presentation skills. Once Burke Detjen saw the results of this evaluation process and noted how much it helped the students, she was encouraged to use similar tools with her other classes.

Teacher Educators need criteria to measure their teachers' skill with LSM. Costa and Kallick offer a list for teachers to evaluate their own ability to use a learner-centered perspective in the classroom (103). These include teacher improvement in the following: feelings of self-efficacy, ability to establish goals, criteria and time-line, ability to analyze the task of promoting LSM, and ability to notice problems and consider solutions to these problems.

Journals can also help teachers notice and reflect on their successes. As an example, a teacher in my LSM class in Mexico, Antonio Sulaya, was also teaching an EFL course in a nearby university. Classroom management was challenging since students had little motivation, didn't work hard or pay much attention to the teacher. However, using LSM to help his students improve their grades had a considerable impact. Here is an excerpt from Sulaya's journal showing his success in using LSM:

> Today I couldn't teach my ESL class and I asked a colleague to cover for me. I prepared a lesson plan with LSM and a few hours ago I called to know if she had any problems with my students. She was surprised at how well the students worked. She didn't say anything, just gave them my handouts. They worked, turned in their assignment, and left the class peacefully in an organized manner. She couldn't believe this happened at our institution.

Encourage Development of a Community of Learning

Just as most language learners benefit enormously from working in a group, so teachers benefit from a community for collaboration and learning. Karlsson, Kjisik, and Norlund describe a learning environment which depends on the development of a community of learning (both teachers and students) that is continuously involved in collaborative action research. They argue for action research as a way to combine theory and practice in a flexible way (60), and prevent stagnation among teachers so they become active learners.

Another strategy, joint problem solving, has been used effectively by Victori in staff meetings. Teachers share the problems they have in their classes or the self-access center and others suggest ways of addressing them. At subsequent meetings these teachers discuss how well these solutions worked for them. This "just in time" help based on particular issues and shared with colleagues is perhaps the best approach. First of all, it is based on real issues, then discussed with colleagues who may have similar issues, and finally, evaluated and polished in follow-up sessions.

CHALLENGE 2: MACRO-STRUCTURES

A teacher's ability to implement a more learner-centered perspective depends in part on a number of macro-structures. Among these are mandated re-

quirements for textbooks; high-stakes tests; curricula; class size and configuration; and schedules. When these structures are not aligned so that promotion of LSM is possible, the results can be disappointing. As Rodgers notes "When a teacher's attention is on the book, on the lesson plan, on listening for the right answer instead of listening to students' thinking, on worrying about where students should be instead of where are, then it is not on the learning [...]" (237).

The issue that my teachers have brought up most frequently relates to learner time on task. For example, in some schools, foreign languages are taught only three times a week at the secondary level and teachers' major concern is to meet the mandated requirements. Teachers argue this allows little time to integrate LSM. Another schedule issue in New Zealand is the fact that learners have a different teacher each year for foreign language studies. One of my New Zealand teachers was concerned that there is a risk that the approach won't be fully "embedded" and "applied" and hence, would not be as helpful as it could be.

Teachers in other countries have noted that the use of required textbooks doesn't allow for much learner choice in topics, grammatical structures or sequence. Further, in many educational institutions teachers are required to follow curricula in a lock-step fashion. This requirement makes it difficult to provide instruction targeted for a particular learner's goals and learning problems.

A frequently mentioned classroom issue is the number of students, often between 50-60. These classrooms are often in fixed seats in rows where it makes it difficult to do any real group work. It can take a great deal of the teacher's time to identify creative ways to facilitate more learner-centered perspectives.

Another oft-mentioned challenge teachers have in promoting LSM, especially with beginners, is teaching a class that has students with diverse language backgrounds and no common language. This configuration can make it extremely difficult to present LSM concepts and to group students to work effectively. For example, writing journals in mother tongue is very helpful to raise awareness of the learning process, but normally a teacher can't know the languages of all the students and students with limited target language knowledge may not be able to write about their problems in that language. Colleague Sharon McKay came up with a creative solution to address this issue at an adult education school. She paired intermediate learners of specific mother tongues with beginning learners of the same mother tongue. The more advanced learners asked the journal questions in their common mother tongue so that the beginning learners were able to reply, thus getting the benefit of awareness raising. The beginners were quite thrilled commenting that no one had ever asked them.

Two other structural issues that can inhibit implementation of LSM relate to time and compensation. Administrators often require part-time teachers to attend workshops without compensating them for the extra time. This practice obviously leads to considerable resentment. Another challenge is that it can take a lot more time to integrate LSM into lessons than it does just continuing with a given curriculum and textbook.

MACRO-STRUCTURES: SOME EFFECTIVE SOLUTIONS

Administrative Support

In order to institutionalize LSM, the administration needs to be persuaded of its value (Markee), to provide strong support for the process, and to encourage its integration into language teaching; only then will teachers have a positive environment in which to work. Although I myself have not been involved in working with macro-structure issues, the literature documents several institutions where the administration has been a critical component in the integration of LSM. These include: the Language Center, Helsinki University (Karlsson et al.), the Foreign Service Institute of the United States Government (Blake), the U.S. Defense Language Institute (Dudney) and the Benchmark School (Gaskins). In these institutions, in order to promote a learner-centered perspective and LSM in order to reach the institution's and the learners' goals, the administration has authorized the necessary teacher education, facilities and materials, and curriculum changes. The settings include universities, government, and a private primary school.

CONCLUSION

A full-scale integration of a learner-centered perspective requires a combination of effective training, ongoing teacher education, a community of learning, and strong institutional support. Features which have proven to be effective include: full support from the administration for the program leading to the institutionalization of a learner-centered perspective, ongoing opportunities to enhance teacher knowledge and skills, ongoing coaching, trouble shooting sessions, development of a strong community of learning among teachers and students, and action research. These features were all mentioned repeatedly by contributors to a special issue of *System* 35.1 (2007), edited by Rubin. If a more learner-centered perspective which promotes learner self-management is to really take hold, Teacher Educators need not only to help teachers gain the knowledge and skills they need to promote LSM, these educators also need to work with administrators to help them recognize the long term value of developing a community of learners and teachers and the importance of supporting a growing and continuously changing understanding of the process of promoting Learner Self-Management.

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WHERE THERE'S A WILL THERE'S A WAY... TO TEACHER AND LEARNER AUTONOMY: LANDMARKS OF A TEACHING CAREER

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ABSTRACT

Although ten years ago most writing on learner autonomy still did not explicitly relate it to teacher development prerequisites, my experience in the past seventeen years tells me that the development of learner and teacher autonomy are intimately interconnected. The aim of this article is to highlight the importance of teacher development within a framework in which reflective practice is articulated with an intentional focus on learner autonomy. It is structured in three sections, each one of them corresponding to what I call "landmarks" in my career as a foreign language teacher, from the first hesitant steps as an in-service teacher trainee to a more confident professional engagement in the promotion of innovation in school practices.

KEY WORDS: teacher development, learner autonomy, pedagogical innovation; professional collaboration

RESUMEN

Aunque lo que se publicaba hace diez años acerca de autonomía del alumno no mencionaba la necesidad de fomentar la autonomía del profesor, mi experiencia en los diecisiete años que llevo como profesora me dice que el desarrollo de ambas se relacionan estrechamente. El objetivo de este artículo es destacar la importancia del desarrollo de la autonomía del profesor dentro de un marco en el cual la práctica de la reflexión se articula con un foco intencionado en la autonomía del alumno. Se estructura en tres partes, cada uno corresponde a lo que llamo "hitos" en mi carrera como profesora de lenguas extranjeras, desde los primeros pasos dubitativos como profesora en formación a un compromiso serio en la promoción de prácticas de innovación en la escuela.

PALABRAS CLAVE: desarrollo del profesor, autonomía del alumno, innovación pedagógica, colaboración profesional.

FIRST CONTACT WITH THE CONCEPT OF LEARNER AUTONOMY: ENVISIONING NEW HORIZONS

After almost twenty years of teaching practice as a secondary school teacher of English and German, I had the fortunate opportunity to attend the course "Pedagogy for autonomy: Teacher Development and Pedagogical Experimentation" (Vieira, "Teacher"; Vieira and Moreira, *Pedagogia*), which took place at the University of Minho from 1993 to 1996. What I learnt during the first thirty-hour course, in May 1993, was the beginning of what turned out to be one of the most significant changes in my (professional) life. But significant change is never a simple process, as it entails questioning personal beliefs and practices. The course helped me realise that although I had already reached a certain compromise between the assumptions of the communicative approach and those of learner-based teaching, I still needed to take a further step forward if I wanted to implement pedagogy for autonomy —I would have to pay extra attention to the development of my pupils' learning competence.

In spite of my readiness to accept change, it took me some time to "digest" some of the new concepts, and psychological preparation to be able to manage emotional states that ranged from idealistic enthusiasm to change the (language teaching/learning) world, to frustration caused by the obstacles I had to face. At this stage, I knew that I would never be able to implement pedagogy for autonomy as defined by Henri Holec, but I was determined to experiment some aspects of the new approach with my students. In spite of all my doubts, the course helped me reach a new level of inquiry, which made me feel more confident to introduce change into my practice. After I presented my critical report on the theoretical part of the course, I was encouraged to put into practice my intention to establish a relationship between pedagogy for autonomy and learner motivation, which became the objective of my first action-research project. Adopting a reflective/investigative approach to teaching was an exciting experience, not only because it was new to me but mainly because it helped me manage some conceptual conflicts derived from my recently enlarged pedagogical horizons and the contextual constraints I had to deal with. Besides, I had no doubt that while I helped my students think about strategies that might enable them to regard the learning process as something they could control, I also learned to look at the teaching/learning process more from a perspective of the learners' needs, preferences and cooperation more than just basing myself on my representations of good teaching practices.

It was particularly gratifying to find out that I could actually do what at first seemed impossible. Even though promoting students' active involvement in the learning process was not an easy task, as they tended to resist giving up their "comfortable" position as knowledge recipients (or mere passive spectators), after some initial effort, I started getting precious feedback from them. I proved to myself that a learner-centred approach, which I had only thought feasible with small groups of learners, was also possible with large classes.

This experience, followed by Flávia Vieira's invitation to join her team of Methodology teachers and teacher educators was the beginning of a long and rewarding pedagogical journey (Barbosa, "Getting").

LEAVING THE SECURITY OF "HOME": THE THRILL OF PEDAGOGICAL EXPLORATIONS

Being invited to work with Flávia Vieira and her team was a big honour and an enormous challenge, as it meant leaving my comfortable position as a FL teacher. Working in higher education was something that I had never included in my career plans, but my desire to go beyond the limits of the familiar helped me overcome the fear of the unknown, and I'm glad I left the security of "home" because with my new colleagues I discovered that I could go further as a teacher, teacher educator and researcher.

From September 1994 to July 1996 I was engaged in the second and third stages of the "Pedagogy for Autonomy" teacher training project, and having meanwhile become a University teacher trainer, I found myself playing two different roles at the same time —in-service teacher trainee and pre-service teacher trainer— which created the ideal conditions for my further pedagogical experimentation (Marques). As a member of the team until 2007, I had invaluable opportunities to foster my own professional development and innovative ability while trying to prepare my students/student teachers for the adoption of pedagogy for autonomy.

I had the privilege to participate in a supervision project started in 1995, which consisted in using action research as a means to promote reflective teaching towards pedagogy for autonomy (Moreira, et al.; Vieira, "Investigação-acção"; Vieira, et al., "Teacher"). Articulating ideas from Flávia Vieira's and Maria Alfredo Moreira's research, the work done within this supervision project has been greatly inspired by the assumption that inquiry is at the heart of pedagogy and professional development (Vieira and Moreira, "Reflective").

But innovation was not limited to this supervision project, within which I developed my MA project ("Discurso"). In my role of FL Methodology teacher I also experienced the thrill of exploring new pedagogical approaches that challenged conservative academic practices, bringing about facilitating conditions for students to develop their own self-direction and an inquiry-oriented approach to learning how to teach. Besides being part of the above mentioned supervision project, I was involved, in collaboration with my colleagues Madalena Paiva and Isabel Sandra Fernandes, in a multidisciplinary, multi-case research project whose global aim was "to transform (understand-renew-enhance) the role of pedagogy at university" (Vieira, "Transforming" 3), by implementing what Shulman defines as a scholarship of teaching and learning:

> We develop a scholarship of teaching when our work as teachers becomes public, peer-reviewed and critiqued, and exchanged with other members of the communities so they, in turn, can build on our work. These are the qualities of all scholarship. (50)

This project, within which I developed my PhD research, rested on a concept of pedagogic quality whose operationalisation depends on the following set of principles —Intention, Transparency, Coherence, Relevance, Democratisation, Reflectivity, Self-direction, and Creativity/Innovation— and involves the conduction of case studies, peer observation, and journal writing.

As members of this team, we developed our own case study (Barbosa, "Developing"; "Enhancing") in the context of the English-German Teaching Methodology course, trying to enhance our students' professional learning by focussing primarily on the principles of reflectivity, self-direction, and creativity/innovation:

> "Reflectivity": Pedagogical action promotes critical thinking, by integrating a critical reflective approach towards its assumptions and aims, contents and methodology, assessment, learning processes, the role of the various disciplines of the curriculum and the relation between the curriculum and the professional world.
> "Self-direction": Pedagogical action promotes the development of self-management attitudes and skills: self-directed working plans, self-evaluation, independent study skills, intellectual curiosity, willingness to learn, self-esteem and self-confidence.
> "Creativity/Innovation": Pedagogical action stimulates processes of understanding and intervention with social and professional implications; it promotes personal interpretation and multi/inter/transdisciplinary views of knowledge and reality, as well as research and problem solving abilities, abilities to develop personal projects and to intervene in professional contexts, and also openness towards innovation. (Vieira, "Transforming" 5-6)

Our case study was carried out in 2004/05, and I gave continuity to the new approach until I returned to my former working environment in September 2007.

After a most enriching period of thirteen years exploring new professional possibilities, I didn't feel my coming back to Sá de Miranda Secondary School as a breakup with the University of Minho, my second professional home. This sense of belonging is reinforced by the fact that I am still linked to it as a member of GT-PA (Grupo de Trabalho-Pedagogia para a Autonomia), a learning community created in 1997 as a "small network aiming at the collaborative development of its members by exploring the idea(l) of a pedagogy for autonomy within the school context" (Vieira, "Learner" 2). This experience inspired me to set up the collaborative project that I am going to present in the next section.

COMING BACK "HOME": THE JOY OF FINDING COMPANIONS FOR FURTHER JOURNEYS

Although, as a supervisor of student teachers in training I hadn't lost contact with the school reality, I was aware of the new challenges of this change in my professional life (Barbosa, "Getting"). It was the same school, but school had changed since 1994. And so had I. I had become a new person and a new professional, and my previous experience in the field of pedagogy for autonomy made me feel the

need to go on with the work I had been involved in at the university. I was also much more aware of the never-ending reasons to keep embarking on new pedagogical journeys, preferably not alone, as I had also experienced the true value of professional collaboration and knew that my individual action would bring about very limited results. So, before I had time to "unpack" from my pedagogical explorations as a teacher educator, I started trying to find companions for what I hope will be a long rewarding journey towards teacher and learner autonomy —a project initiated in 2007/08 with a group of colleagues from different disciplinary areas, whose main aim is to foster learner autonomy as one means to achieve educational success.

But what does this entail? If learners are supposed to develop their autonomy, they should be engaged in activities that promote "reflection" upon the different dimensions of the teaching/learning process (objectives, contents, strategies, pedagogical roles, classroom communication, evaluation, etc.), "experimentation of learning strategies" (not only cognitive but also metacognitive and socio-affective), "pedagogical negotiation" (of meanings and decisions), and "regulation" (i.e., planning, monitoring and evaluation) of learning experiences. Learners must become aware that they are responsible for their learning, and teachers must be prepared to accept that they can no longer control all aspects of classroom life. "Learning" rather than teaching must become the main focus of attention, and when this happens teachers will realise that, instead of a homogeneous group to whom they offer the same "dish", each class is composed by a number of individuals with different interests, needs, expectations and competence levels.

Despite all kinds of personal and contextual constraints to the implementation of pedagogy for autonomy, these will not be strong enough to discourage teachers in their pursuit if they are willing and have the opportunity to develop their own pedagogical knowledge and professional autonomy. So, I felt that with a project aiming at the promotion of educational success through pedagogy for autonomy I might contribute with something innovative and stimulating for students and teachers alike.

The project, entitled "Pedagogy for autonomy and educational success —what relation?" and whose objectives are 1) to promote the integrated development of competences, 2) to promote practice coherence, with reference to curriculum objectives,[1] and 3) to promote professional dialogue, was approved by the School Pedagogical Board[2] in October 2007 becoming part of the School Annual Plan of Activities.

All 10th year teachers were informed about the initiative in the end-of-term evaluation meetings in December, but some teachers of other levels got inter-

[1] The notion of learner autonomy appears in national syllabi across the school curriculum, although in diverse ways and with diverse foci (Silva et al.).

[2] This Board is formed by the School Director and all Department Coordinators, who approve the Annual Plan of Activities, in accordance with the School Educational Project.

ested and joined in. In January 2008 we started working as a multidisciplinary group of 20 teachers (including 11th and 12th year levels) interested in experimenting what for most of them was a new pedagogical approach.

Our first meetings were dedicated to the discussion of the concept of autonomy and some forms of implementing it. I shared some of the materials I had designed for my classes, and some of these were analysed according to parameters of pedagogy for autonomy (Vieira, *Cadernos* 97-100) (Appendix 1). Some colleagues adopted or adapted some of the examples provided, while others designed their own materials, according to their priorities.

We met as regularly as we could, and took all the opportunities to disseminate our work (Barbosa, "Pedagogy"; Barbosa and Cerqueira, "Pedagogia"; Barbosa et al., "Pedagogia"). At the end of the school year, the project was very positively evaluated by the team members, and all the respondents to the evaluation questionnaire stated their willingness to continue this work, despite the difficulties they had experienced and the modest results achieved.

To divulge our work in our school, in October 2008 we organised a seminar in which Flávia Vieira kindly accepted to make a short presentation on the theme of our project. Students also had a voice in the meeting, confirming our belief that a learner/learning-centred approach is a valuable means to foster their success as learners, especially if teachers work in a concerted way.

Conscious of the importance of concerted action to bring about sustained pedagogical change, we have so far developed some common activities, and tried to engage more teachers in each class, but this hasn't been an easy task. We planned a second open seminar for the beginning of the present school year, believing it might be an appropriate occasion to give all the school teachers an account of the work done and present data from the project evaluation, this time including the students' opinions (Appendix 2). However, due to organisational difficulties of different kinds, in part related to a thorough rebuilding process our school is undergoing, the seminar had to be postponed to January 2010.

As there had been a considerable renewal of the teaching staff, we were counting on a large audience, and were very optimistic about the possibility of attracting new members to the team. But it turned out that there were other meetings at the same time, and many colleagues, who had shown interest in the seminar were prevented from attending it. Nevertheless, we gained two new members, one of whom is Madalena Torres, a young Biology teacher who, despite having a temporary position in our school, is quite committed to the team's cause.

As collaboration is one of the stepping stones of this project, I asked my colleagues to contribute to this article with their own pictures of the journey. Three of them responded to my appeal, sharing with us their own views of the project as they experienced it. One of them was Madalena, who highlights its formative value:

> The project Pedagogy for Autonomy gave me the opportunity to frame and, to a certain extent, justify strategies that I had been idealizing and implementing in my teaching practice. This has been an excellent opportunity for personal growth, and a valuable contribution to help grow the students I work with. I think that peda-

gogy for autonomy is an intelligent approach, fundamental in our society. During my short experience/participation in this project I implemented some tools designed within the working group, where I found space to learn, to share experiences and realities with a very clear objective. Promoting pedagogy for autonomy is in itself a challenge". (My translation)

Helena Matos, one of the English teachers who has been with us since the creation of the group emphasizes the collaborative dimension of our work as a learning community, as well as the pedagogical value of the strategies we have been implementing:

> Over the last three years (2007-2010), a group of teachers from different subject areas have been exchanging points of view, meeting together, discussing several topics related to autonomy, sharing materials, exposing their ideas and doubts... in a very healthy and welcoming atmosphere. We have learned a lot together and this type of collaborative and shared work can expand our own knowledge and broaden our horizons in terms of teaching. There is always someone in the group who has decided to implement a new strategy, and gives us feedback from the experience. We are always free to do the same or improve and adapt the strategy used to work with our students too. There is a very open and liberal relationship amongst us and we are completely at ease to talk about anything that worries us or makes us feel rewarded for being teachers.
> In our classes (10th and 11th forms), we try to implement strategies that can make our students more responsible for their own learning process, more autonomous, with a better attitude towards education, by making them think about their own learning strategies, the way they develop their abilities, and by involving them in self-evaluation practices. We believe that at least some of them will learn the lesson and will be successful adult citizens in a near future.

Olímpia Oliveira, a Physical Education and teacher trainer, also contributed with a text in which she focuses on the work she has been doing in the context of initial teacher education. As her classes are taught by three student teachers, she decided to apply some of the principles of pedagogy for autonomy to her work with them. Considering that the teaching practicum is a time for the development of professional autonomy, she presents some of her objectives as a teacher trainer, as well as some of the difficulties she has encountered:

> Being able to analyze teaching contents and select the strategies that best suit each learning situation requires self-confidence and the capacity to reflect upon what was done and what could have worked better if other options had been made. The work I have been doing with the student teachers aims at enabling them to plan and teach lessons, justifying their choices on the grounds of acquired knowledge about the teaching/learning process.
> What I have noticed in the last few years is that it is more and more difficult for them to acquire these competences. All the academic knowledge is 'stored in files' and seems to be useless and disconnected from the teaching practice, and as they show no initiative to sort out what is relevant for their daily practice, this is something I have to help them to do. But it is a difficult task to develop their sense of

> pleasure for being able to do such things on their own, for being responsible for their choices, assertive in their answers, confident of the results, able to choose methodologies that enhance learner success.
> This makes me think that the attitude of some of these student teachers towards school and their teaching role is a reflection of their own experience as learners, who went to school just because they had to, missing the opportunity to develop their competences.
> I have promoted reflection upon teaching/learning tasks, and how to make the most of routines. The development of their autonomy also has included reflecting on "where am I and where do I want to go to?" because being aware of the way you still have to go helps you to choose how to do it. So, every week they keep a record of what has and hasn't been accomplished, what was most and least enjoyable, easy or difficult, useful or useless. Special attention has also been paid to the development of self-confidence and self-esteem as an important basis for autonomy". (My translation)

Olímpia's experience is parallel to what is done in the classroom context, and attitudinal constraints aren't much different. Even though 168 out of 340 enquired students state that they would like to go on with the type of work done within the project (see Appendix 2), many of them still show some resistance to an approach that requires a more active involvement on their part. On the other hand, a great number of students who arrive at our school to attend the 10th year reveal such a low level of preparation that makes it even more urgent to do something to help them develop their learning competence.

Hoping to be strong enough to go on facing problems as challenges rather than obstacles to promote educational success, I believe that despite the difficulties, our project is just the beginning of what may become an important change in our professional life, and in the academic life of our students. In the latest preliminary evaluation report I was asked to present to the Project Coordination Board I wrote:

> Despite the above mentioned constraints, the project has enabled professional dialogue among a reasonable number of teachers, as well as students' involvement in pedagogical experiences that may enhance their educational success. I hope that lack of participation continuity doesn't have a demobilizing effect within the group, as the evaluation results of the first two years of implementation reveal that this project may have a very positive impact on the learning quality of our students.

I also hope that the sense of community reinforces our determination to pursue the utopias of those who believe that "Pedagogical hope and professional autonomy go hand in hand in our struggle for a better education: education that is empowering for teachers and learners and ultimately contributes to the transformation of society at large". (Jiménez Raya et al. 55)

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APPENDIX 1

PLANNING AND EVALUATING A LEARNER DEVELOPMENT ACTIVITY *GUIDING QUESTIONS*

The following questions aim at helping teachers plan and/ or evaluate a Learner Development Activity (LDA), i.e. any activity that seeks to develop learning competence (willingness and ability to learn = readiness to manage learning). Sections A-C refer to general characteristics of the LDA; Section D focusses on the learners' roles in accomplishing it; Section E is a self-regulation checklist for the teacher who seeks to develop a pedagogy for autonomy.

A. TRANSPARENCY/EXPLICITNESS

- WHAT — What aspects of the learning competence are involved in the LDA?
- WHAT FOR — What are the LDA aims/ purposes?
- WHY — What is the rationale of the LDA?
- HOW — What tasks increase the learners' willingness and ability to learn?

- How explicit are the answers to the above questions in the learning material? Are there strategies to compensate for lack of explicitness?

B. INTEGRATION

- Is the development of learning competence articulated with the development of communicative competence, i.e. does the LDA comprise both learner training and language training as integrated purposes?
- In case the LDA solely focusses on the learning competence, what strategies are used to increase the learners' perception of the relevance of the activity in terms of language improvement?

C. APPROPRIATENESS TO CONTEXT/ MEANINGFULNESS

Does the LDA...

- require a diagnosis of the learners' readiness to accomplish it?
  Does it respond to the learners' characteristics, interests and needs?
  Does it build on the learners' previous knowledge and experience?
- provide authentic and useful learning experiences?
- involve competences that can be transferred to other learning situations?
- promote progress in the learners' learning competence?

D. LEARNER ROLES TOWARDS SELF-DIRECTION

LDAs may involve learners in a variety of roles. Each LDA should have a particular focus. The questions below may help you to determine it.

REFLECTION

- Does the LDA allow the learners *to develop language awareness*?
  - ☐ Formal properties of language.
  - ☐ Pragmatic properties of language.
  - ☐ Sociocultural aspects.

– Does the LDA allow the learners *to develop learning awareness*?
- ☐ Sense of agency (self-control, self-esteem, self-confidence).
- ☐ Attitudes, representations, beliefs.
- ☐ Preferences and styles.
- ☐ Aims and priorities.
- ☐ Strategies (cognitive, metacognitive, strategic, socio-affective).
- ☐ Tasks (focus, purpose, rationale, demands).
- ☐ Instructional/ didactic process (objectives, activities, materials, evaluation, roles...).

EXPERIMENTATION
– Does the LDA allow the learners *to experience learning strategies*?
- ☐ Discover and try out learning strategies in class.
- ☐ Use learning strategies outside class.
- ☐ Explore (pedagogical/ non-pedagogical) resource materials.

REGULATION
– Does the LDA allow the learners *to regulate learning experiences*?
- ☐ Monitor/ evaluate attitudes, representations, beliefs.
- ☐ Monitor/ evaluate strategic knowledge and ability.
- ☐ Assess learning outcomes and progress.
- ☐ Identify learning problems or needs.
- ☐ Set learning goals.
- ☐ Plan their learning.
- ☐ Evaluate the instructional/ didactic process.

NEGOTIATION
– Does the LDA allow the learners *to co-construct learning experiences*?
- ☐ Work in collaboration with peers.
- ☐ Work in collaboration with the teacher.
- ☐ Take the initiative, choose and decide.

E. TEACHER ROLES TOWARDS LEARNER SELF-DIRECTION

The following questions may help teachers become more aware of their readiness and roles in developing a pedagogy for autonomy. Although the ideal answer to the questions is YES, no teacher is an ideal teacher. In this sense, the checklist should be understood as a self-development instrument rather than an assessment tool. You may select or add questions which are more appropriate/ relevant in your own professional situation.

AM I WILLING TO… ? AM I ABLE TO…?
- ☐ Understand what is involved in language education and its role in school curricula.
- ☐ Understand the theory and practice of a pedagogy for autonomy (assumptions and principles; methodological approaches; research studies).
- ☐ See teaching as an inquiry-oriented, exploratory profession as situations are often unique, uncertain and problematic.
- ☐ Challenge routines, conventions and traditions (be subversive if necessary).
- ☐ Share my personal theories and practices with peers.
- ☐ Encourage the learners to be critical towards social and educational values and practices, and involve them in finding common solutions which seem appropriate (though not necessarily ideal).

- ☐ Share responsibilities and decisions with the learners.
- ☐ Share my pedagogical beliefs with the learners.
- ☐ Accept the fact that the learners may not share my own expectations, opinions or beliefs, and that it is not always easy or even desirable to reach a single conclusion or point of view.
- ☐ Articulate the personal dimensions of learning (individual expectations, needs and interests) with the social/ interactive nature of the classroom culture.
- ☐ Foster interaction where everyone has the right to speak and to contribute towards the co-construction of meanings.
- ☐ Collect learner data so as to understand learning processes and their evolution (eg. through observation, questionnaires, diaries, interviews, checklists, etc.).
- ☐ Analyse learner data to find relevant cues to improve teaching and learning.
- ☐ Find ways to take learning competence into account when assessing the learners (eg. through self-assessment).

APPENDIX 2

SYNTHESIS OF STUDENTS' ANSWERS TO QUESTIONNAIRE (340 RESPONDENTS)

QUESTION A: GLOBAL IMPACT OF PROJECT ACTIVITIES				
Yes	No	Don't Know	No Answer	Think about what was done and choose the option that best corresponds to your experience
242	30	66	2	1. I participated in the activities with interest and commitment.
201	57	79	3	2. I enjoyed the strategies adopted by the teacher.
263	23	53	1	3. I felt that the teacher tried to help me to learn better.
242	20	77	1	4. I learned to reflect upon my own learning.
172	42	125	1	5. I learned to identify my difficulties and to talk about them.
231	25	82	2	6. I solved some of my difficulties.
241	19	77	3	7. I learned to be more responsible for my own learning.
206	27	106	1	8. I felt that the activities helped me to be a better learner.
156	65	117	2	9. What I learned was useful in other school subjects.
220	28	91	1	10. What I learned will be useful in the future.

QUESTION B: DIFFICULTIES ENCOUNTERED				
YES	NO	DON'T KNOW	NO ANSWER	Think about what was done and say which of these difficulties you felt
33	161	145	1	1. Lack of interest of activities.
46	184	110		2. Waste of time spent on activities I didn't consider useful.
67	125	147	1	3. Difficulty to understand activity objectives.
30	185	124	1	4. Difficulty to reflect upon my learning.
63	150	126	1	5. Difficulty to participate actively.
45	189	105	1	6. Low level of subject matter knowledge.
62	158	119	1	7. Lack of time to do/prepare the activities.

QUESTION C: WORK CONTINUITY
– Would you like to continue with this type of work in case you stay in this school? – YES —168 – NO — 58 – MAYBE —90 – DIDN'T ANSWER —24 REASONS TO CONTINUE – It helps to understand the subject matter. – It helps to improve attitudes in the classroom. – It helps to reflect upon learning. – It promotes self-knowledge. – It increases motivation. – It makes classes more dynamic. – It fosters autonomy and responsibility. – It allows mutual help and dialogue (among students). – It's a different but more interesting way to learn. It helps overcome difficulties. – It's useful. – It favours class participation. – It promotes learning. – It helps to get better results. – It favours the teacher's self-evaluation.

LANGUAGE LEARNING MOTIVATION AND LEARNER AUTONOMY: BRIDGING THE GAP

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ABSTRACT

The complexity of the role of motivation in second language acquisition processes, along with the different motivational types that have been identified, have long been the object of much learner-centred research which has led to a wealth of practical implications for foreign language teaching contexts and the development of learner autonomy. This article will present results from a longitudinal study addressing the nature of motivation in first year university EFL learners and the effect of integrated strategy training as a means to foster greater autonomy, and, in consequence, raise intrinsic motivational levels.

KEY WORDS: Learner autonomy, learner strategies, language learning motivation.

RESUMEN

La complejidad del papel que desempeña la motivación en el proceso de adquisición de segundas lenguas ha sido objeto de estudio de diversas investigaciones centradas en el alumno, que han derivado en un amplio abanico de implicaciones prácticas para contextos de enseñanza de lenguas extranjeras y para el desarrollo de la autonomía del aprendizaje. Este artículo presenta los resultados de un estudio longitudinal cuyo objetivo ha sido explorar la naturaleza de la motivación en estudiantes universitarios de inglés como lengua extranjera de primer curso, y la influencia que la formación integrada de estrategias de aprendizaje puede tener en el desarrollo de la autonomía y, consecuentemente, en los niveles de motivación intrínseca.

PALABRAS CLAVE: autonomía del aprendizaje, estrategias de aprendizaje, motivación en el aprendizaje.

1. INTRODUCTION

It is a widely accepted tenet that "motivation" is the basic ingredient of self-directed behaviour and achievement. Similarly, most foreign language teachers and second language acquisition researchers would unreservedly agree that motivation is an essential element of successful language learning. The relationship between motivational levels and improved language proficiency has been thoroughly docu-

mented in a large number of research publications (Ushioda, "Motivation," *Learner*; Gardner, "Motivation," *Social*; Dörnyei, *Teaching*; Dörnyei and Schmidt) for almost forty years since Gardner and Lambert's pioneering work addressing learner attitudes, or Rubin's seminal study investigating the learning techniques deployed by the so-called "good language learner" ("What").[1] Hence, motivation, a much-used and all-embracing term, has long been a buzzword in foreign language teaching and second language acquisition research contexts, but what exactly does it consist of and is it similar in all types of learning contexts? What is its relationship with learner autonomy? How much can teachers really influence it? More importantly, how can we help to sustain it?

In our teaching and learning context at the Universidad de Las Palmas de Gran Canaria (ULPGC) in the Canary Islands (Spain), the obligatory subject Lengua Inglesa I (English Language I), which is offered in the first year of the degree in Filología Inglesa (English Language and Literature),[2] ironically seems to receive less attention from students than all the other academic subjects they are required to pass which, by nature, lend themselves more to the accumulation of facts and concepts than to the development of language skills. Recently, we have been investigating ways to enhance our learners' intrinsic motivation[3] for language learning, and hopefully help to improve their language proficiency at the same time, rather than just watch them aiming to pass their final examination with a minimal degree of effort in order to further their academic career. It appears that many of them are, in fact, unprepared for the independent learning opportunities that embarking on a university degree offers, so a parallel concern is the gradual fostering of greater learner autonomy and metacognitive awareness[4] as a means to motivate them further. As corroborated in a recent qualitative study, which found learner independence to be the change most frequently reported by beginning university students "[The] transition from school to university brings with it a change of circumstances, demands and experiences which is likely to change the motivational profile of the student" (Bavendiek). This change in learning context requires adaptation on cognitive, metacognitive and social/affective levels as the move towards greater autonomy is not achieved magically without guidance or support.

The ability to generate "internally" driven, or intrinsic, motivation for learning, rather than approaching learning tasks in response to "external" rewards such as passing grades or greater employment opportunities, is essential for developing

[1] A recent publication revisiting Rubin's original "good language learner" research (Griffiths, *Lessons*) provides current insights on the characteristics and behaviours of effective learners such as motivation, metacognition, strategies and learner autonomy.

[2] This degree scheme has now been extinguished and replaced by the new degree in Modern Languages in line with the European Higher Education Area directives.

[3] This term will be further defined and clarified in section 2.1 of this article.

[4] Metacognition is defined as "critical but healthy reflection and evaluation of thinking that may result in making specific changes in how learning is managed, and in the strategies chosen for this purpose" (Anderson 99).

greater learner autonomy (Dörnyei, *Motivational* 28). Ushioda ("Socialising," "Motivation," "Language") has also more recently highlighted the interactions between motivation and autonomy theory, practice and research traditions based on her previous 1996 publication linking the two, claiming that motivation needs to come from within and be self-determined as well as internally regulated for effective and autonomous language learning to take place. The longitudinal action research project reported here is an attempt to explore and identify motivational types and levels in two groups of first-year university students, and link them to our classroom practice with a view to raising metacognitive knowledge and language learner strategy repertoire as a means to helping these learners become gradually more self-directed and intrinsically motivated. Our principal objective is to reach a more precise understanding of what motivation involves for our own tertiary level learners, as well as address its complex role in foreign language learning, particularly highlighting the relationship between motivation and integrated training in language learner strategies as a means to foster language autonomy.

2. RESEARCH BACKGROUND

2.1. The Role of Motivation in Foreign Language Learning

On closer examination of the relevant literature, it becomes clear that motivation is, in effect, a highly complex concept which regularly features in discussions of effective language learning or teaching as much recent research has testified (Dörnyei and Ushioda; Ushioda, "Motivation"; Gardner, "Motivation"; Dörnyei, *Psychology*, *Teaching*; Huitt), and which can also be viewed from a variety of perspectives. The term motivation may even seem, at times, to have lost its full power simply by merit of overuse in a variety of everyday contexts such as work, education or sport. However, despite its apparent familiarity, defining it accurately has proved to be extremely tricky since we can find a plethora of competing definitions and theories in contemporary motivational psychology, and, in the words of Dörnyei, motivation "[...] is one of the most elusive concepts in the whole domain of the human sciences" (*Teaching* 2).

Yet, although it appears difficult to reach a working definition of motivation, seminal examples include that proposed by Gardner, promoting the stimulation of "[...] effort, plus desire to achieve the goal of learning, plus favourable attitudes towards learning the language" (*Social* 10-11), echoed more than ten years later by Ellis, who suggested that motivation corresponds to "[The] effort learners put into learning an L2 as a result of their desire or need to learn it [...] motivation involves the attitudes and affective states that influence the degree of effort that learners make to learn an L2" (75). Common elements which recur when reviewing definitions of motivation include the "desire" to achieve something and the "effort" required to do that, as well as "affective" factors as also featured in Williams and Burden's view, who see motivation as "[...] a state of cognitive and emotional arousal, which leads to a conscious decision to act, and which gives rise to a period of sus-

tained intellectual and/or physical effort in order to attain a previously set goal (or goals)" (120). As Dörnyei later concludes in more general terms, motivation is responsible for "*why* people decide to do something, *how hard* they are going to pursue it and *how long* they are willing to sustain the activity" (Motivational 7).

A general consensus seems to be that motivation is an unobservable, internal state or condition (a need, desire or want) that serves to activate or energize goal-oriented behaviour and give it direction, and which is therefore difficult to identify accurately or indeed measure. We can conclude that some of the factors involved in language learning motivation are "cognitive" (interest, curiosity or engagement), some are "affective" (confidence or lack of anxiety), and others are "behavioural" (persistence, attention, or interaction). However, motivation can also be viewed as a dynamic concept which is open to pedagogical intervention (Dörnyei, *Psychology*; Dörnyei and Ottó) and which may be affected or influenced by a wide range of variables such as social context, teaching practice or strategy repertoire depending on the learning context or the demands of the task at hand. Currently, research interest has also begun to focus more on the role of learners, rather than teachers, as agents who regulate and shape their own motivation (Ushioda, "Motivation" 30).

With reference to motivational types, language learning motivation was originally viewed in terms of two primary orientations, "instrumental" and "integrative" (Gardner and Lambert). Instrumental motivation refers to that which is aroused by external learner goals or pragmatic, functional motives such as passing exams, financial rewards or furthering a career. In many educational contexts, this type of motivation often appears to be the major driving force behind language learning. In contrast, integrative motivation corresponds to the desire to identify with the culture of speakers of the target language, with learners showing interest in and a positive disposition towards the people and culture of the target language group. However, it is true to say that many foreign language learners' general reasons for learning may not be crucial in determining or shaping their motivation; for example, maybe they do not hold distinct attitudes towards the target language group. Yet they may find learning tasks intrinsically motivating and may feel personally involved or interested, so the maintenance of curiosity and motivation might be the cause of learning, but may also result from it. Alternatively, a language learner might have strong integrative motivation but may derive little pleasure from the learning process (Schmidt and Savage qtd. Ushioda, "Motivation" 22).

With more recent cognitive theories of motivation, the integrative/instrumental dichotomy has been gradually replaced by "intrinsic" and "extrinsic" motivational types (Ushioda, "Motivation" 21). Intrinsic motivation refers to that motivation which comes from within and is generated by the learner, meaning that the learner's reasons for learning might correspond to enjoyment, interest, challenge, or skill development. Extrinsic motivation, in contrast, links learning to external goals such as gaining a qualification. As Ushioda points out, there has been "a tendency to conflate the intrinsic/extrinsic motivation with the integrative/instrumental motivation to some extent since intrinsic motivation, like integrative motivation, is founded in deep-rooted personal interests and positive attitudes and feelings" ("Motivation" 22). Gardner's instrumental and integrative motivation types

might also constitute forms of extrinsic motivation as they both define reasons for learning a language as a means to an end.

Gardner has also made a recent distinction between "language learning motivation" and "classroom learning motivation," which could reflect the intrinsic/extrinsic dichotomy ("Motivation"). Language learning motivation refers to the motivation to learn (and acquire) a second language, and is a "[...] a general characteristic of the individual that applies to any opportunity to learn the language. It is relatively stable [...] but it is amenable to change under certain conditions" (Gardner, ("Motivation" 11). Classroom learning motivation corresponds to the motivation in the classroom situation, and "[the] focus is on the individual's perception of the task at hand, and is largely state oriented" (Gardner, "Motivation" 11). It can be influenced by a variety of factors (teacher, class atmosphere, course content, materials and facilities, personal characteristics) as well as the general language learning motivation already described.

Distinguishing between different types of motivation may not be so useful, as Gardner points out ("Motivation" 19), since more is needed to achieve language learning success, and it seems that it is the intensity of motivation, in all its cognitive, affective and behavioural components that is the crucial factor. Extrinsic motivation may promote language acquisition on a short-term basis, and is often classroom-bound, activity-based and proficiency-linked, but a more intrinsic type of motivation, with the learner experiencing genuine interest in communicating in the target language and a favourable attitude towards the target culture, seems to bring about greater language learning success. We should thus focus on the need to not only "identify" or "generate" but also help learners to "sustain" their motivation beyond that experienced in the short-term classroom context, which might be more extrinsically or instrumentally oriented in nature, and help it become more internally generated. This is what we wished to address in the study reported here exploring the role of language learner strategies and the development of learner autonomy as essential ingredients of language learning motivation, especially since classroom-based research addressing motivational processes are still somewhat scarce as opposed to the growing body of more theoretical studies (Ushioda, "Motivation" 29).

2.2. Language Learner Strategies and Learner Autonomy

Along with individual learner differences such as motivational types and levels, what learners consciously choose to do and the learning strategies they employ have been found to affect their learning process and the level of mastery achieved (Griffiths, "Strategies"; Cohen and Macaro; Oxford). Language learner strategy[5]

[5] Language learner strategies were originally called "learning strategies," "learner strategies" or "language learning strategies," but the term "language learner strategies" was coined in June 2004 at a meeting at the University of Oxford of international scholars involved in strategy research in language learning. See Cohen and Macaro for more information (2).

research has focused on the role of learner agency and decision-making behaviour since Rubin's ("What") seminal article and Stern's initial research study,[6] but is still characterised by a lack of consensus as to what actually constitutes a language learner strategy and how it might be defined.[7] As well as these issues of construct validity, this investigative field has also been beset by other problems such as a lack of rigorous research methodology and a variety of theoretical models (Grenfell and Macaro).

Griffiths has offered a succinct recent definition combining key elements from the last thirty years of debate in strategy research which we consider appropriate for the purposes of our research focus in the current study: for her, language learner strategies are "[Activities] consciously chosen by learners for the purpose of regulating their own language learning" ("Strategies" 87). This description encapsulates the key elements of strategies as "activities" (not just actions or mental processes) which are (partially or fully) "conscious" and which learners "choose" to deploy from their existing repertoire for the goal-oriented "purpose" of controlling or facilitating their language learning processes. A further research problem is posed by the fact that several classification schemes listing strategies and grouping them according to different types have been offered in the literature, the best known being those offered by O´Malley and Chamot and Oxford.[8] In the current study we have used Oxford's classification scheme which divides language learner strategies into two main groups, (i) direct strategies which involve the manipulation of the *target language* (memory, cognitive and compensation strategies) and (ii) indirect strategies which are those which support and manage the "language learning process" (metacognitive, affective and social strategies) (*Language*).

One of the major findings in the learner-centred research addressing language learner strategies is that the strategies learners choose relate both to their short-term and long-term learning goals, as well as variables such as the learning context or individual learner differences. It seems that appropriate strategy use might not be a question of acquiring a comprehensive set of tried and tested techniques used by the "good language learner" which need to be used all the time and in all learning contexts, but more a question of learners learning to select, combine, and deploy those strategies which are suitable for the task in hand depending on factors such as level of competence, cognitive style or motivation; more effective learners are those who intentionally and systematically select and combine relevant strategies (Griffiths, "Strategies"; Cohen and Macaro; Cohen). Strategies certainly seem to be more than study skills or effective learning techniques as they can also refer to sophisticated cognitive skills such as inferencing or deducing grammar patterns.

[6] These two studies contributed to the subsequent publication of the influential volume *The Good Language Learner* (Naiman et al.).

[7] See Cohen and Macaro for a comprehensive recent review of the last thirty years of strategy research and re-examination of key issues such as strategy instruction and research methods.

[8] Oxford's revision of learner strategy research, *Teaching and Researching: Language Learning Strategies*¸ is due to be published at the end of 2010.

Additionally, they seem to include the social and affective aspects of learning, as well as depend on the metacognitive awareness of the learner, with Macaro suggesting that "although it is the range and combinations of all strategies that ineffective learners lack, it is the metacognitive [...] strategies which seem to be the strategy types most lacking in the arsenal of less successful learners" (269). However, more importantly for teacher-researchers, and thus the current project, is the fact that strategy use might be open to intervention, and strategy-based instruction has been found to positively affect learning (Rubin et al.; Oxbrow). The link between strategy use and motivation has also been addressed, especially since successful and highly motivated learners have been found to use a wider range of strategies, therefore it seems that motivation is an important aspect of self-regulation (Grenfell and Macaro 15). The question thus raised is whether motivation spurs strategy use, with motivation essential for successful strategy instruction, or whether appropriate strategy use leads to better language performance which in turn arouses and sustains motivation.[9]

Defining learner autonomy from methodological and psychological perspectives has taken up much of the research literature in this area since Holec's seminal report for the Council of Europe which described autonomy as "the ability to take charge of one's learning" (3), with the autonomous learner potentially responsible for taking decisions concerning learning objectives and contents, and selecting appropriate learning techniques and methods as well as monitoring and evaluating their progress. While Holec's definition centres on the technical aspects of learning, Little has approached the concept of autonomy from a more psychological perspective, claiming autonomy to be "[...] a capacity—for detachment, critical reflection, decision-making, and independent action" (*Learner* 4).[10] It is the second dimension of learner autonomy which we have aimed to develop in our own research project, as we wished to develop our learners' ability to reflect on their learning, select appropriate strategies, and develop their metacognitive awareness as they learn to learn more effectively without the constant guidance and monitoring of their instructors, a fundamental concern in the case of our beginning university students as they make the transition from teacher dependence to more self-directed learning. Effective learners have been found to be aware of their strengths and weaknesses, and therefore capable of developing autonomous control over their learning, but the challenge for practising teachers and researchers is to provide support in response to the heterogeneity of their learners who display a range of "motivations, cultures, beliefs, learning strategies, styles and goals" (Cotterall 119). The idea of support as an important element in developing learner autonomy is emphasised by Little ("Developing") who promotes the interdependence of the cognitive and so-

[9] See Oxford and Schramm for more detail concerning psychological views of strategies, motivation, and volition (55-57).

[10] A third political dimension also exists, with Benson suggesting that "the content of learning should be freely determined by learners" (49).

cial-interactive dimensions of the learning process. Ushioda has also highlighted the socially mediated nature of motivation as a means to promote autonomy, involving learners in taking greater responsibility for their learning and regulating their motivation in line with their educational context ("Socialising," "Person"). It is this relationship between the fostering of greater learner autonomy and motivation that we will focus on here.

3. RESEARCH PROJECT

3.1. Research Questions

In order to devise the current research project, whose main objective was to integrate explicit training in selected language learner strategies within our instructional context as a means to foster greater learner autonomy and increase motivational levels, the following research questions were addressed:

1. What types and levels of motivation do our first-year university students bring with them on initiating their degree studies?
2. Which strategies do our subjects already use in their language learning? Which types need further training?
3. What is the effect of integrated strategy training on their learning process and on motivational types and levels?
4. What are the implications that the relationship between motivation and strategy-based instruction might have for encouraging greater learner autonomy?

3.2. Research Context

Our longitudinal study addressing the relationship between motivation, language learner strategy training and learner autonomy was conducted at the Universidad de Las Palmas de Gran Canaria (ULPGC), Spain, with first-year EFL students beginning the degree Filología Inglesa (English Language and Literature) during the academic year 2008-2009. Our students are divided into three groups for their English Language classes according to the initials of their surnames (two morning groups and an afternoon group), but for the purposes of this research project and practical reasons the sample population was only constituted by the subjects in the two morning groups.[11] Our final sample consisted of 23 Spanish-speaking learners (2 males and 21 females) enrolled in the subject Lengua Inglesa I

[11] The project was restricted to the two morning groups because these were the groups which received instruction from the authors, with the other group being taught by another colleague who did not participate in this project.

(English Language I) who met 5 hours a week for language instruction.[12] The entry level of English of our first-year learners was obtained by using the Oxford *Quick Placement Test*[13] and showed a mean value of 1.782 out of a total 5. Thus with respect to their foreign language proficiency, the overwhelming majority were found to be of late elementary (CEFR level A2)[14] or lower intermediate (CEFR level B1) levels, which might seem disappointingly low but which in reality is the norm for beginning university students in our educational context.

3.3. Research Methodology

Our study was divided into two main blocks, one chronologically preceding the other, and the latter being subsidiary to the first one in the sense that it was designed as a result of the findings obtained from the first part of the research project. The first part consisted of the gathering of relevant data for a sample of 23 first-year English language students on beginning their academic studies in an unfamiliar and challenging learning context with respect to their "motivational profile" and their "language learner strategy repertoire." We administered a questionnaire focusing on motivation types which included 10 items corresponding to intrinsic motivation and 10 to extrinsic motivation (see section 2.1 on motivation types). In the following session, our learners' strategy repertoire was diagnosed by means of Oxford's 50-item *Strategy Inventory for Language Learning* (SILL)[15] which measures the frequency of strategy use across Oxford's six sub-groups. It was distributed in both English and in Spanish so as to make sure that even lower level students could respond appropriately to all the different items and that their results were not influenced by any language deficiencies.

The second part of the research study was conducted towards the end of the academic year after strategy training had been gradually integrated into regular classroom activities in order to heighten our subjects' awareness of the range of strategies available to them to improve their learning, increase their intrinsic motiv-

[12] The global sample was constituted by 50 students at the beginning of the academic year, but was reduced to a definitive sample of 23 subjects after two months, the other 27 individuals having changed their degree (realising they had not chosen an appropriate degree), given up university studies or abandoned the subject for various reasons (their low level, lack of interest, preference towards other subjects in the case of students taking this subject for a second or even third time, etc.).

[13] *Quick Placement Test* (50 user CD ROM Pack) in collaboration with the University of Cambridge ESOL Examinations (formerly UCLES) (Oxford: Oxford UP, 2001).

[14] *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment* (Cambridge: Cambridge UP, 2001).

[15] *Strategy Inventory for Language Learning* (Oxford 1990). Although this questionnaire has met with criticism (for example, Grenfell and Macaro 19), especially for not being transferable to all sociocultural contexts, it has been used in a wide number of research projects and due to a lack of a viable alternative it is the instrument we have chosen to use here.

ation and further develop their autonomy. A second questionnaire was distributed to elicit information regarding two fundamental aspects. In the first place, 24 closed-response items addressed motivational issues, with a final item asking our subjects to evaluate whether they thought that their motivation had increased, decreased or stayed the same at the end of the year. Simultaneously, these same items addressing motivation corresponded directly to 24 selected strategies from Oxford's classification scheme, with four items addressing each of the six strategy sub-groups (memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective and social). The strategies we had selected for inclusion in this questionnaire reflected the types of materials and activities which had been prepared and integrated in our training programme and regular class sessions in order to provide opportunities for learners to develop their strategies in those areas we felt needed greater attention.

In order to further develop our learners' awareness and use of "compensation strategies," we focused on reading and listening techniques (such as guessing unfamiliar vocabulary from context and getting the gist of texts) and introduced pre-task activities such as generating relevant vocabulary or ideas in order to overcome limitations both in speaking and writing tasks. We also encouraged learners to develop paraphrasing skills or use synonyms when they encountered limitations in speaking or writing as well as training them to use target language definitions for recording new vocabulary as a means to further develop their linguistic flexibility.

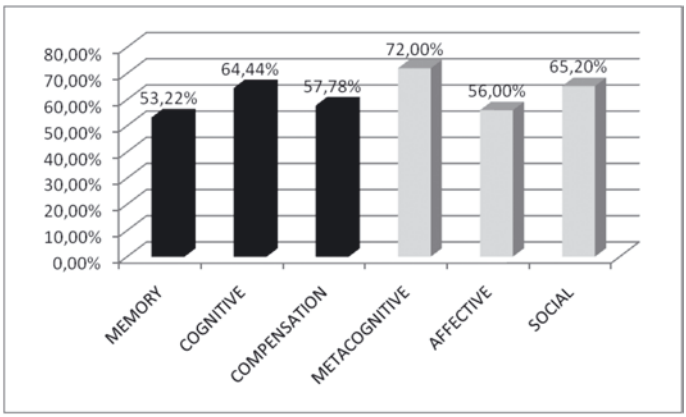
The areas we wanted to work on in relation with "affective strategies" were mainly centred on techniques for raising self-esteem and lowering their anxiety, for example by using a low-correction policy in speaking tasks, especially as our learners come from a very accuracy-based background with very little fluency-based development, and by introducing a self-correction code and drafting as important tools for a process approach to writing tasks.[16] In addition, learners were encouraged to take risks and view mistakes positively as a fundamental part of their learning process in order to promote a more supportive and comfortable learning environment.

4. RESULTS

In the following section we shall briefly present the pertinent results relating to strategy repertoire as well as motivational types and levels in response to the research questions we have set out in section 3.1.[17]

[16] This project was based on similar research which addressed the positive effect of integrated strategy training on writing skills carried out in the same university context (Oxbrow).

[17] For the sake of brevity, we have reduced the considerable volume of data we have gathered for this research project, which was compiled with the help of a research student and funded by a grant from the Departamento de Filología Moderna, ULPGC. This project also forms part of the investigative work initiated by the research group "La adquisición de lenguas/culturas extranjeras: procesos cognitivos y competencia estratégica" (ULPGC), of which the authors are current members.



Graph 1. Strategy profiles organized in a hierarchical fashion.

With respect to the types and levels of motivation our first-year learners bring with them on initiating their university studies, the results from the first questionnaire indicated that our subjects' motivation was predominantly externally driven rather than internally generated with a mean group value of 3.935 out of 5 for those items addressing extrinsic motivation as opposed to the mean value of 3.413 corresponding to intrinsic motivation. Further analysis in terms of dominant motivation types on an individual level revealed that 73.89% of our learners exhibited a predominantly extrinsic motivation profile and 26.07% had similar values for both intrinsic and extrinsic motivational types.

As for their initial strategy repertoire, the initial results obtained from the SILL questionnaire administered at the very beginning of the academic year (see Graph 1) showed a hierarchy of strategy sub-groups with compensation and memory strategy types from the direct strategy sub-group (memory, cognitive and compensation strategies) receiving lower mean values, and affective strategies appearing as the most deficient type in the indirect group (metacognitive, affective and social strategies), whereas metacognitive strategies from the indirect group dominated.

Individual student profiles showed that each student had one (or more) dominant strategy sub-group as can be seen in the last column in table 1, which illustrates the percentage of students who reported that particular strategy sub-group as dominant in their SILL analysis, with metacognitive strategies scoring highest.[18] The fact that metacognitive strategies were the most frequently deployed in the initial analysis may be surprising at first sight, but this might be due to the fact that published materials at secondary level have recently been incorporating an

[18] The computer programme for statistical analysis SPSS 17.0 for Windows (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) was used in order to anlyse the data.

increasing number of learner training activities. We must also remember that we are dealing with learners who have opted to study languages at university level having successfully completed their secondary school education and are therefore successful language learners to a certain extent. On the other hand, although memory strategies were the lowest valued, we did not select them for this analysis because we feel there has been a lot of research conducted in this area already (Nyikos and Fan; Gu; Oxford and Ehrman).

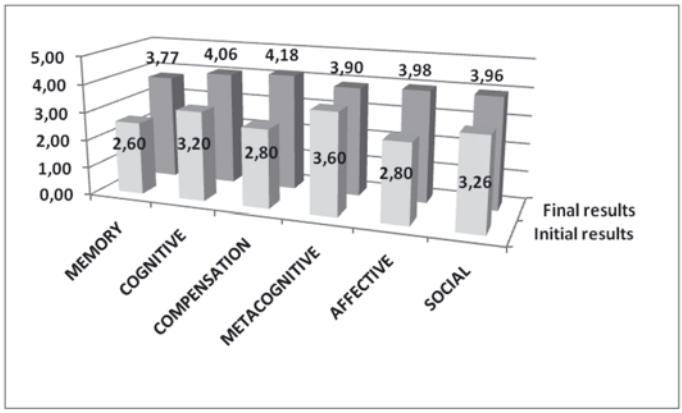
TABLE 1. DOMINANT STRATEGY TYPE PER STUDENT (INITIAL ANALYSIS)

	Strategies	Percentage
Direct	Memory	0.00%
	Cognitive	16.00%
	Compensation	24.00%
Indirect	Metacognitive	36.00%
	Affective	8.00%
	Social	16.00%

For the purpose of this particular training study and for further empirical analysis we decided to focus mainly on two deficient strategy types, one from the subgroup of direct learning strategies and the other from the subgroup of indirect ones. Thus, affective (indirect) and compensation (direct) strategy types, areas which had been previously diagnosed as deficient (see Graph 1), were selected with a view to investigating the link between integrated training and the generating of greater intrinsic motivation, as these types of strategies might equip learners better for communicative situations and enable them to feel more confident in learning situations beyond the classroom context. However, we included selected strategies from all six strategy sub-groups for training so that learners were provided with opportunities to develop their strategies in all areas.

In the latter part of this study we administered a second questionnaire on strategy use at the end of the academic year, the results of which indicated that the initial levels of strategy use had increased in all subgroups, which is a positive result reflecting the effects of our strategy training programme. Graph 2 shows the comparison between the mean group values for both initial and final strategy repertoire. The data indicates that there was an evident rise in strategy use in all subgroups with encouraging results for both compensation (4.18 out of 5) and affective (3.98 out of 5) strategies, the two sub-groups focused on in this study, whose values have increased by 1.38 and 1.18 respectively.

As for the motivation levels of our learners by the end of the year, we asked them directly whether they thought that their intrinsic motivation had increased,



Graph 2. Mean values for initial and final strategy use.

decreased or remained the same, with 82.6% of students reporting that it had increased and 17.4% stating that it had remained the same. The analysis of the data obtained from the questionnaire which was specifically designed to ask learners about aspects of intrinsic motivation revealed that the group mean value for this type of motivation was now of 3.980 as opposed to the initial group mean value of 3.413. It is interesting to point out here that none of the subjects showed an individual mean value lower than 3.415 and all subjects but two showed a notable increase in intrinsic motivational levels.

5. CONCLUSION

Our main aim in this research project was to explore the relationship between language learning motivation and learner autonomy, with integrated strategy training a possible means towards bridging the gap between the two. Our results clearly show that an increase in intrinsic motivational levels, linked with a wider range of both direct and indirect strategies, in particular compensation and affective strategies after explicit training, seems to show that motivation can be positively influenced by strategy training. Similarly strategy repertoire seems to have expanded with the consequent rise in intrinsic motivational levels.[19] This ability to generate intrinsic motivation for learning, rather than instrumentally driven extrinsic motivation, is crucial for developing greater learner autonomy.

[19] We are currently involved in closer examination of our data by means of selected case studies which has revealed that successful students with good final grades showed notable rises in both compensation and affective sub-groups as well as intrinsic motivation.

The question thus raised is whether motivation spurs strategy use and by default enhances learner autonomy, or whether appropriate strategy use leads to better language performance and greater autonomy, which in turn arouses motivation. In our opinion, this relationship between both motivation and learner autonomy is symmetric, with effective learning consisting of helping our learners become more autonomous by enabling them to select appropriate strategies according to the demands of the task in hand rather than providing them with a list of tried and tested techniques. As a result, intrinsic motivation will not only be generated on a short-term basis, but will also be sustained, a fundamental concern in the case of beginning university students as they make the transition from teacher dependence to more self-directed learning.

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METACOGNITIVE STRATEGIES BASED INSTRUCTION TO SUPPORT LEARNER AUTONOMY IN LANGUAGE LEARNING

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ABSTRACT

This paper will discuss the nature of learner autonomy and its positive influence on learning outcomes. The first part presents an account of language learning theories and their corresponding effects on curriculum design and teaching methods with special reference to metacognition and learner autonomy. The key elements leading to metacognition, self-awarenes, and meta-self-awareness will be analysed. The pedagogical application by means of the use of metacognitive learning strategies and metacognitive strategies based instruction in order to foster autonomous learning in schools will be proposed, and a specific model for metacognitive strategies based instruction to promote learner autonomy in classrooms will be presented.

KEY WORDS: Metacognition, metacognitive strategies, learner autonomy, language learning.

RESUMEN

Este artículo versa sobre la naturaleza del aprendizaje autónomo y sus efectos positivos sobre el proceso de aprendizaje. La primera parte presenta una revisión de las teorías sobre el aprendizaje de lenguas y sus efectos sobre los diseños curriculares y métodos didácticos que manifiestan la importancia de la metacognición y el aprendizaje autónomo. Los elementos principales que conducen a la metacognición, autoconsciencia y meta autoconsciencia, se analizarán. Se propone una aplicación pedagógica mediante el uso de las estrategias metacognitivas y la enseñanza basada en las estrategias metacognitivas de aprendizaje para desarrollar el aprendizaje autónomo en clase, y se presentará un modelo concreto para desarrollar la enseñanza basada en las estrategias metacognitivas de aprendizaje para promover el aprendizaje autónomo.

PALABRAS CLAVE: metacognición, estrategias metacognitivas, aprendizaje autónomo, aprendizaje de lenguas.

1. INTRODUCTION

The following article proposes that the conscious and focused employment of metacognitive learning strategies (MLS) to promote learner autonomy (LA) will lead to improved learning outcomes. In order to be autonomous learners, students must first be conscious of who and where they are in relation to themselves, their peers and society. They must also know what kind of a learner they are and what their role in their learning process is, but most of all they must be convinced that awareness of these aspects will make a difference. Moreover, learning cannot be autonomous if there is no metacognition to supervise, organise and plan the process. Learning is part of everyone's life; whether they attend formal schooling, university, or not, people will learn. However learning within the educational context will not happen spontaneously; it is a carefully planned and monitored activity which requires the active involvement of students and teachers. The fact that this does not always occur is reflected in the low rate of completion of basic secondary education in Spain where 31.2% of 16 to 18 year-old students drop out, give up, or simply fail to reach the very minimum required standards at secondary schools, and only 28% of the Spanish population claimed to have completed secondary education.[1] There are obviously numerous and diverse reasons for this failure in our education system such as social, environmental, and family related factors, among others, which professional educators on their own cannot overcome. Nevertheless there are two important factors which can be controlled within the education system, or at least be made explicitly available to students: metacognitive learning strategies and learner autonomy.

Learner autonomy, which is a buzz word today, did not suddenly happen and it is not a passing phase. It is the outcome of the development of many learning theories, and the work of numerous thinkers and researchers who have proposed hypothesis and given evidence of how humans learn languages in natural and educational settings. Smith (2008) in his *History of Learner Autonomy*, reminds us that this pedagogical proposal has at least a thirty-year publication history since it was first developed by Holec in 1979 in association with the Council of Europe's Language Education Policy. Smith gives detailed information of worldwide conferences and workshops since then and includes education institutions such as Trinity College Dublin and CILT which have promoted this field of study by supporting research on the topic and producing many publications. Researchers generally agree that the concept of learner autonomy was introduced by Holec in 1981 as "the ability to take charge of one's own learning." Since then, many authors have proposed its integration in the school curriculum (Dam and Gabrielsen; Karlsson, Kjisik, and Nordlund) and more research has been carried out to clarify its meaning and pedagogy for teachers (Little, *Learner*; Dam).

[1] According to a survey carried out by a Spanish educational online newspaper *Magister* and CIS Report published in July 2009.

This paper covers different aspects related to metacognitive strategies based instruction and learner autonomy. Education theories and systems and consequently curricula and methods have been in constant evolution over the last 50 years, so in the first place I have presented an overview of language learning theories and their corresponding effects on curriculum design and teaching methods with the aim of understanding how we have arrived at learner autonomy. Secondly we will be looking at key elements for metacognition: self-awareness and meta-self-awareness. Thirdly we will look at metacognition and its practical development through the use of metacognitive learning strategies. The fourth part of this paper will go beyond theoretical aspects and propose the pedagogical application of metacognition in classrooms through the promotion of metacognitive learning strategies based instruction in order to foster autonomous learning in schools. Finally, the conclusion will propose a framework for empowering the learner in classrooms through the use of Metacognitive Learning Strategies Based Instruction to promote autonomous learning.

2. FROM BEHAVIOURISM TO LEARNER AUTONOMY: AN OVERVIEW

Learning theories have come a long way since Skinner postulated that children learn by imitation and reinforcement, learners were considered as brains to be filled up and trained, and classrooms were predominantly academic. Declarative knowledge was transmitted by the teacher to passive-receptive students who were encouraged to master these facts and skills which were regurgitated to the teacher during exams. The language itself and unattainable native-speaker and grammatical accuracy were of paramount importance as part of this classical curriculum (Clark 5-13). Fortunately, Chomsky exposed the fact that errors and creativity are not based on imitation and that reinforcement could not account for all learning. He argued that language is not a habit structure because linguistic behaviour characteristically involves innovation, formation of new sentences and patterns based on abstract and complex conjectures, not simply imitation. He concluded that language learning is biologically determined by the brain's innate ability to interpret linguistic information from birth by means of the Language Acquisition Device (LAD), which explains why wherever children are born and raised, regardless of their ancestry, they will learn the language spoken in their surroundings. However liberating and innovative, Chomsky's theories did not have a pedagogical purpose and therefore did not take into account the educational context or the interaction between children and adults, so the communicative aspect of language was largely ignored until Canale and Swain ("Theoretical") introduced the notion of communicative competence to fill in this gap. This led to new ways to present and organize language instruction, which embraced the notional-functional syllabus (Van Ek; Wilkins) and communicative language teaching (Littlewood). This new reconstructive curriculum (Clark 22-24) added significant improvements to the

former. It promoted less controlled communication in classrooms and included the integration of the four language learning skills. However, learners were considered to be a "homogenous entity" and learning and assessment were still based on aspects of language that included the reinforcement of habits and the rehearsal of behavioural goals in externally set exams.

Chomsky's theories were also contested by Piaget's proposals which were influenced by the advances of neuroscience placing language learning in the context of a child's mental or cognitive development. By this stage, the shift had been made from an interest in language accuracy to language fluency and communication. This meant the method and therefore the teacher became more important than the language itself. This led to the flourishing of countless language learning methods (Richards and Rodgers), and a renewed interest in teacher training. But, the cognitive model, in turn, has its limitations as it cannot account for factors such as motivation or emotions explained by Maslow's pyramid of the hierarchy of human needs, which stated that unless the three basic physiological, affective and emotional needs are satisfied, higher order cognition or creativity cannot take place. Bloom's taxonomy reinforced Maslow's proposals, by dividing educational objectives into three domains: affective, psychomotor, and cognitive. The incorporation of these theories enabled the appearance of humanistic approaches which aimed to improve learning through the promotion of emotional and affective aspects (Moskowitz; Stevick).

Jean Piaget's theory of cognitive development was also criticized as incomplete because it ignores individual learner differences in cognitive development. That is, the theory does not account for the fact that some individuals move from stage to stage faster than other individuals. Howard Gardner challenged the cognitive development theories of Piaget by bringing forward evidence to show that at any one time a child may be at very different stages; he therefore undermined the idea that knowledge at any one particular developmental stage is unmovable. Gardner (*Frames*, "Multiple") proposed that students have different kinds of minds and intelligences, an idea that has been further developed by many educationalists as learning styles (Kolb; Reid). Language learning theories attempted to strike a balance between establishing universal truths such as Chomsky's LAD and Piaget's developmental stages on the one hand and recognising learner differences on the other. However, Gardner's Multiple Intelligences Theory (MI) led to a significant change of paradigm for learning theories. This brought about a renewed interest in how learners differ and how these differences can actually enhance learning, and so the focus shifted towards the learners themselves instead of the language or the method.

Meanwhile, input or interactional theories have stressed the importance of interaction and communication in language learning. Vygotsky's theoretical framework added another missing aspect by proposing a socio-cultural theory which claims that language learning is a social construct because social interaction plays a fundamental role in the development of cognition. From then on the shift from learning process towards the learners themselves as protagonists of the event was complete.

However this increased interest in the learner which evolved into learner centered teaching (Nunan; McCombs and Whisler) was mainly preoccupied with aspects such as syllabus and curriculum planning, setting objectives and contents which were still mostly grammar and topic-based, and was still not really empowering the learners who remained passive although they were the central element; the teaching was still being done "to" them or "for" them as largely complacent recipients, but not "with" them. The real empowerment of the learner, and the subsequent liberation of the teacher, arrived with the recognition that metacognition and learner autonomy or preparation for life-long learning should be the goals of teachers and teaching systems. The adoption of the progressive curriculum (Clark 55-64) which is based on the development of the learner as a whole person who has the responsibility and capacity to control his own learning process through metacognitive awareness, led to a renewed syllabus design based on the development of competences which enable learners to develop life-long learning skills. Learning is viewed as an individual process and assessment includes diverse examples of students' individual progress and interests, including portfolios and self-evaluation techniques, instead of homogenous standardised tests.

In spite of all the research, there is no unanimously accepted language learning theory which offers the ideal language teaching method. However, this should not overshadow the fact that a great deal of progress has been made. According to Bransford, Brown and Cocking in their study *How People Learn: Brain, Mind, Experience and School* commissioned by the U.S. Committee on Developments in the Science of Learning Commission: "there is no universal best teaching practice. Instead the point of departure is a core set of learning principles, then selection of teaching strategies." They also identify three main factors which influence learning: engaging prior knowledge, making sure declarative knowledge is transferred to the procedural and conditional stage, and finally "using metacognitive strategies to take an active role over the learning process" (223).

Our knowledge and beliefs about learning will inevitably affect how we teach, what we teach and how we evaluate. We have learned a great deal about the learning process, and although the theories presented are not exclusive and may seem to be in competition, they coexist, overlap, and develop over time, representing partial explanations of the complex multifaceted process of language learning. Most education systems at present are adopting the progressive curriculum which, as we have seen, actively promotes learner autonomy as the best way to prepare students for learning and for life. Learner autonomy is based on the belief that guided reflection will enable students to control their learning process by conscious application of learning strategies (Joseph). However, metacognition relies on students' ability to reflect and build awareness of themselves and their learning process, and unless teachers and educators are convinced that students are capable of accessing metacognition, they will not trust their students to be autonomous learners. According to Little (*Learner*), the development of learner autonomy is a consequence of explicit and conscious intention. This intention is inextricably dependent on the varying degrees of self-awareness our students possess. Learner autonomy cannot be fostered without self-awareness and metacognition.

3. CONSCIOUSNESS, SELF-AWARENESS, AND META-SELF-AWARENESS

In relation to a learners' personal awareness there are two related terms: self-consciousness and self-awareness. Consciousness refers to access to introspective knowledge about oneself; self-awareness is a more sophisticated form of consciousness which refers to access to an ongoing perception of one's inner reality and knowledge of one's physical and mental states. Self-awareness is the explicit understanding that one exists. Furthermore, it includes the concept that one exists as an individual, separate from other people, with private thoughts. It also includes the understanding that other people are similarly self-aware. It is during periods of self-consciousness that people come the closest to knowing themselves and their environment objectively and are therefore more able to control their actions. This contrast and integration of outward or environmental consciousness and inward self-awareness was first established by Mead and later Duval and Wicklund and has been popular in experimental psychology over the last thirty years (Carver and Scheier; Silvia and Duval).

Some psychologists (Zelazo; Zelazo and Sommerville) have adopted a developmental perspective on the degrees of consciousness called the "Levels of Consciousness" model (LOC), which explains how five degrees of consciousness gradually emerge in infants and children. The LOC model implies that with each higher level of consciousness, mental experiences become qualitatively richer and easier to recall, and conscious control of behavior increases. Morin (369) has aimed to reduce confusion due to the proliferation of models of consciousness and self awareness and summarized the recent literature on the subject by identifying four stages of consciousness and self-awareness: an unconsciousness or limbic stage; to consciousness associated with early years (1-6), self-awareness; and finally a stage denominated "meta-self-awareness."

The lowest level (first year of life) is "minimal consciousness," which basically represents consciousness where the infant unreflectively experiences stimuli in the present. Past events cannot be recalled, and future anticipated states cannot be mentally represented. Children in the second stage (9-12 months) experience "recursive consciousness" by associating perceptual experience with a description of it from memory as when a thing or person is recognised because it has been seen before. The third stage, referred to as 'self-consciousness' takes place in children between the ages of 18-months to 2-years-old, when the child can engage in additional reflection on the contents of recursive consciousness by adding the subjective experience of time and by being aware of past or future events in relation to a present experience. The stages gradually progress to higher levels of self-awareness and by the age of 6, the child can become simultaneously aware of two experiences occurring at different times, and is able to take an increasingly objective perspective in space and time culminating with a differentiation between subjective and objective views of experiences of the self and others. There is one final level of consciousness to be reached which is referred to as "meta-self-awareness" —being aware that one is self-aware (Morin and Everett). It represents a logical extension of the previ-

ous stage; whereas a person who is self-aware can say: "I am learning," the same person who is also meta-self-aware could say "I'm aware of the fact that I'm learning." Both self-awareness and meta-self-awareness involve knowing that we are responsible for our thoughts and actions also referred to as "self-agency" (Vignemont and Fourneret). Metacognition represents the next stage where the child can say "I'm aware of the fact that I'm learning, and I'm aware of how I'm learning."

Learners who are metacognitively aware are highly desirable; they think about how they learn and make an effort to improve their learning outcomes, in other words: "Learners who are skilled in metacognitive self-awareness are more strategic and perform better than those who are unaware" (Öz). As we have just seen, much of the development of self awareness will have occurred in primary school, however it is an ongoing process and although we can assume theoretically that our students are capable of meta-self-awareness, undoubtedly they will need guidance in order to access it and understand what it is and how it can help them regulate and improve their learning outcomes. Teachers may consider that although their students have developed self-awareness and meta-self-awareness, metacognition is too abstract and complex for them to make use of it. This is simply not true because: "Almost anyone who can perform a skill is capable of metacognition; that is, thinking about how they perform that skill" (Schraw, "Promoting" 123). Investigations have shown that children, no matter what their proficiency level, are capable of describing their thinking and learning process in detail, concluding that "metacognitive awareness begins at quite an early stage" (Chamot and El-Dinary 331). However, students cannot accept responsibility for their own learning or take any initiatives in the process if they do not know how they learn or how to learn and that is why the role of the educator is vital. Teachers are the key mediators between what the students know and what they need to learn: "if teachers stop teaching, most learners will stop learning" (Little, "Learner" 1). Teachers can guide learners in their process of self-discovery by helping them think about what happens during their learning process and how they can develop better learning skills. The most pedagogical way to introduce metacognition in classrooms is by means of the use of metacognitive learning strategies.

4. METACOGNITION AND METACOGNITIVE STRATEGIES

First accounts of metacognition were strongly linked to early cognitive learning theories. According to cognitive psychology, cognition is the mental ability to learn and acquire knowledge; it refers to the processing of information, applying knowledge, and changing preferences, whereas metacognition refers to what learners do to plan, monitor and evaluate the process. J.H. Flavell (232) first used the word "metacognition" which he described as the process of thinking about thinking and refers to one's knowledge concerning one's own cognitive processes or anything related to them. Flavell argued that metacognition explains why children of different ages deal with learning tasks in different ways, and why some are more successful than others. According to Brown it has two elements: knowledge of cog-

nition and regulation of cognition. I propose that metacognition is much more than control of cognition: Metacognition is the knowledge and control of one's entire learning process: "metacognition refers to the ability to reflect upon, understand and control one's learning" (Schraw and Dennison 460). As we have seen, learning encompasses many aspects as well as cognition, such as the psychomotor, affective (Bloom), social and cultural (Vigotsky) which early cognitive theories lacked. Metacognition is not only about planning for mental processing, it is also about planning for control of anxiety, timing, interaction, practice and evaluation of learning. It is the executive organizer of all the elements which intervene in the whole learning process.

From a strategic point of view, metacognition includes the awareness of declarative, procedural and conditional knowledge (Schraw, "Promotion" 114). Good learners are normally equipped with a high degree of metacognitive awareness as recent research on the subject has confirmed and metacognitive knowledge may also compensate for low ability or lack of relevant prior knowledge. Swanson claimed that metacognitive knowledge compensates for low IQ in studies comparing primary students' problem solving ability. According to Anderson "when learners reflect upon their learning strategies, they become better prepared to make conscious decisions about what they can do to improve their learning. Strong metacognitive skills empower second language learners."

Traditionally, language curricula have tended to concentrate on teaching knowledge and skills, and have neglected to teach learners how to learn. Learner training in second or foreign language teaching is a new way of teaching learners explicitly the techniques of learning, and an awareness of how and when to use strategies to enable them to become self-directed (Williams and Burden). Metacognition itself is not something that can be taught directly because it is part of a person's internal self-awareness as a learner; however, learners can be made aware of their learning processes and taught how to enhance them by means of metacognitive learning strategies. As Oxford explains: "Metacognitive means beyond, beside, or with the cognitive. Therefore, metacognitive strategies are actions which go beyond purely cognitive devices, and which provide a way for learners to coordinate their own learning process" (136).

The practical application of metacognition can only be achieved by promoting the use of metacognitive strategies which in turn will lead to learner autonomy. According to Little et al. (2) the development of autonomy in language learning is governed by three basic principles: "learner involvement," "learner reflection" and "appropriate target language use," and all three aspects are defined by Little as "metacognitive dimensions."

Studies into metacognition are relatively recent and have experienced growing significance in language learning education as a result of a growing interest in Language Learning Strategies and especially the work of Oxford and Cohen and Weaver. Language Learning Strategies (LLS) have been classified in many ways since Rubin's classification ("What") pioneered much of the work in this field. In 1987, she made the distinction between strategies contributing directly to learning, which she identified as cognitive and metacognitive, and those contributing indi-

rectly to learning, namely, communication and social strategies. O'Malley et al. (582-584) proposed a simpler classification including 26 strategies which are divided into three main subcategories: Metacognitive, Cognitive, and Social Strategies. Oxford identified six major groups of L2 learning strategies, namely: cognitive, metacognitive, memory-related, compensatory, affective, and social strategies. She further subdivided them into direct (memory, cognitive and compensation), and indirect (metacognitive, affective and social). Most of these attempts to classify LLS reflect similar categorizations without any radical changes; the only distinguishing elements have been the gradual incorporation of social and affective strategies, and the unclear distinction between communication and learning strategies. Almost all of them have included metacognitive strategies as key elements in the learning process.

Oxford (36) has presented a clearly pedagogical proposal for developing MLS which includes three strategy sets: "Centering your learning, Arranging and planning your learning, and Evaluating your learning." These sets are subdivided into eleven strategies which are presented in Table 1 below.

TABLE 1. ADAPTED FROM OXFORD'S CLASSIFICATION OF METACOGNITIVE STRATEGIES (137)

Oxford's Classification Of Metacognitive Strategies (1990)	
(A) Centering your learning	Overviewing and linking with prior knowledge
	Paying attention
	Delaying speech production to focus on listening
(B) Arranging and planning your learning	Finding out about language learning
	Organising
	Setting goals and objectives
	Identifying the purpose of a language task
	Planning for a language task
	Seeking practice opportunities
(C) Evaluating your learning	Self-monitoring
	Self-evaluating

5. FROM TEACHER-CENTERED CLASSROOMS TO PROMOTING AUTONOMOUS LEARNING

In order to implement learner autonomy, classrooms must be prepared for change; teachers should accept the fact that learners are capable of metacognition and willing to learn to use metacognitive strategies and accept responsibility for their learning process. A class full of autonomous learners is in danger of becoming

an impossible goal; ideal students who are self-motivated and active agents in their own learning process will not suddenly appear. Theoretically sound proposals will not seduce teachers who are well aware that autonomous learning will not occur spontaneously, unless it is accompanied by a specific methodology. Learner autonomy is not a traditional teaching method because it cannot be "done" to learners, however it should be presented as a goal that can be fostered by a specific way of teaching, otherwise it will remain a theoretical goal which only exists in the minds of unrealistic academics who coined the name without bearing in mind the daily task of thousands of teachers educating hundreds of pupils every day. There is no magic recipe to promote learner autonomy in the classroom, however, the following are some pedagogical proposals to promote learner autonomy which can help teachers to reflect on the subject and gradually incorporate autonomous learning in their classes.

Huba and Freed have proposed a comparative framework of teacher-centred and student-centred teaching. In a teacher-centred paradigm, knowledge is transmitted from teacher to student, who passively receives information which is assessed by objectively scored tests based on accuracy (often unrelated to classroom activities). On the other hand, in the learner-centered paradigm, the teacher's role is a facilitator who ensures students are actively involved in constructing knowledge through critical thinking. Assessment is based on portfolios, project work and includes all learning activities, not only teacher generated tests.

There are so many pedagogical proposals for implementing strategies based instruction and promoting learner autonomy that it is not easy to decide which is most appropriate for individual settings. Grow (157) proposes a set of four stages taking learners from dependence to self-direction. In the first, dependent stage, students will need explicit instruction on what is to be done and how it is to be carried out. In the second stage, moderately-directed students will have more confidence in their ability and begin goal-setting. In the third, intermediate stage, students are amenable to learning about how they learn and they can begin to actively use learning strategies to enhance learning. The final stage is referred to as high self-direction and teachers can set challenges and expect students to carry them out independently. Smith and MacGregor propose collaborative classrooms to facilitate cooperative learning. Collaborative learning takes small groups of students and presents them with a problem, task or creative undertaking. According to Hartman and Sternberg (qtd. Schraw, "Promoting" 118) there are four ways to increase metacognition in classroom settings: promoting awareness of the importance of metacognition, improving knowledge of cognition, improving regulation of cognition, and fostering environments that promote metacognitive awareness. Schraw himself ("Promoting" 123) reduced this proposal to three stages: building awareness, teaching strategies and making careful decisions to plan, monitor and evaluate learning. Anderson's model (1-2) includes five stages: planning and preparing, selecting and using strategies, monitoring strategy use, orchestrating various strategies and evaluating strategies used.

These and other proposals (Wenden and Rubin; Oxford; Hartman and Sternberg; Chamot and O' Malley; Cohen; Rubin, "Language") put forward com-

mon and complimentary aspects which I have summarized in the following inclusive scheme for metacognitive strategy based instruction in Table 2.

TABLE 2. MODEL FOR METACOGNITIVE STRATEGY BASED INSTRUCTION TO PROMOTE LEARNER AUTONOMY

Model for Metacognitive Strategy Based Instruction to Promote Learner Autonomy	
Component	Procedure/Method
1. Diagnose	Teacher administers specific questionnaires or inventories.
2. Build Awareness	Discussion and reflection among students and between teacher and students.
3. Determine needs and select strategies	Students and teacher negotiate strategies to be worked on as a result of the previous stages.
4. Explicit information and activities	These can be integrated with students' regular coursebook or specifically selected materials from other sources.
5. Monitor strategy use	By using checklists, diaries, discussions.
6. Evaluate learning progress and strategy use	Self-evaluation questionnaires, portfolios, projects.

6. CONCLUSION

This paper has discussed the nature of learner autonomy and its positive influence in learning outcomes. An overview of learning theories over the last 50 years has led to the conclusion that although there is no perfect learning theory or teaching method, learner autonomy achieved through the promotion of metacognitive strategies is one of the key elements in learning. The LOC model in psychology has shown that students are capable of self-awareness and meta-self-awareness, which leads to a capacity for metacognition at an early age. However, metacognition cannot be taught directly; it must be developed by encouraging metacognitive awareness and the use of metacognitive learning strategies thereby promoting autonomous learning environments. Teachers' roles ensuring students' metacognitive awareness is raised and encouraging them to take responsibility for their learning process is of paramount importance. Classrooms in which learner autonomy is fostered by means of the implementation of metacognitive strategies based instruction will empower the learners and enable them to develop life-long learning skills. Finally after reviewing some proposals for pedagogical application, a specific model for metacognitive strategies based instruction to promote learner autonomy in classrooms has been proposed.

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INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE AS A TOOL FOR AUTONOMOUS LEARNING

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ABSTRACT

In recent years the concept of intercultural communicative competence (ICC) has started to spread in the field of foreign language teaching and learning. ICC is based on the development by the learner of several "savoirs" concerned with attitudes and values, knowledge, skills of interpreting and relating, skills of discovery and interaction and critical cultural awareness. In ICC, students become the centre of the teaching and learning process and the role of teachers should be focused on encouraging autonomous and independent learning skills in their students.

KEY WORDS: Intercultural communicative competence, foreign language teaching and learning, teaching and learning autonomy.

RESUMEN

En los últimos años el concepto de competencia comunicativa intercultural (CCI) ha comenzado a extenderse en el campo de la enseñanza y aprendizaje de la enseñanza de idiomas. La CCI se basa en el desarrollo por parte del estudiante de varios "savoirs" relacionados con las actitudes y los valores, el conocimiento, las habilidades de interpretar y relacionar, las habilidades de descubrir e interactuar y la conciencia cultural crítica. En CCI, los estudiantes se convierten en el centro del proceso de enseñanza y aprendizaje y la función de los profesores debería centrarse en fomentar las habilidades del aprendizaje autónomo e independiente en sus estudiantes.

PALABRAS CLAVE: competencia comunicativa intercultural, enseñanza y aprendizaje de lenguas extranjeras, enseñanza y aprendizaje autónomo.

1. INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE

In recent years the concept of intercultural communicative competence (ICC) has been spreading in the field of foreign language teaching and learning. ICC is based on the development by the learner of several "savoirs" —as Byram ("Acquiring," *Teaching*) calls them— concerned with attitudes and values, knowl-

edge, skills of interpreting and relating, skills of discovery and interaction and critical cultural awareness. ICC is the result of the introduction and/or revision by different authors of other models of competence. Noam Chomsky (*Syntactic*, *Aspects*) introduced the concept of "linguistic competence" as the aim to be achieved by any speaker. A few years later Hymes proposed the concept of "communicative competence" adding the ability to discern when and how to use language in specific contexts to the sheer linguistic ability when speaking. The idea was further developed and enlarged by authors such as Canale and Swain in the early 1980s in the United States and by Van Ek in the mid 1980s in Europe. Canale and Swain split communicative competence (CC) into several aspects or competences: "grammatical competence," "sociolinguistic competence" and "strategic competence." Van Ek emphasized the idea that language teaching is not concerned merely with training in communication skills but must also involve the personal and social development of the learner as an individual, and, therefore, he presented a framework for comprehensive foreign language objectives which included aspects such as social competence, the promotion of autonomy or the development of social responsibility (33). He also broke CC into six dimensions or competences: "linguistic competence," "sociolinguistic competence," "discourse competence," "strategic competence," "socio-cultural competence" and "social competence." Both models had many similarities and the main difference lay in the incorporation by Van Ek of two more points of view, the "socio-cultural" and the "social competence," which, on the one hand, took into account values and beliefs and, on the other, attitudes and behaviours.[1]

The idea of connecting culture and attitude with foreign language learning and teaching was not something completely new. Regarding culture, the concept of intercultural communication (IC) had already appeared in the 1930s in connection with cross-cultural psychology (Guilherme 133), and flourished in the post-war years when researchers realised that some knowledge on aspects such as organisational behaviour, educational systems, civic studies, anthropology or psychology influenced the success of business, military and diplomatic personnel on placements in foreign countries (Mughan 62) and, over the years, cultural aspects have continued to gain importance, especially in these areas. Since those early times, many other authors have presented models for introducing culture in the foreign language classroom.[2] With respect to attitude, Baxter (307-311) draws on several authors already working in the 1970s in order to describe the characteristics of an effective intercultural communicator.

CC had prevailed for over three decades in foreign language teaching but, despite the inclusion of some cultural aspects, as we have already explained, accord-

[1] Other revisions of the concept of CC have been carried out from different perspectives, for instance, pragmatics (see Celce-Murcia).

[2] Guilherme (132-146) revises several of these models from Brislin and Yoshieda's in 1934 to the recent Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (2001).

ing to Claire Kramsch, "[a]fter years of communicative euphoria, some language teachers are becoming dissatisfied with purely functional uses of language [and s]ome are pleading to supplement the traditional acquisition of 'communication skills' with some intellectually legitimate, humanistically oriented, cultural 'content'" ("Cultural" 83). So, it was only natural that someone would make the connection between CC and IC. Although Baxter introduced the idea of ICC as early as 1983 (304), it is Michael Byram who, since the mid 1990s, has most extensively developed the concept and the applications of ICC.

According to Byram, when persons from different languages and/or countries interact socially they bring to the situation their knowledge about their own country and that of the others'. Part of the success of such interaction will depend on the establishing and maintenance of human relationships, which depends on attitudinal factors. At the same time, both aspects, knowledge and attitude, are influenced by the processes of intercultural communication, that is, the skills of interpretation and establishing relationships between aspects of the two cultures and the skills of discovery and interaction. Finally, all these factors should be integrated within a philosophy of political education and develop the learners' critical cultural awareness of all the cultures involved (*Teaching* 32-33). Byram presents these factors as "savoirs" to be acquired or developed by the learner:

– "savoir être," which is concerned with attitudes and values and consists in showing curiosity and openness, readiness to suspend disbelief about other cultures and belief about one's own;
– "savoirs," which refers to the knowledge of social groups and their products and practices in one's own and in one's interlocutor's country, and of the general processes of societal and individual interaction;
– "savoir comprendre," related to the skills of interpreting and relating, that is to say, the ability to interpret a document or event from another culture, to explain it and relate it to documents from one's own;
– "savoir apprendre/faire," connected to the skills of discovery and interaction or the ability to acquire new knowledge of a culture and cultural practices and the ability to operate knowledge, attitudes and skills under the constraints of real-time communication and interaction;
– "savoir s'engager," in relation to critical cultural awareness and/or political education, which means having the ability to evaluate critically and on the basis of explicit criteria perspectives, practices and products in one's own and other cultures and countries (Byram, "Acquiring" 57-66, *Teaching* 31-54).

When defining the different "savoirs," no linguistic aspects have been mentioned and all the focus has been on culture and the relationship between cultures, that is to say, interculturality. We should not forget, though, that interculturality means interaction, and interaction is communication, to wit, language of one kind or another. In any case, Byram introduces the possibility of distinguishing between both competences: in IC, individuals have the ability to interact in their own language with people from another country and culture, drawing upon their knowledge

about intercultural communication, their attitudes of interest in otherness and their skills in interpreting, relating and discovering; whereas in ICC, interaction takes place between people from different cultures and countries in a foreign language, the knowledge of the participants of another culture is linked to their language competence through their ability to use language appropriately and their awareness of the specific meaning, values and connotations of the language (*Teaching* 70-71).

2. THE LEARNER AS INTERCULTURAL SPEAKER

The idea that the language presented in the classroom should be as authentic as possible so as to represent the reality of the native speaker language use has been one of the tenets of the communicative approach to foreign language teaching and learning (Jensen 30; Alptekin 61) and very often the implicit aim has been to imitate the native speaker (Byram et al., *Developing the* 9). Taking the native speaker as the model for CC has been another reason that has led to the revision of this concept and the move on to ICC. The problem with taking the native speaker as a model is that he/she becomes an impossible target for the learner, who will inevitably end up frustrated. As Cook has put it, "the prominence of the native speaker in language teaching has obscured the distinctive nature of the successful L2 user and created an unattainable goal for L2 learners" (185). Even in the case that the learner should manage to acquire this degree of perfection, it might not be the correct kind of competence as it would mean that the learner has to abandon one language in order to blend into another linguistic environment, thus becoming linguistically schizophrenic (Byram, *Teaching* 11). It also means that the learner's native language is completely left aside in the process of learning a foreign language, when it could be usefully introduced to give confidence to the student and trigger interest in some topics or aspects to be dealt with in the classroom.

Taking the native speaker as a model also implies that the cultural aspects taken into account are also those of the target language, leaving the learner's own culture in a peripheral position or even ignoring it completely (Alptekin 62; Oliveras Vilaseca 34). It might also happen that the learner would voluntarily refuse to adopt the cultural standards underlying the verbal and nonverbal behaviours of native speaker (Baxter 303), as often occurs with immigrants who opt for partial divergence from the norms as a strategy of identity maintenance (House 19). Another aspect to be taken into account is that in the present situation where most speakers of English in the world do not have it as their mother tongue, the terms "native" or "native-like" do not seem to be appropriate in the evaluation of communicative competence (Savignon 210).

In fact, Byram (*Teaching* 22) describes how we can find ourselves in a variety of communicative situations: participants with different languages and nationalities where only one of them is a native speaker; participants with different languages and nationalities where none of them is a native speaker, as they are using a specific language as a *lingua franca*; and even participants with the same nationality

but different mother tongues where only one of them is a native speaker of the language used. All this also affects culture since, in our present world, learners of a foreign language will find themselves more and more often in situations where they have to understand the relationships between different cultures and will have to make sense of different behaviours and attitudes. They will have to become mediators trying to interpret and connect two or more ways of understanding the world (Byram "Acquiring" 54). This is so because we are living in a complex world with new requirements concerning linguistic and cultural qualifications in people and we have to be able to deal with this complexity, both productively and receptively, at local level (in a micro-context) and also in global situations (macro-contexts) (Risager, "Teacher's" 15; Jæger 54). Such learners need to function fully in a situation where at least two languages and two cultures, their own and another one, interplay and they may find themselves in a no-man's-land or, more exactly, in a "third place" from which they must understand and mediate between the home and the target language and culture (Kramsch, *Context* 233-259). Learners have to become mediators who have the ability to manage communication and interaction between people of different cultural identities and languages, coming from their own perspective and taking up another, able to handle different interpretations of reality, that is, learners must become intercultural speakers.

The replacement of the native speaker as a reference point for the foreign language learner by the intercultural speaker, a mediator of both languages and cultures, was introduced by Byram and Zarate. But being a mediator implies building bridges between language and cultures, therefore, in the process of learning a new foreign language and becoming an intercultural speaker, the first language or other previously acquired languages cannot be suppressed; in fact, the speaker goes through a "third way" or a hybridisation process, as House has called it (18), where the "old cultures" are still recognisable in the new one. Other authors, however, place more emphasis on the idea that rather than not losing our previous knowledge what happens is that we share rules of interpretation that are applied to both familiar and new contexts to make sense of the world (Kramsch, *Language* 27) or, as Risager ("Language" 248) puts it, there is an interweaving of cultures, whose penetration into each other is strengthened by extensive migration and tourism, mass communication systems, supranational economic interdependence and globalisation in general.

We must observe that the change of goal from the native speaker to the intercultural speaker should not in any way be seen as lowering the standards of achievement currently expected of the language learner, it is simply a question of changing one's point of view and realising that the competence of the intercultural speaker and the native speaker is not the same linguistically or culturally (Steele 77). Actually, House points out that the intercultural speaker may deliberately make cultural alternations, which should not be regarded as the effect of cultural transfer from one language to another or as ignorance of a second culture but rather as a clear sign of the intercultural competence they possess (6). In fact, the intercultural speaker can be considered to be in a privileged position with respect to the native speaker regarding communication and interaction with people from other cultures and with

other languages. It may also seem that by relaxing the requirements on the learner and allowing the intercultural speaker to retain his/her social, linguistic and cultural baggage, he/she is in an easier position; however, the intercultural speaker is a dynamic concept with no specific goal or limits and the learner must always be ready to acquire more knowledge and more abilities (Jaeger 53). The acquisition of ICC is never complete, since it is not possible to anticipate all the knowledge the learner might need at all times and in all situations (Byram et al., *Developing the* 11), and therefore, acquiring ICC, becoming an intercultural speaker, is a lifelong activity.

In Steele's opinion, one of the advantages of taking this intercultural speaker as a model is that this concept places the learner at the centre of the teaching and learning process, something that fits with the learner-centred methodology that has been widely adopted as an effective way of teaching a foreign language (79). This idea is also present in the theory of cultural community building within English language programmes, proposed, for instance, by Margaret Coffey, where a first step in community building is that teachers should give up some control in the classroom and share power with students (28). For her, building a cultural community means fostering meaningful communication among all group members when they do not share a common worldview. In order to do this, apart from sharing power with our students, we have to encourage them to be tolerant of ambiguity, foster empathy as well as cooperation and build an understanding of cultural values; as we can see, all these aims are completely in agreement with those of ICC. Other authors (Jæger 53; Cesevièiûtë and Minkutë-Henrickson 55) also share the idea that the primary role of the teacher in ICC is to develop students' autonomous and independent learning skills.

3. AUTONOMOUS LEARNING AND TEACHING THROUGH ICC

We have just seen that in ICC the role of the learner changes and, therefore, the role of the teacher is also bound to be different. ICC goes beyond the concept of language learning as just acquiring skills in a language accompanied by some factual knowledge about a country where the language is spoken. The teacher now becomes a mediator, a "gatekeeper" according to some authors (Alptekin 58), who should give priority not to the amount of knowledge to be acquired but to the development of new attitudes, skills and critical awareness in the student. That is to say, the task of the teacher is not to provide comprehensive information or bring the foreign society into the classroom for learners to observe and experience but to develop in students the competence that will help them relativise their own cultural values, beliefs and behaviours and investigate for themselves the otherness, what is different from their "norm" (Risager, "Teacher's"; Byram et al. *Developing* 3, *Developing the* 13, 33). This teacher would be what we might call an "intercultural teacher," that is, a teacher who can help students see the connections between their own and other cultures, as well as awaken their curiosity about difference and otherness. In this context non-native teachers, who can move between the home and the target cul-

tures, might seem to be in a better position; however, a curious, open-minded native teacher, especially if widely travelled, would not be at a disadvantage (Corbett 12). In fact, the best teacher will not be defined as native speaker or non-native speaker but rather the person who can help students see the connections between their own and other cultures, as well as awaken their curiosity about difference and otherness.

Byram considers that certain objectives of ICC, for instance those he refers to as discovery skills, can be included as part of the curriculum; however, there are others which may not be compatible with classroom work, especially as it is usually conceived in foreign language teaching. Despite the fact that some difficulties may arise, he insists on the idea that ICC has to be integrated in the curriculum, and he talks about three possible locations for the acquisition of ICC: the classroom, fieldwork[3] and an independent learning environment. In each of these locations, the learner will manage to develop different aspects of ICC. The classroom is more suitable for the acquisition of, for instance, the "savoirs" and "savoir-comprendre," that is, the knowledge dimension and the skills of interpreting and relating; whereas fieldwork, understood as an experience of a total environment or real time interaction, is favourable for the development of "savoir apprendre-faire," which is connected with the skills of discovery and interaction. Finally, independent learning is part of the personal development of the learner and is connected to life-long learning (*Teaching* 64-70, 73). In fact, if learners manage to engage in independent learning in terms of intercultural communication, this reflects their ability to function independently of a teacher, which is the ultimate goal of foreign language learning (Cesevièiûtë and Minkutë-Henrickson 54). Some discussions in the context of foreign language learning in general and the development of ICC in particular are often related to the concept of autonomy. However, we should be careful not to oversimplify this concept, as it does not mean simply designing strategies for self-directed learning or sending students to self-access centres to study on their own, and it should be in fact a more comprehensive notion. Language educators face a complex task of exploring the ways of developing students' capacity for autonomous learning rather than trying to make them instantaneously adopt the principles of autonomous learning (Cesevièiûtë and Minkutë-Henrickson 55).

Various authors have defended the idea that one of the best ways to develop ICC in general and autonomy in particular in foreign language learning is by introducing ethnographic skills.[4] Technically speaking, ethnography refers to an anthro-

[3] For Byram (*Teaching* 68-69), in "fieldwork" there is a pedagogical structure and educational objectives determined by the teacher often in consultation with learners, and it is, in fact, the responsibility of the teacher to provide this pedagogical structure and systematic experience that differentiates fieldwork from independent experience. Fieldwork may be a short visit organised by a teacher for a group of learners or even a long-term period of residence organised for and by an individual learner, but always keeping a link with the classroom and the teacher.

[4] In the United Kingdom the introduction of ethnography into foreign language learning and teaching has been the result of the work of Byram and his associates, for instance, Byram *Teaching*; Byram and Morgan; Byram and Fleming; and Roberts et al.

pologist's description of a community through systematic observation, usually by living within the community as a participant observer over a period of time (Corbett 9). One of their original fields of work has been description of language behaviour within the community, but in recent years ethnography has widened its scope and includes a variety of research techniques in the media, cultural studies as well as other areas. The idea is not that students become professional anthropologists, but some training in ethnographic techniques, the introduction of discovery skills, can benefit the language learning process as students learn via observation and the gathering of data. The ethnographic approach matches many of the goals of communicative language teaching by seeking:

– an integration of linguistic and cultural learning to facilitate communication and interaction;
– a comparison of others and self to stimulate reflection on and (critical) questioning of the mainstream culture into which learners are socialised;
– a shift in perspective involving psychological processes of socialisation;
– the potential of language teaching to prepare learners to meet and communicate in cultures and societies other than the specific one usually associated with the language they are learning (Byram and Fleming 7, qtd. Corbett 35).

Of course, the ethnographic activities have to be adapted to the purpose and the level of the foreign learning classroom. The book *Developing Intercultural Competence in Practice* (Byram et al.), "a forum for reflection on the experience and practice of learning and teaching languages and intercultural competence" (vii), describes several experiences carried out by teachers in different parts of the world, most of which have an ethnographic component, where students have to collect information on a specific topic by means of research, interviews or mere observation of events or social and cultural products, that is, fieldwork. The data gathered will be presented and exploited in the classroom in different ways so that the students can improve both their language and intercultural competence. Most experiences presented in the book also prove that ethnographic activities can be used with students belonging to a wide range of ages, from young children to adults; a variety of cultural backgrounds, from barely literate people to university students; and a diversity of national origins: students from just one country, students from two countries working in partnership or immigrants from different countries working together. Another aspect these experiences show is that there is enough material to work with on our doorstep as almost any element around us is apt for use with order to trigger our curiosity and the development of our ICC.

Helping students to acquire ICC, and, for the students, acquiring it are not easy tasks in the sense that, on the one hand, this acquisition requires willingness and acceptance on the part of the learner as it affects values and beliefs and, on the other, because it is an ever-developing competence where the learner must always be alert. That is the reason why some authors consider that culture and more specifically interculturality cannot be tested explicitly, because it is an "intensely individual quest" (Kramsch, *Context* 257); however, methods have been developed up

to the present.[5] One of the methods that has been considered as most appropriate to assess ICC is a portfolio that the learner has to build throughout the learning period. Byram defends the idea of using a portfolio for several reasons: first, because it allows a combination "atomised and holistic" assessment, that is, objective by objective, "savoir" by "savoir" or ICC as a whole; second, because it allows keeping a close relationship between testing and teaching; and, finally, because it permits a combination of criterion-referenced documentation with objective, norm-referenced tests (*Teaching* 107). The contents of the portfolio will obviously depend on the kind of course the learner is following, but it should always contain an element of critical reflection and, if possible, this should be discussed between the student and the teacher (Corbett 200). The concept of the portfolio has been developed within the context of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages. This framework has different aims, among which we would like to highlight those of commitment to lifelong language learning and the idea that language study offers opportunities to acquire independence and autonomy as learners (Heyworth 13). In addition, the European Language Portfolio also had as one of its aims the development of learner responsibility and learner autonomy (Schärer 3).

4. CONCLUSION

ICC is based on "savoirs," that is, skills, abilities, values and attitudes, rather than the transmission of knowledge. This does not mean that traditional instruction or the gathering and structuring of information are banned in this competence. However, all these "savoirs" are acquired rather than taught and they depend very much on autonomous learning and teaching. One of the factors of ICC is "savoir apprendre/faire," which is connected to the skills of discovery and the ability to acquire new knowledge through interaction. That is, emphasis is placed on learning to learn, a competence which will allow us to be independent and autonomous in any lifelong learning process in any field we may be involved in. More and more importance is given nowadays in education to the acquisition of this ability and to the idea that our learning process does not end at school or university, but continues throughout our whole life.[6]

In this context, the importance of the foreign language learner as an intercultural speaker comes to the fore. As we have seen, the intercultural speaker is a dynamic concept without specific limits, someone who is always in the making, ready to acquire new knowledge or abilities. Since his or her training is never complete, being an intercultural speaker is a lifelong activity and the learner must ac-

[5] For a brief revision and references of some testing methods see Coperías Aguilar (252)

[6] The now-over-ten-year-old Bologna Process and the European higher education area place great emphasis on the idea of long-life learning processes. For an analysis of the relationship between ICC and higher education in this context see Coperías Aguilar (2009).

quire the skills of autonomous learning in order to succeed in any new situation that may arise. Thus the importance of the intercultural teacher, a mediator rather than a transmitter of knowledge and aware of the abilities which have to be taught, also becomes essential. However, it is not always easy to find the right methodologies to teach ICC, and the use of some ethnographic techniques may be useful. In my opinion, the theory and practices around the concept of ICC that have been presented throughout this paper, can be an adequate tool to encourage autonomous learning, specifically in foreign language teaching and learning, but also in other areas in general. The concept of ICC has so far been developed in connection with foreign language teaching and learning; however, some of its principles could also be applied to other areas of knowledge and to students coming from fields other than foreign languages.

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CAN MOODLE INCREASE LEARNER AUTONOMY?

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ABSTRACT

This paper discusses concerns about increasing learners' autonomy through the use of learning management systems, and specifically through the use of one of these, Moodle. I will comment on some of the ways using a learning platform may *not* increase learner autonomy but also offer examples from two different subjects that I believe do increase learners' autonomy. Students' opinions of their work with Moodle will also be included.

KEY WORDS: Learner autonomy, Moodle, learning management systems, LMS, pedagogical innovation.

RESUMEN

Este ensayo se centra en sobre si es posible incrementar la autonomía del alumnado a través de algunos sistemas de control de aprendizaje y, más concretamente, Moodle. Me detendré en algunas de las maneras de emplear estos sistemas que creo que no ayudan a incrementar esta autonomía y, a la vez, describiré ejemplos de su empleo en dos asignaturas en las que creo que sí lo hacen. Asimismo, se incluye opiniones de alumnos sobre su propio trabajo.

PALABRAS CLAVE: aprendizaje autónomo, Moodle, sistemas de control de aprendizaje, LMS, innovación pedagógica.

1. INTRODUCTION: DO LEARNING MANAGEMENT SYSTEMS INCREASE LEARNER AUTONOMY?

In this paper I would like to reflect on the use of Moodle,[1] a learning management system (LMS) as a possible instrument for increasing learner autonomy. I think activities can be developed and designed by teachers to help students achieve greater learner autonomy using this or other LMSs; however the opposite is also possible. Since I started using Moodle, I have been seeking ways to work with it so as to have it help advance my students' autonomy in their learning process. I think that greater learner autonomy can be achieved through LMSs if these are set up to do so but I am also of the opinion that this is not achieved automatically.

LMSs run the risk of being simply transmitters of information, that is, a new source to maintain the traditional teacher-centered class in which the teacher

simply uploads information onto the platform the same way as giving lectures to fill the students' supposedly empty heads. The students may be somewhat less passive in that, instead of listening to the teacher and taking notes, they can choose when and where to download and do the assigned work; however, this possibility does not exactly make the form of learning very pro-active. Uploading links to websites with exercises does not, in itself, help students take much charge of their learning. Forman (20) points this out when she writes that textbook publishers' online courses and/or materials tend to be "pretty dry and very similar to what you'd expect from any standard course book: endless gap fills, multi-options quizzes, etc, not exactly the thing to inspire most internet-savvy students." This author (and I) do not find that learner autonomy is encouraged, much less enhanced, with this kind of work, when the only thing that students can decide is when they will do the work (much the same as traditional homework in any case).

Corder and Waller affirm that computer-assisted language learning "proves effective for language learning, promotes autonomy, caters for various learning needs and provides flexibility by enabling students to work at the own pace in their own time" (9). This may be true, but I think it depends on how the how the platform is used. Moodle can give a certain amount of autonomy in and of itself in the sense that students can see on the initial page what work is being done each week and can get work there.[2] It can help me, the teacher, in that, even if I bring photocopies to class, the paper in question also goes onto Moodle where it is available for anyone who missed class that day. However, if the learning platform is used only in this way, the increase in learner autonomy is very small. If teachers use a VCP only to upload website exercises, notes for their students to read and/or copy, lists of bibliography, little autonomy is gained. "...it's not the technology that matters —it's what you do with it that counts" (Keddie 17). In the same line of thought, Attwell states "I am unconvinced that our present educational technology, based essentially on managing learning, rather than encouraging creativity, provides ... motivation for learners." Granted, it does save on photocopies, it does save students' energy of having to take notes in class but students put nothing of their part into this unless their teacher sets up a means for them to do so.

There are many programs in which the entire process of foreign language learning has (theoretically at least) been uploaded onto a virtual classroom platform but of course using a learning platform does not guarantee, by any means, an increase in their learning autonomy. To give just one example, the Spanish Ministry of Education has set up an LMS which includes among other learning programs, English language with, at present, four levels that go from a CEFR pre-A1 to a B1

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[1] MOODLE is an acronym for "Modular Object-Oriented Dynamic Learning Environment." Because Moodle is an open source there is a large international community of users providing informal support and feedback for each other. This community can be found at <http://moodle.org> (Hockly 60).

[2] Moodle, in this sense, offers two possible ways of organizing the first page: by weeks or by topics.

level. By the fourth level students are doing work in the skills of reading, listening, writing and reading but can take no initiative of their own. So using a learning platform in itself may not increase learner autonomy at all.

In the following sections of this article I will describe two ways of working with Moodle forums that I think help students to increase their own output, their decision making and greater autonomy.

2. USING THE MOODLE FORUM: STUDENTS PROPOSE TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION

I have looked for ways to use the Moodle activity of "forum" in order for students to have a greater decision in what material we work with and how it is used. In this section of the paper I want to look at how students choose the focus of what will be discussed on the forums I set up on the Moodle page. The subject is Methodology for the Teaching of English as a Second Language, an elective open to third and fourth year students. For each article students may read, I open a Moodle forum.

For specific areas of work (e.g. assessment, treatment of mistakes, classroom management, etc.), I propose a series of articles[3] for students to choose, read and write open questions on. These open questions I call "discussion points."[4] Using the term discussion point (DP) and having four possible focuses for them, my intention is that students see this proposal as *their* choice of the focus of their comments, questions, objections or reflections with respect to what they have read. "Starting from the students' discussion points rather than from mine means that we start from what they find most interesting, most striking. By using their own questions, I can find out what they think is most interesting in each article and start from there, as opposed to what I think is most important or interesting." (Bobb Wolff, *Asking* 89) In this sense, students writing DPs on the Moodle forum is not very different to writing them on paper or in an e-mail.[5] The change I see is what takes place next. When I receive a student's DP on paper or in an e-mail format, this DP is not yet available for the rest of the class. A DP which has been uploaded onto a Moodle forum is immediately available for everyone in the class to read and respond to. Working this way opens the discussion to multiple voices and opinions, as the rest of the class can respond both to the original DP and to the responses written *to* it. The idea behind this is that it is the students who are, if not structur-

[3] The use of the term "article" covers, in fact, both journal articles and book excerpts. Here we will refer to these always as "articles" to simplify.

[4] By "discussion points" I mean 1) any statement or concept you disagree with, 2) any statement you would like to discuss with other people, 3) anything you don't understand OR 4) anything that especially attracts your attention.

[5] The use of discussion points without using Moodle, that is in a traditional classroom situation, has been previously described in Bobb Wolff, "Asking"; and Bobb Wolff, "Learning."

ing the format of the forum, deciding the content that will be discussed on it. Learner autonomy is, I believe, fomented here to a certain extent, in the sense that students can choose among the given articles which ones to read. In a greater degree, autonomy is increased through the fact that students decide the focus on what is discussed with respect to each article.

How the discussion is carried out also varies, giving students more control of the time and topics. Before using the Moodle forum, within the classroom context, during the small group discussion period, each group (3-5 students) could choose which DPs they wanted to discuss but could obviously only work on one at a time —and classroom time is relatively limited. When the turn came for the whole class discussion, obviously we all must focus on the same article and the same discussion point on that article at the same time and are limited again by the number of hours of in-class time. With the forum, there are no time limits as to when one can access and respond. (See the dates of the original DP and of the responses in Example 1, below).

Using the Moodle forum, the choice of what DPs are read and responded to is entirely in the students' power. In the paper version, when DPs were sent to their professor, I had to act as a "censor" in the sense that I would choose which DPs would be included in the photocopy made for the students, knowing that there wouldn't be time to discuss all of them. Of all the DPs sent to me, I would choose five to seven for each of the articles on the specific area under discussion at the time. This meant that not all the discussion points from each student would be presented to the class. One of the alternative ways of working with these DPs in class was that students brought their written DPs to class rather than sending them to me. For each article, small groups chose and wrote onto a transparency those DPs they found most interesting to work on with the entire class and then presented them on a OHP. Usually, at best, there was time to discuss one or two chosen DPs on each article from each group, meaning that most students' DPs never were discussed at all.

In example 1, there is a DP copied from a Moodle forum uploaded by a student along with responses from two other students. We can see that in her initial comment, YLG is voicing concern about all the aspects of the teaching process described in the excerpt she has read; she finds the possibility of having to take into account so many aspects threatening, thinking she would focus on only two and explaining why she would do this.

EXAMPLE 1:
Teachers - Learners.[6]
by YLG - domingo, 28 febrero 2010, 22:50

There is something that has attracted my attention because I think it is very difficult to achieve. This is the reason why I would like to put it into discus-

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[6] The excerpt referred to here is from Edge, 1993.

sion. I think it is very hard for a teacher to attend to so many aspects as organisation, security, motivation, instruction, modelling, guidance, information, feedback, encouragement and evaluation. It is impossible for a teacher to take into account so many things in a class that in most of the cases lasts just 55 minutes and where there are usually more than 20 students. I know that all of these features are important but I think that the teacher must have priorities. I think that the two most important aspects of all I have mentioned before are "Motivation" and "security." If students feel comfortable in the language they are trying to learn and they are motivated as well they will be able of developing their skills although sometimes the teacher will have to correct them. In this way the teacher can have time to solve problems with the learners that have more difficulties in the language.

Re: Teachers - Learners.
by YHL - domingo, 7 marzo 2010, 19:43

On the one hand, I agree with you because I think that the teacher sometimes does not have enough time to have into account all the things you have mentioned. And I also agree with you in the fact that the most important ones are motivation and security, because if a teacher is motivated, he or she will be able to motivate his or her students, and in this way they will learn much more things; and if the teacher feels self-confident, he or she will transmit that to the students, and the students will feel respect for the teacher. But on the other hand, I think that a good teacher should find time and ways of including other things that are important for the students, such as a good organization, or good systems of evaluation and assessment that had been previously explained or discussed with the students.

Re: Teachers - Learners.
by SDFD - lunes, 17 mayo 2010, 18:39

I agree with YLG in which it is very difficult for a teacher to achieve every aspect which have been mentioned in the article. I consider like her that it depends on the type of class you have in front of a teacher should use some aspects or another taking into account the kind of answers he/she could obtain.

The first response, from YHL, seems to interpret the initial comments as having to do more with the teacher's motivation than with the students'; she also has objections to leaving out aspects that she thinks are important. The second response refers to both of the previous ones, in that SDFD shows agreement with YLG in contrast with what YHL wrote.

Reading through this written DP and the two reactions to it, another possible advantage of using a Moodle forum can be seen. The students have more time to think through, write, change and rewrite their comments or response in the written format of a forum than when this is done speaking, although there may be a more rapid give and take in a spoken format. This may not lead to greater autonomy on the students' part but I think the following does. I have found is that it is much easier for me *not* to dominate in the written format. In the classroom speaking format, students tend to look to me, their professor (the "expert") for my

response to each DP and of course, as Charles Curran always said "the teacher is sick to teach" and I always have "lots of good stuff" I want to say about any given DP so I really need to control myself to not take over the discussion on any DP. In the Moodle forum I can simply wait and write after other contributions have been put in.

I *do* set a minimum requirement for the number of articles to be written about, the number of discussion points to be written and the number of responses to classmates' DPs and include this clearly in the assessment criteria both at the beginning of the course when the program is discussed and at the end of course assessment. I think this must be clearly stated so that students realize that this aspect of the course is important and to be taken seriously and also so that they know clearly what has to be done.

The text in Example 2 is excerpted from one student's journal where she describes her opinion of using the Moodle forum this way. Some of her description + opinions of the work could equally apply to writing the DPs in the "traditional," paper way ("we have to read the article with critical eyes," ... "students can learn from each other," "the objectives of the teacher are to make the students read the articles and reflect on them"). Others clearly could only apply to an on-line forum ("writing about them..." ... "they will participate much more...")

EXAMPLE 2:

We had to select four articles from six, read them carefully, and write discussion points on the forum (Moodle). I consider it a very useful activity because we can learn a lot by doing this. We have to read the articles with critical eyes, and to write things about them. Furthermore, as we have to put our DPs on the forum, we can read other classmates' DPs, and we can comment on them. This can be very enriching, since students can learn from each other, they can ask and answer questions through the platform, and the teacher is also there to supervise the comments, and to correct if there is something wrong; I think this is her role. I think that the objectives of the teacher are to make the students read the articles, and reflect on them; to make them be critical, and to make them interact with other students about what they have read by thinking about other classmates' comments and opinions and writing about them, students learn a lot. Moreover, I think that it is a different and innovative activity (doing it in the platform), and this is important, because the students will be more interested, and they will participate much more. Furthermore, I consider that this is a different and innovative way of teaching the theory, making the students read it, reflect on it, and writing down things they find worth commenting for several reasons.

This journal entry does not explicitly mention learner autonomy at all but I think we can see a degree of autonomy in the fact that students are choosing (to a certain extent) what to write about, what to write, what to reflect on as well as how they are learning from one anther. "[U]sing the articles as springboards is a way of getting the students to think their own thoughts about the articles rather than simply answering the questions their teacher thinks are important (Kontra 43)."

3. STUDENTS' OPINIONS ABOUT THE USE OF MOODLE

Third and fourth year students doing the subject of methodology were, in many cases, using Moodle in other subjects as well. I used a questionnaire to ask them how they were using Moodle in all these subjects as well as their opinions about how it was used (without identifying the subjects). There are no unanimous or even majority answers, which is to be expected since the students are enrolled in a variety of different subjects. The entire questionnaire can be found in Appendix 1; however, here I will focus on just three of the questions: in what ways have you used Moodle, how does it help you learn and what disadvantages have you found to using it.

To the question "in what ways have you used Moodle?," we can see different types of usage that professors have made of the Moodle with their students. One of these is using Moodle to give additional input of material. Included here by students are the following: reading articles, looking at additional sources (for example, watching videos) or exercises, downloading papers on a topic and downloading notes for the subject. A different use of Moodle is doing work on it. For this aspect, student answers covered writing discussion points and answering other students' questions on a forum, commenting on articles read, making a glossary or vocabulary for a subject, doing on line questionnaires, doing homework and doing critical reviews. The third aspect of Moodle included is having it as a bulletin board: seeing the homework for the next class, sending homework, and checking their marks for activities and exams.

Asked how using the Moodle helped them learn, again, we can see among the answers the students include that there are different types of benefits for them. Some answers are related to the fact that Moodle facilitates contact with their professor and classmates. Some students wrote that through Moodle they can ask their teacher doubts they have about the subject, others that it is easier to send homework and still others that this is a means for the teacher to leave them extra work to help themselves.

A strictly material benefit that more than one student wrote about is that they do not have to buy notes but just print them and in this way save money and also avoid a lot of papers in their folders. The ease of choice of time and place to work is also mentioned more than once. Students point out that there is not the same time pressure to give an answer as in class because they can take their time before answering. After doing homework at home, it can be uploaded onto Moodle and, as a variation, homework can be done anyplace and any time the student wants to.

In any case, for me the most interesting answers to this question are those in which the students see using Moodle helping them with their learning process. With regard to keeping a glossary or vocabulary, students include as a benefit that this helps them understand the articles better and makes them have a clear idea of the key concepts of the subject.

Several different types of comments can be found concerning the use of a forum on Moodle although the answers are similar. Some students mention

that talking about points on a forum helped them to interact with other students and share opinions about topics they were dealing with in class while others wrote that it helped them to learn because they paid attention to classmates' opinions, and also it helped them to improve their knowledge; others simply stated that the forum was a good way to learn or a good way of learning in group or that it was a more interactive way of learning because they can share there opinions and knowledge.

Other remarks concerning the benefits to their learning process are more dispersed; these include being in contact with the subject's issues all the time for extra sources, the usefulness of having sources for the subject on internet and simply knowing what they have to learn, or that it made it easy to see one's progress throughout the course.

Students also wrote about the disadvantages they could see to using Moodle. One of these is of a strictly technical nature which, in fact, has nothing to do with how the Moodle is used by their professors although it does, of course, affect its use: several students point out that if one doesn't have an internet connection at home or has an unreliable connection, its use is complicated. Other than this concern, we can note differences between those students who have not used this, or any, VCP very much and those who have more experience with it. Among the former, there are students who simply write that the biggest disadvantage for them is that they don't know how to use it, that they get lost or don't understand how it is organized; we can consider this a call for help, professors need to check that their students are familiar with Moodle and explain how it is organized for each class.

Of those students who have experience using Moodle, some dissatisfaction is expressed concerning professors' use it. One complaint is that some professors do not say anything in class about homework but simply upload assignments onto the Moodle front page and assume students will find the reference and do the work. Others point out that they are aware that if a professor is using Moodle, their class hours should be correspondingly reduced (a university norm) but state that their teachers require them to attend all the face to face classes and then also put in many hours on the Moodle. In any case, the disadvantages expressed seem to be fewer than the advantages which students describe.

Analyzing the information from these third and fourth year students, few of the possible ways of interactive work that Moodle offers are being exploited; these include, at least, chat, forum, journal, wiki and glossary. Most of the work described here is using Moodle as a digital bulletin board, for assignments, marks, extra work. Only the forum and the glossary are uses that could not be done in face to face work. Granted, as we have seen, students do find many advantages to these uses of Moodle but we professors need to learn how to get more use out of all the possibilities that Moodle offers. As Miller (2) points out, "Teachers have to be trained in how to use CALL [computer-assisted language learning] in promoting autonomy. With this training comes a change in the teacher's role in the classroom."

Looking at the students' answers with a possible increase in their autonomy in mind, I also think that where we see more of an increase is precisely in those cases where students can input information onto the Moodle, on the glossaries and the forums. The degree of autonomy in being able to study or work when they choose

to do so, downloading material from the Moodle, seeing what their work is, etc., do not create much of an increase in their autonomy. Referring again to the quote in the previous paragraph, teachers need training in how to help their students become more autonomous through the use of a learning platform of this type.

This or an equivalent questionnaire was not used with the first year students, whose work we will discuss in the following section, because the subject with me was the only one in which they were using Moodle.

4. USING THE MOODLE FORUM: STUDENTS' STORIES[7]

A quite different use of the Moodle forum to lead students to have greater control of the work they do is in a first semester, first year subject of English language.[8] In this case, the students write and upload stories of their own invention onto a Moodle forum. The only requirements they have with respect to the stories themselves are that they need to choose and incorporate some fifteen new vocabulary words in their story and the length of the story should be some four hundred words. (See appendix 2 for the assignment as it is given to the students on Moodle.) The other requirements are that on the forum they write comments about two classmates' stories and that this process is to be carried out three times during the fifteen-week semester. In this sense, the students are not choosing to do the work; it is a requirement and is explicitly included in the assessment criteria. Other than this, they are free to decide the topic of their stories, decide the vocabulary they will include and decide which classmates' stories they will comment on.[9]

The initial objective of asking students to write these stories was that of learning new vocabulary. I have them choose the vocabulary they will include individually because, at their level of linguistic competence, each one has different vocabulary gaps. I also want them to develop their own criteria about what they need to memorize with respect to new vocabulary since one can never memorize all the vocabulary there is in English —or any language. I also think they invest themselves more in their story if they choose the vocabulary to include than if I were to do so; the story belongs more to them if they choose and this is motivating so they are more likely to continue with the out of class activity. I do not set any specific criteria of how they should go about choosing this vocabulary although I do sug-

[7] In this first year subject at the beginning of the semester I asked the students how many had used Moodle or some other VCP previously (e.g. in their secondary school studies); only some five percent had done so; that is very few had experience with a learning platform. At the same time some 98% were accustomed to using internet, in most of the cases to download music or films, watch videos, YouTube, etc.

[8] In the English Studies degree, begun in the academic year 2009-2010, the subject is called "Communicative Skills in a Modern Language (English)."

[9] An earlier version of this study has been described in Bobb Wolff, 2009 "Europe."

gest that they can use any from the texts we are using in class or from texts of any other subjects. To a certain extent students *do* use these sources, which means that there is some repetition of new vocabulary from story to story, making it more likely that these new words will become part of their long-term memory.

As I wrote just above, the initial motivation I had for introducing this out of class activity was that of having students choose and use new vocabulary. With the use of the activity I have come to realize that the work done on written fluency, extensive reading and the positive class dynamics that come about from students reading and writing comments on one another's stories are as important if not more important that the work on practicing with the new vocabulary each has chosen.

Looking first at the positive class dynamics aspect, it has been demonstrated that students learn better if they feel comfortable with their classmates. Stevick expressed this very explicitly when he wrote, [in a language course] "success depends less on materials, techniques and linguistic analyses, and more on what goes on inside and between the people in the classroom" (4). Writing stories and reading one another's stories, according to students' comments in the questionnaire and the final interviews as well as the comments themselves on one another's stories demonstrate that this assignment does achieve this. "My main concern as a teacher has been first in trying to get my students participating, socializing, adjusting to each other, and identifying with a group that uses the target language for social purposes" (Murphey 70). This computer-mediated communication does build community among learners —in this case, first semester, first year students, in relatively large classes (from 35-55 students), who did not know one another at the beginning of term. It can be seen in their comments (see example 3, below) on one another's stories and their answers on a questionnaire passed at the end of the semester that it has helped to build community feelings and reduce anxiety.

EXAMPLE 3:
Responses copied from Moodle forum on students' first stories:

– I really like your story, I think that You couldnt choose more interesting subject.
– Great title!! When i saw this title i just had to read your story!Well done.
– A great story =). I really enjoyed it ^_^. It makes me remember a book I read when I was like 15 years old, about a group of adolescents who travels in time when they go to bed xD
– Your story is really good. You have amazing imagination. Congratulations! Fabulous concept I really like it I'm waitin' for part 2

Another benefit of this activity which I had not expected when I began to use it is that of extensive reading. Students are required to read and comment on two of their classmates' stories on each of the three Moodle forums during the semester. What I have seen is that they have taken the responsibility of choosing to read more stories, in some cases, a good many more. The stories are at their level of competence because they have been written by classmates; As Murphy points out, "Extensive reading works best when it is self-regulated (students choose materials

that are at an appropriate level and interesting) and students get hooked on reading a lot of level-appropriate material" (73). Since the students are choosing from among the stories written by their classmates we can be sure that what this extensive reading is at their own level (versus what could happen with stories their teacher could select).

In the final questionnaire asking the students how many stories they had read, over 60% said they read between three and ten stories each of the three times. Between 15 and 20% said they read between eleven and twenty-five stories. (See appendix 3 for the questions and results for the year 2009-2010.)

The stories are concerned with written fluency. I do no correcting and the students do not correct each other's stories either. This, in one sense, bothers me; or at least bothers the part of me that has the professional deformation of not feeling comfortable with leaving mistakes alone, in this case, on the forum for everyone in class to see. At the same time, at least one of the objectives of this activity *is* writing fluency, which precludes correction. I don't want writing fluency to be affected by a concern with accuracy. We're working on *that* elsewhere. Forman points out this contradiction: "Teachers need to think about ... how we can deal with our own inconsistencies and create an environment where both we and our students can act as autonomous agents, conscious of what the learning process constitutes and where it is taking us" (22).

If these were not students of a degree in English studies I would be less concerned about their written accuracy; as it is, this is an aspect of their learning process which does need to be taken into consideration. In any case, it is worked on through other activities in and out of class; it is not one of the objectives of this out of class activity. On the final questionnaire, I asked the students if they were concerned about reading stories that might have mistakes. Over eighty percent answered that they *were* concerned about this. Yet when I asked if they felt uncomfortable with the mistakes they noticed, 85 percent said they were not uncomfortable with the fact that they had noticed mistakes in their classmates stories which could be taken to mean that in theory the idea of having mistakes was a concern but in the reality of reading it was not. Students expressed more concern about classmates finding mistakes in their own stories although only twenty five percent answered that they felt quite or very uncomfortable with this possibility while the other seventy five percent said they didn't feel at all uncomfortable with this.

Writing new vocabulary stories allows learners take control of several aspects of their learning. Within the general time framework I set, students choose when to do this work since it is an out of class activity. However, I think the other aspects of taking control are more important for increasing their autonomy. One is that of choosing new vocabulary. Choosing what they will write about for each story is another. Being able to choose which stories they read and which stories they comment on is one more. I think students do achieve more autonomy in their work in this subject through this activity with the Moodle forum.

5. FINAL COMMENTS

As I wrote in the introduction, I think Moodle, and any learning management system, can be useful for helping learners achieve a greater amount of autonomy in their learning process but that it depends on how it is used. Some authors seem to think that using an LMS alone is sufficient, e.g. Miller "Without motivation learners cannot begin to move towards autonomy. One way in which learner motivation may be enhanced is via technology" (2), or Nakata "Computers also have the potential to make learners more autonomous, in that using devices such as computers enables them to learn what they want to by themselves at their own pace and thus control their own learning" (51). Technology may or may not enhance motivation. As a novelty with a class, any use of technology will most likely increase motivation; but if its use ends up being very similar to a traditional note-taking student-receptive-passive class, motivation to use the technology may quickly disappear. Furthermore, motivation alone will not forward students' autonomy in their learning process; it certainly helps, although I have also found that realizing that they have more autonomy of decision in their work also increases students' motivation.

In any case, I am more inclined to agree with Benson when he voices, "Learners who engage in technology-based learning do not necessarily become more autonomous as a result of their efforts. A great deal depends on the nature of the technology and the use that is made of it" (10). Or as Schank is quoted as saying, "the real change is how we teach, not the tools we use" (5).[10] E-literacy is, in itself, an important learning objective nowadays and since Internet is not going to go away, to the degree that we are able, we should also be helping our students to learn how to use it better; at the same time as it helps them become more responsible for their intellectual growth.

As their teachers, we professors need to learn how to use the new technologies, in this case, Moodle, to help our students advance in their learning and in their autonomy. White wrote, "it is evident that there is an urgent need for us to focus on matching both new and existing opportunities for learning with the needs of learners in relation to developing and maintaining control of their learning" (71). Moodle, any LMS, can help learners advance in their autonomy but only if we, as their professors, learn to use this tool for it to help them do so.

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[10] Translated from the Spanish: "El auténtico cambio es cómo se enseña, no los instrumentos."

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APPENDIX 1

Questionnaire on using Moodle Used with Methodology students spring 2010

In what ways have you used MOODLE in your different subjects? Add lines as needed	How interesting was this?	How useful was it?	What did *you* have to input onto this?	Why or why not did it help you learn?

As a student, what benefits can you see from using MOODLE?
And as a teacher?
What disadvantages or drawbacks can you see as a student?
And as a teacher?
In the different subjects, how often did you look at the MOODLE first page to check if there was new information?

APPENDIX 2

Written out of class work: Vocabulary task

The vocabulary task will be uploaded to the Moodle forum and, if you choose, also to the wiki there.

1. You need to find between 10 and 15 useful new words. You can choose new words from the texts we use OR, if there aren't that many new words, find other interesting or useful new words to reach this number.
2. With these words (and obviously lots of others), write a short story or play. Please underline the new words you have used. Your story should be approximately 400 words in length, this is about ¾ of an A4 page in Ariel 12 font. It doesn't matter how silly the story is! You will find it easier to remember these words. In fact, if you prefer not to write fiction, you can write about something else —but it should be yours, something that interests *you* and that *you* write.
3. Below your story, please include the new words in alphabetical order and say where you found each one and what criteria you used to choose each. Also please include the new words you found but didn't use.
4. Stories are due weeks 6, 9 & 12, that is Oct 27th, Nov 17th & Dec 9th.
5. Upload your stories to one of the Moodle forums; there is a different forum for each story. In addition to writing your *own* story, you will comment on at least two classmates' stories also. Of course, you will also be able to read your classmates' comments on your story there.
6. Comments on two other people's stories must be written weeks 7-8, 10-11 and 13-14.
7. If you want your story to be corrected, you must also upload it to the Moodle wiki. There, classmates may try to improve the grammar/vocabulary of your story. Putting your story on the wiki is *entirely voluntary*; that is, it's your decision.
8. On the wiki, you can try to correct any mistakes you find on any of the stories there. Identifying and correcting other people's written work can help you improve your own.
9. Near the end of the semester you will write a short report on the usefulness of this task for you. This should be turned in by January 12th.

APPENDIX 3

EXCERPTS FROM THE SURVEY WITH STUDENTS ON NEW VOCABULARY STORIES & COMPS[11]

2) For each of these new vocabulary stories, you were asked to comment on two of your classmates' stories. For the FIRST new vocabulary stories how many classmates' stories did you read? (The question here is NOT how many you commented but how many you READ).

Possible answer	None	2	3-10	11-25	26-40	More than 40
responses	1	3	27	7	1	0
%	2	8	69	18	2	

3) For the SECOND new vocabulary stories how many classmates' stories did you read?

Possible answer	None	2	3-10	11-25	26-40	More than 40
Number of responses	2	3	25	8	1	0
%	5	7	64	20	2	

4) For the THIRD new vocabulary stories how many classmates' stories did you read?

Possible answer	None	2	3-10	11-25	26-40	More than 40
Number of responses	2	9	20	7	0	1
%	5	23	51	17		2

5) When you read classmates' new vocabulary stories, were you concerned about there being mistakes in them?

Possible answer	Not at all	a little	sometime	quite uncomfortable
responses	3	18	17	1
%	7	46	43	02

6) Did you notice mistakes in classmates' new vocabulary stories when you read them?

Possible answer	Yes	No
responses	33	6
%	84	15

[11] This questionnaire was inspired from Zhou 2007: 42-45.

7) If you noticed mistakes in classmates' new vocabulary stories, did you feel uncomfortable with them?

Possible answer	Not at all	a little	Quite uncomfortable	very uncomfortable
responses	16	17	4	2
%	41	44	10	5

8) Did you feel uncomfortable that classmates might find mistakes in your new vocabulary stories?

Possible answer	Not at all	a little	Quite uncomfortable	very uncomfortable
responses	19	10	6	4
%	49	26	15	10

9) Did you enjoy reading classmates' new vocabulary stories on the moodle forums?

Possible answer	A lot	So-so	Not really
esponses	24	14	1
%	62	36	2

MISCELLANY

A CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS OF RESEARCH ARTICLE INTRODUCTIONS IN ENGLISH AND SPANISH

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ASBTRACT

It is now well attested that academic writing is crucially determined by the socio-cultural context in which it is produced. In line with this research this paper aims at carrying out an intercultural (English-Spanish) analysis of the rhetorical structure of research article introductions in Business Management. The analysis is based on a comparable corpus of 24 research articles: 12 published in international high impact journals in English, and 12 published in national journals. A pattern of the moves and steps found in business management research article introductions is outlined. Some rhetorical steps seem to be specific to this disciplinary field. Further, the extent of (non)inclusion of the detailed moves and steps in the two sub-corpora is determined. The comparison reveals significant differences in the rhetorical organisation of this section in the research articles in the two languages.

KEY WORDS: Research article, introductions, genre analysis, intercultural rhetoric, English for Academic Purposes (EAP).

RESUMEN

Estudios previos han confirmado el papel fundamental que juega el contexto socio-cultural en la escritura académica. En esta línea este artículo presenta un análisis intercultural (inglés-castellano) de la estructura retórica de las introducciones correspondientes a artículos de investigación en la disciplina de Dirección y Organización de Empresas. El análisis se basa en un corpus comparable de 24 textos: 12 en inglés, publicados en revistas internacionales de impacto y otros 12 en castellano, publicados en revistas nacionales. Se presenta un listado de las secciones y sub-secciones características de esta parte del artículo en esta disciplina. A continuación, se determina la (no) inclusión de dichas secciones en los dos grupos de textos. Esta comparación revela diferencias significativas en la organización retórica de las introducciones en los artículos de investigación en las dos lenguas.

PALABRAS CLAVE: artículo de investigación, introducciones, análisis de género, retórica intercultural, inglés para fines académicos.

INTRODUCTION

A large amount of research has shown that academic writing is crucially determined by the socio-cultural context in which it is produced and the ways in which scholars mould their academic texts to meet the readership's expectations. Numerous studies within English for Academic Purposes (EAP) have accordingly focused on the analysis of academic genres in different disciplinary and cultural/linguistic contexts. The rhetorical structure of the research article has recevied special research attention and within this, the introduction section has attracted more scholarly attention than any of the other sections of the RA.

Swales' work on the micro-structure of the RA introduction is considered pioneering (*Aspects*, *Genre*). In *Aspects* he established four moves characteristic of paper introductions. He later on revisited those four moves and put forward what he called the CARS (Create a Research Space) model, characteristic of this RA section and comprising three moves: establishing a territory, establishing a niche and occupying the niche. Since then many scholars have applied his model to RAs in several disciplines written in English by native and non-native speakers as well as to RAs written in languages other than English (e.g. Crookes; Taylor and Tingguang; Duszak; Linderberg; Nwogu; Posteguillo; Burgess; Árvay and Tankó; Hirano). Most scholars applying Swales' CARS model agree that it is not usually consistently applied; that is, that certain steps and/or moves tend to be deleted in particular fields and/or in particular national cultural contexts and that the order of appearance of these steps and moves may be altered. These previous studies can lead us to the conclusion that the extent to which this model is applied in the introduction section of RAs is dependent on the discipline to which the RAs belong and/or the broader cultural context in which they are written.

For instance, Burgess finds that the (non-) inclusion of the different steps composing the CARS model is different in relation to the area of specialisation, the language of publication and the nature of the audience addressed. She concludes that the key aspect in determining the rhetorical steps in the introduction is the relationship that is established between writers and discourse communities.

Many authors have proposed variations of the CARS model after completing their corpus-based analyses. Crookes establishes a fifth unit, "Presenting general, non-referenced theoretical background." Taylor and Tingguang list the possible variations of the CARS model: deletion of one move, elaboration by repeating one or more moves co-ordinated with those first introduced, elaboration by embedding subordinate moves within a major move, significant reordering of the moves, and insertion of unconventional moves (such as limitations and implications of the study) (325). Duszak's Polish-English analysis of language studies RA introductions leads her to point out a further move in the introduction of RAs which she names "Preparing the tools" and which she defines as the provision of the conceptual-terminological apparatus; a move which, in the light of the results obtained, she considers very appropriate in language studies RA introductions written in Polish. In her analysis of RA introductions in Finance, Marketing and Management, Linderberg elaborates on Swales' CARS model and puts forward the follow-

ing steps: topic generalisation, claiming centrality, reviewing previous research, indicating a gap of knowledge, counter-claim, major-knowledge claim, announcing/describing present research/purpose/material/method, stating major findings, interpreting/commenting on findings, "boosting" own research/contribution by explicit positive evaluation, and speculating/hypothesising from findings.

As Swales states, responding to the results of these further studies, to the genre evolution or to both, he subtly refines his model, despite acknowledging that the 1990 model "retains a fair amount of robustness in its general outlines and main findings" (*Research* 207).[1]

Despite this plethora of research on RA introductions, cross-cultural (English-Spanish) studies are scarce. It is the aim of this paper to establish the main moves and steps of RAs from a single discipline, Business Management, in international publications in English and to then compare the findings to those stemming from a parallel analysis of RAs published in a national context in Spanish.

CORPUS AND METHODS

The RAs from which the introductions were extracted were taken from four different journals in each context: *Academy of Management Journal* (*AMJ*), *Strategic Management Journal* (*SMJ*), *Journal of Management* (*JM*), and *Journal of International Management* (*JIM*) in the international North American context, and *Alta Dirección* (*AD*), *Dirección y Organización de Empresas* (*DyO*), *Revista Europea de Dirección y Economía de la Empresa* (*REDyEE*) and *Investigaciones Europeas de Dirección y Economía de la Empresa* (*IE*) in the Spanish national context. Three RAs were selected from each of the journals published in 2003 and 2004. Only empirical RAs were chosen. The following table summarises the corpus used for this study.

TABLE 1. DESCRIPTION OF THE CORPUS

	English sub-corpus	Spanish sub-corpus
Nº of RA Introductions	12	12
Length of texts (range)	5,025 - 1,521	317 - 2,896
Average length of text	2,909	1,693
Total no. of words	34,909	20,326

As can be seen in this table, the RA introductions in Spanish are considerably shorter, which, as will be shown later, can bring about differences in the com-

[1] In fact, some of the steps of his 1990 model are kept in the rhetorical analysis of the Introductions in English and in Spanish in the corpus under analysis.

plexity and number of steps included in the RAs written in the two different contexts.

The introductions were manually analysed, trying to discern recurring steps and how these could be encompassed under given moves. Throughout this corpus-driven analysis, previous analysed studies outlined in the introduction were taken into account.

RESULTS

The resulting taxonomy upon which the cross-cultural analysis of these business management texts was undertaken is summarised in the figure below:

Move 1: Establishing a territory
Step 1A – Including topic-related information
Step 1B – Claiming centrality
Step 1C – Reviewing previous research

Move 2: Establishing a niche
Step 2A – Counter-claiming
Step 2B – Indicating a gap
Step 2C – Question raising
Step 2D – Continuing a tradition

Move 3: Occupying the niche
Step 3A – Outlining research purpose
Step 3B – Outlining research methods
Step 3C – Outlining major findings
Step 3D – Outlining RA structure
Step 3E – Boosting own contribution

Move 4: Theory and literature review
Step 4A – Clarifying the conceptual or terminological framework
Step 4B – Referencing and/or reviewing previous research
Step 4C – Field-specific knowledge/theory claim
Step 4D – Stating hypotheses/expectations

Figure 1. Moves and steps in the introduction sections of Business Management RAs.

1. ESTABLISHING A TERRITORY:[2] the context of the research to be reported in the RA is outlined by:

1A *Including topic-related information*

(1) While acquisition activity has subsided somewhat over the last two years with the state of the economy and stock market concerns, acquisition activity in the late 1990s totaled nearly one trillion dollars annually on these transactions in the United States alone, and over $3 trillion globally (*Fortune*, November 24, 1997; *The Economist*, July 22, 2000). (*JM*1)

La creación y la mortalidad de empresas se encuentran influenciadas por múltiples factores, por lo que la modificación de éstos a través del tiempo, las diferencias evolutivas entre regiones o la posibilidad de ser aprovechados de maneras distintas según el tipo de actividad emprendida, generan diferencias en las posibilidades de supervivencia de las empresas. (*REDyEE*2)

1B *Claiming centrality*

(2) There are several reasons for studying international modes of entry. First, given the sheer amount of FDI inflows in the world as noted above, it is useful for firms to identify which host country industry factors are important in choosing among the various modes of entry (joint ventures, acquisitions, or greenfield ventures). Second, [...] (*JIM*1)

En los últimos años hemos sido testigos de un creciente interés por el tema de las empresas familiares por parte de los académicos pero también de los empresarios, los profesionales e incluso los medios de comunicación, que comienzan a percatarse de que la empresa familiar significa mucho más que la «tienda de la esquina» y a reconocer la importancia de este tipo de organizaciones para el tejido empresarial de cualquier país del mundo. (*AD*1)

The order of the steps in this first move has been changed from that proposed by Swales because RA introductions in BM more commonly start with topic-related information than with claims for centrality. Further, the headline "topic-related information" has been preferred over "topic generalization" because they are usually not such in the field investigated.

1C *Reviewing previous research*

This reviewing process can be accompanied by the citational sources, as in example 3a, or it may not refer to the authors of the referenced research, as in example 3b below.

[2] Some of the steps are only found in the international RAs in English and not in the Spanish ones. In those cases, no illustrative example is provided in Spanish.

(3)(a) Research on psychological contracts and organizational citizenship behavior has examined the employee-employer exchange relationship, focusing in particular on how extrarole behavior (positive employee behavior that is not employer prescribed) indirectly benefits organizations (e.g., Bateman and Organ, 1983; Organ, 1988; Robinson and Morrison, 1995; Van Dyne and Ang, 1998). (*AMJ*2)

(3)(b) Las aportaciones de la teoría de la empresa basada en los recursos y la visión basada en el conocimiento sugieren que la ventaja competitiva procede de las habilidades y capacidades de la empresa, convirtiéndose el aprendizaje en un aspecto estratégico fundamental. (IE1)

2. ESTABLISHING A NICHE: for a piece of research to gain relevance in the eyes of the peer readers it may be necessary to underline a lack in the literature and the necessity to carry out research in that direction, which can be achieved by:

2A *Counter-claiming*

(4) Most of the research to date has also presumed that the success of the earlier entrants would make it difficult for subsequent entrants to make any significant inroads into the market. More recently, this presumed ability of a pioneering firm to pose hurdles for subsequent entrants seriously questioned. Researchers have begun to identify the specific firm attributes and market conditions that could allow an early entrant to create serious obstacles for firms that may choose to enter later (Carpenter and Nakamoto, 1989, 1990; Fershtman et al., 1990; Golder and Tellis, 1993; Kerin, Kaiyanaram, and Howard, 1996; Kerin, Varadarajan, and Peterson, 1992; Schilling, 2002; Shankar et al., 1998; Zhang and Markman, 1998). The development of such a contingency perspective has pointed out that several different factors other than a firm's order of entry may account for its relative success in continued dominance over the market. (*SMJ*2)

2B *Indicating a gap*

(5) However, no research to date has introduced a conceptual scheme for thinking about which social environmental factors are likely to produce differences in organizational recruitment and selection outcomes (Jackson and Schuler, 1995; Rynes, 1991). (*AMJ*3)

Sin embargo, y centrándonos en el primero de estos enfoques, pocos han sido los trabajos empíricos que se han realizado para estudiar el proceso de toma de decisiones sobre la forma de gobierno de un SI,[2] especialmente en lo que respecta a las principales variables que determinan este tipo de decisiones. (*AD*3)

2C *Question raising*

(6) However, findings from recent studies suggest that some workers are more predisposed to experience emotional exhaustion than others (e.g., Klein

and Verbeke, 1999; Zellars et al., 2000). If individual differences affect the level of emotional exhaustion experienced, do they also affect the degree to which emotional exhaustion impacts work outcomes? (*JM*2)

La mayoría de los trabajos que se mueven en esta línea intentan estudiar cómo las variables que conforman la «relación entre las partes» influyen en la estabilidad y rendimiento de la alianza. Ahora bien, ¿depende realmente el éxito de la cooperación de variables organizativas, o es más bien una consecuencia de otros factores de carácter más estratégico? (*DyO*2)

2D *Continuing a tradition/a line of research*

(7) Building on previous work, and in keeping with a systems view of organizations, we view business strategy, organizational structure, and analytical comprehensiveness (information acquisition and use) as complicating mechanisms comprising internal complexity. (*JM*3)

Nuestra propuesta parte de la elaboración de un modelo conceptual basado en la teoría y la investigación existente sobre el tema de valoración de la marca. A partir de ahí, proponemos un modelo teórico de relaciones causales existentes entre las variables del programa de marketing-mix, entre las que se encuentra el grado de intensidad en la distribución y los componentes del valor de marca (calidad percibida, lealtad hacia la marca, notoriedad del nombre e imagen de marca). (*REDyEE*1)

3. OCCUPYING THE NICHE: once the lack and/or necessity are grounded, the research is presented so that it covers that gap. Some specificities about the research to be presented tend to be included at this point as well.

3A *Outlining research purpose*

(8) The goal of the present study was to introduce social contagion theory and institutional theory conceptual frameworks that allow for the exploration of how and why interfirm social environmental factors influence organizational hiring behavior. (*AMJ*3)

El objetivo de este trabajo será, por tanto, la identificación, la clasificación y el análisis de todos aquellos factores que tienen una influencia significativa, estadísticamente demostrada, en la decisión de externalizar, total o parcialmente, el sistema de información de la empresa. (*AD*3)

3B *Outlining research methods*

(9) First, we studied a different set of behaviors, examining interpersonal workplace aggression rather than antisocial behaviors. In doing so we examined the extent to which an overlapping but distinct set of behaviors functions similarly to the antisocial behaviors investigated in the Robinson and O'Leary-Kelly work. Second, we assessed the influence of individual differences variables relevant to aggression [...] (*AMJ*1)

En este trabajo, empleamos la matriz de los Puntos de Referencia Estratégicos (Fiegenbaum, Hart and Schendel, 1996) como la posición con la cual el directivo podría comparar las variables significativas de su empresa con objeto de determinar cómo percibe la situación relativa de la misma, obtiene la información necesaria y orienta la acción estratégica. (*DyO*3)

3C *Outlining major findings*

(10) Our results suggest that conditions that exist at entry have been overemphasized in the literature on entry timing. Instead, we find that the early success of late movers in penetrating the market is more strongly tied to the resources on which they can draw to make their entry and the relative position that they are able to develop in the market shortly after their entry. (*SMJ*2)

3D *Outlining RA structure*

(11) The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. First, the current state of the hospital industry is described, followed by a discussion of complexity absorption and complexity reduction responses. (*JM*3)

Dados estos objetivos, en el siguiente apartado se precisará el tipo de "efecto halo" analizado en este trabajo y, [...]. A continuación, se describirá la metodología seguida para recabar información de una muestra de usuarios acerca de seis marcas de zapatillas de deporte. En el cuarto apartado, se presentarán los resultados acerca del contraste de las hipótesis formuladas. Finalmente, se discutirán las conclusiones y las implicaciones empresariales que pueden extraerse. (*REDyEE*3)

3E *Boosting own contribution*

(12) Such a study will contribute to future research in two important ways. First, it will help researchers identify the dimensions of industry structure that influence entry mode decisions. Second, this study will contribute to the development of entry mode literature by increasing our understanding of the influence of industry characteristics on a firm's entry strategy. (*JIM*1)

Sin duda, el conocimiento de las variables que inciden en la evolución del síndrome, y aquellas que ayudan a prevenirlo o retrasar su aparición, es la primera de las armas con las que debemos contar a la hora de establecer una estrategia de actuación que tenga como objetivo preservar la salud de los profesionales de enfermería, y por ende una mejor y más humana asistencia a los pacientes con los que trabajan cada día.

La reflexión anterior nos ha motivado en la realización de este trabajo. (*AD*2)

4. THEORY AND LITERATURE REVIEW: at the beginning of the section, previous research is reviewed with the aim of establishing a gap and the necessity to cover that gap. After the research purpose is presented, the particular literature and theoretical framework within which the research is embedded is reviewed. Although Swales

argues that "literature review statements are no longer always separable elements in either placement or in function and so can no longer be automatically used as signals for independent moves as part of a move analysis" (*Research* 227), a close look at the BM RAs in the corpus reveals that they are not only included in the first part of the introduction (constituting Step 1C in Move 1) but they also constitute the core of the final part of this section. They vertebrate the theoretical framework.

4A *Clarifying the conceptual or terminological framework*

(13) Recent years also have seen the growth of highly integrated international firms, called transnationals (Bartlett and Ghoshal, 1986 and Bartlett and Ghoshal, 1989), which operate in dispersed yet unified ways across multiple markets and geographic areas. (*JIM*3)

Se ha defendido de un modo amplio en la literatura especializada que el aprendizaje organizativo no viene dado por la simple suma de aprendizajes individuales (Argyris y Schon, 1978; Hedberg, 1981; Fiol y Lyies, 1985; Nicolini y Meznar, 1995; Marquardt, 1996; Crossan, et al., 1999). Aunque los individuos son los agentes a través de los cuales la organización aprende, el aprendizaje individual debe ser compartido públicamente e integrado en rutinas para ser considerado organizativo. (*IE*1)

4B *Referencing and/or reviewing previous research*

(14) Sharma (2000) found that labeling issues as opportunities was associated with a greater likelihood of a company undertaking voluntary (as opposed to compulsory) environmental strategies. Chattopadhyay et al. (2001) found that threat and opportunity perceptions influenced the degree to which organizations undertook internally directed vs. externally directed actions in response to the issue. This research, along with other studies (e.g., Schneider and De Meyer, 1991; Dennison et al., 1996; Sharma et al., 1999), underscores the importance of threat and opportunity labels for strategic action. (*SMJ*3)

Lindquist (1974) combina modelos obtenidos de 19 estudios diferentes y determina 9 elementos que determinan la imagen de una organización: tipo de productos o servicios ofrecidos, servicio al cliente, clientela, accesibilidad física, confort, promoción o comunicación, ambiente en los locales de la organización, satisfacción con la institución y satisfacción posterior a las relaciones con la organización. Por otro lado, Bearden (1977) sugiere [...]. (*DyO*1)

4C *Field-specific knowledge/theory claim*

(15) The focus of transactions costs theory is efficiency in organizing and structuring transactions. The theory assumes that managers will select the least costly mode of organization and take into account the effects of transaction and production costs. (*JIM*2)

En una empresa, los recursos humanos suponen uno de los más importantes activos con los que cuenta, y de la profesionalidad y eficiencia de éstos dependerá un mejor uso del resto de activos empresariales. (*REDyEE*2)

4D *Stating hypotheses/expectations*

(16) We expect, then, that reputation will have a positive effect on post-transaction outcomes including satisfaction.

H1. Target reputation will be positively related to acquisition outcomes. (*JIM*1)

Una vez establecidas las relaciones entre el nivel percibido de intensidad en la distribución y los componentes del valor de marca, podemos plantear las hipótesis relativas a las relaciones causales entre estas variables:

Hipótesis 1 ($(\gamma_{11}>0)$: La percepción por parte del consumidor del grado de intensidad de la distribución afecta positivamente a la calidad percibida de una marca.

Hipótesis 2 ($\gamma_{21}>0$): La percepción por parte del consumidor del grado de intensidad de la distribución afecta positivamente a la calidad percibida de una marca. (*REDyEE*1)

In this fourth move, concepts are clarified and the scholars' interpretation of certain terms is specified, past research is either referred to or more thoroughly reviewed, and theoretical and field-specific knowledge claims and clarifications are made. All this information tends to conclude in the statement of a hypothesis or expectation. In the RAs in English this move is usually cyclical, the number of cycles being dependent on the number of hypotheses established. In the Spanish sub-corpus this move is also included, although, as will be shown later, in fewer RAs; it is also less cyclical in this sub-corpus. The conceptual and terminological clarifications, the reviewing of previous research and the field-specific knowledge claims tend to be condensed in the Spanish introductions and hypotheses tend to be presented together after the theory and literature review is covered.

In line with Linderberg's findings for RA introductions in Marketing, BM and Finance, new steps emerge, which Swales (*Genre*; *Research*) or other previous scholars do not report. Steps outlined by Linderberg that are found in the corpus are: "Field-specific knowledge/theory claim"[3] and "Boosting own research." Further, Duszak's finding that conceptual-terminological provision-making is an important contribution in introductions of papers on language(-related) issues seems to find support here for a different social science, as it can constitute a new step in the fourth move. She states that this step may be highly valued since it "testifies to the author's expertise in the field, and to his/her mastery of the rhetoric of academic writing" (307). This may be a reason why it is included especially in international BM RAs in English. Moreover, it can be argued that a wide, international and sup-

[3] Linderberg establishes a more general step "major knowledge claim."

posedly heterogeneous readership may need a clearer explanation of the scholars' theoretical framework and how they interpret certain concepts and terminology.

The following table summarises the extent to which the moves and corresponding steps highlighted above are included in each of the English BM RA introductions under analysis.

TABLE 2. STEPS IN THE INTRODUCTION SECTION OF THE BM RAS IN ENGLISH

	ENGLISH SUB-CORPUS															
	1A	1B	1C	2A	2B	2C	2D	3A	3B	3C	3D	3E	4A	4B	4C	4D	TOTAL
AMJ1	+	+	+		+			+	+				+	+	+	+	10
AMJ2	+	+	+		+			+					+	+	+	+	9
AMJ3	+	+	+		+			+	+				+	+	+	+	11
JM1	+	+	+		+			+	+				+	+	+	+	10
JM2	+	+	+			+		+					+	+	+	+	9
JM3	+	+	+				+	+			+	+	+	+	+	+	11
SMJ1	+	+	+					+			+		+	+	+	+	9
SMJ2		+	+	+	+			+		+	+		+	+	+	+	11
SMJ3		+	+		+			+		+			+	+	+	+	9
JIM1	+	+	+		+			+			+	+	+	+	+	+	11
JIM2	+	+	+				+	+				+	+	+	+	+	10
JIM3	+	+	+		+			+	+				+	+	+	+	10
TOTAL	10	12	12	1	8	1	2	12	4	2	4	3	12	12	12	12	

All RAs in English in the corpus start by establishing the territory for the research (move 1). Most of them start off by including some information related to the topic (step 1A), focusing the readers' attention and setting the scene. All of them review previous research at the beginning of the section (step 1C)—in most cases outlining its limitations and indicating its source— and claim centrality by outlining the need and relevance of the research they are to present (step 1B). Further, all RA introductions in English but one present a niche (move 2). Most commonly, this is established by indicating a gap in the literature (step 2B); only in one RA introduction a counter-claim (step 2A) or a question is posed (step 2C) and in two introductions the continuation of a tradition is outlined (step 2D). Whereas all RA introductions present the announcement of the research purpose or goal (step 3A), only a few include the research methods (step 3B), an outline of the major findings (step 3C), the structure of the RA (step 3D) or some boosting of their own contribution, achieved mainly by means of positive attitude markers (step 3E).

Finally, it seems compulsory for BM RAs published in English internationally to cover the main theoretical points and previous research within the sub-field in which their research is embedded (move 4). In all BM RAs in English this move contains four recurrent steps organised cyclically.

Table 3 summarises the inclusion of moves and steps in the BM RA introductions in Spanish.

TABLE 3. STEPS IN THE INTRODUCTION SECTION OF THE BM RAS IN SPANISH

	SPANISH SUB-CORPUS																
	1A	1B	1C	2A	2B	2C	2D	3A	3B	3C	3D	3E	4A	4B	4C	4D	TOTAL
AD1	+	+						+									3
AD2	+							+				+					3
AD3	+	+	+		+			+			+		+	+	+		9
DyO1	+		+					+					+	+	+	+	7
DyO2	+		+			+		+			+		+	+	+	+	9
DyO3	+		+					+	+				+	+	+		7
REDyEE1							+	+	+				+	+	+	+	7
REDyEE2	+		+				+	+					+		+		6
REDyEE3	+		+					+			+		+	+	+	+	8
IE1	+		+		+			+	+				+	+	+	+	9
IE2	+		+											+		+	4
IE3	+				+			+	+								4
TOTAL	11	2	8	0	3	1	2	11	4	0	3	1	8	8	8	6	

As in the English sub-corpus, all RAs in Spanish start by establishing the territory, that is, establishing the context in which the research to be reported is circumscribed. However, in general terms, that contextualization is more detailed and specific in the RAs in English. Whereas all American-based BM scholars claim the centrality of the topic being analysed and review previous work done, only 2 Spanish RAs include step 1B ("Claiming centrality") and 4 do not include step 1C ("Reviewing previous research"). In view of these results, it can be said that the specific context of the research is also established in the BM RAs in Spanish but more briefly, and including fewer steps, than in the international BM RAs in English.

Not even half of the RAs constituting the sub-corpus in Spanish establish a niche (move 2). In addition, only 3 RAs in Spanish do so by indicating a gap (step 2B); one RA in Spanish includes a question that is intended to be answered by the research reported (Step 2C) and 2 RAs indirectly express the intention to work on

the same line of research they previously review (Step 2D). Including this move in the Spanish Business Management RA introductions, unlike in the English ones, does not seem to be a common practice. This result is in line with Burgess' cross-cultural analysis of language studies RA introductions. As she also posits, it appears that the greater amount of research published in the international sphere and the high level of competitiveness in publishing an RA internationally presumably calls for a prior identification of a lack in the field that motivates the research.

Outlining the research purpose (Step 3A) also appears to be a compulsory step in the BM RAs in Spanish. The same number of RAs in Spanish and in English include an outline of the research methods (step 3B) and almost the same number include an outline of the RA structure (step 3D). In none of the Spanish BM RAs, however, are major findings announced (step 3C). In any case, this is not a common step in the English sub-corpus either. It also stems from the comparison that whereas all international RAs in English open with some claim to the centrality of the topic to be discussed and researched, only 2 RAs in Spanish include such details (step 1B).

Also outstanding differences between the two sub-corpora are found in relation to move 4, which is omitted altogether in 3 RAs in Spanish. Only 5 RAs in Spanish contain the four steps. The greatest difference lies in the inclusion of numbered hypotheses (Step 4D). Whereas all RA introductions in English include a line of argument that leads to the presentation of one or several hypotheses, this is only the case in 6 RAs in Spanish. Further, clarifications of concepts and terms (Step 4A) are not so frequent in Spanish BM introductions. Finally, neither is as frequent as the reviewing of specific previous work (Step 1C).

FINAL REMARKS

All in all BM RA introductions (both in English and in Spanish) present particular rhetorical characteristics, in some cases partly diverging from Swales' CARS model. Some of these particularities have already been outlined by scholars analysing RAs in the social sciences, but some others seem to be characteristic of this particular field. These results provide further evidence to claim that the rhetorical micro-structure of this section varies in relation to the field to which the RA belongs.

Rhetorical differences in the micro-structure of BM RA introductions in both sub-corpora are found, mainly as regards "Claiming centrality" (step 1B), "Indicating a gap" (step 2B) and "Theory and literature review" (move 4). It seems that international BM RAs need to specifically justify the topic of their research in terms of its importance and relevance, which they tend to do at the beginning of their RAs. In the same line, establishing a niche seems crucial in the BM RA introductions in English and this is usually accomplished by indicating a research space or gap. This indication of a gap may help authors convince their readers of the novelty and necessity to do research on the topic chosen, thus persuasively convincing them of their valuable purpose. Because there is less competition to get research

published in a national context, the need to be persuasive may be less urgent. Thus, in this socio-cultural context having to convince readers of the fact that they are pushing the field onwards as they have detected an unresearched space may not be such an important rhetorical strategy. In addition, move 4 is to be considered compulsory in the BM RAs in English, as it is included in all RAs in the corpus. However, it may not be regarded as such in the Spanish sub-corpus, since some of the Spanish BM RAs do not present any of the four steps which constitute it. The wide, heterogeneous, international readership which may read the RAs in English may require American-based BM scholars to clearly specify the framework of their research and to spell out the hypotheses to be tested; in contrast, Spanish BM scholars may be working on a more common, shared understanding with the smaller, local readership they address to and therefore their need to clarify the bases of their research may be less strong. Further, it could be claimed that, although the BM RAs analysed are empirical in nature, when these are published for the international community, the research nevertheless needs to be well-theoretically grounded and precisely positioned within the field. On the whole, the rhetorical structure of the introduction section seems to be dependent not only on the specific disciplinary nature of the RAs analysed but also on the cultural context in which they are written, and more specifically, on the kind of readership they are addressed to.

The results have important pedagogical implications. First, novel scholars may need to be made aware of the specific rhetorical structure of this section of the RA in this particular discipline. Second, non-native scholars may need to be made aware of the possible different rhetorical expectations in the international context in English from the ones in the national context they may be acquainted with. These differences should be highlighted so that they can, if they consider it necessary, adjust their rhetorical conventions to the ones more highly valued/ frequent in the new context of publication; especially in cases where lack of adjustment or accommodation may hinder publication or, once published, may refrain its reading and therefore its dissemination as new disciplinary knowledge.

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THE TRANSLATOR'S "OFERMOD": RECONSIDERING *MALDON*'S "FOR HIS OFERMODE" (89) IN TRANSLATION THROUGH J.R.R. TOLKIEN'S *THE HOMECOMING OF BEORHTNOTH*[*]

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ABSTRACT

J.R.R. Tolkien's *The Homecoming of Beorhtnoth* (1953) originated as his academic attempt to explain the meaning of *Maldon*'s "ofermod" and established a classic critical referent on *Maldon*. Notwithstanding, although critics have always revisited the meaning of "ofermod," very few attempts have been made —or hardly any— to evaluate how translators of OE poetry have dealt with interpreting "ofermod" in *The Battle of Maldon*. The main aim of this article is to revise how such a task has been accomplished by the main English and Spanish translations of the *The Battle of Maldon* in the light of the interpretative difficulties of "ofermod" established by Tolkien and by the critical tradition that followed his seminal essay. As a conclusion, I will also try to argue that the only way of presenting *The Homecoming of Beorhtnoth* to the reading audience of any language is by offering them a joint edition/translation that includes both Tolkien's text and *The Battle of Maldon*.

KEY WORDS: *The Battle of Maldon*, J.R.R. Tolkien, *The Homecoming of Beorhtnoth*, OE poetry in translation, OE "ofermod."

RESUMEN

The Homecoming of Beorhtnoth (1953) de J.R.R. Tolkien, surgió como su intento académico de explicar el significado de "ofermod" en *Maldon*, y al mismo tiempo se convirtió en un referente critico clásico sobre el poema. Sin embargo, aunque la crítica especializada siempre ha analizado en repetidas ocasiones el significado del término "ofermod," existen muy pocos trabajos, o casi ninguno, que hayan analizado como los diversos traductores de poesía del inglés antiguo han tratado el tema de la interpretación del término "ofermod" en *Maldon*. El objetivo principal del presente artículo es revisar cómo dicha tarea se ha llevado a cabo en las principales traducciones al inglés y al español de *The Battle of Maldon* a la luz de las dificultades interpretativas de "ofermod" establecidas por Tolkien y por la tradición crítica que surgió de su obra fundamental. A modo de conclusión, trataré de argumentar que la única forma de presentarle *The Homecoming of Beorhtnoth* al público lector de cualquier lengua es mediante la publicación de una edición/traducción conjunta que incluya el texto de Tolkien y *The Battle of Maldon*.

PALABRAS CLAVE: *The Battle of Maldon*, J.R.R. Tolkien, *The Homecoming of Beorhtnoth*, poesía del inglés antiguo en traducción, OE "ofermod."

1. PRELIMINARY WORDS: LITERARY MUSE AND SCHOLARLY GENIUS

In a recent article on Tolkien's *The Homecoming of Beorhtnoth* (*HB*), Thomas Honegger stated that "*HB* is one of the rare known instances where it seems that Tolkien's literary muse inspires his scholarly genius —or at least, helps him to develop and clarify his ideas" (11). Those ideas were mainly focused on one of the poem's main key points: the meaning of the word "ofermod." If translating Old English constitutes a thought-provoking process of interpretation and a target language-focused problem-solving task, when translating *Maldon* the rendering of "ofermod" is by all means one of the main cruxes of the poem. Tolkien's ideas on "ofermod" ("Homecoming") established a classic critical referent on *Maldon* (Shippey; Frank 204). Notwithstanding, although critics have always revisited the meaning of "ofermod"—i.e. the "once again" present in Gneuss was very revealing of how traditional such a topic became with the passing of time—very few attempts have been made—or hardly any—to evaluate how translators of OE poetry have dealt with interpreting "ofermod" in *Maldon*.

The main aim of this article is to revise how such a task has been accomplished by the main English (Treharne; Hamer; Rodrigues; Crossley-Holland; Barber; Bradley; Griffiths; and Marsden) and Spanish (Lerate and Lerate; Bravo) translations of the *The Battle of Maldon* in the light of the interpretative difficulties of "ofermod" established by Tolkien and by the critical tradition that followed his seminal essay. Let's begin, then, by briefly revising the latter before dealing with the former in more detail.

2. J.R.R. TOLKIEN'S *HOMECOMING OF BEORHTNOTH*: EXPANDING HIS "OFERMOD"

Tolkien's *HB* (1953) originated as his academic attempt to explain the meaning of *Maldon*'s "ofermod," a word which held the keys to unlock some of the poem's interpretations. When developing such an attempt Tolkien realized that the best way to shed some light on the term was to complete his academic evaluation with his own literary creation: a dramatic dialogue written in alliterative verse that

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functioned as the poem's sequel, preceded by a prefatory note on the historical and literary background of the text and closed with the famous endnote on the OE term "ofermod." This literary afterthought guided him, as Honegger pointed out quite correctly, to present in a very clear way his own ideas both on "ofermod" and on *Maldon* as a whole.

It is not my intention to offer here an in-depth analysis of *HB*. For the aims of this article, suffice it to say that Tolkien establishes a condemnation of Beorhtnoth's pride based on his interpretation of "ofermod" as a negatively connoted term which brought a new aspect to the understanding of *Maldon* as a whole: the object of *Maldon*'s heroic praise is not Beorhtnoth but his loyal and faithful retainers. As Honneger and Shippey have quite correctly pointed out, Tolkien's endnote and dramatic dialogue focused on "ofermod." Beorhtnoth's failure comes through pride, and pride itself is the thread that builds *Maldon* and links the three parts of *HB*. "Pride" as a term to be defined worried Tolkien very much in the different stages of the writing of *HB*. Draft after draft Tolkien began to focus and refined his ideas on "ofermod" as "pride." Tolkien's critique of pride developed, as it can be seen not only in the dramatic dialogue he built to provide a literary explanation of his ideas but also in both notes: prefatory and ending. "Pride," "proud refusal," "personal pride," "proud" and related words are terms that appear in almost every paragraph in both parts of *HB*. They build the idea that "ofermod" triggers the dramatic outcome of the story and for Tolkien "ofermod" is pride leading to excess. Although it will be discussed later on in more detail, the translation he offered, "his overmastering pride," is somewhat excessive and perhaps goes too far, but maybe it does so out of Tolkien's excessive effort to firmly establish his position as far as "ofermod" was concerned. As he did not find an easy way to explain it, his scholarly genius guided him to the writing of *HB*, as I have just pointed out.

Tolkien's *HB* conceals a deep criticism of the Old English heroic spirit, which cannot be fully dealt with in this article.[1] But it is beyond doubt that "ofermod" and its understanding constitute a capital issue when it comes to translate, render or offer an interpretation of *Maldon.* He established that quite clearly in his 1953 seminal essay. What *The Monsters and the Critics* had been for *Beowulf*'s academic evaluation was offered for *The Battle of Maldon* with *The Homecoming of Beorhtnoth*. Since "ofermod" is the key let us revise then how the different translators have dealt with the content and structure of *Maldon*'s term.

3. THE TRANSLATORS' *OFERMOD*: THE FRAGMENT AND THE EPISODE

Using as a metaphor the title of another very known work of Tolkien —*Finn and Hengest*: *The Fragment and the Episode*—we could say here that we can also

[1] Tom Shippey offers an extensive discussion on this topic.

analyse the renderings of "ofermod" by paying attention first to the fragment, i.e. the word "ofermod," and then to the episode, i.e. the sentence in which it appears. As it happens with every word or difficult term in Old English poetry, it never appears in isolation. "ofermod" will be as important as its context: the sentence in which the word is inserted that conforms lines 89-90 of *The Battle of Maldon*. Tolkien had seen that already. A good amount of his "ofermod" explanation in *HB* was devoted to revise the whole sentence. Let's proceed then step by step.

3.1. The Fragment: The Word "Ofermod" in Itself

First, back to basics. A dictionary, to start with; the first approach when facing a difficult term consists in checking the word up in a dictionary. Bosworth and Toller[2] defined "ofermod" as follows:

> ofer-mód, es ; *n*. I. *pride, arrogance, over-confidence :*— Feala worda gespæc se engel ofermódes, Cd. Th. 18, 12 ; Gen. 272. Đá se eorl ongan for his ofermódes álýfan landes tó fela láđere þeóde, Byrht. Th. 134, 25 ; By. 89. [Gif hwa nulle for his ouermoð, oðer for his prude … his scrift ihalden, O. E. Homl. i. 9, 30.] II. *a high style* (?) :— Ofermód *conturnus*, Wrt. Voc. i. 19, 5. [*O. H. Ger.* ubar-muot *superbia : Ger.* über-muth.] v. ofer-méde, -métto. (734)

Fig 1.

As it may be seen, "pride" comes first, together with "arrogance" and "over-confidence," and one of the examples quoted for its usage is precisely the key sentence in *Maldon*. Almost all the critical studies that revised and analysed the poem and its translations relied on these meanings (Gneuss 152). After revising all the scholarly tradition on the topic, analysing the five possible groups of meaning[3] and

[2] The standard bibliographical reference of the Bosworth and Toller dictionary is provided in the reference list placed at the end of this article. The contents of the Bosworth and Toller dictionary are also available in different websites to be either used online or downloaded. These are two of the most frequently used B & T websites: <http://beowulf.engl.uky.edu/~kiernan/BT/Bosworth-Toller.htm> and <http://lexicon.ff.cuni.cz/app/list.htm>.

[3] Gneuss offered them as follows: "I am well aware that I am oversimplifying the results of previous work by arranging the various translations in five apparently clear-cut sense-groups. But I hope that the remarks following the list will help to avoid misunderstandings. The five groups of proposed meanings are: 1. pride, great pride, excessive pride, foolhardy pride; arrogance, haughtiness, disdain; overweening courage; 2. overconfidence, superb self-confidence; 3a. recklessness, rashness, rash courage, foolhardiness. Ger. *Übermaut* (=high spirits, wantonness, exuberance?); 3b. over-courage, overboldness; 4. great, high courage; 5. magnanimity, greatness of heart, over-generosity" (150). These groups are very well explained and criticised by Gneuss' remarks, which as he said "avoided misunderstandings," as the five groups are not equally valid.

comparing the term with other words, synonyms and languages, Helmut Genuss concluded in his superb article—another landmark in the history of the critical analysis of "ofermod"—that, "although it seems impossible to assign one definite sense to our OE word with absolute certainty, all evidence we have points to "pride" in particular" (157). Then, he listed a higly-well documented series of arguments to back up his statement.[4] "Pride," then, is always the main issue of the discussion.

Still, the question hanged around. When Gneuss re-issued his seminal essay (originally published in 1976) no further "addendum" was included as far as "ofermod" was concerned between 1976 and 1994. I do not know if such exclusion had an academic (no works published in that time span that added something valuable to the discussion) or editorial motive (no space available in the volume to enlarge the articles reissued). Be that as it may, although new sources were available, I think that they simply back up the meanings and explanations already presented since Tolkien first discussed the term. The *Dictionary of Old English* at Toronto[5] has reached letter G so it is still far from "ofermod"—so, we'll have to wait and see—and Roberts, Kay, and Grundy's *Thesaurus of Old English* define it mainly as "Pride, arrogance," "Proud, arrogant" (419-420, 1224), and as Solopova and Lee appropriately mentioned:

> a series of derivations of the word, all implying the same meaning. If we turn to the Old English Corpus and search for 'ofermod' we see that the word occurs 360 times in the surviving texts, used in both prose and poetry. In the majority of occasions it clearly seems to be a critical reference to someone's pride. Therefore, we could argue that the evidence supports the idea that the poet of Maldon was being critical of Byrhtnoth. (225)

Although "ofermod" is a complex term, which allows for fine tuning and subtleties in its interpretation, it seems that its meaning is always focused on "pride" as something negative. But, is it just "pride" or "pride" and something else? Has "pride" to be qualified? Notwithstanding, as Shippey says and everybody knows, "there is no doubt that 'ofer' means 'over', while 'mod' means 'courage'" (331), but sometimes the whole is not the sum of the parts. These meanings are correct but it is true that many other senses are equally accurate. Despite the fact that the sum of

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[4] Gneuss: "1. 'ofermod' (noun) can only mean 'pride' in *Genesis B*, *Instructions for Christians*, and a glossary, i.e. wherever it occurs; 2. the phrase 'for his ofermode' is found in *Maldon* and 'Instructions'; 3. the OE adjective 'ofermod' denotes 'proud' in more than 120 instances; nowhere can it be shown to have a sense like 'bold, courageous, magnanimous,' etc; 4. the Old Saxon and Old High German equivalents of OE 'ofermod' (noun and adjective) are always used with the sense of 'pride, proud' in extant written records; 5. there is no evidence whatsoever to prove that 'ofermod' (noun) could have a signification like 'recklessness,' 'over-courage,' 'great courage,' 'magnanimity'; 6. the context in which 'ofermod' appears in *The Battle of Maldon* makes it likely that the word is a term of criticism, if not of reproach;' lytegian' (86) and 'alyfan landes to fela' (90) clearly point to an error of judgment committed Byrhtnoth" (157).

[5] Available online at <http://www.doe.utoronto.ca/>.

both parts may be found in the origin of the term, scholars have clearly set that there is no evidence whatsoever to prove that in the noun "ofermod," has the extra meaning of "great" or "over." Agreement in this is almost worldwide. Even Tolkien's "overmastering pride," as I'll revise later on, is meaningful. In any case, "overmastering pride" is not "overpride," "excess of pride" or "overcourage," something which is totally unacceptable according to philological evidence. As Gneuss (158) concludes very appropriately "on the whole, "pride" with its various shades of meanings seems the best solution to a philological puzzle that had its origins almost a thousand years ago."

In 1976 Gneuss quoted 36 translations of *Maldon*. Since then, until the reprinting of its article in 1994, it is most certain that a very good number of translations have been published, and since 1994 up till now many more renderings have seen the light of day in printed form or through electronic media. The corpus of translations I have used in here has been compiled with the main English and Spanish translations, those that have been more frequently quoted and used by scholars and critics in recent times. As far as I have been able to trace, exception made of Hamer's, not a single one had been revised in previous works on *Maldon*'s "ofermod." These various shades of meanings are always the key to interpret and render the term. Let us, then, consider what shadows and meanings are unveiled in the translations I want to revise, as table 1 shows:

It seems that we are faced with two main basic trends: those translators who stick to "ofermod" as "pride" (T, R, S) and those who qualify "pride" with some sort of heavy adjectival modification (H, CH, B, G, M). The former group offers a correct approach—in fact the same phrase in the three of them—with the adequate sense "ofermod" has to present, as we have seen. The latter group, though qualifying "pride," presents that modification in different ways. Hamer, Griffiths and some of the options noted by Marsden emphasize what Gneuss marked as not attested: "there is no evidence whatsoever to prove that 'ofermod' could have a signification like over-courage, great courage" (157). That is why the "over-confidence"/"overpride" options will not be appropriate at all. Bradley, as he opts for prose, is prone to excessive expansion; his "extravagant spirit" constitutes by all means an example of what I mentioned before when highlighting that on certain occasions the whole was not the sum of the parts. Certainly, one of the most frequent meanings of "mod" is "spirit"; but in "ofermod" that meaning is absent. Something different is to keep "pride" and offer some sort of adjectival modification. Tolkien's own "overmastering pride" will be ascribed to this trend, also followed here by Crossley-Holland; his "foolhardy pride," though, is—as you may check by revising other translations he made—also typical of his being prone to expansion and exaggeration as a translator. The Spanish case is most curious because can be ascribed to neither trend. Bravo, in his characteristic explanatory prosaic style, present the reader with the phrase "debido a su confianza," which looks more an adaptation of the Modern English sense of "over-confidence" than a translation from Old English. Lerate and Lerate, with their "valeroso en exceso," will be rendering the "excess of courage" that Marsden pointed out as one of the many possible options; but following the evidence attested by the scholarly tradition, Gneuss and Tolkien ("Home-

TABLE 1: ENGLISH AND SPANISH "OFERMODE"		
	TRANSLATIONS	OE "FOR HIS 'OFERMODE'"
English	Treharne (T)	"because of his pride"
	Hamer (H)	"in his over-confidence"
	Rodrigues (R)	"because of his pride"
	Crossley-Holland (CH)	"in foolhardy pride"
	Bradley (B)	"because of his extravagant spirit"
	Griffiths (G)	Lit. "on account of his over-confidence" Verse. "from over-confidence"
	Scragg (S)	"because of his pride"
	Marsden (M)[6]	"over-pride" "too much pride" "over-exuberance" "excess of courage"
Spanish	Lerate & Lerate (L)	"valeroso en exceso"
	Bravo (Br)	"debido a su confianza"

coming") among others, this meaning will be out of place. Both Spanish translators avoid the word "orgullo," which will be a more fitting option in any Spanish version that wanted to abide by the original "ofermod."

In any case, I have already mentioned that it is difficult and most absurd to discuss any meaning in isolation. Those who kept "pride," will they complete its meaning by twisting the sense of the whole sentence? Those who have already qualified "pride" with an extra heavy adjective, what options will they select next? It is

[6] Marsden's magnificent book is not a translation but an OE reader. It offers texts in Old English with an introduction, glosses and explanatory footnotes. Since it is a very recent work and the footnote on "ofermod" is most interesting, I have decided to include it in my revision. As you may read, Marsden's footnote offers the "ofermod" translatorial/interpretative debate in a very convenient, though not very adequate, nutshell: "89 'ofermode': usually trans. as 'overpride' or 'too much pride,' but 'over-exuberance' or 'excess of courage' may be more apt. Although Byrhtnoth's decision to allow the Vikings across the causeway turns out to be a tactical error, the vaunting courage and belligerence which he has already displayed, and of which this present behaviour is an extension, cannot be faulted either within the conventions of heroic story or in the context of a dire period in English history, when cowardice in the face of the enemy was the norm. In his general demeanour, Byrhtnoth is proud but not arrogant" (258).

necessary to revise, then, the whole sentential context. Let us analyze the episode in its entirety.

3.2. The Episode: Sentential Context (89-90)

The translators of both target languages have presented the structure of the sentence contained in lines 89-90 in the arrangement shown in table 2:

TABLE 2: ENGLISH TRANSLATIONS (57-59)

		OE *Maldon* (89-90)
	Translations	"ða se eorl ongan for his ofermode alyfan landes to fela laþere ðeode."
English	Treharne (T)	Then the earl, because of his pride, began to allow too much land to a more hateful nation.
	Hamer (H)	Then in his over-confidence the earl Yielded to the invaders too much land.
	Rodrigues (R)	Then because of his pride the "eorl" began to allow the loathsome people too much land;
	Crossley-Holland (CH)	Then, in foolhardy pride, the earl allowed those hateful people access to the ford.
	Bradley (B)	Then the earl, because of his extravagant spirit, yielded too much terrain to a more despicable people.
	Griffiths (G)	Then the earl from over-confidence gave too much room to that ruthless band of men.
	Scragg (S)	Then because of his pride the earl set about allowing the hateful race too much land;
	Marsden (M)	"No translation offered"
Spanish	Lerate & Lerate (L)	Demasiado terreno el "eorl" cedió, valeroso en exceso, a la odiosa gente.
	Bravo (Br)	Entonces el caudillo, debido a su confianza, comenzó a ceder terreno a toda aquella odiosa turba.

As regards constituent order, there is no much difference. While some translators opt for focalizing the first line on "ofermod" (H, R, CH, S), others (T, B, G)

keep it in its sentential place just adding the "eorl" reference at the front of the line. Perhaps, those who put "ofermod" first in the line highlight the relevance of the term, which constitutes a valid option if you keep "pride" as its meaning. This is only done by Rodrigues and Scragg. Hamer and Crossley-Holland, with their respective "over-confidence" and "foolhardy pride," are already amplifying the sense of "ofermod," so that focalization will only offer a double qualification of the term that is by all means excessive. Having a look at the rest of the cases, only Treharne abides by a certain poetic sense. In this respect there is not much difference. In the Spanish renderings this issue is completely irrelevant, as we face with two different styles: one prosaic (Br), poetic the other (L), though subject to a very rigid and hard verse structure which forces the translation to be more focused on the land loss than on the incorrect "ofermod" that follows.

However, it is much more interesting to go on, finish the sentence and with it the meaning of the whole episode. The scholarly tradition on *Maldon* has always agreed with the fact that Byrhtnoth was criticized by the poet because he allowed the Vikings too much ground to fight the battle, doing so "for his ofermode." If "ofermod" is problematic, perhaps the action in itself is established with more clarity. Revising the translation of the actions which shaped what I have called "the episode" will certainly give us more elements to judge the renderings properly. In this respect Fred Robinson pointed out that

> Byrhtnoth is clearly stated to have made an error when he committed his troops to a battle in which the enemy were allowed to have free passage across the river and take up positions before the Englishmen could begin their defense. One may argue over the meanings of "lytegian" and "ofermod" (although Professor Helmut Gneuss has provided virtually certain evidence that the latter word means "pride" and the poet's use of "ofermod" signals a criticism of Byrhtnoth's generalship), but the phrase "landes to fela" admits no doubt. Byrhtnoth erred. (435)

If "ofermod" designates Byrhtnoth"s intention and criticises his actions, the verb used in the main sentence is also marking, modifying or qualifying his intentions; the way the Vikings are treated will qualify the whole sentence too. And in this we do have some differences among translators, as it may be checked in the preceding table.

It is not the same to consider "alyfan" as "allow," "yield" or "gave." "Yield" constitutes an excessive option, as in a military context the word has a very clear negative sense; the battle seems to have been already lost. It is true that Byrhtnoth"s actions lead to that, but this line of text does not say so. That fact is criticised by the poet later on in the text. The poet's criticism lies on what Byrhtnoth does and why he does it. To translate "alyfan" as "yield" is a clear distortion of the gradation the poet is giving to Byrhtnoth's actions. Hamer and Bradley use "yield" and this fact combined with their "over-confidence" and "extravagant spirit" provides their translations with a rather extravagant and excessive style. Those who offer "allow" (T, R, CH, S) and "gave" (G) opt for a more neutral sense; they just describe the fact, as "alyfan" does, so these are far more accurate options. It is very interesting to note

that, exception made of Crossley-Holand, those who opted for "allow" are the same translators who respected the meaning of "ofermod" as "pride," obtaining a perfect and accurate fusion of the fragment with the episode. In Spanish the "ceder" solution, which both translators offer, is not incorrect, but in a military context I think it is perhaps more negatively marked than what "alyfan" means. Other options would have to be considered.

The second element of the fragment—i.e. the treatment of the Vikings and the "laþere ðeode"—establishes the degree of accuracy or inadequacy of its translation. Both "lað" and "ðeode" have different translatorial possibilities but the way we combine both terms marks a very clear sense of gradation. The Spanish case is again quite clear: both renderings present "odioso" and perhaps "gente" is more accurate than "turba," which has a sense of lack of definition and exaggeration that excessively highlights something already covered by "lað." In English, Griffiths, Bradley and Hamer will be placed out of the general trend. Griffith's "ruthless band of men" is a very excessive phrase that combined with the rest of his options give as a result a not so satisfactory tone. Bradley's "despicable people" is correct but its insertion in a prose sentence and the excessive "extravagant spirit" and "yield" turn the final result into something that bears little resemblance to the original Old English tone. Hamer opts for a reduced "invaders," which again gathers what the Vikings were but do not maintain what the text expressed in "laþere ðeode." With "over-confidence," "yielded" and "invaders," Hamer fails to offer an acceptable sentence. The rest of translators display acceptable variations within the most accepted meanings of lað" and "ðeode" in different combinations: "hateful nation" (T), "loathsome people "(R), "hateful people" (CH), "hateful race" (S). It is very curious to see again how the same translators who used "allow" opt now for a correct and accurate rendering of the Vikings (T, R, CH, S).

Thus, revising all the elements analyzed in the fragment and the episode, Crossley-Holand offers a very adequate version that perhaps is somewhat excessive by using "foolhardy" and by displaying some contextual rewriting—e.g. "access to the ford" explains the original rather than translating it. Undoubtedly, Treharne, Rodrigues and Scragg offer the renderings that not only translate more effectively the Old English verse of *Maldon* in lines 89-90 with the meanings they have in that precise moment of the text but also gather what has been explained by the scholarly tradition of the last decades that sprung mainly from Tolkien's essay. To that work I want to go back briefly before offering some final remarks.

At the beginning of this article I pointed out that in *HB* Tolkien ("Homecoming") provided a translation of *Maldon* 89-90 in the endnote devoted to explain "ofermod." It read as follows: "then the earl in his overmastering pride actually yielded ground to the enemy, as he should not have done." As I said earlier, this rendering is somewhat excessive and goes to far as it presents the three problems/mistakes that have been dealt with so far ("overmastering pride" for "ofermod," "yield" for "alyfan" and "enemy" for "laþere ðeode") and adds a new one: a coda, created by Tolkien, which does not appear in the Old English text: "as he should not have done." However, I think all this contains the reasons that explain why *HB* is not only a magnificent literary work but also a seminal essay to understand

"ofermod" and *Maldon*. To describe those reasons, as a sort of conclusion to what has been stated so far, will be the aim of the following final words.

4. FINAL WORDS. "MOD SCEAL ÞE MARE, ÞE URE MÆGEN LYTLAÐ"

Discussing Tolkien's "more than liberal translation" of these key lines and its philological inaccuracy, Honegger stated the following:

> Tolkien was, of course, aware of this and defends his rendering some pages later (TL 146) as "accurate in representing the force and implications of his words" and this anticipating the conclusion reached by his discussion of the central term "ofermod." (6-7)

Tolkien is not translating the whole poem. I think he renders these key lines 89-90 with this explanatory translation precisely to highlight the tremendous difficulty presented in understanding "ofermod" and the sentence it is included in. I agree with Honegger in the aforementioned statement. Not only Tolkien anticipates his conclusions with the rendering he offers but also illustrates the impossibility to translate with the accuracy the term needed—in his opinion—by offering a rendering that presents three very clear inaccuracies in the three problems I have defined as the main keys to unlock lines 89-90 of *Maldon*, plus a fourth one: a sentence which has no equivalent whatsoever in the Old English text.

As the expert in Old English he was, Tolkien was well aware of what he was doing. By presenting these mistakes he was justifying his ideas, defending the need to compose a new poetic text, a dramatic dialogue free from academic regulations and standards, to explain the whys and wherefores not only of Byrhtnoth's fatal decision but of the implications of that mistake in the overall text of *The Battle of Maldon*. Tolkien explains the fragment and the episode contained in lines 89-90 not in his translation but through the words of Tidwald, one of the speakers of his poetic dialogue *The Homecoming of Beorhtnoth*:

> Tidwald.
> (…)
> Too proud, too princely! But his pride's cheated,
> and his princedom has passed, so we"ll praise his valour.
> He let them cross the causeway, so keen was he
> to give minstrels matter for mighty songs.
> Needlessly noble. (*Tree* 137)

These lines constitute Tolkien's correct translation of *Maldon*'s episode. His previous "more than liberal translation" also justifies the need to complete his poetic creation with the academic endnote as a way to validate his ideas on "ofermod." As Tom Shippey mentioned: "The only way he could explain one poem was by himself writing another" (339). For Tolkien, *Maldon* and "ofermod" can only be ex-

plained through *The Homecoming of Beorhtnoth* in its entirety. Tolkien's literary muse inspired his scholarly genius with a piece that became a fundamental and seminal work for the scholarly tradition that came after him.[7]

John D. Niles once said that one of the possible ways to read *Maldon* was as an example of mythopoesis (445)—a very Tolkienian term[8]—in late Anglo-Saxon England. When explaining lines 89-90, Niles stated the following:

> Byrhtnoth offers "too much land" to the Vikings ("landes to fela," 90), and the Norsemen advance as a direct result of his pride, or excess of courage ("for his ofermode," 89). The meaning of the key term "ofermod" has been fought out in the critical literature, and there is no point in reiterating this debate here. M.R. Godden has pointed out that the semantic field of the word "mod" frequently encompasses the idea of a "dangerous, rebellious inner force" in Anglo-Saxon literature; the intensifying prefix "ofer-" clearly magnifies this sense here. Few readers today doubt that in the context of the narrator"s negative judgment concerning the wisdom of allowing the whole Viking army to advance, the term carries at least some pejorative force. (446)

If we disregard the "excess of courage" meaning of "ofermod" mentioned here, which has on the whole been discountenanced within the scholarly tradition, Niles summarises quite appropriately the requirements for rendering lines 89-90 of *Maldon* into any language. I have explored the three main problems or cruxes in the lines. We have seen how the success or failure of the renderings I have examined depended on the exact solutions applied. The road opened by Tolkien and followed by many scholars since the publication of his seminal essay has proved to be one of the guides to understand *The Battle of Maldon*. That is why I have always thought that the only way of presenting *The Homecoming of Beorhtnoth* to the reading audience of any language is by offering them in a joint edition/translation that includes both Tolkien"s text and *The Battle of Maldon*.[9]

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[7] As Tom Shippey has pointed out: "*HB* totally reversed previous opinion of *The Battle of Maldon*, especially that of Tolkien's earlier collaborator E.V. Gordon, and has been swallowed absolutely whole —see, for instance, the edition of Maldon by D.G. Scragg, printed to supersede Gordon's, where the Tolkien view is utterly dominant." Shippey mentions in the lines that followed his disagreement with some of the ideas contained in Tolkien's *HB*, although in general terms the importance of Tolkien's *HB* as a key work of fiction and academic scholarship is very well assessed in his book.

[8] Tolkien wrote a poem with the title *Mythopoeia*, which has been published since 1988 in *Tree and Leaf*, together with "Leaf by Niggle" and "On Fairy Stories." In the most recent edition of *Tree and Leaf*, *The Homecoming of Beorhtnoth* was added to the collection.

[9] It is most necessary to provide the Spanish readers with a new translation of *Maldon* that solves all the problems discussed in this article. The author of this article is presently engaged in a project to publish a bilingual Spanish-English edition of Tolkien's *HB* together with a Spanish verse translation of *Maldon* faced with an edition of the OE text. The book will be published by Editorial Minotauro.

Translating Old English is always a complex but rewarding task; however, despite the plentiful cruxes found in the extant texts and regardless of the lack of strength suffered sometimes by translators and scholars all, it is our duty—as anglosaxonists engaged in spreading the richness of Anglo-Saxon poetry—to work hard in such a task and to follow the advice given by Byrhtwold in *Maldon*: "mod sceal þe mare, þe ure mægen lytlað," (313) or, as Tolkien himself adapted in the lines of *HB* through the voice of Torhthelm: "more proud the spirit as our power lessens" (*Tree* 141). In this thought-provoking problem-solving process of interpretation we call translation from OE, there is a lot of work to be done, and its road, as Tolkien would say, goes and will go ever on and on.

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NOTE

GO: THE BEAT GENERATION FROM A CRITICAL PERSPECTIVE

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ABSTRACT

Go, the work of an informed observer or interpreter of the Beat group, can be seen structured as a descent into hell, and as a document whose value lies in presenting the Beat writers from a perspective that is critical and sympathetic. The novel shows the two directions the beat rebellion took, one as a defeated or beaten down movement, and another, as more idealistic and beatific.

KEY WORDS: Beat generation, Jack Kerouac, Allen Ginsberg, John Clellon Holmes, downtrodden, beatific.

RESUMEN

Go, la novela de un atento observador o intérprete de los miembros de la generación Beat, está estructurada como un auténtico descenso a los infiernos y también como un documento de sus actitudes y comportamientos vistos desde una perspectiva crítica. La novela muestra las dos direcciones que asumió la rebelión beat, como seres derrotados y beatíficos.

PALABRAS CLAVE: generación Beat, Jack Kerouac, Allen Ginsberg, John Clellon Colmes, derrotado, beatífico.

Go (1952) was John Clellon Holmes's first novel, and as he admits in the introduction to the 1980 reprint, it was a book that was barely fictionalized at all. Most of the events and characters were taken from reality and even many of the dialogues were verbatim reproductions of actual conversations. As such it is an invaluable document of what was later to be known as the Beat generation, condensing real-life events from 1948-1950 into novel form. As a novel, it presents these real-life events structured to form a spiral which is at the same time a descent into hell and a progression toward self-understanding. As a document, its value lies in presenting the "core" group of Beat writers and other personalities associated with this movement at the end of the 1940s from a perspective which is at once critical and sympathetic. Seen from today, it is probably the "document" aspect which is the most important, but if viewed together with the form in which real-life

events and people are fictionalized, we can see not only a depiction of these times and people but also a critical commentary on them. As McNally says, *Go* is "one of the first public reflections on the emotional, aesthetic, and spiritual deficiencies of the nation" (168). This article, then, seeks to analyze how the Beat generation is presented in the double perspective of document/fiction.

Holmes' original idea was to structure the novel as a descent into hell, based on Dante's *Inferno*, and although he has stated that as he wrote he "saw that the same hungers activated us all, and the thesis evaporated" (xxii), the overriding arrangement of the novel *is* that of a descent into hell. The book is divided into three parts. The first presents the life of Paul Hobbes and his wife Kathryn—that is, John Clellon Holmes and his wife Marian—as they begin to get more and more involved in the bohemian lifestyle of Paul's Beat friends—Gene Pasternak (Jack Kerouac) and David Stofsky (Allen Ginsberg). Hobbes is trying to re-assimilate himself and find a direction following the war: he goes back to school, reads, and writes a novel without much real confidence. Although the parties in the first section are relatively tame, they are already beginning to decay, as Pasternak says of a party he dreamed about "And then everyone got so hung up on themselves" (5). Bill Agatson (Bill Cannastra), whose outrageous and often cruel antics derive from "a fatal vision of the world... (and his) inability to really believe in anything" (19), is gratuitously hurting Daniel Verger (Russell Durgin) who profoundly admires him. Part II marks the arrival in town of Hart Kennedy (Neal Cassady) whose constant movement involves everyone in chases around town trying to get hold of some dope. Hart loves life and his enthusiasm for everything is generally contagious. Pasternak and Stofsky adore him, and Paul is intrigued by his incredible capacity for movement. It is during Hart's visit that Paul and Kathryn first smoke a joint, and they are likewise present when Hart and Ed Schindel (Al Hinckle) steal gasoline. This brush with illegality causes Kathryn to overtly protest, but Paul is quiet even though he is not at all comfortable with the idea of stealing. This causes Stofsky to savagely criticize him for his hypocrisy—for seeming to go along with everyone's actions even though he secretly disapproves. Hobbes protests but begins to wonder about his own "lovelessness." Kathryn wavers between conventionality and the need to experiment, and even sleeps with Pasternak, but she never quite accepts this way of life. She is anchored in conventionality, but it must be understood that she is also the one who works at a boring job so that Paul can dedicate his time to writing.

At the end of Part II, Kathryn has found Paul's love letters to Liza, and wants to leave him. She cannot bear the fact that he has lied to her for three years. She is more concerned with a "new" morality here; it is a question of honesty vs. hypocrisy rather than a matter of physical fidelity. Paul becomes increasingly introspective from this point on. Part III moves from the "hot" world of Hart Kennedy to the "cool", and increasingly illegal world of the underground with Albert Ancke (Herbert Huncke), Little Rock (Little Jack Melody), and Winnie (Vickie Russell). They engage in petty crime in order to support a drug habit, and Hobbes is gripped with a vision of their mortality as he wanders at the fact that this is *not* important to them —they are beyond any cares other than the present:

> But looking back into the room where Ancke and Winnie were lighting up sticks of tea and trading opinions of mutual friends now in jail, he felt that he had dropped into a world of shadows that had drifted out of the grip of time, which was now inescapable to him; a world in which his values were a nuisance and his anxieties an affront. The fact that Winnie would get lax of breast and shrivelled of lip, that the nights and the streets would eventually begin to scar her clear skin until it dried and wrinkled away her youth; and that Ancke would one day be devoured by his own idea, the idea that he was slowly disintegrating, until there would be nothing left of him but a scabby, shrunken pod, beset by imaginary flies; the fact that this would relentlessly, certainly occur to them if they did not die first, some death of ironical viciousness in the bitter streets, or the madness of confinement in a cage; all of this was to Hobbes, at that moment, the most useless of insights. For them it did not exist, even as a possibility, for they had never given it a thought, and so to see it in their faces, to hear it like a prophecy in every word they spoke, pained only himself. At the instant of recognizing this, his interest in them turned to horror, and he got up to leave. (262)

Hobbes already senses that the move from "hot" to "cool", the elimination of the senses through overusing them, is the beginning of the end. He also realizes that he is unlike these people.

Ancke involves Stofsky in crime by allowing Winnie and Little Rock to bring stolen goods to Stofsky's apartment. Stofstky is incapable of throwing them out because he means to save them somehow—and because it is not in his nature to throw them out. Ironically, as they are transferring Stofsky's journal to his brother's house for safekeeping in case of a police raid, they are spotted by police driving the wrong way on a one-way street and in the chase the car overturns. Since Stofsky's papers have his address on them, the police find them immediately, and since Ancke was incapable of getting rid of the stolen goods, they are all arrested. The arrest sobers their friends considerably, particularly because Stofsky was innocently involved. Hobbes' own reaction to seeing Stofsky for the first time when he is out on bail scares him for its coldness: "And suddenly his part in all relationships seemed made up of actions blind and cowardly and base, even though they were unconscious" (292). But the final descent into hell came a week later, when Agatson was killed in a tragic accident. Fooling about on a subway train just as it left the station he pretended to climb out of an open window. Because he was drunk his friends tried to haul him back but his head caught against a platform column and crushed to death. In the ugly bar on River Street in Hoboken, where they go in the aftermath of Agatson's death, Hobbes sees "the gnaw of isolation" in each of his friends and explicitly likens the place to the last circle of hell: "'Abandon hope,' he thought, for actually he was drunker than he realized. 'Abandon hope all who enter here'" (309). Kathryn and Hobbes escape this hell as they just barely catch the last ferry back to New York, leaving the others behind. The novel concludes with Hobbes's tentative reconciliation with Kathryn and with an image of his search for a spiritual home. This symbolic escape into domestic love as a means of salvation, however, is left doubtful, as the novel ends with Hobbes' question: "'Where is our home?' he said to himself gravely, for he could not see it yet" (311).

This descent into hell marks one of the trajectories of the Beat movement. The move into hard drugs and petty crime was accompanied by a loss of feeling —heroin blocks out all feeling and desire. The only desire that exists is that of the next fix. It leads to delinquency and gratuitous violence "just for kicks." This is the "beaten down" aspect of the Beat generation, the use of the word beat in the sense of exhausted, downtrodden, defeated, burdened with guilt. Norman Podhoretz sees this as an outgrowth of the Beat writers' rejection of the intellect in favour of pure feeling and spontaneity (479-493). This is a rather harsh judgement, however, and only one side of the story. For in *Go*, parallel to the spiralling descent into hell, we have the story of Stofsky's personal progression towards the light. Beginning with his encounter with Jack Waters' insanity, on through his visionary experience with William Blake, Stofsky comes to an understanding of the universe—God is love, and the only impediment to love and good is the unconcern of the human heart. Although he is tortured by the idea of suffering, and does not understand its necessity, he decides to live by his vision. As a result, he embarks on a life of charity and humility, extending compassion and consideration to all. If Agatson embodies the psychic malady of our age, Stofsky "embodies the cure" (Stephenson 91). He sees that the only proper and practical response to the "secret lovelessness" of the world and to the helpless, frightened "creatureliness" of man is love, sympathy, and service to others. He is generally misunderstood, and even hurt in the process, as when he tries to love Winnie and Little Rock, but he maintains his humanity and his vision right through to the end. He is the most sympathetic character in the novel. This is due in part to the fact that Holmes allows him his own voice, the reader is able to see into his consciousness and understand his motives. Another contributing factor is that Stofsky is based closely on Allen Ginsberg, who was an essentially humane person. As Thomas Parkinson has said "Too little stressed in all the public talk about Ginsberg are his personal sweetness and gentleness of disposition. He was a person more cohesive than disruptive in impact..." (458). Perhaps to the more cynical, the figure of Stofsky flitting about and talking of his visions, trying to arrange his friends' lives, and trying desperately to love, is a ridiculous one. I believe, however, that Holmes has painted a sympathetic, if sometimes comic, portrait. This is probably achieved because Paul Hobbes is open to Stofsky, and although he does not always understand him, believes in him. Stofsky represents, then, another side of Beat life—the "beatific" or sacred side. Here the rejection of middle-class American values is accompanied not by nihilism, but by a search for a higher truth and a better way of living.

On a less elevated, but more down to earth and "normal" level, we have the trajectory of Paul Hobbes. As we mentioned above, Hobbes is John Clellon Holmes's fictional self, and as such stands very close to, but essentially outside of the Beats themselves. James Atlas writes in his foreword to *Go*:

> Not that Paul Hobbes ...is any less dissipated than his friends, any less susceptible to the blandishments of squandered evenings at nightclubs or drunken parties. But he is skeptical, conservative, unpersuaded by the ephemeral delight his friends derive from their indulgences...Hobbes... is a mere tourist in the underworld night-

> life of Times Square dives... He ventures into this world "suspiciously, even fearfully, but unable to quell his immediate fascination." (xiii)

Hobbes makes forays into their world but retains a critical, if sympathetic perspective. This perspective is the strong point of the novel. Not everyone saw it that way, however. According to Michael Dittman, Holmes's success and his refusal to adopt the stereotypical Beat lifestyle eventually caused friction between Kerouac and himself "indeed, throughout their lives, (they) kept an uneasy, love/hate relationship... Kerouac felt an intense insecurity and rivalry towards Holmes, fuelled in part by Holmes's financial stability, as opposed to Kerouac's own penury"(6). After Holmes completed the first draft of *Go* (originally called *The Beat Generation*) in the spring of 1951, he gave the manuscript to Kerouac to read. Kerouac was horrified at Holmes infringing on what he regarded as his territory, and in a letter to Allen Ginsberg he furiously commented "John Holmes is a latecomer, or that is, a pryer-intoer of our genuine literary movement... (he) is riding our wagon without knowing where actually it's headed..." (345). Tensions arose between them. Kerouac felt that Holmes had exploited his friendship with them, and that had usurped his role as spokesman for the generation. Then he was jealous and resentful that *Go* had been accepted for publication while he could still not find a publisher for *On the Road* (1957). He took to writing inflammatory letters warning Holmes to stay away from certain topics which he considered his own. For Dennis McNally, *Go* was "the honest work of an intellectual trying to make sense of aliens, and Holmes succeeded as well as anyone not wholly of a scene could" (167). Holmes's position as an outsider is considered an impediment, but I think we should consider the advantage that an outsider has. He can serve as interpreter of the Beat movement to a class of people who would be sympathetic if only they were exposed to it. He can also step back far enough to see both the good and the bad points, and this critical perspective is essential. Holmes, as Hobbes in the novel, is deeply affected by his friendship with the Beats and begins to question and grow inwardly in the course of the novel. He is shaken out of his complacency as he realizes that he is not as honest with himself as he should be.

Hobbes cannot decide whether he belongs to "this beat generation, this underground life" (126), or to the "square" or more conventional world of responsibility. He lies somewhere between both worlds. Part of him rejects traditional middle-class values, as when he is disappointed with Christine for having told her husband about her affair with Gene:

> Some trust in him had been violated by her reversal, an obstinate belief in the possibility of an impossible situation. People never proved to be either as noble or foolhardy as he wished them to be. His bitter, fond dreams of them always fell apart like the makeshift self justifications they were, leaving him feeling sorrowfully faithless. (164)

Yet he is not completely comfortable in the Beat world either:

> Now he sat, taking as an assurance of the attitude Christine had rejected, Hart's excited unbuttoning of his shirt to the waist. That Hobbes felt discomforted and

> alien in The Go Hole arose, he was certain, from an imperfection in himself, some failure of the heart; for Stofsky had set him wondering. (164)

Hobbes is also frightened by Agatson, the nihilist, who represents to him the burned-out hipster, the figure at the end of one of the Beat roads, the one that leads to crazy behaviour that is essentially meaningless. Referring to Agatson, the narrator recounts:

> His eyes burned right into Hobbes' for a second. But in them there was no recognition, nothing sane or reliable, only an imbecilic steadiness. It was the stare of a man to whom everyone is really a stranger, who passes through fevers and anxieties alone and has never thought to confide or complain to another living soul; a man possessed of a rage that is always frustrated, that has enthralled his waking nature, and which has no object; the sort of rage that only the obliteration of a world could sate. (272)

The author here, through the perception of Hobbes, is in basic agreement with Stofsky's vision of the malady of the world: man's aloneness and lack of love is the cause of his frustration. Agatson's problem is that he does not communicate with anyone, not even his women, who are usually notably destroyed by their relation to him. Hobbes' sensibilities are not disturbed by the superficial transgression of bourgeois norms; rather he sees beyond them into their underlying cause —frustration from lack of real human interaction. On the other hand, the relation that exists between Pasternak, Stofsky, and Kennedy is essentially supportive —they help each other to survive and even be happy as they search for some ultimate meaning of life. Their road can be beatific mainly through their brotherly support system. Hobbes, then, has discerned both the positive and negative side of the Beat movement, and although the novel ends on a pessimistic note, the final outcome is left open. Hobbes is a better person, at least, because of his contact with these people.

Another critical position toward the Beats is that taken by some of the women in the novel. Cynthia S. Hamilton thinks that Holmes' depiction of women is noteworthy, "while he never challenges traditional gender roles, Holmes' more nuanced portrayal of women and his recognition of self-serving male behaviour sets him apart, especially from Kerouac" (121). The women most extensively treated—Kathryn, Christine, and Dinah—are not really Beat at all. Yet these are the kind of women that the men who form the nucleus of the Beats prefer. The others—May, Winnie, Georgia, Bianca—are mainly types, not individuals, and as such typify the "Beat woman." The Beat women are affected, cool, and burned out. The only possible analysis given is that it is perhaps their relations with Beat men that burn them out, at least in the case of Bianca and May, who have loved Agatson. We are not given any real insight into them, however, and this is one of the flaws of the novel. They are there as a contrast to "natural" women, such as Pasternak prefers. Speaking of Christine, he says: "...After all, she's just one of those crazy, warm little girls you meet at a dance in Harrisburg, or even hitch-hiking around South Carolina. And that's the kind of girl I can understand, not these New York bitches!"

(55). For Pasternak, Georgia is "...one of those emancipated women who's really cold as a snake..." (57).

For Beat men, the Beat lifestyle is not transferable to women; they are to be natural but at the same time put up with the lifestyle of their men without being corrupted by it. Most of all, they serve to support their men economically. Both Kathryn and Dinah work, while Paul and Hart do not. This preference for natural women has its drawbacks, however, for although they love their men and go along with their lifestyles, they are basically faithful to middle-class values such as fidelity and consideration for others, values which are probably shared by Stofsky, Hobbes and Pasternak, but which clash at times with their "hot" lifestyle. The most blaring example is Dinah, Hart's former wife, who is with him on his trip to New York (LuAnn Henderson in real life). She goes along with Hart, understands, defends, and accepts his flaws, yet blows up when one last incident of (unconsummated) infidelity comes up. She does not really accept his ways after all. Kathryn's anger when she finds that Paul has been writing love letters to another woman for three years is more in the vein of a "new" morality. He has destroyed the trust between them and this she finds hard to forgive. Only Stofsky, who is gay, sees how the men are hurting the women by not being honest with them, by not treating them as fellow human beings but rather as rare, different beings. He questions Hart as to why he feels he has to deceive Dinah, but Harts's answer is far from satisfactory: "But why are you trying to put me down, man? That's the way women are. They get all hungup on those things. You and I know that! That's their level. *We* understand all about that" (169). Hart appeals to masculine common understanding —women are the inexplicable *other*. Stofsky does not agree; he seems to be the only one who believes that women are to be treated as equals. On the other hand the men are in awe of these women because they feel that women are somehow closer to the essence of things than they are. After Kathryn tells Paul her impression of Christine and the reasons for her actions, he reflects:

> He wanted to escape, only incidentally for Christine, from the inevitableness of Katrhyn's view, which she offered to him with such casual, womanly surety. Before it, as at the recollection of a past guilt, he, as a man, felt suddenly prey to all fleeting, mannish pretensions—a barren Adam confronted with his rib's fecundity. (129)

The "natural" women have no need of intellectual pretensions; they already understand and accept the universe. The Beat men spend hours and hours trying to find the answers. This awe of woman as "other" has the negative side effect of placing women in a position where their difference can be used to oppress them. It is obvious that the Beat generation, for all their breaks with convention, still hold to a traditional idea of women. Moreover, they tend to make use of the women who love them for financial as well as emotional support. In this sense, break with the middle-class value, especially prevalent in the 1950's, that the husband is the breadwinner and the wife stays at home, is liberating only to the men in question—the women go out to work at boring jobs so that the men may stay at home and write.

Holmes probably (guiltily) recognized this injustice, as it is quite clear in the novel that women are getting the short end of the deal, although it is not a major theme. His treatment of Beat women is unfortunately superficial, however, and it would be nice to see a more profound treatment of these women.

Holmes' distance from the "core" group of Beat friends also gives us a rather demystified picture of Neal Cassady. As Hart Kennedy, he comes across as a crazy, fun, "hot", but essentially superficial figure. From the novel we cannot really understand the fascination that Cassady held for Kerouac and Ginsberg, but perhaps this is a flaw in the novel rather than a flaw in Cassady. As a person who is profoundly open to life and constantly on the go, never tiring, he is admirable, but Holmes suspects that his lifestyle can cause hurt to others (such as Dinah/LuAnn), and fails to find anything deeply meaningful in it. Hobbes finds Kennedy's uncritical affirmation of all experience unacceptable and thinks of him as a conman or a sort of "half-intellectual juvenile delinquent" (96).

What we have in *Go*, then, is a complex view of the Beat generation in its formative years. Holmes presents a picture of an intense lifestyle justified by a rejection of the particularly stifling conventional norms that held sway in America at the end of the 1940's and throughout the 1950's. He sees at least two different directions which this rebellion could take: one which would lead to consummate indifference toward the world and other people, where the only goal is to crush out feeling, specifically at the end of a needle, and another, idealistic and beatific, which would seek salvation for self and others through more love and more honesty. Holmes' critical distance, while not condemning, allows us to see both the positive and negative aspects of this group of people, who were after all, human beings, who each in their own complexity realized the "movement" in an individual way.

From the today's perspective, we can see that the Beat movement did not die in the early sixties, as many claimed it had, but rather pervaded massively the next generation that again took two roads —one which was the hippie route, founded on pacifism and universal love, but which also dissolved in a haze of drugs; the other, a movement of political action which broke away from the Old Left and after consolidating itself around the anti-war movement, channelled itself into particular liberation movements whose effects can be vastly appreciated in America even today. Perhaps the rebellion of the sixties would have taken place even if there had been no Beat generation, but I, for me, think it doubtful.

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REVIEW

GT-PA: Including Classroom Teachers In Teacher And Learner Autonomy. Flávia Vieira, ed. *Struggling for Autonomy in Language Education: Reflecting, Acting and Being*. Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang, 2009.

This book is a collection of nine chapters written by different members of the Working Group-Pedagogy for Autonomy (GT-PA) whose principal interest lies in improving and humanising the teaching and learning processes by providing space for both teacher and learner autonomy that will lead to analytical and constructive reflection and action at the same time as it fosters a sense of self that will allow for simultaneous academic progress and personal growth. In the face of conflicting discourses and practices in mainstream education across Europe, the authors refer to a set of shared values and principles in their "struggle" to find a place for continued personal and social reconstruction through the empowerment of teachers and learners.

In her introduction to the book, the editor, Flávia Vieira, reflects that although researchers have played an important role in theories of autonomy, classroom teachers have generally been excluded from this enquiry, leading to a view of autonomy as an idealistic or utopian trend rather than a possibility to be explored in real classrooms. She suggests that autonomy should be viewed as a whole school, cross-curricular project, involving all disciplines and areas of development in order to broaden its focus of contexts, methodologies and partnerships; critical acting, reflecting and being would then become the material products of differing, idiosyncratic situations experienced by teachers, teacher educators, students and researchers across the globe, contributing to the understanding of diverse valid meanings of "autonomy" which all form part of teacher and learner empowerment.

The different chapters in the book are accounts of personal teaching, learning and research experiences held together by the desire for transformation of educational practice through a critical observation of teaching/learning processes, reflection on implementation and change, and the building of sufficient confidence in our convictions to be able to continue to act, reflect and change in a continued cycle of improvement enhancement and empowerment, even when these convictions are not in line with mainstream policy.

A central question in the first chapter is how teacher empowerment is enhanced through promoting pedagogy for autonomy. Vieira begins with a theoretical focus on autonomy as a collective goal and a major interest for teacher education which in turn will lead to autonomy for both teachers and learners in schools. Autonomy here is defined as "the competence to develop as a self-determined, socially responsible and critically aware participant in (and beyond) educational environments, within a vision of education as (inter)personal empowerment and social transformation"(15). However, she also recognises the paradox for teacher educators in promoting that autonomy, since it is they who hold the ultimate "power to empower"; in all teacher/student relationships ultimately the teacher is able to exercise power in a way that is not available to students. For this reason, it is essential to view autonomy as a facilitative, and not a coercive, power that provides tools for creatively

dealing with constraints in order to transform contexts so that questioning, change and progress can take place.

The author goes on to describe a case-based approach to teacher empowerment leading to learner autonomy in language classes which was implemented by her research group, illustrating how a set of individual cases, each with a different theme, can be used to promote general principles of pedagogy for autonomy. This may be used across disciplines and cultures to foster the inclusion of classroom teachers in developing and renewing educational practices.

The second chapter deals with the use of portfolios in pre-service teacher education as a means to developing reflection and action as a path to professional autonomy. Through four case studies with different focuses, the author demonstrates how portfolios can contribute to a humanistic approach to teacher education and supervision by providing an insight for the supervisor of trainees' learning processes which at the same time allow student teachers to participate actively in their own evaluation.

Chapter three also deals with the use of collaborative journals but in this study, as well as the trainee teacher and the supervisor, a third student teacher is also involved in writing constructive observations of the lessons, providing a new perspective to the overall view of the classroom situation. These collaboratively constructed texts allow for teacher and supervisor development that can lead to the co-construction of teachers' professional knowledge.

The following chapter looks at a task-based approach to English language teaching and learning and attempts to evaluate whether tasks impact on students both in terms of language learning and of encouraging autonomy. The chapter describes an ambitious collaborative research project where all aspects of the tasks are negotiated between the participating students and teachers (major aspects of the task, ongoing planning, design of micro-evaluation—in terms of task impact on learners' attitudes and progress as well as predicted vs. actual outcomes of the tasks—and overall evaluation of the project). The results of such a wide-reaching project are inevitably difficult to present since so many aspects and variables are involved that tight methodological planning from the outset is extremely difficult. The author recognises this, but points out the value of the project findings in terms of their possibilities for teacher reflection and professional improvement. Anyone wishing to embark on action research (especially into a task-based approach) will find the chapter useful, both for its thorough theoretical analysis and its self-critical analysis of the project presented, both in terms of process and product.

The "good language learner" is the topic of the fifth chapter which revisits the "good language learner" lists of Rubin and Naiman et al., finding that the characteristics enumerated largely coincide with those we have come to consider to be typically displayed by an autonomous learner. The author sees two sides to the concept of "the good learner"; a person who has successfully learned a lot of language and also one who has successfully learned how to learn and who will continue to acquire language knowledge and skills beyond the confines of the classroom. In the author's context of foreign language learning in Spain, the results of language study in terms of time and effort invested are notoriously unsuccessful and this leads to a reflection on the impact for higher education of the process of European convergence, where student autonomy and learning outside the classroom are of paramount importance. Here, Bobb-Wolff argues, the responsibility of teachers will not only be to encourage student autonomy, but also to create the conditions in which this can become a reality.

Learner-centred teaching is also the focus of the following chapter, but this time seen from the perspective of the beliefs and practices of experienced teachers. Sultan Erdoğan, sets out to investigate the extent to which there is a theory-practice gap between experienced teachers' theories of good teaching and what they actually do when faced with practical constraints. Through examples of case studies using a framework of Personal Construct Theory, Erdoğan shows how, due to their unique personal construct systems, two learner-centred teachers differ widely in their approach to teaching and in their response to dealing with the constraints

their teaching contexts present, and even in what they actually perceive to be constraints.

Chapter eight explores the concept of learner readiness for autonomy. Vieira and Barbosa describe a questionnaire-based study that focuses on teacher and learner views of learner agency in the language learning process. They find that learners perceive themselves to have a moderate degree of readiness for autonomy, while their teachers perceive them to be much less ready to become responsible for their own learning. Both teachers and learners continue to recognise the central role of the teacher in the classroom. The authors see in these findings evidence of the "struggle" of individuals for autonomy within the education system and propose that this be subsequently shared with other professionals through groups such as the GT-PA in order to gradually make up an informing current of ongoing and sustainable study that may influence and transform constraining educational settings.

In the penultimate chapter, reporting on a study of the degree of learner autonomy that is built into secondary school syllabi, the authors clearly lay out the reasons why change in education is needed in order to develop the competences necessary for coping with the demands of today's global society. They conclude that across the entire secondary school curriculum the lack of explicitness in syllabi limits the extent to which autonomy is fostered, making it dependent on individual teacher interpretations and implementation.

The concluding chapter of the book deals with the relationship between practitioners and researchers in teaching and shows how top-down professional development has not been successful in bringing about substantial evolution in classroom practice. Jiménez Raya skilfully synthesises the idea running through the whole volume that, for effective change to take place in education, it is necessary for forums such as the GT-PA to provide the space for teachers, teacher trainers and researchers to reflect, recount and listen to each others' experiences and "struggle" for the autonomy that can make a difference. This book will undoubtedly inspire the desire in all practising teachers to become part of that current and help them to see that however small their contribution may seem, it will never be insignificant.

Susan Cranfield

PEER REVIEWERS FOR *RCEI*: NOVEMBER 2010

Listed below are the referees who reviewed manuscripts for *RCEI* 61 (November 2010). We express our gratitude to their work and generosity.

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Received, Acceptance, and Publication Dates for articles in *RCEI* 61:

– Flávia Vieira. "Towards Teacher and Learner Autonomy: Exploring a Pedagogy of Experience in Teacher Education." Received for Publication: April 20, 2010; Acceptance for Publication: September 21, 2010. Published: November 2010.

– Joan Rubin. "Language Teacher Education: Challenges in Promoting a Learner-centered Perspective." Received for Publication: June 14, 2010; Acceptance for Publication: September 21, 2010. Published: November 2010.

– Isabel Barbosa. "Where There's a Will There's a Way... to Teacher and Learner Autonomy: Landmarks of a Teaching Career." Received for Publication: March 8, 2010; Acceptance for Publication: September 21, 2010. Published: November 2010.

– Gina Oxbrow and Carolina Rodríguez Juárez. "Language Learning Motivation and Learner Autonomy: Bridging the Gap." Received for Publication: June 7, 2010; Acceptance for Publication: September 21, 2010. Published: November 2010.

– Lucia García Magaldi. "Metacognitive Strategies Based Instruction to Support Learner Autonomy in Language Learning." Received for Publication: April 30, 2010; Acceptance for Publication: September 21, 2010. Published: November 2010.

– María José Coperías Aguilar. "Intercultural Communicative Competence as a Tool for Autonomous Learning." Received for Publication: April 30, 2010; Acceptance for Publication: September 21, 2010. Published: November 2010.

– Leslie Bobb-Wolff. "Can Moodle Increase Learner Autonomy?" Received for Publication: September 23, 2010; Acceptance for Publication: October 1, 2010. Published: November 2010.

– Pilar Mur Dueñas. "A Contrastive Analysis of Research Article Introductions in English and Spanish." Received for Publication: December 30, 2009; Acceptance for Publication: October 1, 2010. Published: November 2010.

– Jorge Luis Bueno Alonso. "The Translator's 'Ofermod': Reconsidering *Maldon*'s 'For His Ofermode' (89) in Translation through J.R.R. Tolkien's *The Homecoming of Beorhtnoth*." Received for Publication: April 30, 2010; Acceptance for Publication: October 1, 2010. Published: November 2010.

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