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EDITORIAL

By Prof. Dr. Nemira Mačianskienė, Editor-in-Chief

Dear *Sustainable Multilingualism* community,

Welcome to the 23rd issue of the journal. The period between the last two issues of 2023 was marked by several significant moments in the history of the journal, from tragic, unexpected, and sad—reminding us of the impermanence of life—to moments of accomplishment, allowing us to experience a sense of acknowledgement, success, and achievement.

On the 29th of May 2023, the world lost an inspirational and courageous fighter for justice, equity and language rights, promoter of linguistic diversity and advocate for the rights of marginalized communities, an eminent scholar, prof. dr. **Tove Skutnabb-Kangas**. Professor was an honorable member of our Editorial Board since 2017, when both renown defenders of linguistic human rights in the world – Tove Skutnabb-Kangas and prof. emeritus Robert Phillipson – gave their keynote speeches in our international conference *Sustainable Multilingualism 2017* and published their research in the journal in 2018. Her active involvement in “indigenous people’s and minorities’ struggle for linguistic human rights and in counteracting linguistic and cultural genocide, linguistic imperialism, and subtractive spread of English” (Tove-Skutnabb Kangas, 2023), incredible corpus of research, published worldwide and translated into over 60 languages (see more at www.tove-skutnabb-kangas.org/), as well as her personal commitment and energy, refusal to compromise while solving language preservation issues is the greatest legacy for future generations. The Tributes received from a countless number of people worldwide and shared with us by courtesy of prof. **Robert Phillipson** (personal correspondence) witness that “She will forever be remembered as a fierce advocate of the wretched of the earth and a prophetic voice against injustice and suffering”, as a “giant intellectual who spoke her truth fearlessly”, and “a source of inspiration and energy” not only to the scholars of linguistic human rights but also to “the speakers whose linguistic rights were restored, even partially, by her thoughts and actions.” As Tove-Skutnabb Kangas wrote in the Afterword: Pursuing Linguistic Human Rights for the *Handbook of Linguistic Human Rights* (2023, p. 679–687), a recent landmark publication exploring the intersection of human rights and languages, “showing the way forward is a primary goal of the Handbook of LHRs” so was her life, showing the way forward, to all of us.

During this period there have been some changes in the membership of the Editorial Board. **Michael Kelly**, Emeritus Professor of French at the University of Southampton, a member of the Editorial Board since the first issue of the journal, decided to withdraw from the Editorial Board, having admitted being no longer close to the current academic and policy debates after the retirement from full-time academic duties. Professor expressed his delight that the journal had progressed so well and wished us “every success in the next phase of your exciting venture” (from personal correspondence). We are grateful for the support and contribution received during these ten years and wish our dear professor Michael Kelly all the best in his future endeavors.

Despite this, there is some bright news worth sharing. Three renowned researchers have accepted our invitation to become the journal's Editorial Board members. It is my pleasure to congratulate **Enrica Piccardo**, a professor in the Languages and Literacies Education Program and the Director of the Centre for Educational Research in Languages and Literacies, University of Toronto – an internationally recognized researcher in Second/Foreign Language learning and teaching, plurilingualism and mediation, known for the impact of the *Common European Framework of Reference* (CEFR) on language teaching and assessment; complexity theories, and creativity in language acquisition; professor dr. **Ina Druviete**, the Vice-rector of the Humanities and Educational Sciences in the University of Latvia, a researcher in the Latvian Language Institute of the University of Latvia, whose research focuses on education policy, language policy, sociolinguistics, Latvian language and ethnopolitics as well as language use in higher education; and **Ugnis Vizgirda Mikucionis**, assoc. prof. dr. at the Department of Language, Literature, Mathematics and Interpreting of Western Norway University of Applied Sciences, whose research areas include Norwegian and Scandinavian linguistics, Old Norse literature and mythology, teaching Norwegian as a foreign language in different contexts. We hope that our new colleagues will bring the latest cutting-edge ideas to the journal policy and will contribute to maintaining and increasing its high standards.

Another significant moment that will have an imprint in the journal history was the 7th international conference *Sustainable Multilingualism 2023*, which was held on June 9–10 at Vytautas Magnus University, Kaunas, Lithuania and provided a common platform for researchers, language policy makers, language teachers, students, and anyone interested in discussing and sharing their expertise in the key issues of multilingualism, including but not limited to such themes as “Multilingualism and Society,” “Language Education and Plurilingual Competence Development”, “Multilingualism and Professional Practice”, “Contemporary Lithuanian Language Studies”, and others. The conference attracted over 150 participants from over 20 countries of the world, who presented around a hundred presentations (see “Book of Abstracts”) on their current research and participated in conference discussions, including a Round Table discussion “The Importance of Language in Higher Education Teaching”, as a part of the multiplier event of Erasmus + APATCHE (*Adding Plurilingual Approaches to language Teacher Competences in Higher Education*) project. Many researchers who presented their findings in the conference have submitted or intend to submit their manuscripts to be published in our journal.

The articles chosen to be published in the issue 23/2023 have been distributed into four subsequent sections, the first being *Language Education in Multilingual and Multicultural Settings*.

Life goes on, even during the war. Russia's military aggression, full-scale invasion of Ukraine, started on 24 February 2022, has destructed the educational infrastructure, paused the educational and research processes, and traumatized the young and the old. But the courageous nation, fighting for their homeland, tries to maintain life however and wherever it is possible under such circumstances. Thus, the article by **Kapranov** and **Voloshyna** “Learning English Under the Sounds of Air Raid Sirens: Analyzing Undergraduate EFL Students' Sustainable Learning Practices” is of utmost value, presenting students' reflections on their “sustainable practices related to the ways

the participants learnt English during the Russo-Ukrainian war” and concluding that “the development of multilingualism in the time of crises is feasible and sustainable” if coupled by internal, psychological and external, institutional support.

We live in the times of global free and forced migration and mobility, when even our hitherto monolingual European countries and/or institutions are increasingly becoming multilingual and multicultural; when due to open website resources, increased international collaboration and cooperation, our students and staff are becoming plurilingual. All this brings new challenges to education, including language education which is in need of innovative approaches that involve students' plurilingual repertoires in language teaching, as monolingual teaching methods in foreign language classes have been proved to be no longer valid. **Cvilkaitė-Mačiulskienė, Daušaitė-Kolpakovienė, Gvzdikaitė, and Linkevičiūtė** discuss translanguaging in teaching and learning English at a higher education, revealing the attitudes and experiences of Ukrainian students studying in a Lithuanian university and their teachers towards the use of other languages in the English classroom. The study is supported by a solid theoretical background on the necessity to switch from monolingual to a more holistic paradigm in language teaching. According to **Převrátlová**, “plurilingualism goes beyond the mere ability to use multiple languages; it emphasizes the interconnected nature of languages within an individual's linguistic competence”, the author of “One Mind, Many Languages: Czech as an Additional Language in Plurilingual Repertoires”. Silvie explores the interplay of languages in the plurilingual repertoires of international students, learning Czech as an additional language. The research, based on the Perceived Positive Language Interaction framework (Thompson, 2016), reveals perceived positive interactions not only among some of the students’ studied languages within language families but also across typologically different languages, such as between Czech and German. The study concludes that students can significantly benefit from their previous language learning experiences when learning an additional language.

Pundziuvienė, Meškauskienė, Ringailienė, and Matulionienė present their research into the role of linguistic and cultural mediation in learning the host country's language, i.e., English in the UK and Lithuanian in Lithuania. The study revealed that mediation applied as a language learning method in language classes can improve students’ use of non-linguistic competences, thus reducing linguistic and cultural barriers, encourage collaboration among language learners, and enrich their competence in translanguaging; however, careful guidance on the part of a language teacher is needed. **Rapún Mombiela** and **Tramallino** analyze the influence of multilingual learner repertoires from a linguistic perspective in their study “Acquisition of Spanish Adverbials by Multilingual Estonian Learners”. The study concentrates on the difficulties Estonian students face with Spanish time adverbials, specifically, prepositions and articles. The findings emphasize the importance of language proficiency levels and crosslinguistic influence in the acquisition of third languages. The study by **Mambetaliev** presents the analysis of the attitudes toward English and preferences for language policy models expressed by international applicants to Hungarian universities. Research participants expressed their positive attitudes towards English as a medium of instruction, but show preferences for multilingual language

policies depending, emphasizing the importance of preserving their native languages.

The second section – *Digital Technologies in Language Education* – presents two studies – a thorough bibliometric analysis and a study on the teachers' views on the use of technologies in education. The use of Artificial Intelligence (AI) in all spheres of our life has been growing exponentially, and it plays "a transforming role in education, including language teaching and learning" (**Jaleniauskiėnė, Lisaitė, and Daniusevičiūtė-Brazaitė**). Using bibliometric analysis, the authors present an overview of the most recent research related to the use of AI in language education: productivity in terms of authors and countries, co-authorship, most cited references, most popular journals, and most common keywords. The results show that each year a consistent number of publications on the application of AI in language education appears. Another article presented in this section by an international group of researchers (**Klimova, Pikhart, Fronckova, Sanchez-Stockhammer, Stukalina, Iruškieta, Okumuş Dağdeler, Lejot, Parmaxi, Rodríguez, Pareja-Lora**) deals with foreign language teachers' attitudes towards the use of digital teaching in the EU countries. The results of their research show that foreign language teachers have positive attitudes towards the use of technologies in their classes and frequently use them to engage students in language learning; however, they need more training in the use of new technologies and expect professional support from the management of their home institutions.

Languages in Societal Discourse section contains the study by **Anča** who explores the nomenclature of traditional ornaments, characteristic for the Latvian and Lithuanian ethnographic regions, as an essential part of traditional Baltic culture. The research compares the ornament naming traditions in both countries and highlights the main parallels and differences, revealing more diversity found in the spectrum of ornament nomenclature at the beginning of the 20th century in Latvia than it is now; "that it is common for Latvians and Lithuanians to view ornament as a pattern rather than separate graphic elements and that geometric, plant, animal, artefact and celestial body denominations dominate the nomenclature of both languages.

Traditionally, we try to publish articles on *Issues in Translation* which are important for preserving languages and sustaining multilingualism in the times when some domineering languages are gaining momentum in the world. **Koverienė** investigates the "intricate nature of lip synchrony in dubbing as an audiovisual translation mode, highlighting its significance beyond aesthetic considerations", and presents recommendations to audiovisual translators.

Welcoming the 23rd issue of the journal, I would like to take the opportunity to express my gratitude to all contributors: the authors who chose our journal for sharing their valuable research, diligent reviewers who provided valuable constructive feedback and ideas for manuscript improvement, and the whole editorial team: executive editors and the technical support group (proofreaders, layout designers, and translators) whose conscientious efforts, thorough work, and belief in the mission of the journal allow us all to pursue the goal of sustaining multilingualism.

Prof. Dr. Nemira Mačianskienė, Editor-in-Chief
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REDAKTORIAUS ŽODIS

Autorė Prof. Dr. Nemira Mačianskienė, Vyr. redaktorė

Gerbiama *Darniosios daugiakalbystės* bendruomenė,

Džiaugiuosi galėdama pristatyti jums dvidešimt trečiąjį žurnalo numerį. Laikotarpis tarp dviejų paskutiniųjų 2023 m. numerių buvo paženklintas keliais reikšmingais momentais, kurie įeis į žurnalo istoriją – nuo tragiškų, netikėtų ir liūdnu, primenančių mums apie gyvenimo nepastovumą, iki malonių akimirku, leidžiančių patirti pripažinimo, sėkmės ir pasiekimo jausmus.

2023 m. gegužės 29 d. pasaulis neteko iškilios mokslininkės, prof. dr. **Tove Skutnabb-Kangas** – įkvepiančios ir drąsios kovotojos už teisingumą, lygybę ir kalbos teises, visą savo gyvenimą pašventusios kalbų įvairovės puoselėjimui ir marginalizuotų bendruomenių teisių gynimui. Profesorė buvo mūsų žurnalo redakcinės kolegijos narė nuo 2017 m., kai abu žymūs kalbų teisių gynėjai – Tove Skutnabb-Kangas ir prof. emeritas **Robertas Phillipsonas** – skaitė plenarinius pranešimus mūsų kas dvejus metus organizuojamoje tarptautinėje konferencijoje *Darnioji daugiakalbystė 2017*, o 2018 m. žurnale paskelbė savo tyrimų rezultatus. Aktyvus T. Skutnabb-Kangas dalyvavimas „čiabuvių tautų ir mažumų kovoje už kalbinę žmogaus teises ir kovoje prieš kalbinį ir kultūrinį genocidą, kalbinį imperializmą ir substratyvų anglų kalbos plitimą“ (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2023), gausybė tyrimų, publikuotų visame pasaulyje ir išverstų į daugiau kaip 60 kalbų (daugiau žr. www.tove-skutnabb-kangas.org/), taip pat asmeninis atsidavimas ir energija, atsisakymas eiti į kompromisus sprendžiant kalbų išsaugojimo klausimus yra didžiausias palikimas ateities kartoms. Užuojautos žodžiai, suplaukę iš viso pasaulio ir kuriais su mumis pasidalijo prof. Robertas Phillipsonas (asmeninė korespondencija) liudija, kad profesorė „amžinai bus prisimenama kaip atkakli žemės nelaimingųjų gynėja ir pranašiškas balsas prieš neteisybę ir kančią“, kaip „intelektualumo milžinė, kuri be baimės skleidė savo tiesą“ bei „įkvėpimo ir energijos šaltinis“ ne tik „kalbų žmogaus teisių tyrinėtojams, bet ir tautoms, kurių kalbinės teisės, kad ir iš dalies, buvo atkurtos jos minčių ir veiksmų dėka“. Kaip rašė T. Skutnabb-Kangas ką tik išleisto reikšmingo leidinio *Kalbinių žmogaus teisių vadovo*, kuriame nagrinėjama žmogaus teisių ir kalbų sankirta, paskutinės dalies įvade (2023, p. 679–687): „rodyti kelią į priekį yra pagrindinis *Kalbinių žmogaus teisių vadovo* tikslas“, toks buvo ir jos gyvenimas, rodantis kelią į priekį mums visiems.

Per šį laikotarpį kito redakcinės kolegijos sudėtis. Nuo pirmojo žurnalo numerio redakcinės kolegijos nariu buvęs Anglijos Sautamptono universiteto prancūzų kalbos profesorius emeritas **Michaelas Kelly** nutarė sustabdyti savo veiklą redakcinėje kolegijoje pripažinęs, kad, pasitraukęs iš nuolatinių akademinų pareigų, nebėra aktyvus dabartinių akademinų ir politinių diskusijų dalyvis. Profesorius pasidžiaugė, kad žurnalas sėkmingai gyvuoja ir tobulėja bei palinkėjo mums „visokeriopos sėkmės tolesniuose šio įdomaus sumanymo etapuose“ (asmeninė korespondencija). Esame dėkingi gerbiamam profesoriui Michaelui Kelly už žurnalo idėjų palaikymą per šiuos dešimt metų ir linkime jam visokeriopos sėkmės tolesnėje veikloje.

Noriu pasidalyti ir džiugia naujiena – trys pasaulyje garsūs mokslininkai papildė žurnalo redakcinės kolegijos gretas. Man labai malonu pasveikinti prie žurnalo komandos prisijungusius narius: prof. dr. **Enrica Pikardo** (Enrica Piccardo), Toronto universiteto Kalbų ir raštingumo ugdymo programos profesore, Kalbų ir raštingumo ugdymo tyrimų centro direktore, tarptautiniu mastu pripažintą antrosios/užsienio kalbos mokymosi ir mokymo, daugiakalbystės ir tarpininkavimo sričių tyrėją, žinomą dėl savo indėlio kuriant *Bendruosius Europos kalbų metmenis* (BEKM) ir tiriant jų poveikį kalbų mokymui ir vertinimui, kompleksiško teorijų ir kūrybiškumo mokantis kalbų tyrėją; prof. dr. **Ina Druvietė**, Latvijos universiteto Humanitarinių ir ugdymo mokslų prorektore, Latvijos universiteto Latvių kalbos instituto mokslininkė, kurios mokslinių tyrimų objektas – švietimo politika, kalbos politika, sociolingvistika, latvių kalba ir etnopolitika bei kalbos vartojimas aukštajame moksle; smagu pasveikinti VDU UKI buvusį norvegų ir senosios skandinavų kalbos dėstytoją dr. **Ugnių Vizgirdą Mikučionį**, Vakarų Norvegijos taikomųjų mokslų universiteto Kalbos, literatūros, matematikos ir vertimo žodžiu katedros docentą, kurio mokslinių tyrimų sritys apima norvegų ir skandinavų kalbotyrą, senąją norvegų literatūrą ir mitologiją, norvegų kalbos kaip užsienio kalbos mokymą įvairiuose kontekstuose. Tikimės, kad naujieji kolegos į žurnalo politiką įneš naujo vėjo – pažangiausių idėjų ir perspektyvų bei savo patirtimi ir aktyviu dalyvavimu palaikys aukštus žurnalo standartus bei tolesnį žurnalo kokybės augimą.

Kitas svarbus momentas, įeisiantis į žurnalo istoriją, buvo mūsų organizuota 7-oji tarptautinė konferencija *Darnioji daugiakalbystė 2023*, kuri vyko birželio 9–10 d. Vytauto Didžiojo universitete, Kaune, ir tapo bendra platforma mokslininkams, kalbos politikos formuotojams, kalbų mokytojams, studentams ir visiems, norintiems diskutuoti ir dalytis patirtimi svarbiausiais daugiakalbystės klausimais, įskaitant, bet neapsiribojant tokiomis temomis kaip „Daugiakalbystė ir visuomenė“, „Kalbų mokymas ir daugiakalbės kompetencijos ugdymas“, „Daugiakalbystė ir profesinė praktika“, „Šiuolaikinė lituanistika“ ir kt. Konferencijoje dalyvavo daugiau kaip 150 mokslininkų iš daugiau kaip 20 pasaulio šalių, buvo perskaityta arti šimto pranešimų (žr. *Konferencijos santraukų knygą / Book of Abstracts*) apie atliekamus tyrimus ir dalyvauta konferencijos diskusijose, įskaitant apskritojo stalo diskusiją „Kalbos svarba aukštajame moksle“, kuri buvo Erasmus+ projekto APATCHE (*Kalbų dėstytojų kompetencijų praturtinimas daugiakalbystės dėmeniu*) sklaidos renginio dalis. Daugelis konferencijoje dalyvavusių ir savo tyrimų rezultatus pristačiusių mokslininkų pateikė arba ketina pateikti publikuoti savo tyrimus mūsų žurnale.

Straipsniai, pristatomi jūsų dėmesiui 23/2023 numeryje, suskirstyti į keturis skyrius.

Kalbų mokymas(is) daugiakalbėje ir daugiakultūroje aplinkoje. Gyvenimas tęsiasi net ir karo metu. 2022 m. vasario 24 d. prasidėjusi Rusijos karinė agresija, teroristinė invazija į Ukrainą sugriovė šalies švietimo infrastruktūrą, pristabdė ugdymo ir mokslinių tyrimų procesus, traumavo ir traumuoja visus, nuo jauno iki seno. Tačiau drąsi tauta, kovojanti už savo tėvynę fronto linijose, stengiasi išlikti ir tęsti gyvenimą, nepasiduoti, kad ir kaip sunku ar vos įmanoma būtų tokiomis aplinkybėmis. Todėl **O. Kapranovo** ir **O. Vološinos** straipsnį „Anglų kalbos mokymasis skambant oro antskrydžio sirenoms: bakalauro studijų anglų kaip užsienio kalbą besimokančių studentų tvaraus mokymosi praktikų analizė“ priėmė kaip itin aktualų ir manome

esant labai vertinga, kuriame pateikiami studentų apmąstymai apie jų tvarią praktiką mokantis anglų kalbos įvairiais įmanomais mokymosi būdais Rusijos ir Ukrainos karo metu. Remdamiesi tyrimo rezultatais, straipsnio autoriai daro išvadą, kad „daugiakalbystės ugdymas krizių metu yra įmanomas ir tvarus“, jeigu jį lydi vidinė, psichologinė ir išorinė bei institucinė parama.

Gyvename visuotinės laisvos ir priverstinės migracijos bei judumo laikais, kai net iki šiol buvusios vienakalbės Europos šalys ir (arba) institucijos vis dažniau tampa daugiakalbėmis ir daugiakultūremis; kai dėl atvirų interneto platybės išteklių, aktyvaus tarptautinio bendravimo ir bendradarbiavimo mūsų studentai ir darbuotojai tampa daugiakalbiai. Visa tai kelia naujų iššūkių švietimui, įskaitant ir kalbų mokymą; reikalingi nauji metodai, įtraukiantys ir panaudojantys mokinių daugiakalbius repertuarus ir jų patirtis kalbų mokymo procese, t. y. reikalinga daugiakalbė prieiga, nes įrodyta, kad vienakalbiai mokymo metodai užsienio kalbų pamokose nebeveiksmingi. **J. Cvilikaitė-Mačiulskienė, A. Daukšaitė-Kolpakovienė, G. Gvazdikaitė** ir **E. Linkevičiūtė** aptaria transkalbystės (*translanguaging*) aspektus mokant ir mokantis anglų kalbos aukštojoje mokykloje bei atskleidžia Vytauto Didžiojo universitete studijuojančių ukrainiečių studentų ir jų dėstytojų požiūrį į kitų kalbų vartojimą anglų kalbos pamokose. Tyrimas paremtas tvirtu teoriniu pagrindu apie būtinybę pereiti nuo vienakalbės prie holistinės kalbų mokymo paradigmos. Anot **S. Pėvrėtilovos**, straipsnio „Vienas protas, daug kalbų: Čekų kalba kaip pridėtinė kalba studentų daugiakalbiuose repertuaruose“ autorės, „daugiakalbystė yra daugiau nei gebėjimas vartoti kelias kalbas; ji įgalina kalbų tarpusavio ryšį asmens kalbinėje kompetencijoje. Tyrimas atskleidžia suvokiamą teigiamą sąveiką tarp kalbų ne tik mokantis kitą tos pačios kalbų šeimos kalbą, bet ir tarp tipologiškai skirtingų kalbų, pavyzdžiui, tarp čekų ir vokiečių kalbų; daroma išvada, kad mokantis pridėtinės kalbos, mes galime tikslingai pasinaudoti savo ankstesne kalbų mokymosi patirtimi“. **D. Pundziuvienė, A. Meškauskienė, T. Ringailienė** ir **J. Matulionienė** tyrinėja lingvistinio ir kultūrinio tarpininkavimo vaidmenį mokantis priimančiosios šalies kalbos, t. y. mokantis anglų kalbos Jungtinėje Karalystėje ir lietuvių kalbos Lietuvoje. Tyrimas atskleidė, kad tarpininkavimas, taikomas kaip kalbos mokymosi metodas per kalbų pamokas, pagerina besimokančiųjų nelingvistinių kompetencijų vartojimą, mažina kalbinius ir kultūrinius barjerus, skatina besimokančiuosius bendradarbiauti ir praturtinti savo transkalbystės kompetencijas, tačiau tam reikalinga nuosekli kalbos mokytojo pagalba. **V. Rapún Mombiela** ir **C. P. Tramallino** savo tyrime analizuoja daugiakalbių estų, besimokančių ispanų kalbos, laiko adverbialų įsisavinimą, t. y. daugiakalbystės kompetencijos įtaką kalbų mokymuisi lingvistiniu požiūriu. Straipsnyje daroma išvada, kad kalbos mokėjimo lygio kilimas ir tarpkalbinė įtaka yra labai reikšmingi aspektai trečiajai kalbai įsisavinti. **A. Mambetaljevo** tyrime analizuojamas būsimų tarptautinių studentų, stojančių į Vengrijos universitetus, požiūris į anglų kalbą ir kalbos politikos modelių pasirinkimas. Tyrimo dalyviai išreiškė teigiamą požiūrį į anglų kaip mokomąją kalbą, tačiau teikia pirmenybę daugiakalbės kalbų politikos modeliams, pabrėždami gimtosios kalbos išsaugojimo svarbą.

Skaitmeninės technologijos mokant kalbų. DI naudojimas visose mūsų gyvenimo srityse auga geometrine progresija; DI atlieka „transformuojantį vaidmenį švietime, įskaitant kalbų mokymą ir mokymąsi“ (**E. Jaleniauskiene, D. Lisaitė** ir **L. Daniusevičiūtė-Brazaitė**). Taikydamos bibliometrinės analizės metodą, autorės pateikia naujausių mokslinių tyrimų, susijusių su DI

taikymu mokant kalbų, apžvalgą: produktyvumą pagal autorius ir šalis, bendraautorystę, dažniausiai cituojamas nuorodas, populiariausius žurnalus ir dažniausius raktažodžius. Kitas šiame skyriuje pristatomas tarptautinės tyrėjų grupės (**B. Klimova, M. Pikhart, K. Fronckova, C. Sanchez-Stockhammer, Y. Stukalina, M. Iruškieta, K. Okumuş Dağdeler, E. Lejot, A. RParmaxi, R. B. Rodríguez, A. Pareja-Lora**) straipsnis skirtas užsienio kalbų mokytojų požiūriui į skaitmeninio mokymo taikymą ES šalyse. Tyrimo rezultatai rodo, kad užsienio kalbų mokytojai teigiamai vertina technologijų naudojimą kalbų pamokose ir dažnai jas taiko studentų aktyvumui skatinti mokantis užsienio kalbų, tačiau pageidauja sulaukti daugiau profesinės paramos iš savo institucijų vadovybės, t. y. mokymų, kaip naudotis naujomis technologijomis.

Kalbos visuomeniniame diskurse. **S. Anča** nagrinėja Latvijos ir Lietuvos etnografiniams regionams būdingų tradicinių ornamentų – esminės tradicinės baltų kultūros dalies – nomenklatūrą. Tyrime lyginamos abiejų šalių ornamentų įvardijimo tradicijos, išryškinamos pagrindinės paralelės ir skirtumai, atskleidžiama, kad XX a. pradžioje Latvijoje ornamentų nomenklatūros spektre aptinkama daugiau įvairovės nei dabar; „kad latviams ir lietuviams įprasta ornamentą suvokti kaip raštą, o ne atskirus grafinius elementus, kad abiejų kalbų nomenklatūroje dominuoja geometriniai, augalų, gyvūnų, artefaktų ir dangaus kūnų įvardijimai“.

Vertimo problemos. Jau tapo tradicija kiekviename žurnalo numeryje publikuoti straipsnius vertimo klausimais, nes vertimo žodžiu ar raštu svarba kalboms išsaugoti ir daugiakalbystei palaikyti yra akivaizdi, ypač šiais laikais, kai tam tikrų dominuojančių kalbų vartojimas pasaulyje įgauna vis didesnį pagreitį. Audiovizualinio vertimo problemas aptaria **I. Koverienė** straipsnyje „Abilūpinių priebalsių lūpų sinchronija lietuviškai dubliuoto filmo *BELOS KELIONĖ NAMO* vertime“. Autorė akcentuoja ne tik estetinę lūpų sinchronijos reikšmę, bet taip pat atkreipia dėmesį į nesinchronizuotų lūpų judesių daromą įtaką kalbos suvokimui. Tai pirmasis išsamiai šį aspektą analizuojantis tyrimas Lietuvoje.

Sveikindama 23-įjį žurnalo numerį ir linkėdama jam sėkmės, norėčiau padėkoti visiems autoriams, pasirinkusiems mūsų žurnalą savo reikšmingų mokslinių tyrimų sklaidai, išvalgiems recenzentams, pateikusiems vertingų konstruktyvių atsiliepimų ir idėjų rankraščiams tobulinti, bei visai redakcijos komandai: atsakingiesiems redaktoriams ir techninės pagalbos grupei (korektoriams, vertėjams, maketuotojams), kurių kruopštus darbas ir tikėjimas mūsų misija leidžia siekti darniosios daugiakalbystės tikslų.

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**KALBŲ MOKYMAS/IS
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DAUGIAKULTŪRĖJE APLINKOJE**



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LEARNING ENGLISH UNDER THE SOUNDS OF AIR RAID SIRENS: ANALYSING UNDERGRADUATE EFL STUDENTS' SUSTAINABLE LEARNING PRACTICES

Annotation. The article presents a mixed-methods study that examines how undergraduate students of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) sustain their practices of learning English during the ongoing Russo-Ukrainian war in 2022–2023. In total, 33 undergraduate EFL students (henceforth – participants) took part in the study. In order to gain insight into their sustainable learning practices, the participants were requested to write a short reflective essay titled “My Thoughts on How I Learn English during the War”. The participants were instructed to write their essays in English within a one-week timeframe. Seeking to identify and classify a range of sustainable practices related to the ways the participants learnt English during the Russo-Ukrainian war, their reflective essays were analysed qualitatively and quantitatively. The analysis of the participants’ essays revealed the following learning practices that, according to the participants, helped them to sustain their EFL learning trajectory in the wartime EFL contexts: (i) participation in online EFL courses, (ii) communication with the native speakers of English on social networking sites (e.g., Instagram), and (iii) the combination of EFL learning activities offered at the participants’ university. The findings are discussed in detail further in the article through the lens of sustainable multilingualism development. Specifically, we argue that the development of multilingualism in the time of crises is feasible and sustainable, especially if it is coupled with an EFL learner’s inner psychological factors that are further facilitated by the external support offered by the digital learning environments that are (i) institutionalised and systematic, and (ii) extra-mural and unstructured (in other words, digitally wild).

Keywords: English as a Foreign Language (EFL); EFL teaching and learning; reflective essays; sustainable EFL learning.

Introduction

Amidst the ongoing Russo-Ukrainian war, Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) in Ukraine keep providing sustainable teaching and learning processes on the tertiary level (Anishchenko et al., 2023; Banyoi et al., 2023; Kostikova et al., 2023; Lavrysh et al., 2022; Suchikova et al., 2023), inclusive of the teaching of English as a Foreign Language (EFL). Concurrently with the shocking new reality that settled in in the heart of Europe after

24 February 2022, however, one should bear in mind that Ukrainian HEIs continue to function and offer tertiary education either online or on campus (Banyoi et al. 2023, p. 75). A remarkable resilience of Ukrainian HEIs during the war showcases sustainability on the part of the faculty (Anishchenko et al., 2023) and the student body alike (Kostikova et al., 2023). To-date, however, little is known about how undergraduate students at Ukrainian HEIs sustain their learning trajectories in the wartime Ukraine of today (Lavrysh et al., 2022). Moreover, there are no published studies that look into undergraduate EFL students' practices that help them to sustain their efforts of learning English in the context of the full-scale war. It should be specified that sustainable learning practices are seen as an iterative on-going process that is based upon support and cooperation between the student and the teacher, and among the students themselves (Sterling, 2009).

The present article introduces a mixed-methods study that aims at taking stock of sustainable EFL learning practices by a group of undergraduate EFL students (henceforth – participants). In the study, the participants are asked to reflect upon their EFL learning experiences and how they sustain them during the Russo-Ukrainian war. Specifically, the participants are requested to write a reflective essay on the topic "My Thoughts on How I Learn English during the War". Anchored in the wartime EFL settings in Ukraine, the study addresses the following research question (RQ):

RQ: What are the participants' EFL learning practices that help them to sustain their learning trajectory during the Russo-Ukrainian war?

Prior to proceeding to answering the RQ, we provide an extensive review of the literature. Guided by the RQ and the aim of the study, we divide the review into two sections. First, we summarise the recent studies on the teaching and learning at Ukrainian HEIs during the Russo-Ukrainian war. Second, we review the concept of sustainable teaching and learning in EFL, since it provides the theoretical underpinnings of the study. Thereafter, the article proceeds to the present study, its corpus, methodology, results, and their discussion. Finally, we conclude the article with a series of generalisations that are of relevance to sustainable EFL learning practices.

Teaching and Learning Processes at Ukrainian HEIs during the Russo-Ukrainian War: Literature Review

There are several state-of-the-art studies that address the issue of teaching and learning processes at Ukrainian HEIs during the current Russo-Ukrainian war (Anishchenko et al., 2023; Banyoi et al., 2023; Bohomaz et al., 2022; Chaikovska et al., 2023; Kostikova et al., 2023; Kostikova & Miasoiedova, 2022; Kvyetnyy et al., 2023; Lavrysh et al., 2022; Lokshyna et al., 2023; Lopatina et al., 2023; Nenko et al., 2023; Suchikova et al., 2023; Spivakovsky et al., 2023; Tverdokhliebova & Yevtushenko, 2023; Voloshyna, 2023). Arguably, the studies share a common contention that the educational process at Ukrainian HEIs is a challenge to the students and teachers, “who have to learn to work in new realities – in the conditions of war” (Banyoi et al., 2023, p. 75). Apart from the common denominator of the ongoing war, however, the studies appear to focus on a cornucopia of didactic, organisational, and pedagogical challenges that Ukrainian HEIs face today, namely digitalisation, social transformation, and psychological health and trauma. Let us synthesise the foci in more detail.

In an effort to cope with the pressing demands of the wartime educational settings, Ukrainian HEIs strive to rely on digitalisation and online distance courses (Banyoi et al., 2023). Reportedly, e-learning and digitalisation of the teaching and learning process and the extensive use of online settings seem to be the most effective means of establishing an optimal interaction between the teacher and the student during the war (Kostikova et al., 2023; Kostikova & Miasoiedova, 2022; Voloshyna, 2023). Furthermore, the system of education in Ukraine could be characterised by an increased use of digital and distance learning technologies (Kapranov, 2023; Tverdokhliebova & Yevtushenko, 2023). The state of digitalisation of Ukrainian HEIs is seen in the literature as a mandatory means of facilitating the sustainability of Ukraine’s tertiary education system during the war (Bohomaz et al., 2022, p. 11). As far as digitalisation of Ukrainian HEIs is concerned, it is contended that the tertiary education landscape has benefitted substantially from the course of action on digitalisation during the COVID-19 pandemic (Bohomaz et al., 2022; Voloshyna, 2021). Now, in the wartime settings, there seems to be no need to

develop new protocols on digitalisation, since the system can take advantage of the existing measures that have been in place since the pandemic (ibid.). In particular, it is observed that Ukrainian HEIs avail themselves of the experiences gained during and after the pandemic that have been successfully transferred to sustaining the teaching and learning processes during the war (Kostikova et al., 2023, p. 123).

Whilst the new realities call for an extensive use of online teaching and learning, the literature highlights an increased importance of social transformation of HEIs during the full-scale military invasion (Anishchenko et al., 2023; Lavrysh et al., 2022; Suchikova et al., 2023). The literature points out to the need to pay attention to the transformation of relations among the stakeholders in the educational process (Anishchenko et al., 2023). A notable transformative aspect involves sustainability and resilience of Ukrainian HEIs (Anishchenko et al., 2023; Banyoi et al., 2023; Kostikova et al., 2023; Lavrysh et al., 2022; Suchikova et al., 2023) that have "hardened in overcoming the psychological and organizational crisis" (Anishchenko et al., 2023, p. 287).

It is argued in the literature that other transformative aspects that are associated with the current challenges to Ukrainian HEIs consist in enhancing students' agency in the learning process, providing flexible online and face-to-face schedules, and prioritising the students' psychological well-being (Lavrysh et al., 2023, p. 7). In addition to facilitating the student body's agency, it is posited that Ukrainian HEIs should create learning activities that impact positively on the students' psychological health and general well-being, given that the majority of undergraduate students exhibit signs of moderate depression (Chaikovska et al., 2023, p. 286). In this regard, there seems to be an urgent need to put a range of relevant measures in place that specify how to (i) encourage students to study despite war-related anxiety and depression, (ii) work with the students who have experienced significant trauma, (iii) design crisis-sensitive curricula, and (iv) establish a stimulating and secure environment despite resource constraints (Nenko et al., 2023, p. 16).

The literature demonstrates that Ukrainian HEIs should "ensure assistance to traumatized students by providing not only high-quality educational services but also psychological assistance" (Chaikovska et al.,

2023, p. 287). This observation should be equally applicable to the faculty as well, given that a substantial number of teachers and researchers who fled from the Russian occupation note a decrease in the effectiveness of their scientific activities (Suchikova et al., 2023), whilst approximately one-third of them have suspended research and research supervision (Lopatina et al., 2023). Hence, the system of higher education in Ukraine has experienced substantial educational losses in terms of both teaching and research potential (Lokshyna et al., 2023). In particular, the decrease in scientific activities is associated with “financial instability, lack of access to equipment, loss of relevance of previously started research, inability to concentrate on science”, to name just a few (Suchikova et al., 2023, p. 408).

Attempting to mitigate the adverse psychological condition and war trauma, Ukrainian HEIs prioritise digitalisation and online tools that have become the primary port of call for the management of educational activities (Spivakovsky et al., 2023). It is posited in the literature that a reliable digital and technological environment can help with the improvement of the psychological confidence of students and teachers during the war (Kvyetnyy et al., 2023). In other words, we can observe that the topic of digitalisation resurfaces again after the COVID-19 pandemic (Voloshyna, 2021), now in conjunction with the issues of psychological health and well-being of the students and the faculty during the war. Additionally, it is inferred from the literature (Anishchenko et al., 2023; Kvyetnyy et al., 2023; Lopatina et al., 2023; Spivakovsky et al., 2023) that digitalisation of the Ukrainian HEIs appears to be a cornerstone of sustainable teaching and learning practices. Further in the article, we provide an outline of the concept of sustainability in relation to EFL learning practices.

The Concept of Sustainable Learning in EFL

The present study is anchored in the concept of sustainable learning in EFL contexts. Whilst there are multiple and divergent definitions of sustainability in the teaching and learning processes, our study, which is further presented in the article, is informed by Sterling’s (2009) contention that sustainable learning is typically a bottom-up process that often involves

a horizontal network, where everyone may be an expert in pursuing an open-ended inquiry. Following Sterling (2009), we assume that sustainable learning is an iterative on-going process that is based upon external support and cooperation between the student and the teacher, as well as among the students in a horizontal study network. Importantly, the concept of sustainable learning factors in a paramount role of the immediate and global learning contexts (Sterling, 2009). It should be noted that the concept of sustainable learning has found its place in applied linguistics, EFL studies and English Medium Instruction (Han et al., 2021; Kapranov, 2022b, 2021; Kirsner et al., 2007; Peng & Xie, 2021).

Given that there is a wealth of publications on sustainable learning practices in a variety of EFL contexts, we focus our literature review on the most recent studies. Judging from the literature, sustainable EFL learning practices rely increasingly on online learning environments, which, to a substantial extent, determine EFL learners' engagement, satisfaction, and self-efficacy (Han et al., 2021; Kapranov, 2022a). In the wake of the COVID-19 outbreak, online EFL learning has provided an EFL learner with such sustainable activities as flexible access to learning resources and self-paced learning opportunities (Han et al., 2021; Peng & Xie, 2021). It is argued in the literature that online EFL learning is considered a sustainable and effective means of maintaining the basic EFL skills and facilitating the acquisition of more complex language skills that are often coupled with the development of new cognitive skills by an EFL learner (Han et al., 2021).

Furthermore, online EFL learning is deemed to offer "a favorable language learning environment that is interactive, supportive, and attractive in order to motivate and engage language learners" (Han et al., 2021, p. 11655). For instance, the use of Facebook is a relevant example of EFL students' development and maintenance of written communication skills that take place in a supportive and interactive learning environment (Lin et al., 2022). Likewise, the use of e-writing is conducive to the development and maintenance of syntactic complexity in EFL (Pourdana, 2022; Zenouzagh, 2020). In terms of interactive learning environments, virtual reality is reported to be a relevant technological solution for sustainable EFL learning (Wang et al., 2021). For instance, the use of virtual reality exhibits

positive effects on the EFL learners' reading comprehension concurrently with increasing motivation and decreasing anxiety (ibid.).

Whilst the literature demonstrates that digital mobile devices are utilised extensively as a linguo-didactic tool that sustains and promotes vocabulary learning (Mortazavi et al., 2021; Tanaka et al., 2015), other studies point to the sustainable development of EFL vocabulary acquisition that involves off-line contexts (Zeng et al., 2022). Put differently, the literature suggests that in order to learn vocabulary efficiently and sustainably, EFL learners may engage themselves in the so-called traditional, i.e., off-line activities that are aimed at the acquisition of cognates, polysemy, and word frequency (ibid.). An off-line perspective is also present in the studies that indicate that sustainable EFL learning involves the knowledge and maintenance of pragma-communicative skills, which an EFL learning should master and maintain in a face-to-face classroom environment (Bardis et al., 2021).

It appears that the major bulk of the recent literature in EFL studies elucidates the use of technology as far as sustainable EFL learning is concerned. We cannot help but notice that the field of contemporaneous EFL studies quite often equates the use of digital technology and online course delivery with sustainability. It is beyond our brief review to argue in favour or against such developments. However, we should add that whilst the benefits of digital technology in sustainable EFL learning are unquestionable, one should bear in mind that undergraduate EFL students may experience digital fatigue from online courses and the overuse of technology (Kapranov, 2020a).

The Present Study

As previously mentioned in the introduction, the present study aims at identifying and classifying the participants' EFL learning practices, which they think help them to sustain their level of English mastery in the wartime period. In line with the aim of the study, the RQ was formulated (see introduction). It should be emphasised that the investigation and subsequent discussion of the RQ are embedded into the theoretical premises of the concept of sustainable learning (Sterling, 2009), which is outlined in the preceding section of the article. Further, we present the procedure that is used in the study, its

methodology, the participants' demographic and linguistic background, and the descriptive statistics of the corpus that consists of the participants' essays written on the topic "My Thoughts on How I Learn English during the War".

Participants, Procedure, Corpus, and Methods

The participants in the study were undergraduate university students enrolled in the bachelor's programme in agricultural engineering. As a part of their programme, they had to attend obligatory courses in English for two years, that is the first and the second years of study. At the time of the data collection in spring 2023, the participants were enrolled in the second year of their EFL programme. In total, 33 participants (male 57.6%, female 42.4%, mean age 19.4, standard deviation 0.6) took part in the study. The participants' first language (L1) was Ukrainian and English was a foreign language (FL) to all of them. Judging from the tests that the participants took during their first year at university, their English proficiency would be described as intermediate B1 level according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (The Council of Europe, 2001). The participants provided their consent that allowed the authors of the article to use their reflective essays in the present investigation. The participants' real names and other socio-linguistic data were coded and anonymised to ensure confidentiality.

As far as the procedure in the study was concerned, the following should be specified. The participants were contacted about the study and its purpose in spring 2023 that is one year after the full-scale Russian invasion. The participants were requested to write a reflective essay on the topic "My Thoughts on How I Learn English during the War" at home within one week and send the essays to the authors via e-mail. The participants were asked to write approximately 300 words or half an A4 page in English. It should be specified that no strict parameters were set for the essay writing. In particular, the participants were not limited as far as the number of words were concerned. Importantly, however, we instructed the participants to focus their reflective essays on their own experiences of learning English during the war and we kindly asked them to abstain from general and too vague statements that had little or nothing to do with the topic. Otherwise, the participants were

free to write as much as they deemed necessary and structure their reflective essays in the way they wanted.

All the participants wrote their reflective essays in English and sent them electronically to the authors. The participants' essays were downloaded and analysed in the Statistical Package for Social Sciences, or SPSS version 20.0 (IBM, 2011). The descriptive statistics of the corpus were given in Table 1 below.

Table 1

The Descriptive Statistics of the Corpus

#	Descriptive Statistics	Value
1	Total number of words	9 464
2	Mean words	286.8
3	Standard deviation words	125.4
4	Minimum words	123
5	Maximum words	591

In terms of the methodology, the corpus of the participants' essays was analysed qualitatively and quantitatively. The qualitative part involved the reading of the participants' essays several times by both authors in order to identify those instances in the essays where the participants explicitly refer to the EFL learning practices that, according to them, sustained their EFL skills. In our qualitative analysis we relied on the prior literature in EFL studies, which showed that EFL students' reflections on their EFL learning could provide a wealth of data related to their identity, perceptions of English, digital practices associated with the learning of English, and problems in their EFL learning (Kapranov, 2018, 2020b, 2015). Following the literature (Wale & Bishaw, 2020), we regarded the participants' reflective essays as a robust source of data. However, we were aware that an EFL student's reflections upon their EFL learning would be subjective and, at times, biased. We acknowledged that in our analysis and the interpretation of the results.

Following the qualitative part of the analysis, we examined the participants' essays quantitatively by means of calculating the percentage of the participants who referred to a particular EFL practice that helped them to sustain their EFL skills during the war. The percentage was calculated in SPSS version 20.0 (IBM, 2011). Thereafter, we extended the quantitative analysis by means of carrying out the frequency analysis of the key words in

context (KWIC) in the computer programme AntConc version 4.0.11 (Antony, 2022). We used the KWIC function of AntConc in order to have a closer look at how the participants referred linguistically to the learning of English (i.e., what frequent phrases they used in conjunction with the description of their EFL learning activities). To that end, we merged the participants' reflective essays into one file and processed it in AntConc by applying the KWIC function. The results of the investigation and their discussion are presented in the following section of the article.

Results and Discussion

The analysis of the participants' essays has revealed that they refer to several types of EFL learning activities that, according to them, help to sustain their EFL skills during the war. These activities are summarised in Table 2 per group.

Table 2

The Participants' Sustainable EFL Practices

#	The Participants' Sustainable EFL Practices	Percentage of Participants
1	Learning English at online EFL courses	21.2%
2	Learning what is given at the university	21.2%
3	Chatting with English-speaking friends on social media	15.2%
4	Watching TV news in English	12.1%
5	Using online apps	9.1%
6	Watching TV series in English on Netflix	6.1%
7	Listening to audiobooks in English	6.1%
8	Listening to podcasts in English	3.0%
9	Reading scientific articles in English	3.0%
10	Learning English face-to-face with a private tutor	3.0%

It is evident from Table 2 that the participants seem to prefer the following types of EFL learning practices that help them to sustain their EFL learning trajectory during the Russo-Ukrainian war: (i) free online EFL courses, (ii) deep learning of what is offered at the university, and (iii) chatting with their English-speaking friends on social networking sites. Let us discuss these findings in more detail. As mentioned above, 21.2% of the participants indicate that learning English at free online EFL courses facilitates the maintenance of

their EFL skills during the war. Importantly, we have observed that those participants who mention online EFL courses as a means of sustaining their English point out to such factors as motivation and an increased desire to learn during the war. Arguably, the combination of motivational variables with the participation in online EFL courses, obviously in addition to being enrolled in their regular undergraduate programmes at the university, may be accounted by the stressful reality the participants are situated in. Judging from the data, however, the participants seem to draw their motivation from the adversities of the war, as emblematised by Excerpt 1 taken from the participant's reflective essay.

(1) Learning English now during the war is not easy. The biggest problem for me is to study online with power outages. I must say that when there is no electricity and the Internet does not work it is impossible to study in the online course. But [...] I think about the soldiers at the front who are fighting in the east and I get focused and happy with the things I have and it makes me studying harder and use my time productively. (Female participant, 19 y.o.)

The participants' enrolment in online EFL courses as a means of sustaining and, most likely, improving their EFL skills resonates with the previous studies, which indicate that digitalisation and online distance courses are embraced by the HEIs in Ukraine as a necessary measure of ensuring the sustainability of Ukraine's tertiary education during the war (Banyoi et al., 2023; Bohomaz et al., 2022; Kostikova et al., 2023; Kostikova & Miasoiedova, 2022; Tverdokhliebova & Yevtushenko, 2023). It should be noted, however, that the participants' enrolment in online EFL courses is not compulsory. This learning activity is suggested by the lecturers at their ordinary EFL course at the university. However, the lecturers do not mandate it, thus leaving it to an individual student to decide whether or not online EFL courses that are not affiliated with the university would be a viable option to be explored by the student.

In addition to those participants (21.2%) who refer to online EFL courses as a means of sustaining their EFL learning practices, another subgroup

of participants (also 21.2%, just like the previously mentioned one) posit that they are focused on what is provided within their ordinary EFL course at the university. The participants in this subgroup do not seem to report being involved in such extra-mural learning activities as, for instance, online EFL courses or engaging with the native speakers of English online. Instead, they appear to prioritise the learning tasks that are routinely offered to them by the university lecturers as a part of their undergraduate EFL course. It should be specified that when we were analysing the participants' reflective essays, we found out that five out of seven participants in this subgroup (21.2% in total) refer to depression and difficulties with concentration. Presumably, a high level of anxiety and war trauma are not conducive to the participants' extra-mural activities, for instance, studying online at a distance EFL course or chatting online with an English-speaking friend. Conceivably, the stress and anxiety that are experienced by these participants consume a substantial deal of cognitive and mental resources that are just enough for deep learning of what is provided at the university. This observation is illustrated by Excerpt 2 below.

(2) I can't sleep because there are air sirens almost every night. Our city is like 1000 km from the front but we have the sirens for more than one year now. I can't focus on anything other than the present. My answer to all that is to live one day at a time. That's why my strategy to learn English is to simply do what our teacher asks us to do. I try to focus on grammar exercises and on vocabulary and do it properly. (Male participant, 20 y.o.)

Excerpt (2) above epitomises negativity, stress, and anxiety associated with the war that the participants experience. This finding lends support to the literature, which posits that an additional amount of attention should be paid to the current student body in Ukraine that experiences psychological problems, in particular, moderate depression (Chaikovska et al., 2023; Lavrysh et al., 2023), frustration and trauma (Nenko et al., 2023; Suchikova et al., 2023), and inability to concentrate (Lokshyna et al., 2023; Lopatina et al., 2023). In case of the participants in our study, we can argue that they deal

with their depression and war-induced trauma by means of concentrating on their everyday routines, inclusive of learning English the way it is taught at their regular EFL course. Obviously, the participants' traumatic war-related experiences merit a separate study and, at least, a post-hoc interview concerning the relationship between their war trauma and EFL studies. Whilst we acknowledge that such post-hoc interviews would provide a deeper insight in the issue at hand, we would like to emphasise that it has not been our intention to delve into the issue of the participants' anxiety and their EFL studies due to a host of ethical considerations. For instance, via the informal communication with the participants, we have learnt that the majority of them have family members on the frontline. Therefore, upon careful consideration, we decided not to cause even more trauma and anxiety to the participants by requesting them to talk about their negative war-related experiences. We acknowledge that the absence of the post-hoc interview would constitute a limitation of the present study; however, we hope that it would be possible to conduct such interviews after the war.

It is seen in Table 2 that the third most frequent EFL practice that helps to sustain the participants' EFL skills involves communication with their English-speaking friends on social media, specifically on social networking sites. The participants write that they typically chat on messenger on Facebook and/or use the message function on Instagram in order to exchange short messages with their English-speaking friends. Notably, three participants specify that their English-speaking friends hail from the USA and Great Britain, whereas the rest of them do not disclose any additional information concerning their friends' nationality apart from generic references that they are native speakers (L1) of English. Critically, the participants (15.2%) indicate that chatting with English L1 speakers facilitates the maintenance and acquisition of vocabulary in English, whilst none of them report positive gains in grammar that eventuate from online chatting. This finding is further illustrated by Excerpt (3):

(3) I am on Insta very often. I upload loads of pix there mainly about my city and less so about me. I hate selfies. What I like about Insta though is that I stay connected with a lot of people who comment on

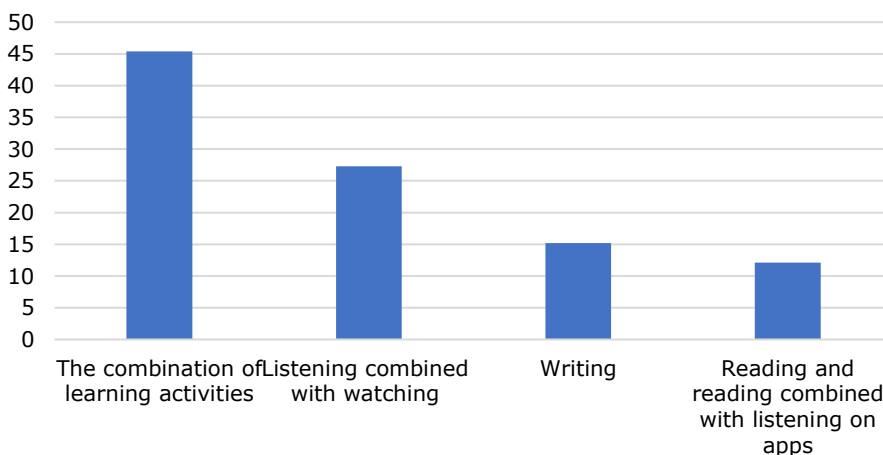
my pix. I have followers all over the globe. I chat with two friends from London. They write to me in English and I write back in English too. They taught me a lot of useful words like pix and Insta instead of Instagram. (Male participant, 19 y.o.)

A facilitative role of using social networking sites and the digital wilds of unstructured out-of-classroom exposure to authentic English online is in concord with the literature which reports that Facebook, Instagram, and other social networking sites can ensure the maintenance of EFL students' written skills (Kapranov, 2022b; Lin et al., 2022) and the expansion of their vocabulary (Pourdana, 2022; Wang et al., 2021). The present findings are also in line with the literature in the field of EFL studies that report the cross-fertilisation effect of writing skills on sustaining an EFL learner's vocabulary (Karataş & Tuncer, 2020; Zhang & Zhang, 2022).

In terms of the participants' EFL-related activities, we have noticed from the data that they could be divided into several clusters, namely i) the combination of learning activities offered at online courses, the university course, and/or private tutoring; ii) writing; iii) listening and watching that is combined with listening; and iv) reading and reading that is combined with listening on apps. These findings are graphically represented by Figure 1 below.

Figure 1

The Participants' EFL-related Activities



It is evident from the findings summarised in Figure 1 that the participants are engaged in a combination of EFL-related activities that are offered at their university EFL course and/or online EFL courses. Often, the participants do not disentangle the activities and state that their strategy of learning English involves doing “what our teacher asks us to do” (Male participant, 20 y.o.). The combination of EFL-related activities is followed by listening, inclusive of listening that is combined with watching news and/or TV series in English. However, it appears that writing and reading are less popular EFL-related activities (see Table 2 and Figure 1).

In order to gain a deeper insight into the participants’ EFL-related learning activities, we have applied AntConc’s (Antony, 2022) function “key words in context” or KWIC to the verb *learn* and its forms (i.e., *learns*, *learning*, *learnt/learned*, *will/shall learn*). The application of AntConc to the data has yielded no hits with *learnt/learns/learned/will learn/shall learn*, but provided ample data concerning *learn*, *to learn* and *learning*. These findings are summarised in Table 3 below.

Table 3

10 Most Frequent KWICs Learn, to Learn and Learning

#	KWIC	Examples
1	Learn	To learn English during the war is a difficult
2	Learn	To learn English during the war can be
3	Learn	To learn English during the war means to study online
4	Learn	To learn English for me is to listen to audiobooks
5	Learn	To learn English during the war I need a laptop
6	Learn	To learn English properly
7	Learn	To learn English I visit sites that offer grammar and pronunciation
8	Learn	I learn English online
9	Learn	I learn English because it is important
10	Learn	I learn English because it is very important for my future career
11	Learning	English during the war is not easy
12	Learning	English during the war is a challenge
13	Learning	English during the war is important
14	Learning	English by different methods
15	Learning	English can be a difficult task
16	Learning	English during the war can be a challenge
17	Learning	Can help me connect with foreigners
18	Learning	English can help me communicate with my friends
19	Learning	English helps me understand the news
20	Learning	English online

It follows from Table 3 that *learn*, *to learn*, and *learning* are used by the participants in the contextual environment that seems to be associated

with evaluative lexica, e.g. "To learn English during the war is difficult". In addition, the evaluative lexica involve an emotive component, e.g. "I learn English because it is very important for my future career". These findings open an avenue to explore the participants' attitudinal and motivational variables in relation to their EFL studies. We, however, leave these aspects to be explored in future studies. Currently, we restrict our discussion to the participants' EFL learning activities. So far, it seems possible to summarise the discussion by positing that the participants contextualise their learning by referring rather frequently to studying online and listening to audiobooks, whilst other frequently occurring EFL activities involve listening and watching either TV series on Netflix or news on, for instance, BBC.

Conclusions, Limitations, and Directions for Future Research

The article involves a mixed-methods investigation of the participants' reflective essays that are written on the topic "My Thoughts on How I Learn English during the War". Following the analysis of the corpus of the participants' essays, we can conclude that the participants avail themselves of the learning opportunities afforded by online EFL courses. In equal measure, the participants seem to make the uttermost use of their EFL university course by means of concentrating on the everyday EFL learning routines. In addition, we have established that the participants appear to be actively engaged in chatting with their English L1 friends on social networking sites (primarily, on Instagram).

We argue that the study can be summarised as having three overarching conclusions. First, digitalisation and online technology offer positive affordances to undergraduate EFL students. Specifically, we posit that during the war, online apps, free online EFL courses, online podcasts and online streaming services such as, for instance Netflix, and social networking sites facilitate the maintenance and sustainability of EFL skills. In equal measure, we suggest that the routinely used quotidian EFL activities associated with the traditional mode of EFL learning sustain EFL learners' skills that involve, first of all, vocabulary.

Second, we contend that in the context of the ongoing Russo-Ukrainian

war one should bear in mind the old parable that wisely points that there is nothing new under the Sun. Just like the participants in the study who continue studying English during the war, there are and there were countless EFL students, as well as teachers, who tried to stay on the path of learning and education even during the darkest of modern times, for instance during the Balkan wars in the 1990s (Bał, 2012). Hence, we argue that whilst the present study is contextualised in the EFL settings in Ukraine, its relevance may extend beyond Ukraine's borders and may be of interest to a wide circle of readers and EFL professionals, who are engaged in the EFL teaching and learning amidst the current conflict zones globally. Third, we argue that our findings may contribute to the sustainable multilingualism development by means of the following. It is evident from the findings that the participants who are currently situated in the wartime EFL contexts do not appear to revert to strict monolingualism (i.e., using their L1 only), but seem to sustain their efforts to foster EFL acquisition in a variety of ways (online EFL courses, deep learning strategies, etc.). Judging from the data, the participants' sustainable EFL learning practices are combined with a host of psycholinguistic and psychological variables, such as their motivation to speak English as a means of finding a job, learning English as a way to cope with anxiety and war-related stress by means of diverting their thoughts from the war and, instead, focusing on the EFL studies as a sort of escapism. Hence, we contend that multilingualism development in the time of crises is feasible, possible, and sustainable, provided that an EFL learner's inner psychological factors are expedited by the external support offered by the digital learning environments, which can be (i) institutionalised and systematic, and (ii) ad-hoc and unstructured (in other words, digitally wild).

Obviously, there are several limitations of our study that we would like to summarise. The first limitation involves the absence of post-hoc interviews with the participants. We have indicated the reasons in the discussion section of the article why we consider such interviews not possible at the moment. However, we believe that the structured interviews with the participants could provide a wealth of data associated with their sustainable EFL practices. We hope that such interviews will be employed in our future studies. The second major limitation of the study involves the absence of the participants'

reflections on how they used to study English before the war. The contrasting points between the pre-war and wartime EFL contexts would be a promising direction of the future research.

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**АНГЛІЙСЬКА ПІД ЗВУКИ СИРЕН: АНАЛІЗ ПРАКТИКИ
СТАЛОГО НАВЧАННЯ EFL СТУДЕНТАМИ БАКАЛАВРАТУ**

Резюме. У статті представлено емпіричне дослідження, яке вивчає, як студенти бакалаврату англійської мови як іноземної (EFL) підтримують практику вивчення англійської мови під час російсько-української війни, що триває у 2022–2023 роках. У дослідженні взяли участь 33 студенти бакалаврату EFL (далі – учасники). Для того, щоб отримати уявлення про їхні практики сталого навчання, учасникам було запропоновано написати короткий твір-роздум під назвою «Мої думки про те, як я вивчаю англійську мову під час війни». Учасникам було запропоновано написати твори англійською мовою протягом одного тижня. Прагнучи визначити та класифікувати низку стійких практик, пов'язаних із тим, як учасники вивчали англійську мову під час російсько-української війни, твори були проаналізовані якісно та кількісно. Аналіз творів учасників виявив такі практики навчання, які, на думку учасників, допомогли їм підтримувати траєкторію навчання EFL під час війни: (i) участь в EFL онлайн-курсах, (ii) спілкування з носіями англійської мови на сайтах соціальних мереж (наприклад, Instagram) і (iii) навчальні заходи з EFL, які пропонуються в університеті. Отримані результати детально обговорюються далі в статті через призму сталого розвитку багатомовності. Зокрема, ми стверджуємо, що розвиток багатомовності під час кризи є здійсненним і стійким, особливо якщо він поєднується з внутрішніми психологічними факторами учня, якому додатково сприяє зовнішня підтримка, запропонована як (i) інституціоналізованим та систематичним, так і (ii) позааудиторним і неструктурованим середовищем.

Ключові слова: англійська як іноземна мова (EFL); викладання та навчання EFL; твір-роздум; стійке навчання EFL.

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**ANGLŲ KALBOS MOKYMASIS SKAMBANT ORO PAVOJAUS
SIRENOMS: BAKALAURO STUDIJŲ STUDENTŲ TVARAUS
MOKYMOSI VEIKLŲ ANALIZĖ**

Anotacija. Straipsnyje pristatomas mišrių metodų tyrimas, kuriame nagrinėjamos anglų kalbos studijų programos bakalauro studentų tvaraus mokymosi patirtys studijuojant anglų kaip užsienio kalbą vykstant Rusijos ir Ukrainos karui 2022–2023 metais. Iš viso tyrime dalyvavo 33 bakalauro studijų anglų kaip užsienio kalbos studentai (toliau – dalyviai). Siekiant išsiaiškinti dalyvių tvaraus mokymosi patirtis, jų buvo paprašyta parašyti anglų kalba trumpą refleksijos esė „Mano mintys apie tai, kaip aš mokausi anglų kalbos karo metu“; esė rašymo terminas – viena savaitė. Siekiant nustatyti ir suklasifikuoti įvairias tvaraus mokymosi patirtis, susijusias su dalyvių anglų kalbos mokymosi būdais per Rusijos ir Ukrainos karą, jų refleksijos esė buvo analizuojamos taikant kokybinius ir kiekybinius tyrimo metodus. Esė analizė atskleidė šias tvaraus mokymosi veiklas, kurios, pasak dalyvių, padėjo jiems išlaikyti anglų kaip užsienio kalbos mokymosi trajektoriją karo metu: (i) dalyvavimas internetiniuose anglų kaip užsienio kalbos kursuose, (ii) bendravimas su gimtakalbiais anglų kalbos vartotojais socialiniuose tinkluose (pvz., „Instagram“) ir (iii) dalyvių universitete siūlomų anglų kaip užsienio kalbos mokymosi veiklų derinys. Gauti rezultatai išsamiai aptarti straipsnyje. Taip pat išsamiai aptartos išvados per tvarios daugiakalbystės plėtros prizmę. Tiksliau, mes teigiame, kad daugiakalbystės ugdymas krizės metu yra įmanomas ir gali būti tvarus, ypač jei jis susijęs su besimokančiojo anglų kaip užsienio kalbos vidiniais psichologiniais veiksniais, kuriuos dar labiau palengvina išorinė skaitmeninių mokymosi aplinkų teikiama parama, jeigu ji (i) institucionalizuota ir sisteminga, ir (ii) vykstanti už švietimo institucijos ribų ir yra nestruktūrizuota (kitais tariant, autentiška skaitmeninė).

Pagrindinės sąvokos: anglų kaip užsienio kalba; anglų kaip užsienio kalbos mokymas ir mokymasis; refleksijos esė; tvarus anglų kaip užsienio kalbos mokymasis.

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TRANSLANGUAGING IN TEACHING AND LEARNING OF ENGLISH AT UNIVERSITY LEVEL: THE PERSPECTIVES OF UKRAINIAN STUDENTS AND THEIR TEACHERS

Annotation. Classrooms at all levels of education are becoming more diverse, as they include more and more multilingual and multicultural students. Their teachers start understanding that, especially in foreign language classes, monolingual approaches to teaching and learning are not effective anymore, and search for other pedagogical techniques and practices that would involve their students' linguistic repertoires as an asset in their classes. This study aimed to learn about the attitudes towards and experiences of the use of other languages in the English classroom by including the perspectives of English teachers and their Ukrainian students who, having fled their home country due to the war against Ukraine or having chosen to participate in student exchange, came to study at Vytautas Magnus University in Kaunas, Lithuania. Two online questionnaires including open and closed ended questions were used to gather data. Thus, the study was both quantitative and qualitative. Even though several literature review sections in this article describe a switch from monolingual to a more holistic paradigm that includes translanguaging, this and other terms employed to describe the use of other languages were not introduced to the research participants. The English teachers' and their Ukrainian students' attitudes towards and experiences of the use of other languages in the English classroom are first looked at separately and then compared in the concluding section. The findings revealed that both Ukrainian students (58.3%) and teachers (84.2%) have experience of other languages being used in their English classroom. They also agree that translation into the language that students understand is used as a strategy helping the students to understand grammar and vocabulary, yet the students indicated gesturing as a strategy used to explain unknown vocabulary. Other strategies related to the use of other languages were also mentioned and described. The teachers and the students pointed out that Russian and Lithuanian were the most frequently employed other (than English) languages in their English classroom, even though the teachers believed they used mostly Russian, whereas the students believed their teachers mostly used Lithuanian.

Keywords: code-switching; teaching English as a foreign language; teachers of English; translanguaging; translation; Ukrainian students.

Introduction

Due to globalisation, migration of people for economic, religious and other reasons has become a norm. As a result, foreign language and other study subject classes at schools and universities are becoming less monolingual and more often multilingual. In addition, internationalisation of educational institutions is perceived as a great value, so teachers from other countries are recruited to teach abroad as well. Classes may be taught to students who do not share the same native language with their teacher or even some or most of other students. This reality of multilingual and multicultural classrooms has called for a need to turn away from monolingual teaching methods and approaches and search for new ones to meet students' needs and make the learning process more effective. Some of such methods and approaches are related to the inclusion of students' cultures and linguistic repertoires to achieve particular purposes. In fact, the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment – Companion Volume* (subsequently CEFR) "promotes the need for learners as 'social agents' to draw on all their linguistic and cultural resources and experiences in order to fully participate in social and educational contexts, achieving mutual understanding, gaining access to knowledge and in turn, further developing their linguistic and cultural repertoire" (Council of Europe, 2020, p. 123). This reflects on the importance and usefulness of a variety of languages and cultures in the teaching and learning of all study subjects in all study cycles.

Vytautas Magnus University (VMU), a liberal arts university located in Kaunas, Lithuania, receives both local and international students every academic year and semester. The latter students arrive for a semester or two on student exchange programmes (e.g., Erasmus+) or for full degree studies. In 2020, the university established a fund to support the students suffering from repression by the Belarusian government, but the activities of the fund were extended when the Russian war against Ukraine broke out in February 2022 (VMU, 2022). Until May 2023, Lithuania has welcomed over forty-five thousand Ukrainians (Migration Department under the Ministry of the Interior of the Republic of Lithuania, 2023). VMU has also invited some Ukrainian students fleeing their country to study at VMU free of charge. In over a year

VMU has admitted a few hundred Ukrainian students.

According to VMU Study regulations (2021), all first cycle students (except for those in the study programme of English Philology) need to study English as a foreign language as an obligatory study subject until advanced level (C1 or C1/C2) proficiency is achieved. Thus, all enrolled students take VMU English Placement Test to determine the level at which they will start studying English at VMU. The students from Ukraine have followed the same procedure. In the light of the sociopolitical context causing the students to come to study in Lithuania and developments in multilingual and multicultural pedagogies, the authors of the present paper were interested in learning about the experiences of the Ukrainian students studying and their teachers teaching them English (as an obligatory study subject). According to the information provided by VMU International Cooperation Department, students from Ukraine constituted more than 30% of all international students in the spring semester of 2023, and their number has been constantly increasing. Although these students studied various levels of English in different linguistically diverse classrooms (dominated by Lithuanian students), as an international group they were the largest group in comparison to the students of other nationalities, but at the same time they could be seen as minority students in each of those classrooms. As linguistically sensitive teaching is about both the use of the majority and minority languages (Aguirre et al., 2021), the authors of this paper decided to focus on the latter aspect. It was assumed that the teachers and the students would start employing translanguaging techniques because of a shared language – Russian. Most Lithuanian teachers of English know this language because of the former education system during the Soviet occupation. For Ukrainian students, Russian is either their native language or a widely used Slavic language that is close to Ukrainian. It was believed they (both the teachers and the students) would be likely to employ their linguistic repertoires including various other languages to a greater or lesser extent. Thus, the study aimed to find out the attitudes towards and experiences of the use of other languages in the English as a foreign language classroom from the perspectives of both Ukrainian students and their English teachers at VMU. Just like in the study by Wang (2019), the concepts of languaging, translanguaging, code-switching, code-mixing or any similar ones, which in one

way or another refer to the use of at least several languages, were neither introduced nor mentioned to the participants of the present study.

Literature Review

This section presents a literature overview in which the shift from the monolingual to multilingual approach in teaching is described, including the discussion of related concepts – linguistically sensitive teaching and translanguaging.

The Monolingual vs Multilingual Approach

The monolingual approach in foreign language teaching has been a norm for many years. According to Cummins (2007), the so-called monolingual principle (influenced by direct method) promotes the use of the target language and excludes the students' native language. Other languages that students and/or their teachers can understand are excluded as well. However, due to "globalisation and internationalisation of higher education" (Inci-Kavak & Kirkgöz, 2022, p. 106), in the past several decades or so, a gradual turn from monolingualism to multilingualism can be observed in foreign language teaching and learning. In 2019, the European Parliament pointed out "the potential of Europe to become a real educational power by drawing on the richness of our diversity and exchanging good practices to address existing and future challenges" (2019, p. 5). One of the aspects of this richness is linguistic diversity, in other words, multiculturalism and multilingualism in Europe that should be seen as a resource that students can bring into foreign language (or other study subject) classes and is used in the study process to make it more student-friendly and effective.

Even though student linguistic repertoires would differ in proficiency, their activation would facilitate learning (Leung & Valdes, 2019). Cummins highlights the importance of students' linguistic diversity by saying that students' languages, for instance, the first language (which may or may not be the mother tongue) is not an enemy but rather "a cognitive and linguistic resource," which can be used for scaffolding in teaching and learning of other

languages (2007, p. 238) or other strategic purposes (Mazak & Herbas-Donoso, 2015). The use of only the first language or the mother tongue would be possible in teacher instruction and spontaneous student interaction and production in exclusively monolingual classes (Inci-Kavak & Kırkgöz, 2022; Leung & Valdes, 2019), but to have such classes is becoming less and less common. This suggests that “monolingual bias” (Cenoz & Gorter, 2011, p. 239) and “monolingual instructional approaches” (Cummins, 2007, p. 222) should not find their place in contemporary classrooms anymore and thus need to be avoided. Consequently, Cenoz and Gorter claim that there is a need to search for and implement some sort of alternative, in other words, a “holistic approach that takes into account all of the languages in the learner’s repertoire” (2011, p. 239). Naturally, such approaches are related to students’ multilingual competences.

However, these ideas related to multilingual competences do not necessarily or do not always manifest themselves in practice. For instance, teachers and researchers sometimes perceive the use of students’ first language in foreign language classes as an instructional failure rather than a welcomed teaching practice or a norm (Cummins, 2007). Other languages that students can speak or understand are out of the question. Portolés and Martí explain that it is so due to the long-standing belief that languages should be taught separately, which in turn helps to keep these languages pure and avoid the danger of the so-called “cross-linguistic ‘contamination’” (2020, p. 250). The avoidance to use other languages in a foreign language classroom is referred to as language/linguistic separation (Gorter & Arocena, 2020). This monolingual ideology promotes the use of one language and prevents all activities that involve interaction with other languages, e.g., translation (Gorter & Arocena, 2020). One of the reasons not to use translation might be related to the outdated grammar-translation method that used to be actively used in foreign language classrooms (Cummins, 2007). In addition, the monolingual ideology still prevails in many teaching programmes and materials (e.g., textbooks), especially in teaching English as a foreign language (Leung & Valdes, 2019). Yet, the reality of multilingual societies and linguistically diverse classrooms is bringing the awareness and understanding that languages should not be separated or isolated, as the knowledge of one can

help, support or significantly boost the learning of another one (Gorter & Arocena, 2020; Otwinowska, 2017). This approach to language teaching and learning is referred to as cross-linguistic (Otwinowska, 2017), "cross-language transfer" (Cummins, 2007, p. 222) and "collaborative meaning making across languages" (Cummins, 2007, p. 228). Such multilingual pedagogies are seen as inclusive ones as well (European Commission, 2018a), since in one way or another they include and make use of the languages the students in multicultural and multilingual classrooms can speak/understand.

Mehmedbegovic and Bak define multilingualism as "the generic term for exposure to and use and/or knowledge of more than one language" (2017, p. 150). In addition, Canagarajah (2011) notes that in fact everyone has multilingual competence and puts it in practice. Thus, multilingualism is more natural than it might seem. Even texts on the Internet are multimodal and multilingual (Canagarajah, 2011).

Linguistically Responsive Teaching, Teachers and Students

As mentioned above, the shift from mono- to multilingualism has called for search of new teaching strategies, methods and approaches to cater for what Lucas and Villegas call "culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) students" (2013, p. 98). The teachers who make use of their students' linguistic and cultural repertoires are referred to as "linguistically responsive teachers" (Lucas, & Villegas, 2013, p. 100) or "linguistically and culturally responsive teachers" (Alisaari et al., 2019, p. 48). Such teachers are aware that their students' languages are an asset and a resource in their classes (Lucas, & Villegas, 2013) and understand the role they can play in the learning process, which in turn is called "linguistically and culturally responsive teaching" (Alisaari et al., 2019, p. 48). Other terms, such as "linguistically sensitive teaching (LST)," are used as well. The following definition makes it clear what linguistically sensitive/responsive teaching is:

Linguistically sensitive teaching (LST) is a teaching approach that seeks to find an adequate, sensitive and inclusive answer to the question of the increasingly multilingual scenery in education. LST takes into account four areas: 1) the multilingual environment of the school as a whole,

2) the wellbeing of students as related to the chance to use their full linguistic repertoire, 3) the adequate use of languages inside the classroom with the aim of understanding and cooperation of the students, and 4) flexible use of both majority and minority languages. (Aguirre et al., 2021, p. 49)

It is evident that to ensure linguistically sensitive/responsive teaching, it is not enough to employ the students' linguistic repertoires, as it is only one of the four areas that it includes. On the other hand, at present, this particular area is given close attention, while others could and should be studied in the future.

In 2018, the European Commission pointed out the importance of linguistically sensitive approach by stating that: "Learner's entire linguistic repertoire can be valued and supported in school and also used as a pedagogical resource for further learning of all learners. Pupils can help each other in learning, explain their language(s) to others and compare languages" (2018, p. 1). This shows that linguistically sensitive/responsive teachers need to be "linguistically aware" (European Commission, 2018b, p. 1) and "sociolinguistically conscious" (Lucas, & Villegas, 2013, p. 102). Lucas and Villegas explain that sociolinguistic consciousness is about the "understanding that language, culture, and identity are deeply interconnected" but also considers "the sociopolitical dimensions of language use and language education" (2013, p. 102). This means that the use of students' first, mother tongue or heritage languages should no longer be forbidden in any foreign language classroom, since the learning of those languages is linked to the learning of other languages, students' needs and identities as multilingual individuals (European Commission, 2018b). Furthermore, the use of the mother tongue can be seen as what Skutnabb-Kangas calls a "linguistic human right (LHR)" that all human beings, both speakers and signers, should be able to live their life with dignity (2018, p. 16). Moreover, "The most important Linguistic Human Right (LHR) in education for ITMs [Indigenous/Tribal/Minority], if they want to reproduce themselves as peoples/minorities, is an unconditional right to mainly mother tongue medium multilingual education (mother-tongue-based multilingual education) in non-fee state schools" (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2018, p. 39). Yet, in the context of foreign language teaching and learning, teachers sometimes still assume that

the use of other languages steals or wastes their instruction time or occupies their students' "brain space" (Mehmedbegovic & Bak, 2017, p. 156). These false and potentially student-harming assumptions will gradually change. Mehmedbegovic and Bak suggest that "rethinking engagement with languages [i]s a lifestyle change, which is systematically and integrally built into developing habits, behaviours and understandings from early childhood throughout school education and adulthood with the aim of utilising language diversity for the benefits of individuals and societies" (2017, p. 164). The change has already happened in some countries, and there are some EU funded projects demonstrating examples of good practice, for example, the LISTiac Project (Linguistically Sensitive Teaching in All Classrooms). The webpage of the project meets the readers with the words "We are here for change" (The LISTiac Project).

Translanguaging: Definition and Classifications

Emphasis on linguistically sensitive teaching and the turn to the multilingual or holistic paradigm in language education calls for practices of a different nature. Such pedagogical practices promote more inclusive teaching methodologies that encourage the use of multiple languages in a foreign language classroom and recognize students' linguistic repertoire as an asset rather than a threat. In academic literature, these pedagogical practices have received various names: "metrolingualism", "polylinguaging", "language meshing", "code-switching strategy", "sustainable translanguaging", "pedagogical translanguaging" (Gorter & Arocena, 2020), "language alteration" (Mazak & Herbas-Donoso, 2015), "co-linguaging" (Lewis et al., 2012), "codeswitching", "codemixing" or "codemeshing" (Cenoz & Gorter, 2011), "the concurrent approach" or "transidiomatic practices" (Leung & Valdes, 2019). The authors of this article support Gorter and Arocena's (2020) opinion that the most widespread term used by researchers is "translanguaging" and will use it as the key term throughout this article. Furthermore, the focus in this paper is on translanguaging techniques in foreign language education, although we are aware that translanguaging occurs in other subject classes as well (see, for example, Lewis et al., 2012; Williams, 2020; Inci-Kavak &

Kirkgöz, 2022; Mazak & Herbas-Donoso, 2015).

The term derives from the Welsh “trawsieithu” which in the 1980s referred to the pedagogical practice of employing two languages in Welsh classrooms (Leung & Valdes, 2019). Although initially it was defined as “the process of making meaning, shaping experiences, gaining understanding and knowledge through the use of two languages” (Baker, 2011, p. 288), its application has expanded to the use of multiple languages in discourse (Mazak & Herbas-Donoso, 2015) or to “a simultaneous use of more than one language in classrooms” (Makalela, 2015, p. 200). The Council of Europe defines translanguaging as “an action undertaken by plurilingual persons, where more than one language may be involved” (Council of Europe, 2020, p. 31). García and Hesson also explain translanguaging as “operating in and across many languages” and call it “a critical 21st century skill and an important communicative resource” (2015, p. 230). Canagarajah regards translanguaging as a social accomplishment (which, in turn, concurs with the idea in the CEFR that language learners should be seen as social agents (Council of Europe, 2020)) and emphasizes its essential aspect – co-constructing meaning (Canagarajah, 2011). Translanguaging is often referred to as a process (Lewis et al., 2019; Mazak & Herbas-Donoso, 2015) or a pedagogical practice (Mazak & Herbas-Donoso, 2015), or even a conceptual framework (Wang, 2019). In this regard, translanguaging is not directed at creating chaos in the classroom, but rather, it has a goal to facilitate, clarify, or encourage, “because deeper learning may occur when both languages are activated” (Lewis et al., 2012, p. 667). During translanguaging, all linguistic resources are employed to organize and reinforce learning “in a dynamic and functionally integrated manner” (Lewis et al., 2012, p. 656). With a growing diversity of students from different cultural and linguistic backgrounds in the classroom, translanguaging becomes a tool to explore creative language use in language education (Wang, 2019).

As a theoretical framework and pedagogical practice, translanguaging is difficult to systematize due to its fluidity and adjustability, because it involves flexible movements across languages for situation-specific purposes. Despite its resilience to being framed, there are attempts in academic literature to classify translanguaging on the grounds of various criteria.

According to Canagarajah (2011), translanguaging is a natural phenomenon, while, for example, Ngcobo et al. (2016) see it only as a planned one. For other researchers translanguaging is both intentional or planned and spontaneous (Lewis et al., 2012).

Translanguaging is also classified in terms of who initiates it. Viewed from this perspective, it can be teacher or pupil-led, teacher-directed, or pupil-directed (Lewis et al., 2012). Wang also distinguishes between teacher or pupil-initiated translanguaging and elaborates to further name them, respectively, "explanatory strategy and managerial strategy" and "interpersonal strategy" (Wang, 2019, p. 144). The explanatory and managerial strategy aims to clarify and manage the classroom, while the intrapersonal strategy is mostly used by students to interact, raise questions, and help each other in collaboration (Wang, 2019).

Another trait attributed to translanguaging is its circumstantial nature, as the choice of translanguaging techniques is adjusted to a given situation in a particular classroom. Makalela claims that translanguaging "involves a high degree of social sensitivity and selectivity within short time intervals during a communicative act" (Makalela, 2015, p. 202). Moreover, Rukh et al. note that in interaction languages are utilized at different ratios (Rukh et al., 2014). In addition, due to a variety of classroom settings, translanguaging may encompass diverse communicative modes and forms (Mazak & Herbas-Donoso, 2015).

Multifaceted translanguaging practices are illustrated by Makalela (2015) who reports on situations in multilingual African classrooms, where teachers explicitly compare concepts in several languages (the so-called "contrastive elaboration strategy") and encourage discussions in any available language. To enhance the learning process, among many techniques used, students are allowed to use bilingual dictionaries, encouraged to write multilingual blogs, join a private Facebook group where several languages are used, etc. (Makalela, 2015).

Mazak and Herbas-Donoso (2015) distinguish between spoken translanguaging practices, codemeshing, and switching the languaging mode in the classroom. While the latter seems to be clear, "spoken translanguaging practices" and "codemeshing" need more elucidation. On the other hand,

the latter typology confirms that translanguaging is a complex and multilayered term that might overlap with other terms (see the following section for a comparison with code-switching and translation).

To conclude, translanguaging is a complex yet flexible phenomenon of a “multi-modal nature” (Mazak & Herbas-Donoso, 2015, p. 705). It occurs in a specific multilingual classroom and involves various teacher or student-initiated, planned, or spontaneous techniques of multi-directional use of more than one language to facilitate learning (a language or another subject).

Translanguaging, Code-switching, and Translation

It might appear that translanguaging and code-switching as well as synonyms thereof overlap. Several researchers (Gorter & Arocena, 2020; Inci-Kavak & Kirkgöz, 2022; Lewis et al., 2012, and others) claim that they do not relate due to ideological implications and semantic incongruence related to their meaning. Gorter and Arocena (2020) state that translanguaging and code-mixing or code-switching are not substitutes because the latter “suggest that languages are bounded entities with fixed codes, whereas translanguaging prefers to emphasize the fluidity of boundaries or even only acknowledge the existence of so-called named languages as socio-political constructs” (Gorter & Arocena, 2020, p. 5). Lewis et al. (2012) also suggest that code-switching implies language separation, while translanguaging, on the contrary, allows flexible use of several languages in the learning process. Thus, the traditional view that languages are distinct systems or “codes” with “lines of demarcation” (Inci-Kavak & Kirkgöz, 2022, p. 108) is challenged.

It should be mentioned that the questioning of the existence of discrete languages has sparked an academic debate in which MacSwan (2017) criticized the scepticism towards so-called “named languages” and the adoption of the “unitary view” (Otheguy et al., 2015) to a bilingual’s internal linguistic system. He proposed a multilingual perspective on translanguaging based on internally differentiated rule systems drawing on linguistically successful examples of code-switching (MacSwan, 2017). The critique and the proposal were in turn castigated by Otheguy et al. (2019) who questioned the validity of MacSwan’s data and claimed that his theory was supported only by examples

in two languages. Moreover, they explained that their contention was “whether the many lexical and structural features mastered by the bilingual stand in a corresponding relationship to the two well-established social categories that the society sanctions through its two language names” (Otheguy et al., 2019, p. 631). Otheguy et al. (2019) also claimed that code-switching was a by-product of the dual correspondence theory, discussed by MacSwan.

While code-switching is usually associated with the use of two languages, more than two languages may be involved during translanguaging. Furthermore, it does not occur in separate sessions or some pre-ordered sequences of events, but rather, it happens in a continuum of language use (Portolés & Martí, 2020). Makalela concurs with the idea and adds that “languages overlap one another in a continuum of discursive resources that are naturally available to multilingual speakers” (Makalela, 2015, p. 202). In translanguaging, learners are not concerned with deliberately changing codes; on the contrary, they are engaged in the process of meaning-making (Canagarajah, 2011; Mazak & Herbas-Donoso, 2015).

Another common technique employed by language teachers is translation, which is often used to facilitate the introduction of learning content, to clarify, to convey the meaning of new vocabulary, or for other purposes. Researchers argue that translanguaging and translation are not the same, because translanguaging is about resorting to the whole linguistic repertoire of the classroom and nurturing all languages involved in the learning process, while translation might be associated with language separation. As Lewis et al. (2012) state, translation amplifies the division into “majority” and “minority” languages, which have socio-political connotations. Nevertheless, we think that translation could be considered as a translanguaging technique, because both teachers and students might resort to their linguistic repertoires to explain, for instance, new vocabulary by translating it and thus mediating meanings and knowledge to each other.

Considering the arguments provided above, we agree with Mazak and Herbas-Donoso (2015) that the terms “translanguaging” and “code-switching” or other similar terms should not be used interchangeably. However, we hold the view that the meanings of the terms do overlap. Admittedly, “translanguaging” is a broader term, encompassing a few more specific

techniques that might include, considering the flexible nature of the phenomenon, occasional code-switching, or translating, if a situation demands it. Besides code-switching and translation, learners or teachers might resort to peer collaboration, illustrating, web applications, or using body language, to name but a few. In conclusion, translanguaging transcends a mere mixing of languages or just translating and is a purposeful multimodal collection of strategies occurring in a linguistically responsive multilingual and multicultural classroom.

Promoting Translanguaging in Foreign Language Education

The benefits of translanguaging in language education include improved language proficiency, increased student engagement, participation, and motivation. Leung and Valdes (2019) indicate the most obvious, therefore overlooked by many, advantage of translanguaging for both, teachers and students: a possibility to expand their multilingual competence by listening to and thereby learning some elements of foreign languages that are used by other students and/or teachers. Students develop their language skills by drawing on their existing linguistic knowledge and using it to make connections with a new language they are learning. Likewise, teachers can translanguage to facilitate language learning by providing support in a language their students know or understand (Raman & Yigitoglu, 2015). For example, in a study reported by Makalela students acquired idiomatic vocabulary easier because they could compare the new expressions with the ones in their language during their classroom communication (Makalela, 2015, p. 212).

Another significant advantage of translanguaging practices is an enriched overall learning experience. Through translanguaging, multilingual and multicultural students reinforce their “sense of plural selves” and develop their cultural awareness by discovering cross-cultural similarities – “cultural congruence”, which leads to “cultural gaps closing” (Makalela, 2015, pp. 209–212). A report of a study of an English classroom in Turkey mentions such benefits as a feeling of connectedness, establishing rapport, the ability to express feelings, the possibility to compare L1 and L2, student engagement,

etc. (Raman & Yigitoglu, 2015). Among other advantages of translanguaging practices, Wang (2019) also indicates improved classroom communication and relationship between teachers and students.

It should be noted that there are some reservations regarding the application of translanguaging techniques in very linguistically diverse educational settings. To quote Leung and Valdes, "when students and the teacher have very divergent linguistic repertoires, there may well be a need to critically examine the consequences of translanguaging with only some of the students and not with the others" (Leung & Valdes, 2019, p. 365). We can presume that this might imply inefficient use of classroom time, linguistic or cultural misunderstandings, a feeling of being excluded, or other issues, which should be further examined. Another concern is expressed in the context of migration due to which translanguaging, presumably, poses a certain threat to migrant languages. Mammadova et al. (2023), for instance, claim that translanguaging may lead to the emergence of new language variations or even the loss of migrants' native tongues, as speakers use simplified versions of several languages and do not strictly follow language rules. On the other hand, researchers emphasize the creativity and flexibility of translanguaging (Canagarajah, 2011; Makalela, 2015) and call it "both linguistically and culturally transformative" (Makalela, 2015, p. 215). As opposed to the monolingual approach, which, according to Makalela, is "a huge constraint on multilingual learners' linguistic flexibility" (Makalela, 2015, p. 203), translanguaging "broadens and deepens our understanding of the interactional practices of bilinguals" (Inci-Kavak & Kirkgöz, 2022, p. 108).

As a pedagogical methodology with many applications and benefits, translanguaging should be practised and further studied (Rukh et al., 2014; Makalela, 2015; Inci-Kavak & Kirkgöz, 2022; Leung & Valdes, 2019; Wang, 2019). Clearly, with classrooms changing towards more cultural and linguistic diversity, there will be a growing need for teachers with rich linguistic repertoires. Furthermore, according to Wang (2019), to utilize translanguaging strategies, language teachers need more theoretical background and training. Leung and Valdes (2019) summarize that translanguaging poses new possibilities, as well as challenges. Fortunately, university representatives recognize and accept the challenge and undertake various research initiatives

on the issue. For example, the APATCHE project (Adding Plurilingual Approaches to Language Teacher Competences in Higher Education), uniting several European universities and coordinated by Vytautas Magnus University (Lithuania), aims to raise awareness and enrich the competences of language teachers with plurilingual approaches, as well as to equip them with necessary tools for their application in higher education (The APATCHE Project).

As the study that is discussed further in this article deals with the use of multiple languages in the English as a foreign language classroom, it promotes the message that multilingualism is useful in both teaching and learning and at the same time serves as a means of linguistic and cultural inclusion.

Research Methodology

As mentioned in the introduction, the present study was conducted at Vytautas Magnus University located in Kaunas, Lithuania, which is a university based on liberal arts offering a variety of study programmes to both local and international students, including students from Ukraine. The researchers set an aim to find out about translanguaging (as defined in the previous section of the paper) in an English as a foreign language classroom from the perspectives of Ukrainian students and their English teachers.

The following research questions were raised:

1. What is Ukrainian students' attitude towards and experience of the use of other languages in the English classroom?
2. What is English teachers' attitude towards and experience of the use of other languages in the English classroom?

To find answers to these questions, the researchers compiled two online questionnaires adopting quantitative and qualitative approaches to data collection. One set of questions was aimed at students from Ukraine studying English as an obligatory subject in Spring 2023, while the other addressed teachers of English who had Ukrainian students enrolled in their classes in the same semester. Each questionnaire was composed of some close-ended questions to collect data quantitatively as well as open-ended questions to get

a qualitative view on the topic. The technical terms of translanguaging, code-mixing and code-switching were not introduced to the participants of the research.

Research participants. The total population of the survey was 67 respondents:

- 48 Ukrainian students studying English as a foreign language at VMU in the spring semester of 2023 in mixed nationality classrooms, as students register to the courses themselves and the classrooms are not formed based on student nationalities (even though, as the university is located in Lithuania, naturally most of the students in the classroom could be Lithuanian). Any EFL class may have been attended by one, several or more Ukrainian students at a time. Target sampling of students rather than classrooms was used.
- 19 teachers: there were 28 teachers teaching English in the spring semester of 2023, but only 20 were approached and invited to participate in the study, as others were not teaching Ukrainian students at that time. 19 teachers out of 20 agreed to participate.

They were each sent an email with a link to a corresponding online questionnaire.

Research instruments for data collection. The student questionnaire collected students' demographic data, as well as data regarding the use of other languages in the English classroom, using 11 close-ended multiple-choice questions with a single-select or multi-select answer options. Students' attitudes towards translanguaging were examined with the help of two open-ended questions, in which students were asked to describe how they felt about their English teacher using another language (other than English) that they could not understand or about their teacher not being able to use another language that they understood.

The teacher questionnaire collected teachers' demographic data and data on teachers' experience of and attitudes towards using other languages in their English classes. It was comprised of 15 close-ended single-select and

multi-select multiple-choice questions, one structured 5-point Likert Scale question and three open-ended questions. The Likert-Scale question included 10 statements and measured teachers' attitudes and practices on a scale ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree". The open-ended questions asked teachers to list some advantages and disadvantages of using other languages when teaching English, and addressed situations when teachers could not explain the study content in a language other than English because their linguistic repertoire was different from their students' repertoires.

The data collected from Ukrainian students and English teachers (who had Ukrainian students enrolled in their classes) was analysed separately with the aim to find out the main tendencies in the attitudes and practices within each sample group.

Results and Discussion

This section presents and discusses the answers in relation to the findings received through the two questionnaires.

Ukrainian Students' Attitudes towards and Experiences of the Use of Other Languages in the English Classroom

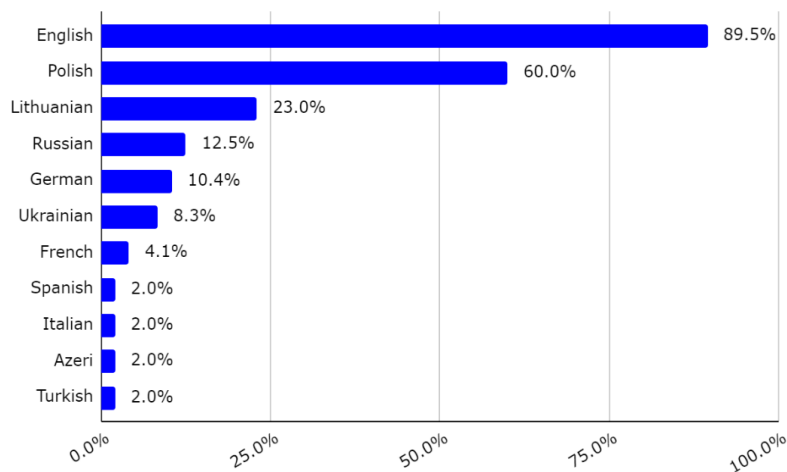
The student questionnaire that included 13 questions aimed at examining the attitudes of Ukrainian students towards the use of other languages in their English language classes at VMU. In total, 48 Ukrainian students, aged between 17–22 and above, took part in this survey. The participants reported to be studying English at various levels from A2 to C1/C2. There was one student at the time studying at A2 level (2.1%), eight students (16.3%) studying at B1 level, 20 students (40.8%) at B2 level, 14 students (28.5%) at C1 level and five participants (10.2%) at C1/C2 level. Even though the context of the study was educational, the students were asked about their home languages first. Half of the students indicated it was Ukrainian, and only 10.4% said it to be Russian. On the other hand, 35.4% of

the students reported that they could use both Ukrainian and Russian languages. Another combination of home languages was Russian and Belarussian, which made up 4.2%.

When the students were asked to indicate what other languages they understood, most of them chose more than one language. Evidently, English was one of the best-known languages with 89.5% of students having chosen it. In addition, more than 60% chose Polish as a language that was familiar. Around 23% reported they also understood or used Lithuanian, which is quite significant considering that more than 50% had been studying at VMU for two or three semesters. Other languages mentioned by the students were German, French, Spanish, Italian, Azeri, and Turkish. It is worth noting that some students placed Russian and Ukrainian in the column of other languages with 12.5% and 8.3% respectively. An extensive list of other languages is provided in Figure 1 below.

Figure 1

Other Languages Understood by Ukrainian Students



The questionnaire then intended to find out if their teachers ever used any language other than English in their English classes. More students reported this to be the case with 58.3% of respondents having chosen *yes* and 41.7% choosing *no*. This may signal that translanguaging practices are still not as prevalent among EFL teachers as they might be hoped to be. The students

who answered positively were then referred to the next question which aimed to distinguish what languages their teachers used in their English classroom. Unsurprisingly, 56.2% reported that the language their teachers employed most often was in fact Lithuanian, which might have been related to the fact that these were mixed language classes with Lithuanians being the dominant group. More than 18% of the students pointed out that it was Russian, whereas occurrences in Ukrainian made up a modest 6.2%. The students who answered negatively were then asked if they would be more motivated to study if other languages that they understood were used. The results varied and revealed that 60% of the students would indeed be more motivated, whereas 40% would not experience any change in motivation.

Finally, the study attempted to examine if the students received enough support in other languages while studying English. It was evident that half of the students believed to have enough support in other languages, just over a tenth stated that they did not receive enough support in other languages when studying English, less than a quarter did not know, whereas 14.6% stated that they did not need support. This could be explained by the fact that most of the interviewed students were studying English at a higher level, either B1 or B2, which meant they were independent users.

The following set of questions focused on examining how it made the students feel when the teacher explained something in a language that they were unfamiliar with. One in two of the respondents explained that they felt *normal, neutral, fine, ok* or that they were *trying to understand* when the language of instruction was some other than the one they knew. Some of them (10.4%) were positive about this practice and pointed out that this was acceptable, since the teacher could also provide explanations in a language they understood. One student even confirmed that hearing a language that was unfamiliar expanded their understanding. However, around a third of the students described those emotions as being more negative, using words like *strange, confused, discomfort, sad, uncertainty* and *embarrassed*, which calls attention to what Leung and Valdes (2019) mentioned when commenting on the use of translanguaging strategies in diverse language classes. It might be assumed that almost a third of the classroom experienced a feeling of being left out when exposed to an unknown language. Yet, it should be taken into

account that other students could feel the same way if they did not understand Russian, which is the case for the younger generation, when the teacher explained something to Ukrainian students. Finally, less than one in five students chose not to comment on this question.

The students were then asked to elaborate on how it made them feel when their teacher could not explain something in a language that they understood. The answers revealed that students' views differed quite a lot. Approximately 30% reported generally feeling *neutral* or *fine* in such situations, while other answers demonstrated that a quarter of the students had never experienced such a situation. Negative comments accounted for 22.9%, with the students having used such words as *embarrassed*, *discomfort*, or *confused*. Other answers revealed that some students were happy to translate the unknown items themselves or that they did not need any explanations. Since teachers have different ideologies regarding the use of students' home languages, it is not surprising that some students experienced their L1 being disregarded. In a study done by Alisaari et al. (2019), it was found that a quarter of the respondents showed restraint regarding the use of home languages.

Furthermore, students were asked to comment on how their EFL teachers explained unknown words or English grammar rules to find out what translanguaging strategies were used by the teachers. For the question regarding explanation of new words, it was possible to choose as many options as necessary to reveal their experience. The strategy adopted most often was explanation by using gestures, which accounted for 37.5% of all instances. It showed that body language was indeed a very useful resource for teachers. The use of dictionaries, which could probably be ascribed to the use of web applications, was also reported as a popular strategy, with approximately one in three students having chosen this option. Another widely accepted technique was translating a word into Russian or another language that the students knew, which made up 29.1%. Illustration as a strategy to achieve clarity was also employed by some teachers, for example, showing a picture to facilitate learning was chosen by 22.9%. Other strategies were drawing a picture (18.7%) and asking a student who speaks one's native language to explain the meaning (18.7%), which is an example of peer collaboration and

mediation. Another solid technique, which constituted 12.5%, was asking the students to translate a word into Russian to make sure that they understood it correctly. Those who chose *other* included *explanation in other words, using definitions or simpler words, trying to explain in English, explaining with synonyms*, or made a comment that *the situation never occurred*.

In terms of explanation of grammar, there were four possible answers given, as well as an option to choose *other* and provide one's own idea. 45.8% of students chose more than one strategy but the one mentioned most frequently was comparing English grammatical structures with the ones in Russian/other languages that they understood. The second most popular technique was to ask the student who speaks one's native language to explain it to them with around one in five students having chosen it. As it was mentioned in the sections on translanguage theory, translation is used to make sure that the learner understands the concept in their "stronger" language (Lewis et al., 2012). Therefore, using Russian or other languages to explain was chosen by 18.7% of the students. Finally, asking the students to translate into Russian to see if they grasped the idea was another important technique which accounted for over a tenth of the respondents. A few students commented that they either did not need any explanations or that the ones provided were clear. Other comments included such ideas as providing more examples and focusing on practice or trying to explain in English; one student explained that their teacher did not ask them if they understood grammar.

Teacher Attitudes towards and Experiences of the Use of Other Languages in the English Classroom

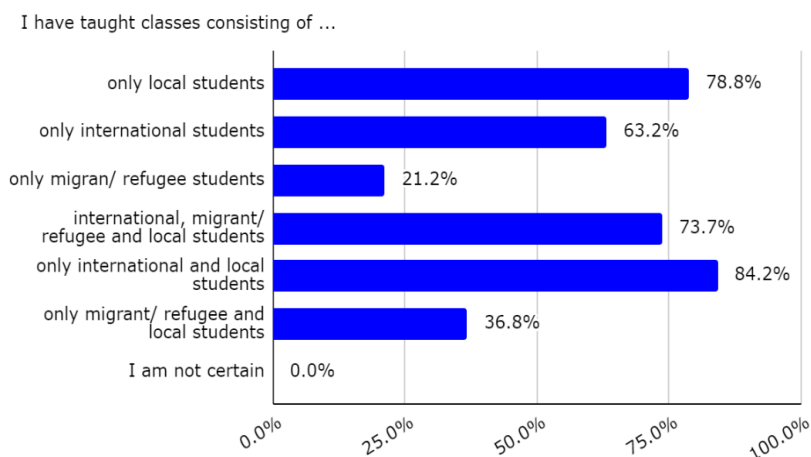
The teacher questionnaire consisted of 15 questions aimed at finding out VMU teachers' attitudes towards and experiences of using other languages in their English classroom. In total, 19 teachers of English participated in the survey. The respondents varied in age ranging from under 30 (5.3%) to over 60 (15.8%), with more than half (57.9%) being 41–50 years old at the time of the survey. The rest of the teachers were aged 31–40 and 51–60, each group making 10.5% of the sample.

Likewise, the participants' professional experience ranged from under 5 (5.3%) to over 31 (15.8%) years of teaching. Most of the respondents (36.8%) reported to have been a teacher for 21–25 years, followed by 21.1% of those having a teaching experience of 16–20 years. 10.5% said they had been teaching for 11–15 years. The rest of the sample indicated to have been in the job for 6–10 (5.3%) or 26–30 (also at 5.3%) years.

Moreover, the respondents indicated to have taught English to both monocultural and multicultural student groups (Figure 2). A vast majority (84.2%) reported to have taught mixed classes comprising international and local students. The second most frequently chosen answer was teaching English to only local student groups, at 78.8%, followed by teaching English to mixed classes consisting of international, migrant/refugee and local students (73.7%) and working with groups of only international students (63.2%). At the bottom of the list were the options of teaching mixed groups of migrant/refugee and local students (36.8%) and working with exclusively migrant/refugee students (21.1%).

Figure 2

Experience in Teaching English to Local, International and Refugee/Migrant Students

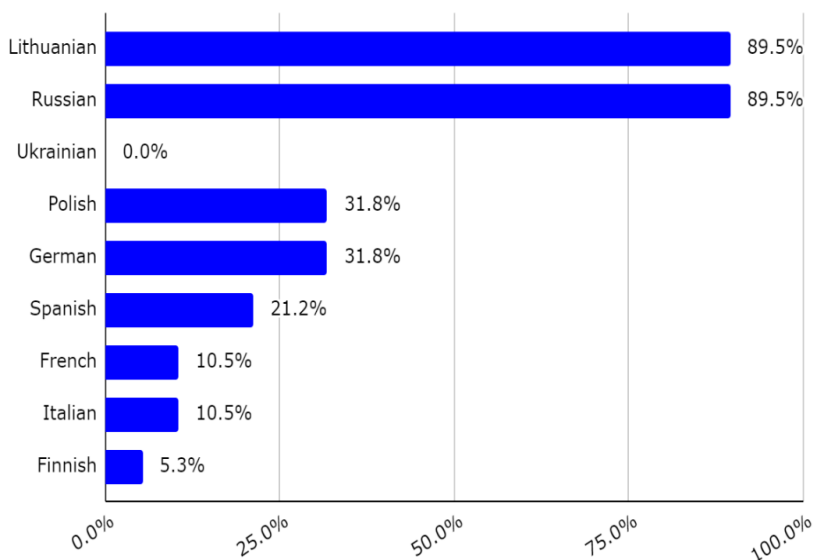


The participants were also asked to specify which level(s) of English they were teaching at the time of the survey. At the top of the list, levels C1

and B2 were each mentioned by nearly half of the respondents, 47.4% and 42.1% respectively. Nearly a third of participants said they were currently teaching English level B1, 10.5% pointed to level A2 and 10.5% mentioned level C1/C2. None of the surveyed were teaching English at level A1. Interestingly, over half of the respondents admitted to specializing in one level of English at the time of the survey, nearly a third said they were teaching two levels, and only 5.3% were teaching three levels when the study was carried out.

Figure 3

Other Languages Spoken by Teachers of English at VMU



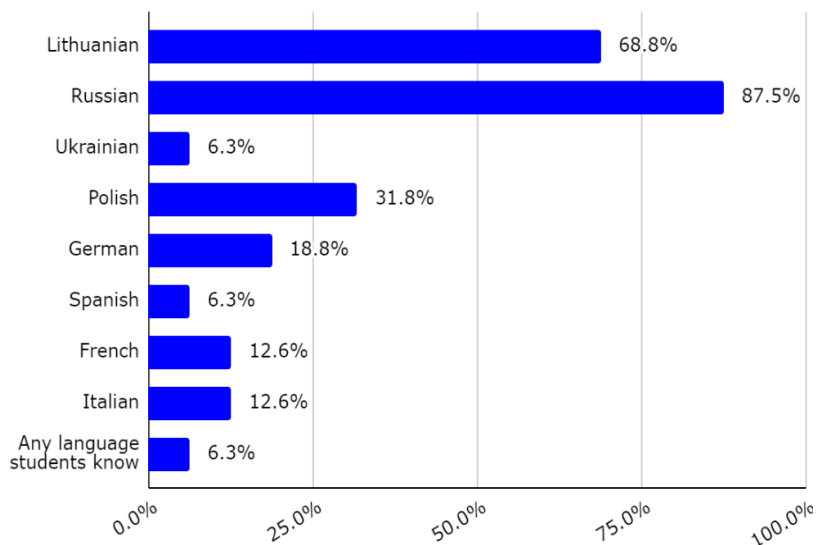
To complete the general profile of the surveyed, the respondents were asked to list other languages, in addition to English, they could speak (Figure 3). The results revealed that a vast majority of VMU teachers of English (89.5%) spoke Lithuanian and Russian, which is in line with the fact that the survey was carried out in Lithuania, formerly occupied by the Soviet Union, as well as with the age of the respondents (see above). 31.8% of the participants claimed to be able to speak Polish; the same number said they knew German. Other languages mentioned by the respondents included Spanish (15.8%), French (10.5%), Italian (10.5%) and Finnish (5.3%). In

the light of the present study, it is worth pointing out that none of the teachers in the survey said they could speak Ukrainian, assumingly the home language of at least some of the Ukrainian students at VMU and, therefore, a language that could be used for translanguaging in their English classroom.

Having considered the findings discussed above, it can be generalized that an average teacher participant in the present study is an experienced teacher, who has been teaching English (at a higher level) to both monocultural/monolingual and multicultural/multilingual student groups for more than 10 years and who can speak at least two other languages in addition to English.

Figure 4

Other Languages Used by VMU Teachers of English in English Classes



Speaking of teaching practices, 84.2% of the respondents said they used other languages in their English classes. As Figure 4 illustrates, among the most frequently mentioned languages were Russian (87.5%), Lithuanian (68.8%) and Polish (31.8%). Much less frequently indicated languages were German (18.8%), followed by French (12.6%) and Italian (12.6%). Interestingly, 6.3% of the teachers claimed to use Ukrainian in their classes, which seems to contradict the respondents' answer to the question about

the languages they could speak, as none of the surveyed mentioned knowing or using Ukrainian (see Figure 3 above). This may suggest that they perceived their knowledge of the language at a lower than mastery level as the inability to speak it (Canagarajah, 2011), even though they knew the language enough to be able to use it in their classes. Other 6.3% reported to use either a student's home language or any other language they knew, which allows an assumption that the lecturer uses any of the languages of their linguistic repertoire that a student is also familiar with, not necessarily Ukrainian or Russian.

Furthermore, the teachers claiming to use foreign languages in their classes were also asked if their use of other foreign languages had become more frequent since the outbreak of the war in Ukraine. More than half gave a positive answer, 37.5% responded negatively, and 6.3% said they had no previous experience of teaching English to Ukrainian students.

With regard to teachers' knowing their students, just over half of the respondents participating in the survey seemed to know their students' linguistic repertoires. When asked if they knew what languages (other than English, Ukrainian and Russian) their students from Ukraine could understand, only 52.6% of the sample responded positively while 47.4% admitted not being aware of any other languages their students knew. Most likely, the teachers assumed that if a student was from Ukraine, a Slavic country and a former republic of the Soviet Union, then they should know at least some Russian, and that was the reason why Russian was indicated as the most frequently used other foreign language in an English classroom (see Figure 4 above).

Nevertheless, most of the respondents (73.8%) believed that a teacher should know the linguistic repertoire of their students. 5.3% of the participants suggested that students themselves should disclose the languages they know. 21.5% had no opinion. Those expressing a positive opinion were then asked about the ways they learnt their students' linguistic repertoires. A vast majority (92.9%) claimed they had asked their students about other languages they could understand and/or use. Half of the teachers stated they could infer a learner's linguistic repertoire by knowing where the student was from. This goes in line with the assumption expressed above that instead of asking their students from Ukraine what languages they understood, the teachers

tended to assume that they should know some Russian.

Moving on to the teachers' attitudes towards the use of other languages in their classes, most of the respondents (79.1%) agreed that a teacher of English should be able to speak other foreign languages as well. 63.2% of them had a strong positive opinion, 15.9% said that knowing another language *is not a requirement, but it's helpful; it's good but it's not a must*, and that *a teacher's plurilingual competence is very important ... it is very important to be able to use students' home languages as a teaching resource during language lessons*. 5.3% of all the participants believed that it was a teacher's choice whether they should learn another foreign language, and 15.9% had no definite opinion.

It seems that teachers of English at VMU saw numerous benefits of using other languages in their classrooms. Among those most frequently mentioned in the survey were *increased plurilingual and pluricultural awareness; respect for other cultures and languages* (reported by 42.4% of the respondents); *better understanding of topics, words and grammatical concepts* (31.8%); *greater student involvement and satisfaction* (26.5%); *better relations with students and better atmosphere in the classroom* (15.9%). 37.1% of teachers claimed that using translation and examples comparing several languages was a more convenient way to explain grammar and vocabulary, thus enhancing students' language acquisition; 10.6% said it added interest and fun to the process of learning. Only 5.3% did not think they needed to use other foreign languages in their English classroom.

Compared with the benefits, the disadvantages seemed to be fewer. 21.2% of the respondents said that not all students knew the languages used by foreign students and, if they heard a language they did not understand, they might have felt excluded. In addition, 21.2% claimed that using other languages was time-consuming; 15.9% reported that it might cause distractions from English; 10.6% said that students, when allowed to use other languages in an English classroom, tended to overuse their home languages. Nevertheless, over a quarter of the respondents were positive and saw no disadvantages of using multiple languages in their classes.

To better understand teachers' attitudes and practices of teaching English in a multicultural classroom, the respondents were also given a Likert-scale question, consisting of 10 statements. The results (Table 1) confirmed

that most the respondents in the survey were positive about the use of other languages. All the participants agreed or strongly agreed that it was a good idea to teach English by comparing it to other languages. Moreover, 16 out of 19 (84.8%) approved or strongly approved of allowing the use of other languages in their English classroom and disagreed or strongly disagreed that language mixing should be prohibited in English classes. Three respondents (15.2%) were not certain; none admitted having a negative opinion.

Table 1

Teacher Attitudes Towards and Use of Other Languages in an English Classroom

Statement	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree or disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
My attitudes to multilingualism affect my choices of classroom activities.	4	8	6	0	1
It is a good idea to allow the use of other languages (e.g., students' home languages) in an English classroom.	5	11	3	0	0
I use only the target language in my English classes.	1	5	2	10	1
I allow students to use other languages that I understand.	6	6	6	1	0
In English classes, language mixing should be prohibited.	0	0	3	10	6
It is a good idea to sometimes teach English by comparing it to other languages.	13	6	0	0	0
I translate particular lexical items into a language that my students understand.	9	7	3	0	0

TRANSLANGUAGING IN TEACHING AND LEARNING OF ENGLISH AT UNIVERSITY
LEVEL: THE PERSPECTIVES OF UKRAINIAN STUDENTS AND THEIR TEACHERS

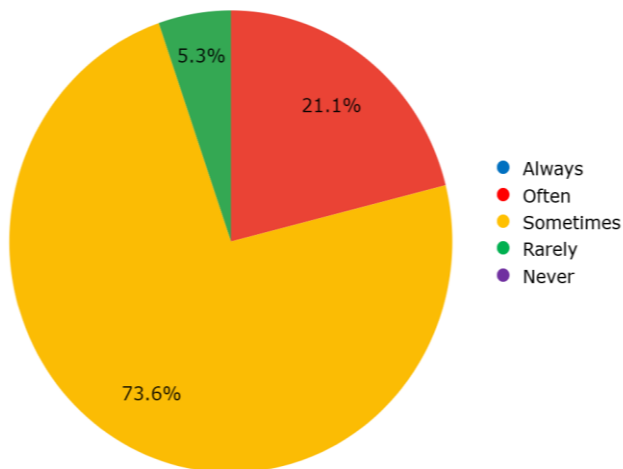
Statement	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree or disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
I explain grammatical constructions in a language that my students understand.	5	9	4	1	0
I avoid using translation in my English classes.	0	2	3	7	7
I encourage cooperation between/among students speaking the same language (other than English) in my English classes.	5	5	6	3	0

As the findings showed, teachers' positive attitudes were reflected in their teaching practices. 63.6% of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed that their attitudes to multilingualism affected their choices of classroom activities. Most of the participants said they translated lexical items or explained certain grammatical constructions (84.8% and 74.2% respectively) in a language that their students understood. More than half claimed they allowed students to use other languages that the teacher could understand (63.6%) and encouraged cooperation among students speaking the same language (other than English) (53%).

It must be acknowledged, however, that some inconsistency was observed in the data. For instance, 58.3% of the respondents admitted employing other languages in their English classes in contrast to 31.8% who claimed they used only the target language. Yet, when asked about using translation in their classes, the number of those who said they avoided translation and thus relied on the target language was three times smaller (10.6%). Moreover, all the respondents claimed they relied on examples from other languages that students could understand when teaching a new grammatical or another topic (Figure 5). Over one fifth of the teachers reported to often use examples from other languages, almost three quarters said to do that sometimes, and one (5.3%) rarely applied the technique. None of the respondents said they avoided providing examples from other languages.

Figure 5

Teachers' Use of Examples from Other Languages When Teaching a New Grammatical or Lexical Topic in English



The inconsistency in the participants' responses in the present survey may be explained by the fact that, like most foreign language teachers, teachers of English at VMU are multilingual language users who understand that languages are not discrete or isolated. For them, foreign language acquisition does not involve developing "separate competencies for each language, but a multicompetence that functions symbiotically for the different languages in one's repertoire; and, for these reasons, proficiency for multilinguals is focused on repertoire building – i.e., developing abilities in the different functions served by different languages" (Canagarajah, 2011, p. 1). As a result, even those claiming to teach English without using other languages in their classes seem to refer to other languages, if not through translation, then through examples, which helps students to better understand lexical units and grammatical constructions of the target language.

When asked if they had received any training on employing other languages in teaching, less than half of the teachers reported to have been trained about pedagogies related to the integration of languages that their students understood into the learning of English; yet, only 5.3% of them expressed a wish to have more training. 52.6% of the respondents admitted to having no training.

A lack of or insufficient training, as well as the fact that a teacher cannot know the languages of all their international students, explained why the teachers of English found themselves in challenging situations. 52.6% of the participants admitted they had been in a situation when they could not translate or explain what a student asked them to in a language that the latter could understand. When asked to comment on how they had coped with the difficulty, half of them said they asked other students to assist with the translation or explanation (teacher-initiated student translanguaging), 30% reported to rely on online translation tools and/or mobile translation applications. 20% of the teachers said they tried to explain the topic in English but by using different words.

Conclusions

This study aimed to explore whether translanguaging techniques had gained more resonance among English language teachers in their multilingual classrooms at VMU by examining their attitudes and practices and comparing them with what their students reported. Our focus was to analyse the experiences of Ukrainian students, who were the largest international group among students of different nationalities. Since the outbreak of the war in Ukraine, the university has seen an influx of Ukrainian students, which has changed classroom dynamics and encouraged teachers to rethink their teaching strategies. The data reveals that even though attitudes and practices may differ slightly, there is a clear indication that most English teachers participating in the research view translanguaging practices as necessary and invaluable. On the other hand, a large percentage of the teacher sample has not received training related to the use of other languages in the English classroom, which indicates that for them to include more of these practices, such training should be provided. Only a small part of the respondents feels it is necessary, which is in line with Wang's (2019) study on the importance of teacher training about translanguaging practices. Thus, knowledge about the benefits of translanguaging may encourage teachers of English and other subjects to employ it in their classes.

The results of the study show that translanguaging, at least in some

form, is quite a prevalent teaching strategy, since both students and teachers confirm that other languages are used in their English classrooms. Interestingly, there more educators admit employing other languages than there are students affirming it, but it may be related to the smaller teacher sample, in comparison to the one of the students. In terms of specific foreign languages being used, the answers differ slightly with most students stating that it is Lithuanian (as Lithuanian was the mother tongue for most of the English teachers and their students in the English classroom), while the teachers say it to be Russian. In any case, both languages could be stated to be equally important for teachers in their classes, which may be interpreted as a positive trend in higher education in the light of this study. As Wei (2022) notes, what is important is not to have other languages in the classroom but to use them for pedagogic purposes. This is what the English teachers in this study do, as they cater for students who speak Lithuanian, Russian or other languages to achieve specific purposes when English, a weaker language of the students, is not sufficient. The willingness to include students' home languages into the teaching process will eventually change the outdated monolingual practices and restore value to languages that are commonly named "minority languages" (Wei, 2022). The present study shows that English teachers see more benefits than drawbacks of translanguaging practices in their classrooms.

In addition, more than 63% of the interviewed teachers state that English language teachers should have the ability to use other languages even though it is also generally agreed that it is not possible to know all languages. Similar observations on knowledge of other languages are found in studies carried out by other researchers in the field (Wang, 2019; Wei, 2022). As the findings in the study reveal, it may happen that sometimes teachers experience the feeling of not being able to help their students in a language they understand. Furthermore, not all teachers have the practice of asking students about the languages they know at the start of a language course. It may become apparent if students reveal their nationality or later in the course if specific conditions are provided.

Moreover, both English teachers and international students studying English indicate the most frequently employed strategies when explaining new

grammar structures and lexical items. In terms of grammar explanations, both students and teachers agree that these are translated into a language that the students understand. However, the use of gestures, which seems to be the strategy employed to define unknown vocabulary items, as reported by the students, is not mentioned by the teachers, who claim to rely on translation and paraphrasing instead. Teachers using the word *sometimes* to describe the frequency of the use of other languages, when explaining grammar or other new topics, shows that it probably does not happen in every class and could be intentional or spontaneous. Yet, from the student perspective, this is the strategy that teachers employ most often. Half of the teachers who sometimes admit to not being able to explain a concept to students commented that they initiated peer collaboration and mediation activities and relied on stronger students to explain an idea. This is a great example of a student-led translanguaging situation, which is initiated by the teacher. Nonetheless, if there are no proficient individuals, this strategy may not work successfully. Therefore, in these situations translanguaging very heavily relies on the existing knowledge of the students.

It could be concluded that while teachers do have a general understanding that the integration of other languages is a valuable teaching practice, the students may not have experienced the full benefits of translanguaging. Consequently, some of them do not believe they would be more motivated to study if other languages were used in their English classroom. It would be useful to provide training for teachers on translanguaging and create opportunities for students to experience the advantages of translanguaging techniques so that mutual understanding could be established. Undoubtedly, the inflow of Ukrainian refugees has played a crucial role in the change of teacher attitudes towards the integration of other languages. It can be hoped that the positive tendencies of multilingual classrooms will continue to flourish by developing sustainable multilingualism at VMU.

It is important to point out that some limitations to the present study could be observed. One of them is the fact that class activities were not recorded or analysed, thus, it was not clear what the particular situations that demanded the use of translanguaging were. In the future, it could be useful to

record lessons and have face-to-face interviews with students and teachers to identify specific translanguaging techniques being employed in foreign language classes. Future research samples could also include all international students, as the application of translanguaging techniques could be beneficial to all, even local students.

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**TRANSKALBYSTĖ (TRANSLANGUAGING) MOKANT IR MOKANTIS
ANGLŲ KALBOS UNIVERSITETE: UKRAINIEČIŲ STUDENTŲ IR JŲ
DĚSTYTOJŲ POŽIŪRIAI**

Anotacija. Visuose švietimo lygmenyse mokymo(si) proceso dalyviai susiduria su vis didesne įvairove, kurią lemia nuolat didėjantis daugiakultūrių ir daugiakalbių studentų bei moksleivių skaičius. Mokytojai pradeda suprasti, kad vienakalbis požiūris į mokymą(si), ypač užsienio kalbų, nebėra efektyvus, todėl ieško kitokių mokymo metodų, kurie padėtų efektyviai panaudoti mokinių kalbinius repertuarus. Šiuo tyrimu buvo siekiama sužinoti Vytauto Didžiojo universiteto (VDU) anglų kalbos dėstytojų ir jų ukrainiečių studentų patirtį bei išsiaiškinti jų požiūrį į kitų kalbų vartojimą anglų kalbos paskaitose. Duomenims rinkti panaudoti du internetiniai klausimynai su atvirais ir uždariais klausimais. Dėl šios priežasties tyrimas buvo ir kiekybinis, ir kokybinis. Straipsnio literatūros apžvalgoje aprašomas perėjimas nuo vienakalbio prie daugiakalbio, arba holistinio, požiūrio į mokymą(si), kuris apima ir transkalbystę, tačiau pastarasis bei kiti su kelių kalbų vartojimu mokymo(si) procese susiję terminai nebuvo pristatyti tyrimo dalyviams. Anglų kalbos dėstytojų ir jų ukrainiečių studentų patirtis ir požiūris į kitų kalbų vartojimą anglų kalbos paskaitose pirmiausia apžvelgiami atskirai, o palyginimas pateiktas baigiamojoje dalyje. Tyrimo rezultatai atskleidė, kad ir ukrainiečiai studentai (58,3 proc.), ir jų dėstytojai (84,2 proc.) yra susidūrę su kitų kalbų vartojimu anglų kalbos paskaitose. Paaiškėjo, kad abiejose tiriamųjų grupėse panaudoti studentams suprantamas kalbas yra viena iš svarbiausių strategijų, padedančių suprasti gramatiką ir žodyną. Kita vertus, studentai nurodė kūno kalbą ir gestus kaip strategiją, kuria jų dėstytojai pasinaudoja aiškindami nežinomą žodyną. Taip pat buvo paminėtos ir aprašytos kitos strategijos, susijusios su kitų kalbų vartojimu anglų kalbos paskaitose. Dėstytojai ir studentai atkreipė dėmesį į tai, kad be anglų kalbos paskaitose dažniausiai vartojamos rusų ir lietuvių kalbos. Dėstytojai apklausoje nurodė dažniausiai vartojantys rusų kalbą, tačiau jų studentų nuomone, dažniausiai papildomai vartojama lietuvių kalba.

Pagrindinės sąvokos: kodų kaita; anglų kaip užsienio kalbos mokymas; anglų kalbos dėstytojai; transkalbystė; vertimas; ukrainiečiai studentai.

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ACQUISITION OF SPANISH TEMPORAL ADVERBIALS BY MULTILINGUAL ESTONIAN LEARNERS

A Proposal for Automatic Analysis

Annotation. This article focuses on the temporal structures used by multilingual Estonian students when expressing the hour in Spanish. Learning linguistic structures related to time is crucial in the early stages of foreign language acquisition. However, these structures can be complex and vary across languages, as they are highly idiosyncratic in terms of vocabulary and syntax. This study concentrates on the difficulties Estonian students face with Spanish time adverbials, specifically prepositions and articles. The paper aims to answer several research questions related to the repertoire of temporal expressions in the students' interlanguage, the difficulty posed by typological differences between their native language and Spanish, the influence of English, and the impact of English proficiency on Spanish production. The analysis of a corpus of interlanguage texts from Estonian students is conducted to identify idiosyncratic structures and patterns, distinguishing them from standard structures. The findings reveal that the use of articles improves with higher proficiency levels, while the use of prepositions remains challenging. Furthermore, the study explores the influence of English and Estonian on the students' Spanish production and highlights the importance of crosslinguistic reflection and attention to functional words for enhanced accuracy and fluency. The article concludes by emphasizing the significance of language proficiency levels and crosslinguistic influence in third language acquisition and suggesting areas for further research.

Keywords: crosslinguistic influence; interlanguage; language proficiency; multilingualism; temporal adverbials; third language acquisition.

Introduction

Historically, research about the factors associated with language acquisition has focused on the first (L1) and second languages (L2), ignoring what happens in the mind of a multilingual subject when learning a third language (De Angelis, 2007, pp. 9–10). However, in recent years, there has been an increasing amount of literature that considers that prior knowledge of

a non-native language can and should be a variable to consider in the study of non-native language acquisition (De Angelis, 2007, p. 14).

Third language (L3) is understood here as a non-native language that is being used or learnt by a subject with knowledge of one or more native languages and one non-native language at least (Hammarberg, 2010, p. 97). The acquisition of third languages is a complex and multidisciplinary phenomenon that is informed by a large number of individual and contextual factors (Cenoz, 2008, p. 220).

The project presented in this article arises from the need to understand the process of acquisition of the Spanish language by Estonian students, a field of research that has received scant attention. Estonian students, in addition to their native language, already have extensive knowledge of a second foreign language when they start studying Spanish (usually English). Sometimes they even know more than one (Russian, German, French) and are, therefore, multilingual.

Thus, the object of study of this research is the interlanguage of Estonian learners of Spanish. Interlanguage is here defined as a particular linguistic system that varies as the learner acquires the target language, "an intermediate system between the code of the native language and that of the target language" that has its own characteristics (Alexopoulou, 2011, p. 87–89). This system is in constant transition while students acquire vocabulary and new structures of the target language (Tramallino, 2021, p. 9).

This article will focus on Spanish time structures that express the hour learnt by multilingual Estonian students. Linguistic structures that express time are studied in the early stages of foreign-language learning. However, these structures are usually quite complex and differ to some extent from one language to another, since they "are lexically and syntactically highly idiosyncratic" (Bond *et al.*, 2000, p. 55). Furthermore, teaching programs and textbooks often strive to teach all of these structures at once. In Spanish, time adverbials include prepositions and articles, two elements that have been shown to pose great difficulties to Estonian students (Kruse, 2018; Nikitina, 2019). It is not surprising, since articles do not exist as a part of speech in Estonian and, although the language has prepositions, cases or postpositions are preferred (Kruse, 2018, pp. 126–127).

Therefore, it would be logical to assume that the interlanguage of students whose first language lacks articles and does not commonly use prepositions presents a higher number of idiosyncratic structures involving these parts of speech. From these assumptions arise some research questions:

1. Is there a greater repertoire of temporal expressions in the interlanguage grammar compared to standard Spanish grammar?
2. Do these structures pose a real difficulty for students due to the typological differences between their L1, L2 and their target language or, on the contrary, they only represent a problem in the early stages of acquisition?
3. Can any influence from the English language be detected?
4. Does the English proficiency level influence in any way the Spanish productions of the learners?

The only way to answer these questions is to systematically analyse the language of Estonian students. Before identifying the cause of deviation, it is necessary, first, to describe and classify the idiosyncratic structures and, second, to discern those interlanguage structures that belong to only one individual from those that appear in most of the productions, creating a pattern. This will also help us distinguish the structures that coincide with the standard from those of the interlanguage. To carry out this purpose, it is necessary to meet three pre-requisites: 1) to compile a corpus of interlanguage texts, containing the phrases studied, sufficiently representative of the population we want to study; 2) to describe the interlanguage and perform a qualitative analysis in order to establish possible patterns; and 3) to automate the detected structures in such a way that we can work with them computationally.

Firstly, a theoretical framework is provided along with a detailed description of the specific structures analysed. Secondly, the chosen methodology for the learner corpus linguistics method is explained, along with an overview of the corpus used, from which the studied expressions were derived. Furthermore, a detailed description is provided of the compilation, classification and process of automation of temporal prepositional phrases found in the Spanish interlanguage of Estonian students. For the automation

stage, NooJ, a computational tool that allows the creation of syntactic grammars of the students' interlanguage, has been used. Moving forward, this article presents the quantitative analysis carried out to understand whether there is an improvement in the accuracy of the use of temporal structures as the level of proficiency in the target language advances, followed by a discussion based on qualitative analysis of the findings. Lastly, limitations are addressed, and future research directions are outlined.

Theoretical Framework

Interlanguage Theory

Selinker's Interlanguage theory (1972) posits that second language learners do not simply imitate the target language, but instead develop a unique linguistic system known as interlanguage that is influenced by both their native language and the target language. This interlanguage system is characterized by a set of transitional rules and structures that are neither the target language nor the native language. The interlanguage is dynamic and constantly evolving, with errors and approximations gradually giving way to more accurate language use as learners gain proficiency.

An important particularity of this variety of the language is the systematicity established by its internal coherence at a certain point in its development. This is perceived in the application of linguistic rules that respond to strategies activated by learners. The interesting aspect of this perspective lies in the hypothesis it supports: although this idiosyncratic language differs in each particular student, it presents areas of intersection in learners who share the same level of instruction (Tramallino, 2021, p. 9).

Third Language Acquisition

Third language acquisition represents a further step in the development of interlanguage theories because it takes into account not only the learner's native language but also all languages that the student has

learnt or acquired through their life. There is a wide agreement among researchers that any previous knowledge of a language can exert its influence on the acquisition of a non-native language (Arıbaş & Cele, 2021; Cenoz, 2001; De Angelis, 2007; Kellerman, 1995; Odlin, 2003; Williams & Hammarberg, 1998). The prior knowledge that learners have about language usage is significant for comprehending L3 learning. This is because learners embarking on L3 learning have already acquired a mastery of complex concepts and ideas communicated through their first and second language(s) (McManus, 2021, p. 8).

Academic literature on L3 acquisition has revealed that, when it comes to multilingual learners, a significant amount of language transfer (especially at the initial levels) seems to come from the L2 (De Angelis, 2007; Williams & Hammarberg, 1998). In addition, in L3 production, there are many more cases of unintentional transfer of L2 function words than of those that provide content. It seems proven that semantic transfer is more related to L1 while lexical transfer comes from L2 (Angelis & Selinker, 2001; Cenoz, 2001; Hammarberg, 2001). It also appears that as proficiency in a L3 improves, the frequency of lexical transfer and language switches generally tends to decrease (Dewaele, 1998); L2 influence decreases at a faster rate compared to the L1 influence (Hammarberg, 2001). This suggests that L2 transfer is primarily a superficial process (Ringbom, 2001).

This suggests that when Estonians do not know how to use certain structures in Spanish, they resort to their linguistic repertoire. If they are looking for articles and prepositions, it is much more probable that “the grammatical properties of the L2-interlanguage –English in this case–, at whatever stage of development it happens to be, forms the initial grammatical state in the acquisition of their L3” (Schwartz & Sprouse, 2021, p. 3).

Expressions of Time

From a structural perspective, two fundamental elements are recognized in an adjunct of time: the time-unit and the time-modifier. Time expressions are generally regarded as phrases in which the time-unit serves as the phrase head and the time-modifier serves as the modifier. A time-unit

can be either simple, consisting of a single type of time-unit, or complex, composed of multiple units. Time-units include time measurement units (e.g., *hour, minute, week*), deictic units (e.g., *today, yesterday*), and named units, which can be either non-numeric (weekdays, months, seasons) or numeric (1998, 12/10/2007). These time-units, along with optional time-modifiers, combine to form time expressions (Vicente-Díez, Samy, & Martínez, 2008, p. 2154).

Temporal adverbials are a fundamental aspect of expressing temporality in all languages. This is evident in learner varieties where they play a dominant role. According to Klein, Dietrich and Noyau (1995, p. 80) early in the learning process, three types of adverbials are introduced and gradually developed, while a fourth type is introduced later but becomes a regular part of usage:

1. Temporal Adverbial of Position: refers to adverbials that indicate the relative position of a time span on the time axis, such as *now, then, yesterday at eight, three years ago, and on July 2nd, 2002*.
2. Temporal Adverbial of Duration: refers to adverbials that specify the duration, or sometimes the boundaries, of a time span, such as *for many days, all week, and from ten to twelve*.
3. Temporal Adverbial of Frequency: refers to adverbials that indicate the frequency of time spans, such as *twice* and *sometimes*.
4. Temporal Adverbial of Contrast: is a less clearly defined class of adverbials, but generally they serve to mark a particular contrast between one time span and another. Typical examples include *already, yet, and only* when used in a temporal function.

Temporal Adjuncts in Spanish

In Spanish, temporal adjuncts can be adverbs *-ayer* (yesterday)- or adverbial phrases *-muy tarde* (very late)-, prepositional phrases *-a las diez* (at ten), *por la mañana* (in the morning)-, nominal groups *-el mes pasado* (last month)-, and subordinate clauses *-cuando llegamos* (when we arrived)-. Some participles are also used as temporal adjuncts, as in *Os estáis viendo muy seguido* (You are seeing each other very often) (Real Academia Española

and Asociación de Academias de la Lengua Española, 2011, pp. 5502–5503).

Time nouns are typically associated with adverbials and arguments expressing time, but they can also perform other functions. By metaphorical extension, they can be subjects of a large number of predicates, especially in literary language, as in *El año 2019 supuso un trauma para muchas personas* (The year 2019 was traumatic for many people). Nevertheless, the traditional observation that prototypically relates temporal nouns to adverbials is well-founded, since it has been statistically proven that they are used in a very high proportion to add information that measures the duration of events or places them in relation to certain reference points (Real Academia Española and Asociación de Academias de la Lengua Española, 2011, pp. 5503–5504).

Temporal adverbials are subdivided into location complements –*este mes* (this month), *por la tarde* (in the evening), *a las siete* (at seven)–, duration complements –*para siempre* (forever)–, and frequency complements –*una vez al día* (once a week), *a menudo* (often)– (Real Academia Española and Asociación de Academias de la Lengua Española, 2011, pp. 5504).

In Spanish, time-modifiers can be classified as pre-modifiers –e.g., *último* (last)– or post-modifiers –e.g., *después* (after)–, depending on their position in the phrase. However, modifiers can also be categorized based on their semantic content, such as ordinal-modifiers –e.g., *primero* (first)–, and frequency-modifiers –e.g., *cada* (every)–, (Vicente-Díez, Samy, and Martínez, 2008, p. 2154).

Temporal Adjuncts in English

Adjuncts of time have a wide range of grammatical realizations in English: noun phrases (*last year*), prepositional phrases (*in the afternoon*), adverbs (*before*), adverbial phrases (*since last year*) and *when*-clauses (*I will call you when I arrive home*). Vaguer temporal expressions can be achieved by non-finite and verbless clauses (*Coming home last night, I met John on the street*) (Quirk, 1985, p. 529). Temporal noun and prepositional phrases express position (*I was there last in the morning*), duration (*I lived there for 5 years*), and frequency (*I go to the gym every Monday*).

English temporal noun and prepositional phrases are subject to several syntactic restrictions. First of all, in many cases, temporal noun and prepositional phrases have determiners (*They met in the afternoon*). Secondly, with some modifiers (*next, last*) the phrase does not accept any preposition or article (**on last Wednesday*). Furthermore, a noun phrase cannot express a pinpointed time position (*I arrived there at three-fifteen*). Lastly, duration adjuncts offer the most flexibility for using noun phrases, which can generally be considered shortened prepositional phrases, since adding *for*, they can be made more specific and formal (*They worked in that company (for) several years*) (Quirk, 1985, pp. 526–527).

Temporal Adjuncts in Estonian

According to Erelt (2007) the linguistic elements that can express time in Estonian are adverbs *-nüüd* (now)-, adjectives *-täna* (today's)-, noun phrases *-eelmine aasta* (last year)-, postpositional phrases *-eelisest saadik* (since yesterday)-, and *when*-clauses *-kui tuled* (when you arrive)-. Vague expressions of time can be uttered through the use of non-finite clauses *-istudes* (when sitting)-.

In Estonian, nominals are inflected for number and case. There are fourteen nominal cases, both in singular and plural (Erelt, 2007, p. 32); three of them are grammatical cases and eleven are semantic cases. Frequently, the Estonian nominal cases of illative, inessive, elative, allative, adessive and ablative are grouped together under the umbrella term of *locative cases*. They are considered to share the same feature of referring to local relations (Matsumura, 1994, p. 223). Allative, adessive and ablative are regarded as a group of *exterior locative cases* because supposedly their primary function is to “express spatial relations of an open surface” (Klavan, 2021, p. 158). However, exterior locative cases fulfil other functions besides location as possessors, agents, sources, addresses, experiencers and temporal relations (Klavan, 2021, p. 159).

The adessive case in modern Estonian ends in *-l* and attaches to the genitive stem (Rätsep, 1979, p. 56). According to Matsumura, it is justified to consider this form a locative case, but it would be more accurate to call it

an adessive-dative case, since his research, based on statistical data, showed that only 23 percent of the total occurrences of the adessive case could be regarded as expressions of place –*Ma olen töö!* (I am at work)–, whereas 43 percent of the adessive expressions occurred in possessive constructions –*Mul on raamat* (I have a book)–. 21 percent of the total occurrences were temporal expressions (1994, p. 226). While research has been carried out on the local and possessive meanings of the adessive case (Klavan 2014, 2020; Matsumura, 1994), the expression of time has received scant attention in the research literature.

The usage of the adessive case to express abstract external location is extended to temporal expressions. The adessive case is used for dates –*teasel aprillil* (on the second of April)–, weeks –*veebruari kolmandal nädalal* (in the third week of February)–, times of the day –*pärastlõunal* (in the afternoon)–, and seasons of the year –*kevadel* (in spring)– (Oranen, 2019, pp. 211–212).

Expressions of Time Acquisition

As mentioned earlier, temporal expressions in Spanish contain articles and prepositions, two linguistic elements that are foreign to the Estonian language. Recent research confirms the difficulty that the article acquisition presents for learners of L2 and L3 and verifies that the mere contact with the target language and without methodical analysis of the input does not allow to integrate its use in the interlanguage of the students (Pizarro Escabia, 2012; Santiago Alonso, 2017; Tarrés Chamorro, 2002). Previous research has analysed the use of articles in Spanish as a Foreign Language textbooks and have found the explanations referring to this topic insufficient (Pizarro Escabia, 2012, p. 84).

Furthermore, research on the acquisition of prepositions in a non-native language agrees in pointing out that this linguistic element is one of the most challenging difficulties to overcome in the learning process (Alexopoulou, 2006; Lam, 2018). The most commonly used prepositions are the ones that pose the greatest acquisition challenges in a non-native language. "The idiomatic values, polysemy, and the difficulty in internalizing

their obligatory usage justify the high percentage of deviations" that are found in the interlanguage of L2 and L3 learners (Alexopoulou, 2006).

The teaching community is conscious of the difficulty that these structures can pose for learners. Nevertheless, this concern is not reflected in the development of specific instructional materials, and the available resources are inadequate to address the issue. Consequently, it is difficult for Estonian students to become aware of the differences between Spanish and their L1 as well as their L2.

L3 learners generally have learned and master the concept of time, including the constructions to express the hour, through their languages. Thus, to understand information regarding time the learner of Spanish needs to have some knowledge of the linguistic indicators used in Spanish to express time and understand the differences that exist between Spanish and their first and second language(s). Also, in order to attain expertise, on one hand, learners need to recognize the most significant indicators of time and the meanings they convey. On the other hand, this ability seems to become routine and automatic through usage and practice, because, in essence, increased exposure to a language enhances language use (McManus, 2021, p. 8). Following this reasoning, if insufficient attention is paid to Spanish time indicators and crosslinguistic reflection¹ is not encouraged in the classroom, it is very probable that Spanish language learners will have difficulties in expressing time at the beginning of their learning process. However, it is not so clear whether this difficulty will continue as the learners are exposed to richer input and the language is acquired.

Methodology

Second and third language studies try to understand the representations underlying the mental processes that take place in

¹ By crosslinguistic reflection we refer to the process by which learners actively compare linguistic structures, meanings, or uses across two or more languages. Implementing crosslinguistic reflection in the classroom can be done through activities that encourage students to analyse how different languages convey the same message. By actively engaging with multiple languages in this way, learners can develop a deeper understanding of each language's nuances and potentially avoid negative transfer from one language to another, thus enhancing the learning process.

the mind of a learner when acquiring an additional language and to detect aspects that may limit their production in that language. The greatest source of information that can evidence these mental processes is the language produced by the learners themselves (Lozano & Mendikoetxea, 2013, p. 65). In this way, working with textual corpora of learners seems to be the best way to understand the process of second and third language acquisition.

Learner corpora offer a unique opportunity to observe the production of L2 speakers and identify their characteristics in an empirical way (Brezina & Flowerdrew, 2017, p. 1). The analysis of the data offered by a learner corpus can be beneficial for many areas of study: linguistics (nature and development of interlanguage); teaching of non-native languages and curricular design (order of acquisition, excess or scarcity of use, influence of the instructional input used in class, influence of other languages known by the students), and the autonomy of the student (self-awareness of the acquisition process, recognition of errors, self-correction).

Learner corpus research (LCR) started in the late 1980s “as an offshoot of corpus linguistics” (Granger *et al.*, 2015, p. 1). Since then, a considerable amount of literature has been published on this topic. A learner corpus is a “collection of machine-readable texts consisting in representative samples of the language written and/or spoken by learners of an additional language” (Paquot & Tracy-Ventura, 2020, p. 23).

Learner corpora are generally used to test Second and Third Language Acquisition theories, to provide information for the improvement of teaching materials (Paquot & Tracy-Ventura, 2020, p. 23), to build on institutional curricula, and to assess L2 proficiency (Callies & Götz, 2015, p. 1). A great deal of previous research into LCR has focused on L2 English, while there is a relatively small body of studies that is concerned with L2 Spanish acquisition. However, over the past decade, there has been an increasing interest towards this subject that has caused the number of corpora of Spanish learners to grow.

In Estonia, the use of corpora of Spanish learners, with a significant number of samples, has not been a common practice. Kruse (2018) was a pioneer in using this methodology, analysing 73-degree projects defended in the Spanish Section belonging to the Department of Romance Studies of the University of Tartu. Through this corpus, Kruse showed the complex

systems that were generated in the Estonian multilingual speaker to empirically demonstrate whether, as she had observed as a Spanish teacher, Estonian students produced a large number of lexical false friends from English (Kruse, 2018, p. 121). The corpus also made it possible to verify that false friends were not limited to the lexical category and would also appear in the spheres of syntax and spelling. This work paved the way for learner corpus linguistics in research related to the acquisition of Spanish by students of Finno-Ugric languages, a field of study in which much remains to be investigated.

Longitudinal Corpus of Estonian Learners of Spanish

Despite the undeniable value of the aforementioned corpus, its transversal nature prevents it from being used to analyse the development of interlanguage and understand how Estonian students of Spanish advance in proficiency levels. There was a need, therefore, to create a new learner corpus that contains samples produced by students over time. With a longitudinal approach, it could be easily understood which areas students find more difficult, if there is crosslinguistic influence or not, which errors become fossilised and whether there is a specific and generalizable sequence of acquisition. To that purpose the *Corpus Longitudinal de Español de Aprendientes Estonios* (Longitudinal Corpus of Estonian Learners of Spanish) (CLEAE) is currently being compiled at the University of Tartu.

This corpus has oral and written samples. To date the written subcorpus has 90575 tokens. There are 41 hours of recorded interviews, of which 15 have been manually transcribed, making a total of 56711 tokens in the oral subcorpus. The vast majority of informants are women, studying Spanish as a third language at university and aged between 18 and 23. This research is part of a doctoral project that aims to understand the process of acquisition of the Spanish language by Estonian students in order to create study materials adapted to the needs of these students and improve their learning experience.

Students in Spanish Philology at the University of Tartu study Spanish intensively during their first academic year. The course is divided into two semesters, and in each of them, the students reach levels A1 and A2,

respectively. For this study, only the samples containing temporal expressions have been selected. These correspond to two of the written tasks carried out during the first semester and two written tasks from the second semester. A total of 70 texts produced by A1 level students were analysed and contrasted with 57 texts produced by the same students at A2 level. The difference in the number of texts is basically due to the fact that some of the students dropped out before reaching level A2.

The texts are short, containing an average of 80 words each, and describe what the learners do in their daily routines. The daily-routines subcorpus has 10103 words. From these, 1035-hour expressions were extracted and analysed. The students have been divided into two groups: those who have an English proficiency level of B2 and those who have a C1.

Classification of Interlanguage Structures

Before automating the structures, a prior description work was carried out on the temporal constructions of time. First, the adverbials that express time in standard Spanish² were described, and then the structures of the interlanguage were illustrated with examples from the corpus.

Table 1

Description of Hour Expressions

Standard	Interlanguage	Example of interlanguage
	en + hour	Llego a clase *en 8:30.
a la/s + hour (a las cinco: at five)	a + hour	Yo levanto tarde *a diez u once.
	hasta + hour	Mis clases terminan normalmente *hasta dos por la tarde.
	de + hour	Termino *de nueve por la tarde.

² For this study, the parameters indicated in the *Plan Curricular del Instituto Cervantes* have been followed. This document adopts the standard variety of the central-northern peninsular Spanish dialect. This decision has been made based on the fact that the textbook and other materials used at the University of Tartu are based on the same document, and therefore, that variety is the target language of the students in our study.

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Standard	Interlanguage	Example of interlanguage
	hour	Estas días voy a estudiar mucho y volver a casa muy tarde, *seis o siete.
de + hour + a + hour (<i>de tres a cinco</i> : from three to five)	a + hour + de hour	En miércoles tengo clase de baile *a tres de cinco.
	a la/s + hour + de la/s + hour	En jueves tengo clases *a las diez y cuarto de las dos menos cuarto.
desde la/s + hour + hasta la/s + hour (<i>desde las tres hasta las cinco</i> : from three to five)	desde de + hour + a + hour	Los viernes trabajo *desde de ocho a dieciocho.
	desde + hour + hasta + hour	Normalmente tengo clases *desde ocho y media hasta diez de la mañana
entre la/s + hour + y la/s + hour (<i>entre las siete y las nueve</i> : between seven and nine)	entre a la/s + hour + y la/s + hour	Suelo me acostar entre a las once y media y doce y media.
	entre de la/s + hour + y la/s + hour	Suelo acordarme *entre de las siete y nueve.
a/de/desde/hasta/entre (las) + hour + de la mañana/tarde/noche (<i>a las siete de la mañana</i> : at seven in the morning)	a/de/desde/hasta/entre (las) + hour + por la mañana/tarde/noche	Me levanto *a las siete y media por la mañana.
	a/de/desde/hasta/entre (las) + hour + en la mañana/tarde/noche	Mis clases empiezan *a las ocho y media en la mañana.

Automation of Hour Expressions with Nooj

Computational linguistics enables us to carry out natural language processing through computational systems that are capable of emulating human linguistic capacity (Tramallino, 2021, p. 3). The NooJ computational tool allows, among other things, to create syntactic grammars that are used to recognize or annotate expressions in texts (Tramallino & Arnal, 2019, p. 4), like tagging adverbials. These grammars can be used to extract groups of words, such as time expressions.

In order to detect all the hour utterances –those coinciding with the standard and those deviating from it– we, first, used NooJ to create two syntactic grammars (one numerical and one alphabetical) describing standard hour expressions³. The alphabetical grammar detects time structures expressed with words, e.g., *a las diez y media* (at half past ten), while

³ These grammars were designed and presented at the 6th International NooJ 2022 Conference by Rapún Mombiola, Tramallino, and Arnal.

the numerical grammar detects structures expressed with numbers, e.g., *a las 10:30* (at 10:30).

Figure 1

Alphabetical Syntactic Grammar of Hour Expressions in Standard Spanish

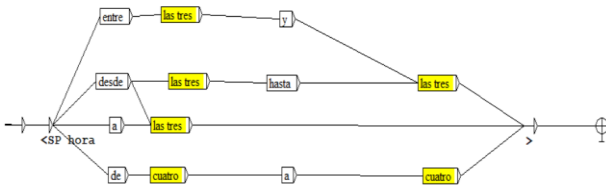


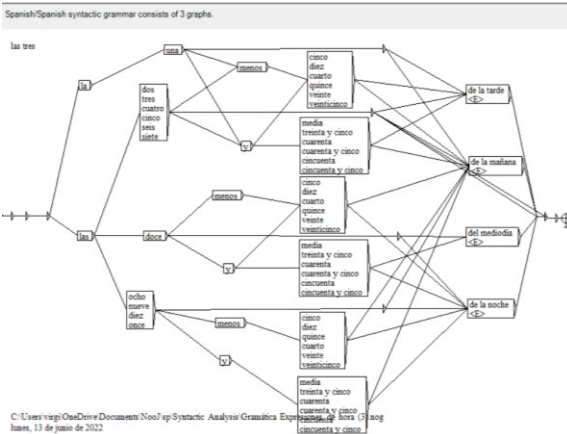
Figure 2

Numerical Syntactic Grammar of Hour Expressions in Standard Spanish



Figure 3

Embedded Grammar to One of the Nodes



The next step was to create two new syntactic grammars capable of detecting interlanguage structures. These grammars are more complex than the previous

ones because they have to contemplate a greater number of possible combinations. It was necessary to resort to embedded grammars due to the large number of possible combinations.

Figure 4

Alphabetical Syntactic Grammar of Hour Expressions in the Interlanguage

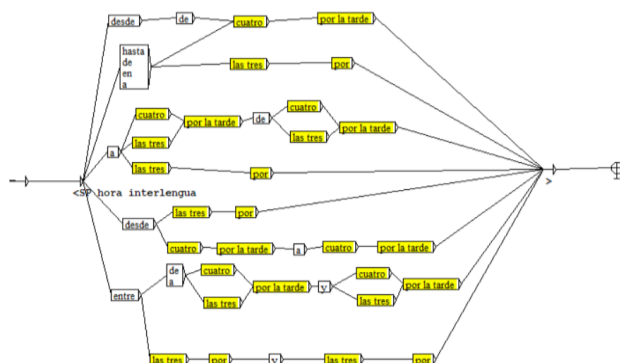
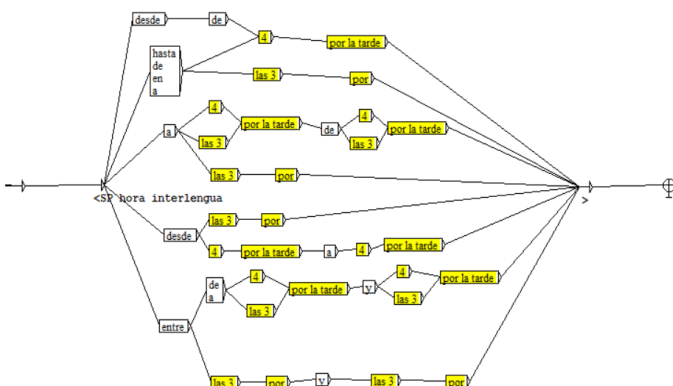


Figure 5

Numerical Syntactic Grammar of Hour Expressions in the Interlanguage



Results

The interlanguage expressions found can be categorized into three large deviation types: the structures that are missing a preposition, the structures that are missing an article, and those structures that are accompanied by a preposition that differs from the standard.

Table 2*Examples of Deviation Types in the Learners' Interlanguage*

	Interlanguage	Standard
Absence of preposition	*Llego casa aproximadamente a las nueve tarde .	Llego a casa aproximadamente a las nueve de la tarde .
Absence of article	*Yo levanto temprano a seis y media por la mañana.	Yo me levanto temprano, a las seis y media de la mañana.
Change of preposition	* En nueve y media estoy en mi piso.	A las nueve y media estoy en mi piso.

As demonstrated in Table 3, by comparing hour expressions in A1 and A2 texts, a significant improvement in article accuracy was observed as the level increased. Additionally, the absence of articles in mandatory contexts revealed an important correlation between the two levels. The results in A2 texts confirm that having more exposure to and practice with different patterns and structures in the target language is crucial for developing automatic processing abilities. This increased experience helps in producing more accurate output, even when encountering grammatical constructions that differ from those in the L1 and L2.

Table 3*Article Use Accuracy*

	A1	A2	P-VALUE
Correct article	84.3%	91.7%	0.0016
Absence of article	11.9%	7%	0.0018
Incorrect selection of article	1.9%	0.3%	0.0551
Unnecessary article	1.9%	1%	0.2994

In the case of prepositions, the results were not as satisfactory. Although there was a greater precision in their use in the A2 texts, the difference was not statistically significant (as shown in Table 4), which suggested the need to further investigate the use of these structures by Estonian learners of Spanish.

Table 4

Preposition Use Accuracy

	A1	A2	P-VALUE
Correct preposition	84.6%	87.7%	0.1906
Absence of preposition	7.3%	5.3%	0.2430
Incorrect selection of preposition	6.2%	6.0%	0.8777
Unnecessary preposition	1.9%	0.7%	0.1433

To verify that these results were due to a natural acquisition process and not to deficient input, the hour structures that were not calques⁴ were distinguished from the calques that originated from English and those from Estonian. Additionally, a third type of calque which comes from a semantic perspective shared by both L1 and L2 –that will be explained later– was added.

Table 5

Calques

	A1	A2	P-VALUE
No calque	75.7	87.4%	0.0000
Calque from English	11.4%	6.3%	0.0131
Calque from Estonian	1.8%	0.3%	0.0699
Calque from both English and Estonian	4.3%	4.0%	0.7998

Table 5 shows how A1 students produce a greater number of calques than A2 students. We can also see how the percentage of calques from English decreases considerably as the level of proficiency advances. However, the type of calques that comes from a concept shared by the English and Estonian languages produces alarmingly similar results. Calques from Estonian are so few that the difference between the two levels does not provide significant information.

⁴ The word “calque” is understood in this paper as a deviation from the standard that occurs when the structure of L1 or L2 is transferred to the target language.

The analysis carried out comparing the texts from informants who had a B2 English with those from C1 English also yielded some significant results. As we can see in Table 6, in the case of articles, the accuracy is higher if the student has a C1 level of English both in A1 and A2 texts. However, in the case of prepositions, there seems to be no significant difference in accuracy related to the English proficiency level of the participants. It is still worth noting that students who have a C1 level of English make fewer structures lacking a preposition (the percentage drops from 8.8% to 3.5%). This trend becomes more pronounced when students reach an A2 level of Spanish. The number of calques from English is also lower in the productions of Spanish A2 level students whose English proficiency is at C1.

Table 6*English Proficiency*

	B2 English		C1 English	
	A1 Spanish	A2 Spanish	A1 Spanish	A2 Spanish
Correct article	81.0%	87.3%	86.3%	94.0%
Correct preposition	83.1%	87.3%	85.4%	87.9%
No calque	73.8%	86.3%	76.7%	87.9%

Discussion

This article has discussed the role of interlinguistic influence in the production and acquisition of Spanish temporal structures expressing time by multilingual Estonian subjects. It has been found that while the accuracy in the use of articles improves as the proficiency level in the Spanish language advances, the use of prepositions does not undergo a similar progression, as errors found in A1 productions persist in A2.

Based on the information provided by this analysis, two aspects emerge as highly relevant for teaching Spanish: the confusion between the prepositions "en" and "por" instead of "de" in expressions that indicate time together with the part of the day, and the lack of prepositions in certain contexts. By examining the expressions for time in the three languages spoken

by the students (Estonian, English, and Spanish), one can gain insights into why these deviations persist despite improvements in proficiency levels.

When referring to the hour as a position in time, Estonian expresses it in the nominative case, despite it being an adverbial element that can often be omitted *-kell viis* (a las cinco)-. This usage is intriguing since it applies the nominative case, typically associated with the subject, even when discussing an adjunct rather than a complement. Understanding this characteristic of the Estonian language could shed light on the remarkably high number of time expressions lacking a preposition. Some informants consistently produce time structures without a preposition, irrespective of their English proficiency level (B2 or C1), suggesting a pronounced influence of their native language.

However, when expressing the part of the day, Estonian employs the adessive case, which is a locative case. Hence, the locative expression is used for denoting the part of the day in Estonian. In the English language locative prepositions are also employed to indicate the time with numerals and when introducing the part of the day. In contrast, Spanish, along with other Romance languages, associates the numerical value of the hour with a complement introduced by the preposition "de," which indicates the part of the day to which the time interval belongs (Real Academia Española, 2011, p. 2919). Syntactically, the preposition "de" conveys the information that would be marked by the Latin genitive (Real Academia Española, 2011, p. 4182). Therefore, while the locative expression is retained in the preposition used with numerals (the preposition "a" expresses the temporal location of events), it is absent when referring to the part of the day.

Table 7

Comparison of Hour Expressions in Spanish, English and Estonian

Spanish	English	Estonian
por la mañana	in the morning	hommikul
a las 5 de la mañana	at 5 in the morning	kell viis hommikul

Considering that these structures are not explicitly emphasized in the Spanish classroom nor are they clearly indicated in the learning input provided to students, and that crosslinguistic reflection is not actively encouraged, it is understandable that students struggle to accurately produce these expressions. When resorting to their linguistic repertoire, they primarily encounter locative expressions and constructions lacking prepositions.

In conclusion, the analysis of Spanish temporal structures in the interlanguage of Estonian learners appears to confirm Third Language Acquisition theories asserting that the languages present in an individual's repertoire influence the production of a third language. Furthermore, the influence diminishes as proficiency levels increase. However, it has been observed that the use of prepositions poses a greater challenge for Estonian students, especially in cases where Estonian and English share a similar concept that is reflected in their structures.

Studying Spanish hour expressions produced by Estonian learners has allowed to identify aspects of Spanish language structure that pose difficulties for Estonian students. This discovery highlights the importance of engaging in crosslinguistic reflection and paying greater attention to functional words that, despite not carrying the core meaning of the message, contribute to speaking with enhanced accuracy and fluency.

The findings emphasize the importance of language proficiency levels and crosslinguistic influence in the acquisition of third languages. The improvement in article accuracy, the need for further investigation into preposition use, and the impact of calques when they come from a shared semantic perspective in English and Estonian highlight key areas for language learning research. Understanding these influences with a better input and developing more automatic processing behaviors can lead to enhanced accuracy in production, even when encountering typologically different structures.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the analysis of Spanish temporal structures in the interlanguage of Estonian learners appears to confirm Third Language Acquisition theories asserting that the languages present in an individual's

repertoire influence the production of a third language. Furthermore, the influence diminishes as proficiency levels increase. However, it has been observed that the use of prepositions poses a greater challenge for Estonian students, especially in cases where Estonian and English share a similar concept that is reflected in their structures.

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The findings emphasize the importance of language proficiency levels and crosslinguistic influence in the acquisition of third languages. The improvement in article accuracy, the need for further investigation into preposition use, and the impact of calques when they come from a shared semantic perspective in English and Estonian highlight key areas for language learning research. Understanding these influences with a better input and developing more automatic processing behaviors can lead to enhanced accuracy in production, even when encountering typologically different structures.

Limitations and Further Investigation

Research in third language acquisition is challenging to conduct due to the lack of a sufficient number of informants who share the same linguistic background. This has resulted in a small sample size for this study, which has led to a moderate size effect. However, despite the challenges posed by the limited number of informants, the study has yielded valuable insights into the Spanish language that may hold significance for Estonians. Additionally, it has laid the groundwork for future investigations into the acquisition of Spanish temporal expressions. Furthermore, the establishment of this research framework paves the way for future studies that can delve deeper into the intricacies of third language acquisition and contribute to a broader understanding of language learning processes.

The interlanguage syntactic grammars created using the NooJ tool have shown a coverage of 77% and accuracy of 80%. While it is challenging to achieve broader coverage for interlanguage structures (due to the high number of idiosyncratic possibilities), accuracy will improve when grammars are expanded and more complex combinatorial possibilities are added, offering more elaborate temporal information. This is because this hour-based grammar mistakenly recognizes constructions that express the date. However, once the date expression is integrated into the syntactic grammar, this issue will disappear, and the grammar will attain a commendable level of accuracy.

From a practical standpoint, research findings on crosslinguistic influence in L3 Spanish should have didactic implications that enable the development of greater metalinguistic and crosslinguistic awareness in students, allowing them to create strategies that make them more autonomous and conscious of their own learning. The question of how to apply the results of this study to the instruction of the Spanish language in Estonia is the next logical step to take.

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ADQUISICIÓN DE ADJUNTOS TEMPORALES EN ESPAÑOL POR PARTE DE ESTUDIANTES ESTONIOS MULTILINGÜES

Una propuesta de análisis automático

Resumen. Este artículo examina las estructuras temporales utilizadas por estudiantes estonios multilingües al expresar la hora en español. Las construcciones que expresan tiempo son complejas y difieren en su estructura de unas lenguas a otras, lo que dificulta su aprendizaje a los estudiantes de idiomas extranjeros. Este estudio se centra en las dificultades que suponen los adjuntos de tiempo en español para los estudiantes estonios, específicamente se analiza el uso de artículos y preposiciones. El artículo tiene como objetivo responder varias preguntas de investigación relacionadas con el repertorio de expresiones temporales en la interlengua de los estudiantes, la dificultad que plantean las diferencias tipológicas entre la lengua nativa de los aprendientes y el español, la influencia del inglés y el impacto del nivel de competencia en inglés en la producción de español. Tras analizar un corpus de textos escritos por estudiantes estonios y categorizar las estructuras idiosincráticas encontradas, los resultados revelan que los estudiantes estonios producen un número significativamente alto de estructuras temporales que expresan la hora desviadas y que el uso incorrecto de las preposiciones es especialmente alarmante ya que persiste incluso cuando la competencia en español mejora. Los hallazgos destacan la importancia de la reflexión interlingüística en la clase de español como lengua extranjera e indican la necesidad de prestar atención a las palabras funcionales en el aprendizaje del español.

Palabras clave: adjuntos temporales; adquisición de terceras lenguas; influencia interlingüística; interlengua; nivel de competencia; plurilingüismo.

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**DAUGIAKALBIŲ ESTŲ, BESIMOKANČIŲ ISPANŲ KALBOS, LAIKO
ADVERBIALŲ ĮSISAVINIMAS**

Pasiūlymas automatinei analizei

Anotacija. Šiame straipsnyje aptariamos daugiakalbių estų studentų vartojamos laiko konstrukcijos, kai ispanų kalba išreiškiamas laikas. Kalbinių struktūrų, susijusių su laiku, mokymasis yra labai svarbus ankstyvuojū užsienio kalbos įsisavinimo etapu. Tačiau šios struktūros gali būti sudėtingos ir skirtingos įvairiose kalbose dėl žodyno ir sintaksės savitumo. Šiame tyrime daugiausia dėmesio skiriama sunkumams, su kuriais susiduria estų studentai, mokydamiesi ispanų kalbos laiko adverbialų, konkrečiai – prielinksnių ir artikelių. Straipsnyje siekiama atsakyti į kelis tyrimo klausimus, susijusius su laiką išreiškiančių žodžių repertuaru mokinių tarpkalbėje, sunkumais, kuriuos kelia tipologiniai gimtosios ir ispanų kalbos skirtumai, anglų kalbos įtaka ir anglų kalbos kompetencijos įtaka ispanų kalbos produkavimo komunikacinei veiklai. Atlikta estų mokinių tarpkalbinių tekstų rinkinio analizė, siekiant nustatyti idiosinkratinės struktūras ir dėsningumus, atskyrus juos nuo standartinių struktūrų. Tyrimo rezultatai atskleidė, kad artikelių vartojimo gebėjimai gerėja didėjant kalbinei kompetencijai, o prielinksnių vartojimas kelia sunkumų. Be to, tyrime nagrinėjama anglų ir estų kalbų įtaka besimokančiųjų ispanų kalbos produkcijai ir pabrėžiama tarpkalbinės refleksijos bei dėmesio funkciniams žodžiams svarba siekiant kalbos tikslumo ir sklandumo. Straipsnyje daroma išvada, kad kalbos mokėjimo lygio augimas ir tarpkalbinė įtaka yra labai reikšmingi aspektai trečiosios kalbos įsisavinimui, bei pateikiamos kryptys tolesniems tyrimams.

Pagrindinės sąvokos: tarpkalbinė įtaka; tarpkalbystė; kalbų mokėjimas; daugiakalbystė; laiko adverbialai; trečiosios kalbos įsisavinimas.

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ONE MIND, MANY LANGUAGES: CZECH AS AN ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE IN PLURILINGUAL REPERTOIRES

Annotation. Plurilingualism goes beyond the mere ability to use multiple languages; it emphasizes the interconnected nature of languages within an individual's linguistic competence. In line with the European language policy, university students are becoming users of several languages, and international university students in Czech universities often learn Czech as their fourth language or beyond (L4+). Understanding how their linguistic competencies interact can impact their language acquisition experience. Learners may perceive interactions among the languages within their linguistic repertoire. The concept of Perceived Positive Language Interaction (PPLI, Thompson, 2016) pertains to the perception that languages previously studied are interrelated in a positive way, ultimately enhancing a plurilingual's ability to acquire additional languages. This study explores the relationships between Czech as an additional language and the learners' prior languages. The research aims to answer three main questions: Do learners of Czech as L4+ perceive positive interactions among their learned languages? In what areas do these interactions manifest? How does Czech relate to their other languages? The study was conducted at a Czech university that provides optional introductory Czech courses (A1/A2), primarily to students in the Erasmus+ program. Fifty-four international students filled in an open-ended online questionnaire over two consecutive semesters. The analysis revealed that while students perceived positive interactions among some of the languages they had learned, especially within language families, interactions across typologically different languages occurred, particularly between Czech and German. The participants' mother tongue also emerged as a significant factor. While language instruction often follows a monolingual approach, where the target language is the primary mode of classroom interaction (Woll, 2020), learners may significantly benefit from their previous language learning experiences when learning an additional language. Despite the relatively limited research sample, this study suggests the didactic potential of positive language interaction in language teaching and learning and highlights further research opportunities.

Keywords: additional language; Czech; study-abroad; plurilingualism; multilingualism; perceived positive language interaction; PPLI; cross-linguistic influence.

Introduction

In today's interconnected and culturally diverse world, the significance of plurilingualism¹ emerges as a vital aspect of language education, and

¹ Note on terminology: The precise differentiation between multilingualism and plurilingualism remains an ongoing matter within applied linguistics. While plurilingualism

the promotion of plurilingualism stands as a significant aspect of academic life. European universities embrace a multilingual ethos, offering programs in their official local and other languages. The role of plurilingualism in shaping educational experiences has become increasingly salient and further accentuated by the rising trend of university students participating in international exchange programs such as Erasmus or pursuing complete degrees abroad.

The languages individuals acquire are not isolated entities within separate boxes in their minds. Instead, they intertwine, forming a rich network of linguistic connections (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 13). This integrated plurilingual competence significantly influences learning an additional language, shaping cognitive abilities, learning strategies, and linguistic perspectives employed during language acquisition. Within this interconnected pattern of languages, individuals may perceive positive interactions across various linguistic domains, impacting individual learner differences in language learning. Recognizing these positive language interactions has been shown to foster motivation and positive attitudes toward language learning (Henry, 2011, 2017) while mitigating anxiety levels often associated with language acquisition (Thompson & Khawaja, 2016).

In language learning and teaching research, the monolingual principle (Cook, 2016) as the traditional framework prevails, wherein the primary distinction is made between an individual's mother tongue (native language, first language, L1) and any languages acquired subsequently, typically referred to as the second language (L2). However, within the context of plurilingualism, scholars highlight the importance of distinguishing between the acquisition of

generally pertains to the individual level and multilingualism is associated with societies and nations (Council of Europe, 2007), specific theoretical frameworks extend the notion of multilingualism to the individual level. While this paper maintains the principle of plurilingualism at the individual level, it preserves the original wording when referencing previous studies on multilingualism.

Another terminological issue emerges from the distinction between second, foreign, and additional languages. Although "second language" traditionally denotes learning a language in a country where it is spoken, and "foreign language" pertains to learning in a nation where the official language differs, the demarcation between these terms can sometimes become indistinct. For the purposes of this article, this distinction is not of primary importance. The term "additional language" in this paper refers to any language an individual learns after their mother tongue and any second or foreign language(s) they may have acquired.

languages learned subsequently (L3, L4, L5, or additional languages) as the process of acquiring the additional languages differs (De Angelis, 2007; Aronin & Hufeisen, 2009). This recognition urges a deeper examination of the acquisition of languages beyond the second. Furthermore, delving into learners' plurilingual repertoires positively affects their comprehension of other target language features (Polzin-Haumann & Reissner, 2020).

Learning an additional language opens up space for the use of various pluralistic approaches (Piccardo, 2018, 2021). These approaches encompass acquiring knowledge and awareness of different languages and cultures and attitudes towards them. Moreover, they extend to developing skills that enable learners to observe, analyze, and compare languages and cultures (Candelier, 2010). This can contribute to a more inclusive and dynamic language learning environment, promoting language acquisition, intercultural competence, and respect for diverse ways of communicating.

The exploration of individual plurilingual experience gains significance as a lens to understand the dynamics of language learning, particularly in the distinctive context of acquiring a less commonly taught language as an additional language in higher education study-abroad programs. Nevertheless, research investigating the dynamics of Czech within the broader landscape of plurilingualism has been scarce, with studies exploring language transfer from L1 to L2. Melnikova (2022), for example, examined language transfer among advanced learners of Czech with Hindi/Urdu native language, Parashchak (2021) explored interference in the syntax of Ukrainian learners of Czech, and Kotková (2017) described the interference between Czech and a non-Slavic language in Czech language learners. These papers tackle the issue of language transfer through the perspective of error analysis and contrastive analysis. To date, there has been a notable absence of empirical investigations exploring the role of the Czech language within the plurilingual repertoires of language learners.

The current study explores language learning in the context of higher education in a Czech university setting. Despite Czech being the official language of instruction at Czech universities, multilingualism is actively encouraged and promoted in the academic landscape. Alongside courses conducted in Czech, students can study in other languages, and certain

institutions extend programs taught in languages other than Czech (for further insights into language management practices at Czech universities, refer to Sherman, 2020). Within this context, the study explores the interplay of languages in the plurilingual repertoires of international students coming to study in the Czech Republic, learning Czech as an additional language. The study addressed the following research questions:

1. Do learners of Czech as L4+ perceive positive interactions among the languages they have learned?
2. In which specific areas do these interactions manifest?
3. How does Czech relate to the other languages learned?

Theoretical Framework:

Perceived Positive Language Interaction (PPLI)

Plurilingualism exerts a positive impact upon learner differences, enhancing the overall attitudes towards languages and their learning: plurilingual individuals often demonstrate heightened tolerance for ambiguity (Dewaele & Wei, 2013) and increased language learning motivation (Thompson, 2017, 2020). Moreover, they tend to experience reduced language learning anxiety (Dewaele et al., 2008) and enhanced metalinguistic awareness (Jessner, 2008). Collectively, these factors contribute to a significantly enhanced language learning experience for plurilingual individuals.

PPLI is a concept that refers "to the perception held by many (but not all) multilinguals that languages studied in the past are interrelated in a positive way that can support and expand a multilingual's ability to learn subsequent languages" (Thompson, 2016, p. 91). The roots of this concept trace back to earlier studies in linguistics, particularly the contrastive analysis (Lado, 1957), cross-linguistic influence in second language acquisition (McManus, 2022), and perceived language distance (Kellerman, 1983). The goal of contrastive analysis was to predict and explain the difficulties that learners of a second language might encounter based on the linguistic features of their native language. Areas where languages differ, such as phonology, grammar, syntax, and vocabulary, play a critical role in determining the errors or challenges for language learners (Ellis, 1994, p. 306). Similarly, the theory

of language transfers aims to unveil the potential of errors in the target language (negative transfer) or facilitation of learning (Odlin, 1989). The notion of perceived language distance highlights how learners' perceptions of linguistic similarities and differences between their languages can affect the transfer process and language acquisition. When languages appear akin, learners may anticipate smoother learning due to shared traits. Conversely, languages perceived as distant can pose more significant challenges. This perception influences learners' attitudes, motivations, and expectations, guiding their approach to acquiring a new language.

While the early approaches to language comparison focused on transfer between a learner's L1 and L2, this concept has extended to learning L2 and L3, and numerous studies demonstrated that knowledge from the L2 could transfer to the L3 on various levels of language (De Angelis, 2007; De Angelis & Dewaele, 2011; De Angelis et al., 2015). Jessner (2008) argues that multilingual competence forms a complex dynamic system wherein alterations in one element trigger changes throughout the framework. Consequently, the evolving understanding of how languages interact within the mind of a plurilingual individual can significantly exert impact on the overall system.

Drawing on previous studies on cross-linguistic influence and perceived language distance, Thompson (2016) introduced the framework of PPLI in the Turkish context. She defined the concept by gauging how learners viewed their past interactions with foreign languages. In an open-ended questionnaire, participants regarded their prior experiences with foreign languages. If those were positive, the learners classified PPLI. Conversely, if they felt no or negative interaction between the languages, they belonged to the NPPLI (No Perceived Positive Language Interaction) group. Multilingual speakers scored notably higher language aptitude scores. In further studies on PPLI, learners with PPLI displayed higher levels of motivation to learn the target language (Thompson & Aslan, 2014), less fear of ambiguity (Thompson & Erdil-Moody, 2014), and less anxiety (Thompson & Khawaja, 2015) when compared to the NPPLI.

The empirical research targeting the PPLI is still relatively limited; numerous studies have examined cross-linguistic influence in plurilingual speakers on various linguistic areas. Dewaele (1998) investigated the sources

of cross-linguistic influence in multilingual language learners, particularly in lexical inventions in the interlanguage of Dutch L1 speakers learning French as an L2 and English as an L3. Contrary to the assumption that the L1 is the primary source of cross-linguistic influence in L3 acquisition, the study revealed that French L3 speakers drew on their English L2 knowledge when creating lexical inventions. In contrast, French L2 speakers tended to rely on their Dutch L1. These results highlighted the role of the L2 lexicon in learning the L3.

Furthermore, empirical research has also recognized the impact of L2 on the acquisition of L3 grammar. Bardel and Falk's (2007) research on syntactic transfer revealed that L2 knowledge significantly influenced the acquisition of L3 grammar, indicating that syntactic structures were more easily transferred from the L2 to the L3 than from the L1. The role of L2 (German) syntax on L3 (English) syntactic development was observed in a study by Sánchez (2020).

In the phonological aspects of third language acquisition, Llama et al. (2010) conducted a study elucidating the factors having impact on the choice of a source language for phonological influence in L3 Spanish with diverse L1 and L2 backgrounds. The study compared the roles of language distance and language status (L1, L2, and L3). Their findings revealed that language status was the principal determinant for phonological choices, indicating that learners predominantly drew upon their L2 experiences when shaping their L3 phonological patterns. This observation prompts a deeper consideration of how the individuals navigate their linguistic repertoire, highlighting that, in some instances, the influence of language status can prevail over language distance.

Another study on phonological proximity (Nelson et al., 2021) involved participants with L2 English and German or Polish as their L1 or L3. The findings indicated that, unsurprisingly, English-German was perceived as the most similar language pair. However, an L1 effect was also observed, with the L1 Polish group perceiving the three language pairs as more equidistant, while the L1 German group clearly distinguished between them. This suggests that language proximity and the influence of one's native language play a role in how individuals perceive the similarity between languages in their linguistic repertoire. Moreover, this study highlighted the significant role of L1, although

the concept of PPLI would classify positive interactions between L1 and subsequently acquired languages as NPPLI (Thompson, 2016). This finding underscores the need to consider the influence of one's native language, not only in terms of potential transfer but also in understanding the dynamics of language interactions in a multilingual context.

Chau et al. (2022) emphasized the need for further investigation into cross-linguistic transfer in the context of third language acquisition, highlighting that the existing body of L3 research has primarily concentrated on low-level language components, such as vocabulary and syntax, as evidenced by the studies discussed above. Their study explored the text quality of master's students in professional communication as they engaged in reading-to-write integrated tasks in their L1 (Dutch), L2 (English), and L3 (French). The findings illuminated disparities across these languages, with source interaction significantly influencing text quality in L1 and L3. This underscores the necessity for more comprehensive research targeting higher-level language components within the L3 acquisition.

Studies consistently highlight the significance of language distance in language learning, suggesting that languages sharing typological origins facilitate understanding, with language typology emerging as a pivotal factor in perceiving positive influence. Specifically, languages within the same family exhibit a heightened potential for favorable transfer and intercomprehension (Mewald, 2019; Polzin-Haumann & Reissner, 2020). However, learners demonstrated that effective transfer could occur even across distinct language families, challenging the limitations of typology-based models. These findings underscored the need to reevaluate how typology-based models account for the complexities of cross-linguistic influence.

Westergaard et al. (2017) introduced the Language Proximity Model (LPM), which offers an alternative to typology-based language acquisition models. The LPM suggests that learning a new language involves a gradual, step-by-step process where previously acquired languages play a role. This process can result in both helpful (facilitative) and potentially challenging (non-facilitative) influences from the learner's prior language knowledge.

In this model, cross-linguistic influence occurs when a new language feature bears structural similarities to linguistic aspects found in the learner's

earlier languages. This implies that when acquiring an L3, learners can benefit from the linguistic resources of their known languages. However, they may also encounter challenges stemming from these languages. The LPM predicts unique learning patterns for different linguistic phenomena, emphasizing the importance of the similarity of abstract linguistic properties rather than solely typological proximity. This highlights the interplay between a specific feature in one language and its impact on the structural aspects shared with previously acquired languages.

Unlike Thompson's PPLI model, research on cross-linguistic influence and language proximity recognizes the L1 as a significant contributing factor. This body of research highlights that many learners identify interactions between their L1 and subsequent languages. In contrast, Thompson's framework explicitly excludes responses involving interactions between the L1 and L2, categorizing them as NPPLI, stating that these responses are intriguing but outside the scope of the PPLI framework (Thompson, 2016, p. 97).

The study examined perceived language interactions in plurilingual students, including the understanding how the Czech language interacts with the languages they had previously learned. As part of their Czech language courses, students received open-ended questionnaires to express their perceptions of language interactions, including the Czech language, in their linguistic repertoires.

Methodology

Participants

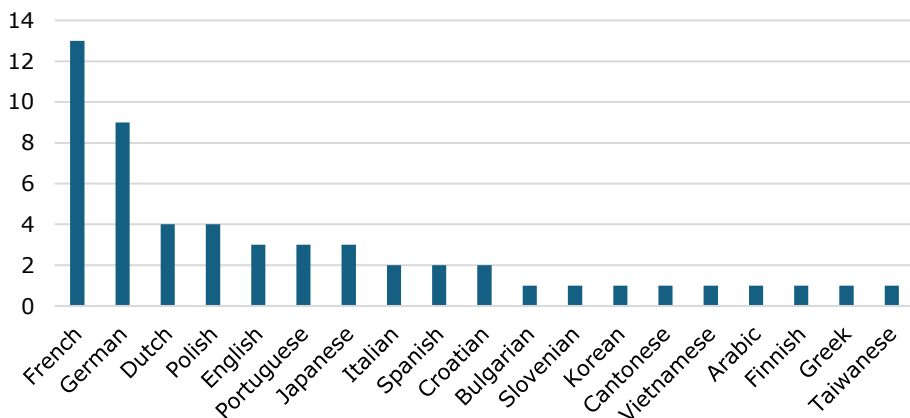
The study took place in the Czech language courses offered by a local university at two faculties: Arts and Humanities. These courses cater to international students participating in study-abroad exchange programs, primarily Erasmus+. However, full-degree students with longer-term academic sojourns can also enroll. The two faculties offer elementary Czech courses, specifically at the A1 and A2 levels, and do not provide higher-level language courses. These courses typically comprise around fifteen students per group. The groups in this study convened twice a week, except for two courses that

frequented only one meeting per week, and each session lasted for ninety minutes. The courses adhered to the standard semester duration of thirteen weeks and employed a communicative teaching method without incorporating specific plurilingual language learning strategies. Students from seven courses spanning two consecutive semesters were requested to complete an online questionnaire, resulting in fifty-four responses.

The study's focus on plurilingual university students in low-level Czech courses within the study abroad context resulted in a homogeneous sample: the participants represented various, mostly European universities, aged 22 years on average, with an age range between 22 and 28, and more than 90% of them had learned Czech for less than a year. This targeted approach to the research sample helped reduce the potential for excessive diversity, primarily concerning the Czech language proficiency, language backgrounds, and academic experiences.

Figure 1

Participants' Native Languages



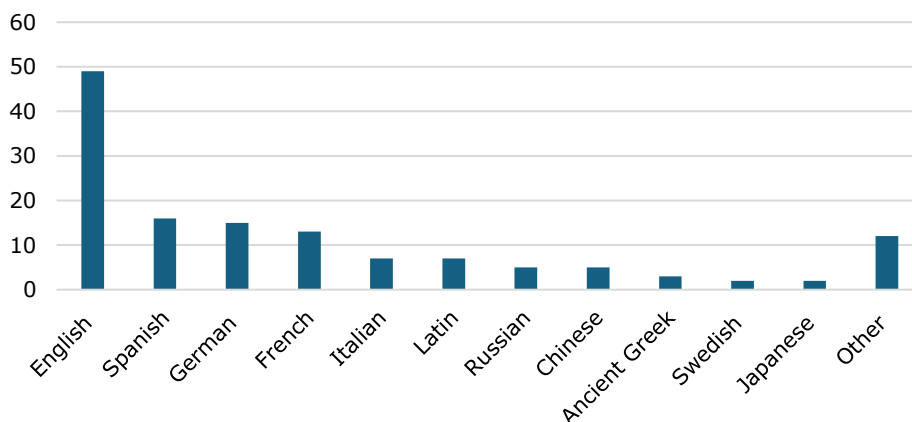
The learners came from various countries and cultural backgrounds, contributing to the diversity of the learning environment. A notable segment of participants (approximately one-third) had mother tongues belonging to the Romance language family, namely French, but Italian and Portuguese were also present. Another significant cohort had mother tongues rooted in

Germanic languages (22%), including German, Dutch, and English. While Romance and Germanic languages emerged as predominant, the sample also included Slavic speakers, specifically Polish and Croatian (7%). The Czech language courses offered at both faculties are accessible to all international students. While Erasmus students from European nations dominated, the learners showcased diverse mother tongues, encompassing Korean, Taiwanese, Finnish, Greek, and more. Figure 1 presents all the native languages that appeared in the sample.

In terms of languages learned, the participants' backgrounds were also diverse. As anticipated, most of them identified English as their initial foreign language. On average, they began learning English at approximately nine years of age, three of them were native English speakers. As study-abroad students, they used English daily in communication and academic pursuits. The other most learned languages were Spanish, mentioned by 16 learners, German by 15, and French by 13. In addition to living languages, they stated Latin and Ancient Greek. One participant hesitated to list a dead language, which raises the possibility that others may have omitted them, too—although this cannot be confirmed. Figure 2 presents all the non-native languages studied by the participants, ranked by frequency among them.

Figure 2

Languages Learned Before Czech



Czech served as the L3+ for all of them, with more than 90% indicating

that Czech was their L4+ (50 participants), but there were also instances where individuals studied Czech as their L5 to L9, as seen in Table 1.

Table 1

The Order of Czech Learned as an Additional Language in the Sample

Order of learning	Number of learners
Czech as L2	0
Czech as L3	4
Czech as L4	10
Czech as L5	22
Czech as L6	9
Czech as L7	4
Czech as L8	3
Czech as L9	2

Data Collection and Analysis

The data collection process involved administering a Google Form questionnaire to participants at the end of two academic semesters. The researcher asked the teachers to inform the students about the empirical study and encourage participation. This approach involved a personal connection between the students and their instructors, aiming to enhance their engagement and increase their willingness to participate. Students then filled out the questionnaire in their free time. In line with the principles of research ethics, the introduction to the questionnaire outlined the study objectives and purpose, together with the procedures for data handling and treatment, ensuring data privacy and confidentiality. The final question of the questionnaire sought participants' explicit agreement to partake in the study, reinforcing their voluntary participation and informed consent.

In addition to collecting demographic information, the questionnaire incorporated three open-ended questions designed to prompt the learners to reflect on their perceived language interactions. One of these questions aimed to elicit insights into how their knowledge of other languages influenced their

learning of Czech. The questionnaire drew inspiration from Thompson's work on PPLI (2016), exemplified by the question: "If you have studied other languages in the past, do you think that this has helped or hindered your ability to learn subsequent languages?" After this binary question, the participants were asked to provide specific examples of such interactions. The questionnaire encouraged them to consider various aspects of language, potentially extending to areas such as grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation. Furthermore, they could comment on other facets of language that they found pertinent. To collect data relevant to the research question addressing the role of Czech in language interactions, the concluding question, "Do you feel that the previous languages helped you in any way when learning Czech? How?" allowed to provide more detailed insights into their experiences and perceptions regarding the impact of their previous languages on learning Czech.

The data analysis process encompassed a series of sequential steps. The initial review and compilation phase involved examining the data downloaded from the online data collection sheet by two researchers. Following this, a list of participants with their respective answers provided the foundational basis for the analysis procedure. The analysis concentrated on the languages learned and the interactions between them, with particular attention paid to interactions involving the Czech language.

The initial analysis stage encompassed data coding, during which two researchers reviewed the responses and determined whether they qualified as instances of PPLI or NPPLI, following Thompson's guidelines (Thompson, 2016, p. 97). Responses indicating uncertainty about the positive impact of languages fell into the NPPLI category. The two researchers discussed the instances that lacked clarity, leaning on the coding guidelines providing a foundational framework for final resolution. For instance, when learners expressed uncertainty, they were categorized as NPPLI. When a response contained a mix of positive and negative interactions, the researchers followed Thompson's guidance, considering the predominant sentiment for coding purposes. Thus, a meticulous evaluation of responses was required to determine whether they represented PPLI or NPPLI.

The second phase of analysis encompassed the extraction of

the languages studied and the interactions observed among them. Subsequently, the examination shifted towards exploring the interaction dynamics between Czech and other foreign languages.

Results

The perceptions of language interaction underscored a notable degree of PPLI. In the data, PPLI was indicated when the learners responded affirmatively to the question, "If you have studied other languages in the past, do you think that this has helped or hindered your ability to learn subsequent languages?" While almost 90% responses concurred that prior knowledge of another language aided in learning an additional language, four participants opted not to answer the question PPLI. Two mentioned not perceiving any correlation between the languages they studied, and two acknowledged that they were unsure. Several believed that the presence of PPLI varied depending on the languages involved, with PPLI being more prevalent, as expected, among languages from the same language families. Similarly, in considering the interactions between Czech and other languages, the learners who had not previously encountered a Slavic language agreed that their familiarity with languages from different language families had a marginal impact on their acquisition of the Czech language.

When prompted to provide specific instances of PPLI within their language repertoires, examples involving specific languages occurred. However, some referred to languages they learned as an entire repertoire and did not compare them individually.

As expected, the identification of PPLI was more frequent among typologically similar languages: Germanic languages - English, German, Dutch, or Swedish; Romance languages - Latin, French, Spanish, Portuguese, Italian; and Slavic languages: Russian, Polish, Croatian, Slovenian, and Czech.

For me, it helped to learn other languages if they had the same language family. For example, it is easier to learn Spanish if you already speak French because both languages are Romance languages (Participant 3, German).

Slavic languages, like Croatian and Russian, share similar words and grammar with Czech. Knowledge of Latin helped with Romance languages (Participant 12, Croatian).

Nevertheless, some learners also recognized instances of PPLI extending across typologically distinct languages:

For example, in Japanese, words do not have gender, but in French and Czech, they do. Having learned that in French, it was quite easy to think about it in Czech as well (Participant 8, Japanese).

Pronunciations of some letters are similar between some languages: some Chinese accents with Czech accents, or the French "g" sound for the Czech "ř"; some Czech words look French to me, so I can manage to pronounce them right (Participant 33, French).

My knowledge of French grammar has helped me to learn Czech grammar in terms of the gender of words (Participant 49, Dutch).

I learned to use cases studying Latin and Greek, and it was useful for Czech (Participant 16, French).

The question about PPLI further prompted specific examples in terms of grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and other areas of the language. The examples underscored the learners' inclination to explore diverse facets of grammar in their language comparisons, noticing similarities in how different languages handle aspects of morphology and syntax. For instance, they highlighted that German and Czech share similarities in noun declensions and cases or that the presence of grammatical gender in German or French helped them understand Czech, as illustrated by Participant 8 above.

In terms of sentence structure, they found word order and prepositions puzzling, whereas the omission of personal pronouns in Italian and Spanish resonated with the Czech language structure:

The unnecessary use of personal pronouns in sentences is common in both Czech and Italian languages. It can also be easier to adapt to some specifically Czech word orders when you are familiar with languages that all have different ways of ordering words (German, Dutch, and Italian are all very different in this regard) (Participant 15, French).

Regarding vocabulary, the learners recognized similarities between English and French, particularly in the academic domain, and also noted the presence of loan words in languages:

Latin-origin vocabulary is commonly shared in many languages in medicine/academic fields, while English loan words dominate tech vocab (Participant 48, German).

Once more, instances of vocabulary resemblances within language families were a recurring theme:

English made it easier to learn some Norwegian words. And Polish can sometimes be helpful with Czech words. German words were also sometimes helpful in Norwegian (Participant 40, Polish).

Furthermore, the topic of word formation surfaced two times in the data. One person (Participant 45) identified the word formation process in German as similar to Slovenian. At the same time, however, word formation represented a hindrance in language learning for another person:

For me, creating nouns in different languages is always a struggle. For example, if you know a word in the form of an adjective or adverb and need to change it into a noun, or if you know the word in another language and need to translate, I get very easily confused and use incorrect noun forms, which makes me continue creating non-existent words (Participant 26, Spanish).

While the learners recognized the facilitative influence of common vocabulary and grammar within language families, the presence of distinct pronunciation patterns presented a challenge:

In terms of vocabulary and grammar, all my Romance languages relate to each other, so it's been easier, but in terms of pronunciation, they are all different (Participant 36, Spanish).

The pronunciation of all the languages I know is different, especially Czech pronunciation, which was completely new to me (Participant 49, Dutch).

However, even within a diversity of pronunciation, some learners recognized some phonetic connections as illustrated here:

None of them have the same pronunciation, but Spanish and Czech both have the same "r" pronunciation most of the time (Participant 37, French).

In the pronunciation, I can associate the sounds of the letters (Participant 43, French).

The influence of prior knowledge of Russian on learning Czech was a dual-edged experience for one person. While certain aspects, such as declensions and shared vocabulary like numbers, provided a helpful foundation, the distinctive pronunciation proved to be a hurdle:

Having learned some Russian in the past both helped and hindered me in learning Czech. On one hand, I was familiar with declension, and some words are very similar (numbers, for example), but on the other hand, the pronunciation really is different and hindered me in learning Czech vocabulary (sounds u, y, e...) (Participant 41, French).

These quotes underscore the interplay between phonetics, vocabulary,

and grammar within the language interactions. While vocabulary and grammar connections offered familiar ground, pronunciation stood out as a factor distinguishing between languages.

Figure 3

Types of Interaction Perceived Among Languages

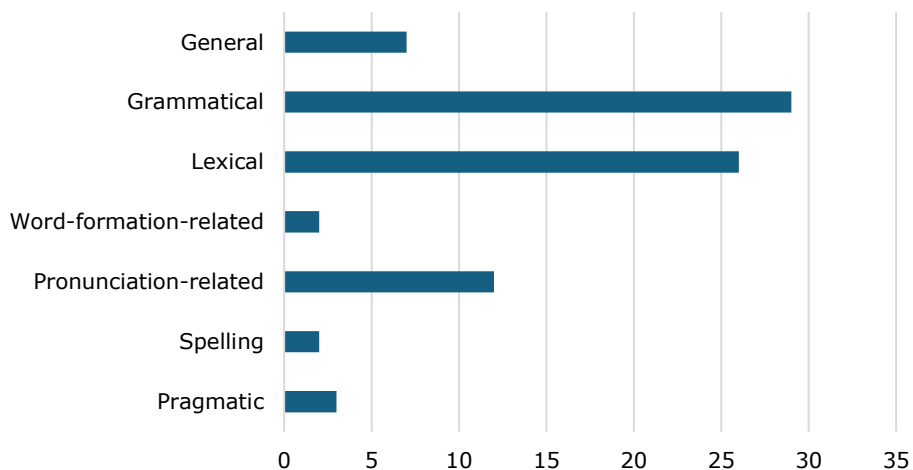


Figure 3 summarizes the areas where the learners perceived the interaction of languages, encompassing a range of linguistic dimensions. The most prominent interactions observed in the study were related to grammar and lexis, followed by pronunciation-related instances. The fourth type of interaction noted in the study encompassed general observations, where the learners pointed out resemblances between languages without providing specific examples related to particular language areas.

Analyzing specific interactions between Czech and other languages yielded compelling language dynamics, as shown in Table 2. While the presence of a significant number of interactions between Czech and other Slavic languages was expected (7 mentions), the notable prevalence of interactions with German with 12 mentions, followed by French with 5 mentions, introduces a dimension verifying the assumption that structural affinities within one language can be mirrored in another, even if the languages belong to distinct language families. Nevertheless, the correlations found were minor, such as

certain shared words or similarities in specific grammatical structures. Overall, the consensus remained that the Slavic languages aided the learning process of learning Czech more significantly.

Table 2

Perceived Interactions of Czech and Other Languages

Languages	Number of interactions
Slavic language/Czech	7
German/Czech	12
French/Czech	5
Italian/Czech	2
Latin/Czech	3
Latin+Greek/Czech	1
French+Spanish/Czech	1

While participants compared the languages learned, the influence of their mother tongue emerged as a significant factor. A notable subset was the responses from native Polish, Croatian, and Slovenian speakers, who unanimously highlighted the linguistic similarities between Czech and their respective mother tongues, underscoring how this resemblance facilitated their language acquisition process. The influence of L1 extended beyond Slavic language speakers, as evidenced by several non-Slavic learners who also acknowledged its role as a contributing factor to PPLI.

An additional noteworthy theme emerged from the dataset concerning sociocultural awareness as an integral facet of linguistic competence when one person underscored the shared utilization of language in formal and informal contexts, observed in German, French, or Russian. This spontaneous recognition highlights the holistic nature of language acquisition and its interconnectedness with diverse cultural contexts.

The following quote illustrates the holistic perspective through which one person perceived their plurilingual system:

They intertwine, they co-exist, and complete each other. If you change one of them, then the language is no longer the same; it's still called the same

language and understood, but the personality is changed (Participant 53, Vietnamese).

This response underscores the interconnectedness of languages and their profound role in shaping the plurilingual speaker's identity. It reveals that the language user's linguistic repertoire is a cohesive and intertwined whole.

In summary, the participants in this study demonstrated a significant degree of PPLI. While most of them acknowledged that prior knowledge of another language aided their acquisition of additional languages, it is essential to note that a few refrained from responding to the PPLI question or were uncertain about the relationship between their studied languages. The learners recognized the presence of PPLI prevalent among languages from the same language families, reaffirming the expected interactions between Czech and other Slavic languages. However, the surprising prevalence of interactions with German and sometimes French demonstrated that structural affinities within one language can be mirrored in another, even if they belong to distinct language families. Furthermore, the sociocultural context emerged as an integral facet of linguistic competence, with learners recognizing the shared use of language in formal and informal settings across languages, relating to language pragmatics. This observation emphasizes the interconnectedness of language acquisition with diverse cultural contexts, underscoring the holistic nature of plurilingual language use.

Discussion

The study examined PPLI among Czech language learners hailing from diverse linguistic and sociocultural backgrounds. The initial research question sought to unveil whether the participants discerned positive interactions within their array of languages. The results consistently reinforced the existence of PPLI within the learners' language repertoires. While some admitted difficulty recognizing these interactions, the prevailing affirmation underscored the pivotal role of prior language knowledge as a facilitator in acquiring additional languages, corroborating empirical studies (De Angelis & Dewaele, 2011).

Furthermore, the findings offered a variety of language comparisons.

The responses identified PPLI in diverse linguistic facets, including vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, spelling, and word formation, aligning with the existing body of research on cross-linguistic influence (Gutierrez-Mangado et al., 2019). These interactions transcended not only among typologically similar languages but also extended across different language families when participants compared Czech to languages they had previously studied. This observation highlights the potential for the Language Proximity Model, which underscores structural commonalities over language typology (Westergaard et al., 2017).

In addition to the areas of language addressed by the questionnaire, the learners' spontaneous reference to the sociocultural dimension of communication underscores the importance of sociocultural awareness in developing effective language skills. This result encourages further exploration of higher-level language competencies, such as strategic dimensions and pragmatics, in line with suggestions by Chau et al. (2022).

This study bears pedagogical significance in the broader context of plurilingual language education. Recognizing positive interactions between languages can inform the development of effective learning strategies suitable for various language learning contexts, aligning with the recommendations on plurilingualism by the Council of Europe (2007). From a learner's perspective, this study provides insights that can inspire educators to raise awareness of potential positive language interactions. Educators can encourage students to actively seek and share instances of these interactions in various classroom activities. Leveraging the expertise of students with advanced plurilingual skills to assist their peers in understanding and acquiring additional languages can foster a collaborative and supportive learning environment. Educational institutions should also incorporate plurilingual approaches into their curricula and provide professional development opportunities for educators to equip them with a deeper understanding of plurilingualism and effective pedagogical strategies extending beyond intercomprehension (De Carlo & Garbarino, 2021; North et al., 2022; Piccardo et al., 2021). This ongoing professional growth empowers teachers to adapt their teaching methods to cater to the diverse language backgrounds of their students, ultimately fostering inclusive plurilingual classrooms and enhancing the multiple-language learning

experiences of students.

Furthermore, drawing from Thompson's research (2016, 2017), it is evident that a substantial link exists between PPLI and language learning motivation. Her studies revealed that learners who experienced PPLI demonstrated higher motivation to acquire additional languages. Thus, it is plausible to suggest that by promoting awareness of language interactions and incorporating a plurilingual approach into language curricula, educators have the potential to foster more positive attitudes toward language learning in general. However, it is essential to acknowledge that this proposition is speculative and requires empirical validation through further research among plurilingual learners.

This study offers valuable insights into PPLI and its implications for language learning, yet it is crucial to acknowledge its limitations as they provide avenues for future research on PPLI. First, the study's sample primarily consisted of Erasmus students, representing a fraction of the broader language-learning population. Study-abroad university students may have unique language backgrounds, motivations, and learning experiences that could differ from those of other language learner cohorts. Furthermore, the study's focus on low-level Czech language courses restricts the research scope to specific proficiency levels. Nonetheless, previous studies suggests that language transfer dynamics may vary across proficiency levels (Sánchez, 2017). Therefore, future research involving more advanced Czech learners must validate the perceived linguistic interactions among plurilingual speakers at higher proficiency levels.

Additionally, this study primarily featured plurilingual university students who voluntarily enrolled in a Czech language course, suggesting intrinsic motivation to acquire another language. It remains speculative whether international students not participating in the Czech course exhibit lower levels of PPLI, and further investigation is needed for a comprehensive understanding.

Finally, this study did not address the potential impact of external factors, such as individual motivation or specific language teaching methodologies, which can shape language learning outcomes and attitudes towards learning languages. Those could be addressed in future, qualitative

studies on PPLI, allowing for in-depth exploration and comprehensive understanding of external influences on PPLI.

In conclusion, these limitations underscore that while this study offers valuable insights into PPLI, its findings should be considered in light of these constraints. Future research should aim for more extensive and diverse samples, encompass learners at various proficiency levels, and explore the interplay between external factors and PPLI in greater depth.

Conclusion

In the global landscape of plurilingualism, this study offers a unique exploration of the plurilingual linguistic competencies of university students studying Czech, a less commonly taught language, as an additional language. The research objectives were to examine whether learners perceive positive interactions among their languages and pinpoint the domains where these interactions manifest. Additionally, the study sought to unravel the role of Czech within the broader realm of plurilingualism.

The interconnectedness of languages is a vital aspect of plurilingual competence that significantly shapes cognitive abilities, learning strategies, and linguistic perspectives in language acquisition. This study reveals that learners often recognize positive interactions within their linguistic repertoires, validating the existence of PPLI in learning Czech as an additional language. Such interactions span language families and transcend language typologies, proposing a comprehensive picture of how languages interact within the plurilingual mind.

While conventional language instruction predominantly follows a monolingual approach, focusing on the target language as the primary mode of classroom interaction, this study highlights the invaluable role of previous language learning experiences when acquiring an additional language. Recognizing and leveraging positive language interactions can significantly enhance language learning experiences. The potential of PPLI to foster motivation and positive attitudes toward language learning, and mitigate the anxiety associated with language acquisition cannot be understated. Hence, the didactic implications of this research call for an innovative approach

to language teaching and learning, challenging the rooted monolingual paradigm. Moreover, this study underscores the value of incorporating plurilingual approaches into educational institutions' curricula, cultivating professional development opportunities for educators to gain a deeper understanding of plurilingualism and effective pedagogical strategies. This approach enables educators to cater to the diverse language backgrounds of students, fostering plurilingual classrooms and enriching the language learning experiences.

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Appendix

Questions for the questionnaire:

1. How old are you?
2. What is your mother tongue?
3. How long have you been learning Czech?
4. How many foreign languages have you learned since your childhood? When was it, and what level have you achieved?
5. If you have studied other languages in the past, do you think that this has helped or hindered your ability to learn subsequent languages?
6. Comment on the following aspects of how the languages you have learned interact in terms of
 - vocabulary:
 - grammar:
 - pronunciation:
 - other aspect of the language:

ONE MIND, MANY LANGUAGES: CZECH AS AN ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE
IN PLURILINGUAL REPERTOIRES

7. How do the languages you have learned relate to the Czech language?
8. Czech is the (first, second, third...) language I have learned.

List of languages learned:

Language	Number of Learners
English	51
Spanish	16
German	15
French	13
Italian	7
Latin	7
Russian	5
Chinese	5
Greek	3
Japanese	2
Swedish	2
Dutch	1
Macedonian	1
Norwegian	1
Korean	1
Hungarian	1
Polish	1
Irish	1
Esperanto	1
Kichwa	1
Toki Pona	1
Galician	1
Hindi	1
Galician	1
Farsi	1
Esperanto	1

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JEDNA MYSL, MNOHO JAZYKŮ: ČEŠTINA JAKO DALŠÍ JAZYK VE VÍCEJAZYČNÉM REPERTOÁRU

Shrnutí. Vícejazyčnost přesahuje pouhou schopnost používat více jazyků a zdůrazňuje vzájemnou propojenost jazyků v rámci jazykové kompetence jednotlivce. V souladu s jazykovou politikou Rady Evropy se vysokoškolští studenti stávají uživateli více jazyků a zahraniční vysokoškolští studenti na českých vysokých školách se často učí češtinu jako čtvrtý nebo další jazyk (L4+). Studující mohou v rámci svého jazykového repertoáru vnímat interakce mezi jazyky, kterým se učili, a to jak pozitivní (Perceived Positive Language Interaction, PPLI, Thompson, 2016), tak negativní. Cílem výzkumu je odpovědět na tři hlavní otázky: Vnímají studenti češtiny jako L4+ pozitivní interakce mezi svými osvojovanými jazyky? V jakých oblastech se tyto interakce projevují? Jaký je vztah češtiny k jejich dalším jazykům? Výzkum byl proveden na české univerzitě ve volitelných kurzech češtiny pro začátečníky (A1/A2). Během dvou po sobě jdoucích semestrů vyplnilo padesát čtyři zahraničních studentů (zejména studujících v rámci programu Erasmus+) otevřený online dotazník. Analýza ukázala, že většina dotázaných (90 %) vnímala mezi studovanými jazyky pozitivní interakce, a to zejména v rámci jazykových rodin. Mezi typologicky odlišnými jazyky však také docházelo k interakcím, zejména mezi češtinou a němčinou. Jako významný faktor se ukázal také mateřský jazyk účastníků. Navzdory relativně omezenému výzkumnému vzorku studie naznačuje didaktický potenciál pozitivní jazykové interakce ve výuce a učení se jazykům a navrhuje další možnosti výzkumu.

Klíčová slova: další jazyk; čeština; studium v zahraničí; vícejazyčnost; mnohojazyčnost; vnímaná pozitivní jazyková interakce; PPLI; mezijazykový vliv.

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**VIENA GALVA, DAUG KALBŲ: ČEKŲ KALBA KAIP PRIDĖTINĖ
KALBA DAUGIAKALBIUOSE REPERTUARUOSE**

Anotacija. Daugiakalbystė nėra vien tik gebėjimas vartoti kelias kalbas – ji reiškia kalbų tarpusavio ryšį asmens kalbinėje kompetencijoje. Pagal Europos kalbų politiką universitetų studentai yra kelių kalbų vartotojai. Tarptautiniai universitetų studentai, besimokantys čekų kalbos kursuose, dažniausiai mokosi čekų kalbos kaip L4+. Tyrimu siekiama atsakyti į tris pagrindinius klausimus: Ar čekų kalbos L4+ besimokantieji suvokia teigiamą sąveiką tarp savo išmoktų kalbų? Kokiose srityse šios sąveikos pasireiškia? Kaip čekų kalba siejasi su kitomis kalbomis? Tyrime dalyvavo 54 užsienio studentai, besimokantys čekų kalbos žemesniu nei A1/A2 kalbos mokėjimo lygiu. Tyrime nagrinėjama, ar ir kaip šie besimokantieji suvokia savo daugiakalbio repertuaro kalbų sąveiką. 54 užsienio studentai, du semestrus iš eilės studijuodami pasirenkamuosiuose čekų kalbos kursuose, pildė atvirą internetinį klausimyną. Analizė atskleidė, kad dalyvių repertuaruose gana aiškiai suvokiama teigiama kalbinė sąvoka. Besimokantieji pastebėjo teigiamą gramatikos, žodyno, tarimo ir kitų kalbos sričių sąveiką. Teigiama sąveika ypač pasireiškė kalbų šeimose. Tačiau pasitaikydavo sąveikų ir tarp tipologiškai skirtingų kalbų, būtent tarp čekų ir vokiečių kalbų. Dalyvių gimtoji kalba taip pat išryškėjo kaip veiksnys. Ankstesni tyrimai parodė, kad suvokta teigiama kalbinė sąveika yra susijusi su didesne besimokančiųjų kalbų mokymosi motyvacija arba mažesniu kalbiniu nerimu. Šiame kontekste, nepaisant palyginti nedidelės tyrimo imties, tyrimas rodo teigiamos kalbinės sąveikos panaudojimo didaktinį potencialą mokant kalbų.

Pagrindinės sąvokos: pridėtinė kalba; čekų kalba; individuali daugiakalbystė; visuotinė daugiakalbystė; suvokta teigiama kalbinė sąveika; kryžminė kalbinė įtaka; tarpkalbinė sąveika.

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THE ROLE OF LINGUISTIC AND CULTURAL MEDIATION IN LEARNING THE HOST COUNTRY'S LANGUAGE

Annotation. The need to reconsider the value of mediation in language teaching/learning has been highlighted due to such processes as globalization and migration in the contemporary world. The importance of a language learner's entire plurilingual repertoire has been emphasized in *The Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) Companion Volume (2020)* and students' linguistic and cultural backgrounds have been recognized as useful teaching resources to enhance language learning (Piccardo & North, 2017). The application of translanguaging has become an innovative method applied in language teaching and is now seen as a tool for increasing learners' commitment and self-belief (Duarte, 2020). A survey was conducted to explore the role of mediation in learning a host country's language in the UK and Lithuania. The study aimed to investigate the use of non-linguistic competences to reduce linguistic and cultural barriers, encourage collaboration among language learners, and improve their competence in translanguaging. The survey included 23 English for speakers of other languages (ESOL) students (levels A2 and B1) and 15 Lithuanian as a second language students (levels A1 and A2). A quantitative and qualitative research methodology was used to analyze their language learning experiences during mediated lessons of the target language. The results of the surveys and short semi-formal interviews showed that learners had developed various non-linguistic competences and demonstrated the ability to use other languages for learning a new language. Although most of the research participants agreed that such a way of learning had helped them to successfully learn the target language and preserve their national identity in a foreign country, a careful guidance provided by a language teacher is necessary in order not to be misguided among the variety of similar or different languages.

Keywords: mediation in language teaching/learning; linguistic integration of migrants; acculturation; plurilingual/pluricultural competence.

Introduction

The use of mediation strategies and activities is of fast-growing research interest all round the world. Different types of mediation have become a recent

innovation in the didactics of languages and cultures. According to *The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (2020), the mediator "acts as a social agent who creates bridges and helps to construct or convey meaning, sometimes within the same language, sometimes across modalities (e.g., from spoken to signed or vice versa, in cross-modal communication) and sometimes from one language to another (cross-linguistic mediation)" (CEFR, 2020, p. 90). Considering this, the mediator (either a language teacher or a student) needs to interpret or create meanings through speech or writing using different linguistic / cultural backgrounds or situational contexts. Dendrinou (2006) claims that mediated language teaching marks a shift in existing language teaching ideologies, moving from "L1 as strictly forbidden in EFL classroom" to multilingualism and "the increasingly important social function of the intercultural mediator" (Dendrinou, 2006, p. 14).

North and Piccardo (2017), the leading authorities in multilingualism and mediation, distinguish between four types of mediation: linguistic, cultural, social, and pedagogic. Both linguistic and cultural mediation involve a flexible use of different languages (L1, L2, L3, ...) and cultures while learning a target language:

Mediation is the linchpin to the notion of cultural awareness, which applies within a language as well as across languages and cultures, with consideration of styles, genres and the different sub-cultures, social and professional, within a society (North & Piccardo, 2017, p. 85).

Acknowledging and valuing linguistic and cultural diversity and, moreover, using it as a teaching/ learning resource empowers both the language teacher and the language learner. Previous research indicates that linguistic and intercultural competences may be an important factor influencing emotional and behavioural progression of a person living in a host country. For example, Toppelberg and Collins' (2012) research on bilingual migrant children has shown that both languages (the language of a host country and a native language) are of equal importance as the former is "crucial for academic success and long-term social and economic well-being" in a new country and

the latter helps “immigrants maintain a meaningful connection to their heritage culture and language” (Toppelberg & Collins, 2012, p. 697).

Leading figures in inclusive plurilingual education, Little and Kirwan (2021), have demonstrated a remarkable success of linguistic and cultural diversity, which was successfully applied as an innovative teaching approach at primary education level. It is important to note that theoreticians and practitioners of translanguaging, plurilingual and pluricultural education also refer to mediation as a helpful and essential strategy as “various languages in play contribute to the development of a learning culture in which classroom discourse mediates between curriculum content and the pupils’ developing plurilingual repertoires” (Little & Kirwan, 2021, p. 173).

Research on the challenges that newcomers are confronted with in a host country is abundant (Almutairi, 2015; McAuliffe, 2020); Janar et al, 2022; Smith et al, 2022; Nshom, 2022; Norosi, 2023). The Council of Europe points out that migrants’ difficulties in communication usually result from the lack of proficiency in the language, register, cognitive gaps, unfamiliarity with cultural issues and concepts or the lack of relevant information, suggesting that mediated language lessons may “improve migrants” general confidence as participants in the host society and raise their self-esteem (The Council of Europe, 2021). While emphasizing that the use of a language learner’s linguistic and cultural background can help him/her better acculturate in a host country, Piccardo cites Engeström referring to mediation as “a process that allows overcoming separation between individuals and culture/society” (Piccardo, 2020, p. 15). In this context, the usage of translanguaging is no longer observed as an obstacle but as a tool for raising motivation and confidence (Duarte, 2020), stimulating the social practice of multilingualism and learning how to move between languages (Gallego-Balsà et al, 2019) or perceiving language learners “as users of their individual languages” and developing “an umbrella multilingual identity” (Fisher et al, 2020). Finally, the use of mediation in language lessons can significantly contribute to the sustainable multilingualism development. By improving communicative skills in both native and additional languages, learners gain the capacity to navigate linguistic diversity, promoting inclusivity and effective communication among individuals from varied linguistic and cultural backgrounds.

Furthermore, linguistic and cross-cultural mediation encourages exploration of diverse cultures, fostering respect and empathy towards other cultures. This approach may help to minimize language and culture barriers, fostering the coexistence of languages and partially preventing linguistic extinction. Beyond education, the lifelong mediated learning of languages can help individuals to adapt to evolving languages and communication tools, while promoting social cohesion among linguistically and culturally diverse communities, which is essential for sustainable development and harmonious coexistence.

Methodology

The study aimed to examine the use of mediation in language lessons in the UK and Lithuania, specifically in English for speakers of other languages (ESOL) and Lithuanian language courses for foreign learners. The aim of the research was to examine how methods and approaches used in mediation activities, organised by the language teacher and applied by language students, may enhance language teaching / learning, leading to various benefits such as the development of non-linguistic skills and the reduction of language and cultural obstacles while living in a foreign country. Another objective of the study was to investigate the students' roles as intermediaries for their classmates, enhancing their proficiency in translanguaging. The preliminary results of the research were presented during the international scientific conference *Sustainable Multilingualism 2021* (Meškauskienė et al., 2021). The research data was collected through an opinion survey and semi-structured interviews with 23 ESOL students in the UK and 15 students of Lithuanian for foreigners in Lithuania. The participants were asked to report their experiences of online lessons, where the following mediation strategies had been used: mediating a text, mediating communication, and acting as an intermediary in informal situations (the strategies were adapted from The CEFR Companion Volume, 2020). The data collection process was comprised of two consecutive parts: an online opinion survey, presented to the participants prior to mediated language lessons and semi-structured interviews after mediated language lessons.

Sample

The participants were 23 ESOL students from the UK and 15 students of the Lithuanian language for foreigners, delivered in Lithuania. The respondents' age and gender are presented in *Figures 1* and *2*. The chart indicating the participants' age (*Figure 1*) shows that the two groups were rather different in terms of age: the highest number of students in the ESOL group was in the age group of 30-39 years, while in the Lithuanian language group students were mostly under 20 years old.

Figure 1

Age of Participants

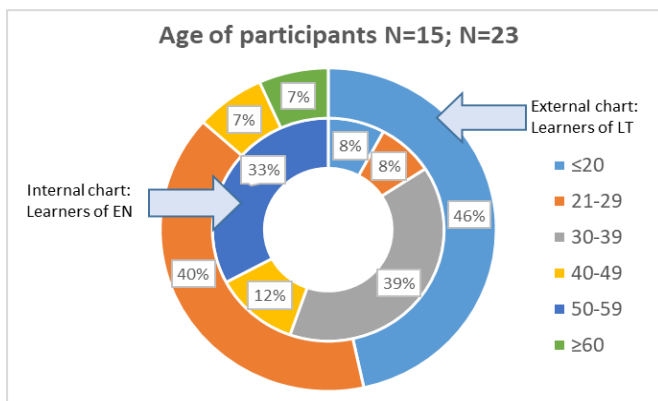
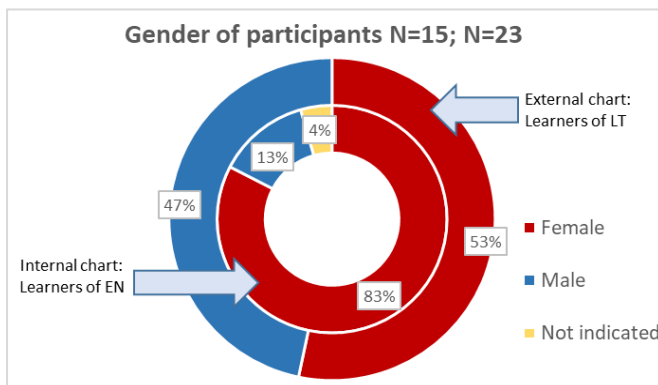


Figure 2

Gender of Participants



The distribution by gender in the groups is presented in *Figure 2*, which reveals that ESOL students were mainly female, whereas the learners of Lithuanian were almost equally divided into male and female.

The research sample was selected based on three criteria. Firstly, all research participants were learning the host country's language (English or Lithuanian). Secondly, to explore how mediation works at different levels, the research subjects' competence of the target language was different: the students of the Lithuanian language for foreigners were at the elementary or pre-intermediate levels (levels A1 and A2 according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR)) and ESOL students were at the pre-intermediate and intermediate levels (levels A2 and B1 according to CEFR). Thirdly, the respondents had come from a diverse range of cultural backgrounds (Lithuanian, Russian, Polish (ESOL students) and Belarusian, Russian, Ukrainian, French, Norwegian, Chinese, Kazakh, Indian, Kurd and Malaysian (the students of the Lithuanian language). None of the sample was excluded as all the research participants had matched the research selection criteria.

Case Studies

As mentioned above, there were two separate groups of research participants, which had been subdivided into sample groups according to the target language: ESOL students learning English in the UK and international students learning Lithuanian in Lithuania. The research methodology was comprised of three consecutive parts: an online opinion survey, mediated language lessons and semi-structured interviews that followed the lessons. The online survey was presented to the participants prior to the mediated language lessons. The survey questions aimed to collect general information regarding the research subjects' linguistic repertoire, age, gender, and time spent living in the UK or Lithuania. Furthermore, the survey was designed to find out the students' awareness of mediation and their previous experience of improving their non-linguistic competences during language lessons. The survey also aimed to analyse the research participants' attitudes towards the importance of different non-linguistic competences and

one's native language / culture while living in a foreign country (see *Table 1*). The initial results of the survey revealed that the participants were subject to mediation in their language learning experiences; however, they were unaware of its presence, purpose, and benefits. It is also important to mention that in the initial phase the students might have interpreted the questions in an abstract manner, providing their responses based on social desirability bias.

Table 1

The Survey Questions

The survey questions	
1.	Please write which languages you can use, including your native language, and indicate the language level: (native/A1 (basic user)/A2 (basic user)/B1 (independent user)/B2 (independent user)/C1 (proficient user)/C2 (proficient user)
2.	Mark which non-linguistic competences you have improved when learning languages: <ul style="list-style-type: none">•intercultural competence•the ability to emphasize with another person•resolving conflict•tolerance for other languages and cultures•critical thinking•constructive criticism•mediation (the ability to explain, negotiate, find a solution, etc.)•leadership (showing initiative, assigning tasks to the team, coordinating teamwork, etc.)•creativity•the ability to explain and summarise information•other (please indicate....)
3.	Write down what non-linguistic competences are important when living in a foreign country.
4.	Write down whether it is important to preserve your identity, language and culture living in another country. Comment on your answer.
5.	Have you participated in language learning activities in which you told about your native language or culture to the people from other countries, compared your native language with other languages, etc.? Yes/No
6.	Your age.
7.	Gender.
8.	How long have you lived in the UK / Lithuania?

Mediated language lessons were carried out by an ESOL lecturer and the teacher of the Lithuanian language, who dedicated some time to define the process of mediation and introduced the participants to the purpose of the study. Although traditional research practice suggests withholding information related to research aims to avoid potential biases, in this particular

case, the research participants were invited to try critically evaluating language learning methods by comparing their previous and current experience. The participants were split into smaller groups according to their level of the target language. Different mediation tasks were designed due to the students' different language proficiency and the topics covered in the course.

After mediated language lessons, semi-structured group interviews were conducted online and recorded for further data analysis. The main aim of the interviews was to obtain a deeper insight into language learning experiences of students applying mediation, which may improve their non-linguistic competences and translanguaging skills. The questions of the semi-structured interviews were mainly the same as the ones presented in the online survey before mediated lessons (Questions 2-5), which allowed a direct comparison of participants' responses and attitudes towards mediation before and after the lessons that involved the practices of mediation (see Table 1). In addition, semi-structured interviews provided the students with the possibility to reflect upon mediation in language learning as a group and to elaborate more on the reasons of translanguaging and the use of their native language in the contexts of the host country.

Case Study I: ESOL A2-B1

The sample of the ESOL A2-B1 students was comprised of 23 individuals from the UK. The participants were selected based on convenience sampling where the researchers indicated the students that were accessible and willing to participate in the study. This resulted in a diverse range of participants' nationalities including Lithuanian, Latvian, Polish, and Russian. The majority of participants were women (19 out of 23) and all participants were older than 21, with the majority in the 30-59 age range. Around half (11) of the participants have lived in the UK for 6-10 years, 5 participants for more than 11 years and the rest under 5 years. This introduced a diverse range of competences, culture, and language experiences across the sample.

The participants were split into groups according to their level of the English language: the pre-intermediate level (11 students) and

intermediate level (12 students). The topics for mediated language lessons were chosen to allow a common situation to language learners to be explored by utilising mediation. As for mediating a text, A2 learners of English had to do the role-play named "Booking a hotel":

You speak both English and Lithuanian (or Latvian, Polish, Russian). Your friend wants to book a hotel in London, but he/she speaks only Lithuanian (or Latvian, Polish, Russian) and does not understand much information on English websites. You clarify what your friend wants, explain the information written in English and help your partner book a hotel room.

Another role-play "At the restaurant", offered for B1 learners of English, included both mediating a text and communication:

Student 1 speaks only Lithuanian (or Latvian, Polish, Russian) and cannot understand the menu written in English and also cannot communicate with the waitress who speaks only in English. You are Student's 1 friend. You speak both English and Lithuanian (or Latvian, Polish, Russian). You have to look through the menu, which is in English, and explain briefly in Lithuanian (or Latvian, Polish, Russian) what the dishes are and help your friend order something.

The mediation task was adapted for level B1, and the students were asked to tell some extra information about the dishes, such as their taste, popularity in the UK and similarity with certain Lithuanian (or Latvian, Polish, Russian) dishes.

One of the main challenges that arose during the mediated language lessons was posed by online learning as some students were less confident to participate because the atmosphere was more formal compared to lessons face-to-face. This may have affected the responses and attitudes of students towards mediation in the later interview, when they suggested that face-to-face mediated lessons allow more creativity and teamwork to flourish.

Case Study II: the Lithuanian Language for Foreigners A1–A2

The Lithuanian language lectures are usually characterised by a vast cultural and linguistic variation as this subject is chosen by Erasmus and exchange programme students from various countries. In the current study, 10 students of the Lithuanian language A1 and 5 students of level A2 came from nine countries: Belarus, China, France, India, Iraq, Kazakhstan, Malaysia, Norway, and Ukraine.

Different mediation tasks were designed for A1 and A2 levels due to different language proficiency and the topics covered in the course. As for mediating communication, A1 learners had to do a role-play at the supermarket: *“Student 1 wants to buy beef as he/she does not eat pork, but a shop assistant (Student 2) does not speak Lithuanian; Student 3 speaks both English and Lithuanian and helps Student 1 make the purchase.”* In the text mediation task, A1 students were given a restaurant menu and had to role-play a situation where *“Student 1, who wants to order food, speaks only English, Student 2, a waiter/waitress, speaks only Lithuanian and Student 3, a mediator, who speaks both languages and can explain the menu to Student 1”*. Mediating communication, A2 students had to role-play a visit to a doctor:

The patient (Student 1) speaks only his/her native language and English, while the doctor (Student 2) speaks only Lithuanian. The patient's friend (Student 3) helps them communicate and resolve some cultural issues. For text mediation, the students had to find a text in their native language about the weather or climate, generalize and simplify it and retell it to other students in Lithuanian. Other students had to ask additional questions to stimulate a discussion.

The mediation tasks were performed online, which might have contributed to some minor misunderstandings: the student could not hear or understand something because of connection or microphone problems. Nevertheless, the tasks were completed, and the communication goal was achieved.

In the semi-structured interview after the tasks were completed, the students from both levels admitted that the activities had been sufficiently difficult, especially because of their comparatively low level of Lithuanian. Yet, all the respondents viewed the activities as valuable and improving their critical thinking and ability to explain, especially when not all words were known. Creativity was also closely related to the above-mentioned aspects as the research participants had to view the role-plays creatively and find a solution in the situations provided. From this perspective, they needed teamwork, which the learners viewed as an additional value to language lectures and challenge at the same time. One student expressed the idea that Lithuanian is a very complicated language; however, the activities helped him see the efforts and struggles of other students, which caused him psychological relief. These ideas suggest that in addition to the linguistic competence, during mediated language lessons students acquire or improve their non-linguistic skills, and mediated tasks contribute to the psychological atmosphere in the group.

Results: The Improvement of Non-linguistic Competences

After analyzing the survey results, which aimed to investigate the essential non-linguistic skills required in a foreign country, the following observations can be made. Students studying Lithuanian as a foreign language (Group N15) highlight that qualities such as *tolerance, patience, creativity, adaptability, teamwork, interpersonal and communication abilities, empathy, and openness to new experiences* hold the greatest importance in a host country. In contrast, the majority of ESOL learners (Group N23) believe that *effective communication, respect, politeness, openness to diverse languages and cultures, understanding of traditions, awareness of the political landscape, knowledge of laws and regulations within the host country* constitute pivotal factors in comprehending life in a foreign country. These non-linguistic proficiencies are deemed crucial for their adaptation and survival.

Figure 3

Improvement of Non-Linguistic Competences During Mediated Language Lessons

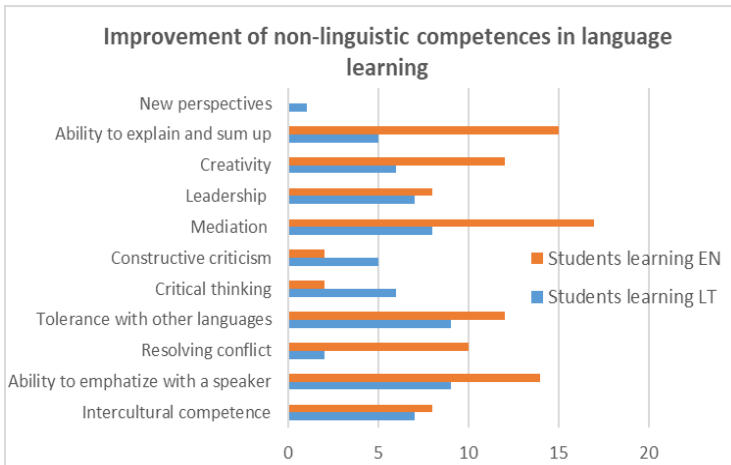


Figure 3 demonstrates the students' opinion on their improvement of non-linguistic competences during mediated language lessons. According to the research participants, during linguistic mediation activities the following non-linguistic skills were improved: *understanding about different cultures, teamwork, critical thinking, tolerance, creativity and improvisation skills* (as indicated by the students of the Lithuanian language) and *collaboration, imagination, creativity, making connections between ideas and information, self-esteem when interpreting to their friends, real-life copying situations and 'talking things through' to reach new conclusions and sharing cultural experiences* (as indicated by ESOL students).

The mediation tasks and the semi-structured interview after performing them have demonstrated that mediation is an important skill, which should be developed consistently. Its importance can be seen in different perspectives: the students have a possibility to explore and practice real-life situations as the tasks should be modelled according to a specific communicative purpose. These tasks encourage cooperation, teamwork, and creativity, as students have to achieve a solution in a situation provided. In addition, they have to be able to explain and summarise, which is essential in language learning and real life. The students' native language may facilitate or

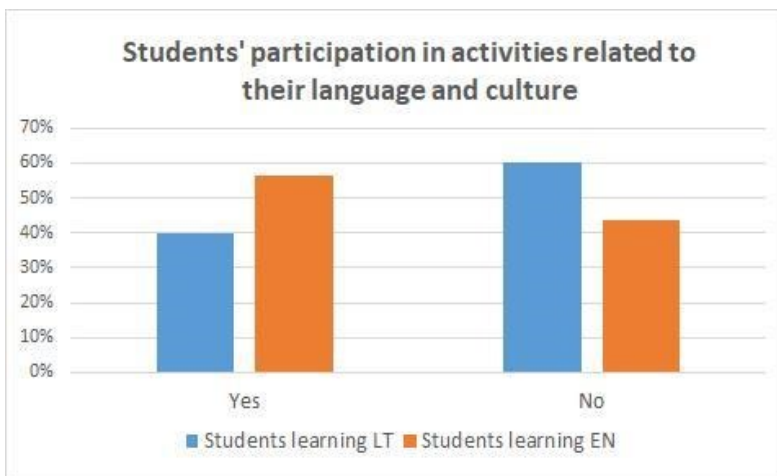
hinder the language learning process; nevertheless, discussion, comparison and analysis are encouraged because of linguistic similarities or differences.

Results: Cultural Mediation

The survey and interview questions explored whether the study participants took part in any language learning activities which provided a space to share their culture and language with other students. The results showed that half of the respondents had already had the experience of such language learning activities through local cultural events, real life situations and previous language courses. These respondents further expressed the fact that they had found these experiences enjoyable and useful in getting to know diverse cultures and meeting new people. The number of students who indicated that they had participated in language learning activities, in which they had told about their native language or culture to the people from other cultures, was similar in both groups – above 50% of students learning English (N23) and 40% of those learning Lithuanian (N15) (see *Figure 4*):

Figure 4

Students' Participation in Activities Related to Their Language and Culture



The research participants were also asked to indicate some examples of these activities and to explain whether they enjoyed them. Most of

the participants shared their positive experiences:

In Lithuanian language class we got the chance to compare native foods and cultural norms, which was fun and enlightening. (a student of the Lithuanian language)

For me it was interesting to compare the language, customs and habits of English and Lithuanian people. (a student of the English language)

The activity to mediate between two different language speaking people. It was so nice, that I felt the strength, that I really can speak in real life even in A1 level. (a student of the Lithuanian language)

Furthermore, the case studies showed that most of research participants believe that fostering one's native culture, communication, respect, courtesy, tolerance to other languages and cultures, understanding traditions, the political situation, laws and rules of the country they reside is a crucial stage in adapting to a new way of life and is necessary for their survival in a host country. Moreover, all respondents reported that safeguarding their sense of self, language, and cultural heritage is a fundamental element of residing in a host society:

It is important because more people can learn something new and fascinating about your country and culture. If my language and culture were threatened, I would want to preserve it because it is part of my identity. (a student of the Lithuanian language)

You will always be a newcomer in another country and you will not find new roots, if you lose your native ones. (an ESOL student)

There were two common themes identified in the responses among ESOL learners. One theme was the importance of teaching children their first language. The second recurring theme was ensuring to not forget their 'roots' by preserving memories and fostering the culture and history of their

homeland. Almost all the students agreed that mediation activities, involving their native language or any other languages they can speak or understand, had helped them not only learn the above-mentioned aspects of the target country, but also respect their native language, which will always be an important part of their identity.

Finally, they found it very interesting to compare national dishes in different countries (the task on text-mediation), which was also a culturally enriching experience. Overall, the findings show a strong tendency towards fostering one's intercultural competence when living in a foreign country. Most participants expressed the need to preserve their national identity, language, and culture despite the attempts to integrate into the new local community.

The findings of the present study correlate with previous research conducted by other scholars such as North and Piccardo (2017), Little and Kirwan (2021), which emphasizes the importance of fostering intercultural competence and preserving one's cultural identity. The above-mentioned authors have underscored the role of cultural mediation in promoting cultural awareness. The participants of this case study demonstrated a keen interest in sharing their cultural heritage through mediated language learning activities. This aligns with the notion that cultural mediation not only enhances language learning but also contributes to mutual understanding and respect among diverse cultural backgrounds. From the pedagogical perspective, these findings highlight the need for incorporating activities that allow learners to share their cultures and create opportunities for intercultural dialogues within language classrooms.

Results: Linguistic Mediation

Given that the majority of the language students possessed multilingual abilities, they were prompted and inclined to utilize their linguistic skills in various languages while engaging in mediated language lessons. This approach consequently enhanced their aptitude for translanguaging. When asked about their experience of mixing different languages, they have dwelled upon varieties in grammar, pronunciation, vocabulary and better comprehension of concepts or situations:

Cases in Lithuanian are similar to Russian and my native language, so it's really helpful and faster to learn Lithuanian. (a student of the Lithuanian language)

Chinese is so different from Lithuanian, and English is more similar to Lithuanian, so maybe English helps me more. (a student of the Lithuanian language)

Even in higher levels, I love comparing words, concepts, situations or misunderstandings in English and my native language. It helps me comprehend the situation better and remember new vocabulary. I understand grammar better when I can compare example sentences in different languages. (a student of the Lithuanian language)

I have used the languages, which I can speak, to learn English in a multilingual class. It was interesting to compare Lithuanian and English traditions or cultural differences. (an ESOL student)

I prefer explanations in my native language and it is always interesting when the teacher compares different languages from a historical or linguistic perspectives. (an ESOL student)

In spite of the fact that participants of both groups, ESOL students and the ones learning Lithuanian, were of rather different age, target language level and had diverse language learning reasons, many of them indicated that the usage of their native language and other languages is very important and helps them understand a new language better.

Other ideas highlighted by the research participants are related to the preservation of their native language. The respondents claimed that initially they did not consider their native language when performing the tasks; however, the language is an important part of one's identity. Therefore, their linguistic background influences (sometimes unconsciously) word choice or grammatical constructions used in the tasks. The respondents also recalled

other tasks performed in the course (e.g., the presentations on food), which preconditioned a more detailed discussion and expression of their culture. Finally, the respondents touched upon the influence of their native languages on learning Lithuanian. Two main perspectives were provided. Some students, whose native language is similar to Lithuanian, saw its positive influence. For instance, the students speaking Slavic languages or Latin found many parallels between their native languages and Lithuanian with respect to grammar and vocabulary. Another opinion expressed by the students was that the native language may even inhibit the acquisition of Lithuanian due to considerable differences (e.g., Chinese or Norwegian). Moreover, despite some similarities in vocabulary, the students speaking Romance languages emphasized differences in the word order. Thus, a generalization can be made that learning a new language stimulates the comparison with learners' native language and the search for similarities and differences, which improves students' analytical skills and promotes translanguaging.

The research participants' comparisons of grammar, vocabulary, and concepts in different languages align with prior research performed by Duarte (2020) and Gallego-Balsà (Gallego-Balsà et al, 2019) that emphasizes the benefits of analysing linguistic structures across languages. This approach promotes metalinguistic awareness and analytical skills. Pedagogically, educators should encourage students to leverage their multilingual repertoires, facilitating discussions and comparisons that enhance their understanding of linguistic nuances and structures. This approach not only strengthens their language skills but also fosters a deeper connection between languages and encourages a positive attitude towards linguistic diversity.

Conclusions and Recommendations

The obtained research results have revealed that mediated language teaching can make language lessons more effective, meaningful, and personalised, providing an opportunity to use learners' linguistic and cultural background in relevant situational contexts. Such linguistic and cultural diversity in the classroom improves a variety of language learners' competences, which are essential in a host country. The research has also

revealed that mediated tasks contribute to a better psychological atmosphere in the classroom, although accomplishing mediated activities online can be more challenging due to technical issues and the absence of real communication. The research participants have expressed the opinion that face-to-face mediated language lessons allow more creativity and teamwork to flourish.

The present study indicates that a variety of useful non-linguistic competences can be developed during mediation activities in a language lesson. While the students enrolled in the Lithuanian language course primarily highlight cognitive and emotional non-linguistic proficiencies, ESOL learners underscore the significance of comprehending the host country's traditions, political landscape, laws, and regulations as a pivotal process of cultural adaptation. Thus, a justifiable inference can be drawn that the curriculum of mediated language instruction should encompass subjects that assist learners in overcoming linguistic, cultural, or emotional obstacles encountered within a foreign country. It is important to emphasise that "tailor-made" content is the key while designing mediation tasks for language lessons. It is recommended to involve activities, allowing learners' to share their national and personal identity with others, encourage translanguaging and help language students improve a variety of the above-mentioned non-linguistic competences.

Based on the outcomes of the survey, a plausible deduction can be made that language learners are capable of effectively collaborating and assuming the role of language and cultural intermediaries for their peers. All participants expressed the significance of upholding their identity, language, and cultural heritage while residing in a foreign country. From the collected responses, two prevailing themes emerge. One theme underscores the importance of maintaining one's "roots" by preserving memories, nurturing cultural practices and historical connections with their homeland, and imparting the native language to the younger generation. This sentiment is particularly voiced by ESOL students in the UK.

The second recurring theme, presented by the learners of the Lithuanian language and ESOL students, emphasizes mediation as a valuable approach for learning a foreign language and exchanging indigenous

culture and traditions with local communities. Thus, a significant inference can be drawn that mediated language instruction aids students in retaining ties with their home country, safeguarding their national identity, and simultaneously reducing unease in unfamiliar social interactions within the host country.

Nonetheless, it is essential to acknowledge that these findings could be somewhat restricted due to the limited number of participants in the research, potentially not fully representing the broader population. As a result, careful interpretation of the research outcomes is necessary, and it is recommended that a future longitudinal study be conducted to explore the enduring significance of mediation in language education.

Finally, additional investigation into the application of translanguaging within mediated language instruction would be intriguing. The results of the survey have revealed that the comparison with learners' native language and the search for similarities and differences between languages may improve students' analytical skills and promote translanguaging. While the majority of the research participants have exhibited their proficiency in multiple languages and their capacity to employ different languages for acquiring a new one, prudent supervision from a language instructor remains essential to avoid confusion amid the array of comparable or dissimilar languages.

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**LINGVISTINĖS IR KULTŪRINĖS MEDIACIJOS VAIDMUO
MOKANTIS PRIIMANČIOS ŠALIES KALBOS**

Anotacija. Globalizacijos ir migracijos procesai moderniam pasaulyje skatina įvertinti mediacijos vaidmenį mokant(is) kalbų. „Bendrieji Europos kalbų metmenys“ (2020), papildyti naujais mediacijos ir daugiakalbės / daugiakultūrės kompetencijos deskriptoriais, pabrėžia kalbų besimokančiojo daugiakalbės kompetencijos svarbą. Mokslininkai E. Piccardo ir B. North (2017), ypač daug nuveikę daugiakalbystės ir mediacijos srityje, teigia, kad besimokančiojo lingvistinio ir kultūrinio identiteto naudojimas gali sukurti prasmingesnį ir efektyvesnį kalbos mokymą(si). Šiame kontekste tarpkalbystė tampa ne kliūtimi, o įrankiu, padedančiu kelti besimokančiųjų motyvaciją ir pasitikėjimą (Duarte, 2020). Siekiant nustatyti mediacijos vaidmenį, mokantis priimančios šalies kalbos Didžiojoje Britanijoje ir Lietuvoje, buvo atliktas tyrimas, kurio tikslas – ištirti, kaip mediacijos veiklos ir strategijos gali būti naudojamos ESOL (A2 ir B1) ir lietuvių kalbos užsieniečiams (A1 ir A2) kursuose. Be to, tyrimo autorės siekė išsiaiškinti, kaip mediacija per kalbų paskaitas gali atverti naujas galimybes: (1) tobulinti studentų nelingvistines kompetencijas ir „sušvelninti“ lingvistinį / kultūrinį barjerą priimančioje šalyje; (2) parodyti, kaip besimokantieji kalbų gali bendradarbiauti vienas su kitu ir tapti kalbų mediatoriais savo kolegoms; (3) padėti patobulinti besimokančiųjų tarpkalbystės kompetenciją. Tiriamųjų grupę sudarė 23 ESOL studentai ir 15 lietuvių kalbos užsieniečiams kurso dalyvių. Buvo siekiama išanalizuoti kalbos mokymosi, kurio metu naudojama mediacija ir studentų gimtoji kalba (arba kitos kalbos, kuriomis geba kalbėti besimokantysis), patirtį. Tyrime taikyta anketinė apklausa ir pusiau struktūruoti interviu po kalbos paskaitų, kurių metu buvo naudojamos mediacijos strategijos. Rezultatai parodė, kad mediacijos veiklos padėjo tobulinti įvairias studentų nekalbines kompetencijas, o besimokančiųjų gimtoji kalba mokymo proceso metu gali būti sėkmingai vartojama mokantis naujos kalbos ir padėti išsaugoti nacionalinį identitetą svečioje šalyje.

Pagrindinės sąvokos: mediacija; mokant(is) kalbų; lingvistinė migrantų integracija; akultūracija; daugiakalbė / daugiakultūrė kompetencija.

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LANGUAGE ATTITUDES AND POLICY PREFERENCES: INSIGHTS FROM INTERNATIONAL SCHOLARSHIP APPLICANTS TO HUNGARIAN UNIVERSITIES

Annotation. This study examined the attitudes of individuals seeking scholarships to study abroad, exploring whether their views on languages and language policy models vary based on gender, study programs, and countries. An online survey was administered to approximately 130 Hungarian government scholarship applicants from diverse nations. Statistical methods were employed to analyze responses, revealing variations and correlations between demographic and attitudinal variables. Participants expressed preferences for multilingual and monolingual language policies, aligning with their attitudes. The findings indicate that most participants pursued language learning with instrumental motivation, aiming to achieve educational and career objectives. Most participants expressed a desire for a multilingual language policy model in their home countries. While many embraced the proposal to adopt English as the medium of instruction, others maintained a critical perspective, acknowledging both the positive and negative impacts of English and multilingualism. Additionally, participants underscored the significance of preserving native languages in their respective countries.

Keywords: English; language policy; language attitudes; language fluency; demography.

Introduction

Language policy (LP) consists of three interrelated but independently describable components: language practices, beliefs, and management (Spolsky, 2004). In Spolsky's (2007, p. 3) definition, "language practices are the observable behaviors and choices – what people actually do." The second component, language beliefs, is associated with "the values assigned to the [language] varieties and features" (Spolsky, 2007, p. 4). The third component, language management, refers to "the explicit and observable effort by someone or some group that has or claims to have authority over the participants in the domain to modify their practices or beliefs" (Spolsky, 2007, p. 4). In addition to these components, LP addresses to language attitudes, described as "evaluative reactions to different language varieties" (Dragojevic, 2017, p. i).

Understanding language policy requires studying the language attitudes and beliefs of the target population. Language attitudes form language policy (Spolsky, 2018) and nation-building (Rutten, 2019). Attitudes may encompass language variations, language groups, language use, language preferences, and language planning (multilingual LP vs. monolingual LP) (see also Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Baker, 1992, Spolsky, 2004). Positive attitudes toward language can impact learners' academic success (Gardner, 1985; Gardner & Lysynchuk, 1990; Ellis, 1999; Brown, 2000; Nunan, 2000; Weinburgh, 2000; Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005; Ushida, 2005; Young, 2006; Tella, Indoshi, & Othuon, 2010; Orynbeq, 2016), cultural integration (Halliday, 1968), and career development (Przygoński, 2020). In contrast, negative attitudes can lead to language anxiety, learning demotivation, and continuous culture shock in an unfamiliar environment (Mambetaliev, 2019). While attitudes are challenging to observe directly, they can be inferred from behavior 'as the amount of affection for or against some object' (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). Expressions of positive or negative feelings toward a language may reflect impressions of linguistic difficulty or simplicity, ease or difficulty of learning, importance, elegance, and social status (Mambetaliev, 2020).

The role and position of English in international relations and education is growing worldwide. Baker & Hüttner (2019) identified varying English proficiency in different countries, linked to the presence of native English speakers. They also noted diverse attitudes toward English and other languages in these contexts. Muhammad's (2012) study among 2700 students found that female and urban students outperformed male and rural students in English language proficiency tests. They also exhibited stronger positive attitudes toward English.

Some people learn English with instrumental motivation. Many people also find it easy to learn. According to Joseba (2005), English is seen as a tool for accessing information and participating in global communication. Many believe that English is an easy language (Orynbeq, 2016) and prefer global media and pop culture in English due to perceived better quality (Korth, 2005). There is a strong belief that most of the world's population will speak it (Graddol, 1997). Some even suggest officially elevating the status of English as the global language of instruction (Mambetaliev, 2021). English is also

considered an asset in the job market (Al-Tamimi & Shuib, 2009). However, some view these beliefs stereotypical (e.g., Pedro et al., 2012). The results are also inconsistent with the attitudinal constructs in English. Although many scholars from countries participating in this study propose that students have positive attitudes toward English (e.g., Al-Quyadi, 2000; Sayadian & Lashkarian, 2010; Almahmoud, 2012; Al Noursi, 2013; Goktepe, 2014; Ahmed, 2015; Muthanna & Miao, 2015; Khalid, 2016; Siddiq, Miri, & Sarwarzada, 2019), some others present the opposite view, stating that they have negative attitudes toward it (Al-Zahrani, 2008; Abidin, Pour-Mohammadi & Alzwari, 2012). For example, Karahan's (2007) participants in Turkey expressed "mildly" positive attitudes but had negative attitudes towards their fellow citizens who use English to speak to each other. Many Yemeni students speak negatively about English because they regard the British and Americans as colonialists (Al-Tamimi & Shuib, 2009, p. 44). Philipson (2016, p. 10) labeled English a "language killer", attributing it to linguistic imperialism by the US and UK, aiming for global dominance. Similarly, students at the University of Ghana resisted learning Russian, perceiving it as imposed by the government (Lomotey & Boasiako, 2020), illustrating how attitudes can shape the perception of learning another language (Ahmed, 2015).

Society comprises members with assimilationist and pluralist attitudes and those holding intermediate views (Razfar, 2012). Bourdieu (1991) described the coexistence of assimilationist and pluralist attitudes as a dialectical relationship in a unity of opposites. Henderson's (2015) study revealed participants simultaneously holding contradictory language attitudes, creating a "*socio-psychological tension*" between additive versus pluralist language ideologies. Assimilationist and pluralist ideologies can co-exist in the same person, representing extremes on a continuum.

Contrasting views exist on the impact of gender on language attitudes. Some argue that language attitudes do not vary by gender (Açıköz, 1992; Saranraj, Khan, & Zafar, 2016; Malekmahmudi & Malekmahmudi, 2019; Orfan & Weijer, 2020), while others hold the opposite view (Fishman, 1991). Some suggest that female students have more positive attitudes toward global languages than male students (Gomleksiz, 2010; Kesgin & Mehmet, 2015; Abu-Snoubar, 2017; Paradewari & Mbato, 2018). Additionally, some propose

that women are more favorable toward learning a second language than men (Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Spolsky, 1989). However, other studies contradict these conclusions, stating that men are instrumentally more motivated to learn a global language than women (Saranraj, Khan & Zafar, 2016).

This study aims to describe and explain participants' responses to the following questions:

- Q1.** What are the participants' favorable language policy models for their country – monolingual or multilingual policy?
- Q2.** What are participants' views on introducing English as an official medium of instruction in their countries?
- Q3.** How do gender, country, and level of English writing skills affect attitudes toward language policy models and English?

Methodology

Research Instrument

This study used a unique instrument that combined a questionnaire and tests. The questionnaire contained both closed and open questions. The first part of the questionnaire collected demographic information from respondents. The second part consisted of open questions and statements that aimed to elicit attitudes toward the questions. Again, open questions were utilized with the expectation that "subjects may reveal other attitudes, which the researcher may not have anticipated" (Agheyisi & Fishman, 1970, p. 148). This was made possible through the utilization of PHP programming language, enabling the imposition of a time limit or certain open questions. These questions sought to extract information from the participant's working or operational memory and assess their proficiency in the English language.

When referring to the working memory of a participant, it denotes the information readily available to the participant instantly and without deep contemplation in their sphere of life. For instance, when entering a mosque, most non-Arab Muslims automatically pray in Arabic, an action instantly activated during prayer. If asked why they do not pray in their native language, many might be at a loss for words since they rarely contemplate this and are

guided solely by widely accepted beliefs. Typically, the masses are influenced by such a collective ideology. Likewise, the responses to the questions in the tests of this study not only reflect the attitudes and beliefs of an individual participant but also an implicit ideology in their local context.

By simultaneously extracting immediate attitudes and beliefs, the tool evaluates English language fluency due the time constraint. Consequently, the responses to specific open-ended questions turned into an English fluency test.

Participants

The survey in this study targeted random applicants and aspirants of the scholarship provided by the Tempus Public Foundation in Hungary. Out of the 225 applicants who completed the questionnaire and passed the test, 132 participants, including 70 male and 62 females, were selected. The remainder was excluded from the dataset for various reasons, including attempting to manipulate the tool's free English test as determined by IP and response content. The researcher admits that some participants sharing the same IP were unfairly removed; however, the results from the 132 participants and the total 225 did not exhibit a significant difference. Consequently, the decision was made to utilize a smaller database to ensure the results, as attitudes of a large population can be studied by collecting data from a representative sample (Palviainen & Huhta, 2015). The respondents hailed from various regions, including Pakistan, Southeast Asia, Central Asia, Europe, South America, Africa, and Arab countries. At the time of the survey, the exact number of applicants was uncertain but currently the scholarship attracts approximately 5000 applicants annually (Tempus Public Foundation, 2023).

Data Analysis

In the study, an assumption was made that attitudes can be inferred from intentions, motivations, or regarding language. Once a relationship between attributes and objects was established, attitudes, beliefs, and

preferences could be calculated. The evaluation of statements or arguments for attitudes was established by inferring meanings in various responses. Therefore, this study frequently employed inferential belief formation formulas to define attributes of objects because the values of variables could be obtained indirectly through inference from various attributes. In other words, attitudes toward statement (a) could be obtained from statement (b) or a set of other statements. For example, a statement (a), such as "Mother's tongue is important for children's academic development!" may influence the evaluation of another statement (b), like "Our children need to study math in their mother tongue!" Therefore, parents' evaluation of (b) might lean toward positive values favoring mother tongue education in the scaling system (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975, pp. 60–61).

As with other reports, such as Cooper & Fishman (1977, p. 15), the responses were assigned numerical code values. Attitudes toward LP models were measured on a five-level scale, where preferences changed from monolingual to multilingual. Additionally, a different system measured attitudes and motivations toward learning the mother tongue and English. In this system, the categories were arranged along a gradient of attitudes from instrumentality to affectivity. The closer was the category to the left side of the system, the more it was instrumental, the closer a category was to the more instrumental it was; the closer it was to the right side, the more affective.

Content analysis of answers to an open-ended question on attitudes to English was done using NVivo, a software program for classifying, sorting, arranging, analyzing, and visualizing textual, audio, video, and image data. It could perform word frequencies for text data in various languages. The software displayed respondents' most frequently used words (Table 1). The program presented the most frequent words in bolder fonts and the least used words in smaller fonts. The graph illustrated that most respondents believed English is the global language used for communication in many countries. Most respondents considered English an easy-to-learn language. Therefore, most of them supported the idea of using it as the medium of instruction globally. They believed that having English as a common language unites people worldwide and eliminates communication barriers. Many thought that many people already accept it as a language of education and business.

Additionally, English was viewed as a necessary tool for studying abroad.

The relationships and differences between and within variables were tested using appropriate statistical tests. Before employing these methods, the data were meticulously prepared, and each response was accurately codified to ensure proper order and intervals between values when required. The test conditions allowed participants to express their ideas freely, while the limited time facilitated automatic implicit attitudes.

Results

Participants exhibited a relatively similar level of English writing proficiency, as Pearson's Chi Square test did not identify a significant difference in the results of the English writing fluency test across different sexes, ages, degree programs, and regions. A post hoc analysis employing descriptive statistics revealed slightly higher test results for women ($M = 107, SD = 40$) compared to men ($M = 105, SD = 41$). Additionally, younger participants (under 20 years old) achieved better results ($M = 112, SD = 42$) than their older counterparts ($M = 103, SD = 41$). Moreover, participants from East Asia ($M = 119, SD = 38$) and South Asia ($M = 122, SD = 39$) exhibited superior results compared to others ($M < 102, SD < 40$).

Table 1 displays the results of a word frequency count by participants in descending order. These words capture participants' linguistic attitudes, encompassing beliefs and motivations. Most respondents believe that English serves as the global language for communication in numerous countries. Consequently, most of them endorse the idea of using it as the global medium of instruction, viewing English as a common language that unites people globally and eliminates communication barriers. They perceive English as widely accepted for education and business, considering it an essential tool for studying abroad.

Examining the results in Table 1, many words reflect instrumental motivation, as participants view English as a global language useful to learn. English is not only seen as the source of "knowledge", "science", and "education", but also as the language of "communication". The belief that the English language is the language of the future is prevalent. Some words convey

attitudes containing beliefs about specific distinctive features of the English language, such as the perception that English is an “easy” language. The table also frequently includes words reflecting attitudes containing integrative motivation, asserting that English can “unite” people and eliminate communication barriers.

Despite agreement on these conclusions by many participants, some expressed the importance of preserving other languages. Table 1 presents attitudes containing beliefs and motivations about the native language. Some participants believe that the mother tongue holds significance and that different cultures must be “preserved”, with primary education for children being available in the mother tongue. Certain participants expressed reservations about introducing English as an official language, deeming it a “bad” idea due to potential harm to the mother tongue. Interestingly, most participants critical of official multilingualism scored high on the English fluency test.

Table 1

Summary of frequently used words in open answers

Words	Count	Words	Count	Words	Count	Words	Count
global	34	culture	7	need	4	must	3
world	20	understand	7	way	4	opportunity	3
countries	17	unite	7	know	4	preserved	3
learning	17	knowledge	6	achieve	3	science	3
communicate	16	positive	6	barrier	3	second	3
easy	15	accepted	5	eliminate	3	speak	3
common	14	everyone	5	abroad	3	tongue	3
help	9	different	4	business	3	able	2
many	8	future	4	education	3	bad	2
used	7	important	4	mother	3		

Table 2 illustrates the proportions of instrumental, integrative, and critical attitudes toward English based on sex, program of application, and region or country. As depicted in the table, most participants exhibited instrumental reasons in their attitudes. Sex and the program of application did not result in a significant difference in instrumental attitudes. However, participants from regions where English is more widely used (such as Africa,

South Asia, and Pakistan) displayed lower instrumental attitudes compared to participants in regions where local languages are more prevalent than English (including Arab countries, Turkey, Central Asia, and East Asia).

Female participants demonstrated twice as many integrative attitudes as their male counterparts. Additionally, younger participants held greater integrative attitudes. The highest levels of integrative attitudes were observed among African and Pakistani participants. Some participants expressed critical views towards English, emphasizing the importance of preserving native languages from the perceived imperialistic influence of English. The most critical attitudes were identified among participants from Africa and East Asia. It is noteworthy that most participants from these regions who voiced criticisms identified as Christians and Buddhists. In contrast, participants from traditionally Muslim regions refrained from expressing critical views but indicated a primary need for English due to its instrumental value.

Table 2

Attitudes toward English

		Instrumental	Integrative	Critical
Sex	M	.68	.16	.16
	F	.71	.08	.21
Study Programs	PhD	.74	.07	.18
	Masters	.73	.11	.16
	Bachelor	.68	.14	.18
Regions	Africa	.50	.23	.27
	Arab Nations	.88	.04	.08
	Turkey	.86	.14	0
	Central Asia	.78	.04	.17
	Pakistan	.65	.15	.20
	Other S. Asia	.67	.07	.27
	East Asia	.84	.05	.11

Note. N = 185. NA's excluded.

Table 3 reveals that a significant number of participants (84) prefer more than one language to be official in their countries, compared to those who favor monolingual language policy (48, advocating one nation, one official language).

Pearson's product-moment correlation shows no significant correlation between language policy preferences and English writing skills among participants, $t = -0.57$, $df = 130$, $p = 0.57$. The test also showed that gender does not play a significant role in the preferences of LP models among participants, $\chi^2 = 0.0003$, $df = 1$, $p = 0.99$.

Cramer's V test found differences in the attitudes toward monolingual versus multilingual LP models between countries and ethnicities (CramerV = 0.71). This difference is particularly significant between participants from Pakistan and those from other countries (see Table 1). Most participants in Pakistan preferred the monolingual LP, despite their country having a multilingual policy.

It is noteworthy that English serves as an additional language in most participating countries, except for those in Central Asia. Another characteristic of this dataset is that the number of those favoring a multilingual policy is approximately twice as large. The exception is Central Asia, where English is the second most popular foreign language after Russian.

Table 3

Preferences for language policy models

	Monolingual LP	Multilingual LP	Total
African countries	12	26	38
Arab countries	4	7	11
Pakistan	16	13	29
Central Asia	2	11	13
Southeast Asia	9	17	26
Others	5	10	15
Total	48	84	132

Discussion

The results affirm most findings in previous studies concerning attitudes toward languages, language use, language preferences, and language planning (Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Baker, 1992; Spolsky, 2004). The data show that attitudes can range from negative to positive (e.g., Gardner, 1985; Gardner & Lysynchuk, 1990; Ellis, 1999; Orynbeq, 2016), as

well as encompass instrumental (e.g., Al-Tamimi & Shuib, 2009) and integrative (e.g., Halliday, 1968) motivations. This study also determined critical attitudes, which can consist of concurrent negative and positive attitudes. Additionally, the results confirmed the correlation between language attitudes and language policy (Spolsky, 2004).

Table 1 illustrates that attitudes encompass instrumental and integrative reasons. Furthermore, many participants believe that English is easy to learn, a sentiment corroborated by some previous authors (e.g., Orynbek, 2016). While the majority supports the idea of introducing English as a medium of instruction, some express negativity this proposition, aligning with the findings of previous studies (e.g., Al-Zahrani, 2008; Al-Tamimi & Shuib, 2009).

The results revealed that instrumental attitudes predominate among participants, consistent with previous studies conducted in the global south. Table 2 demonstrates that attitudes can vary by gender, study program, and region, a phenomenon previously discussed by many authors (e.g., Açıkğöz, 1992; Saranraj, Khan, & Zafar, 2016; Malekmahmudi & Malekmahmudi, 2019; Orfan & Weijer, 2020; Fishman, 1991). Notably, this study found that male participants have more integrative attitudes toward English than female participants (Table 2). However, the results do not support the findings of some previous studies suggesting that men are more instrumentally motivated to learn a global language than women (Saranraj, Khan & Zafar, 2016).

The data demonstrate that higher English writing fluency corresponds to more critical attitudes regarding language policy and greater concern for preserving the native language. Regionally, participants from Africa and South Asia, where English serves as the official language, express more critical views about further reenforcing English in their countries. Another observation is that the higher the program of study, the stronger integrative attitudes become.

Ethnic diversity in participating countries emerges as a factor explaining the general preference for multilingual LP. Many respondents hail from ethnic minorities in their respective countries, suggesting that minorities aim to elevate their languages to official status and prefer multilingual policies.

Most respondents from Africa, Arab countries, Southeast Asia, and Central Asia prefer a multilingual policy. In contrast, most Pakistani

participants favor a monolingual policy for their country, particularly Urdu speakers (15 out of 21). This pattern in Pakistan may be influenced by the dominance of the ethnic group represented by most participants or by ongoing socio-psychological dynamics in the country.

There are also supporters of a monolingual policy with English among Africans whose first language is English. This echoes the phenomenon observed in Pakistan. Additionally, it's noteworthy that most participants from Africa adhere to the Christian religion.

Conclusion

The study of the attitudes of individuals aspiring to receive a scholarship for studying in Europe, particularly in Hungary, revealed several intriguing characteristics within this cohort. Initially, the participants demonstrated a roughly similar level of English writing fluency. However, female, and younger participants exhibited superior performance in the test compared to their counterparts. Regionally, participants from East Asia and South Asia outperformed those from other regions. Secondly, the predominant motivation for learning English among most participants was instrumental. Third, a noteworthy observation was that a higher level of English proficiency correlated with increased critical perspectives among participants regarding the incorporation of English as the official language of education. They expressed concerns that such a policy might detrimentally impact native languages. Lastly, participants from regions where English holds the status of the official and primary language tended to favor a monolingual policy with English.

Limitations

Some respondents from Middle Eastern and African countries interpreted the question about attitudes toward English as a suggestion for action or, even worse, as a promotion of English. Therefore, in future studies, it is essential to consider this cultural specificity when formulating questions. This consideration becomes particularly crucial if the researcher is an outsider to the participants' regions.

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**KALBINĖS NUOSTATOS IR POLITIKOS PASIRINKIMAI:
TARPTAUTINIŲ STIPENDIJŲ KANDIDATŲ Į VENGRIJOS
UNIVERSITETUS ĮŽVALGOS**

Anotacija. Šiame tyrime nagrinėjamas užsienio šalių kandidatų, siekiančių gauti stipendiją studijuoti Vengrijos aukštosiose mokyklose, požiūris į kalbas ir kalbų politikos modelius pagal lytį, studijų programą ir šalį. Internetinėje apklausoje dalyvavo apie 130 įvairių šalių studentų, siekiančių gauti Vengrijos vyriausybės stipendiją studijuoti šalies aukštosiose mokyklose. Atsakymams analizuoti buvo taikomi statistiniai metodai, kuriais nustatyti demografinių ir požiūrio kintamųjų skirtumai ir koreliacijos. Tyrimo rezultatai rodo, kad pagal savo nuostatas kandidatai teikia pirmenybę daugiakalbei ir vienakalbei kalbų politikai. Dauguma tyrimo dalyvių kalbų mokėsi dėl instrumentinės motyvacijos kaip priemonės išsilavinimo ir karjeros tikslams pasiekti. Dauguma dalyvių taip pat norėtų, kad jų šalyse būtų taikomas daugiakalbės kalbų politikos modelis. Taip pat nustatyta, kad dauguma dalyvių palankiai vertina anglų kaip dėstymo kalbą savo šalyse. Tačiau kai kurie jų kritiškai vertina anglų kalbos ir kalbų politikos modelį bei teigia, kad anglų kalba ir daugiakalbystė gali turėti ir teigiamą, ir neigiamą poveikį. Jie taip pat pabrėžė gimtųjų kalbų išsaugojimo svarbą savo šalyse.

Pagrindinės sąvokos: kalbų politikos modeliai; anglų kalba; požiūris į kalbą; demografiniai veiksniai; kalbų mokėjimas.

DIGITAL TECHNOLOGIES IN LANGUAGE EDUCATION

SKAITMENINĖS TECHNOLOGIJOS KALBŲ MOKYME/SI



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ARTIFICIAL INTELLIGENCE IN LANGUAGE EDUCATION: A BIBLIOMETRIC ANALYSIS

Annotation. Artificial Intelligence (AI) occupies a transforming role in education, including language teaching and learning. Using bibliometric analysis, this study aims to overview the most recent research related to the use of AI in language education. Specifically, it reviews the existing body of research, productivity in this field in terms of authors and countries, co-authorship, most cited references and most popular journals that publish on this topic. Furthermore, the study also analyses the most common keywords and extracts relevant terms that reveal trending topics. For the period between 2018 and 2022, 2,609 documents were retrieved from the Web of Science database. The results showed that each year a consistent number of publications on the application of AI in language education appears. Scholars from China and the USA have been revealed to be most productive. *Computer Assisted Language Learning* contains the highest number of publications. Within the research on the use of AI in language education, the most targeted language-learning aspects were acquisition, motivation, performance, vocabulary, instruction, feedback, and impact. The analysis of the most common keywords related to AI-based solutions showed that mobile-assisted language learning, virtual reality, augmented reality, elements of gamification, games, social robots, machine translation, intelligent tutoring systems, chatbots, machine learning, neural networks, automatic speech recognition, big data, and deep learning were most popular.

Keywords: artificial intelligence; bibliometric analysis; language education; language teaching/learning.

Introduction

Today, artificial intelligence (AI) affects numerous areas of life; however, the effects and impact of AI may be perceived to be controversial. On the one hand, AI is believed to play a prominent role in the fourth industrial revolution (Lawler & Rushby, 2013) and to have the potential to be a game-changer and completely alter the traditional job market (Horakova et al., 2017). Furthermore, Tulasi (2013) highlights the potential of AI to revolutionise education. Cope et al. (2021) conclude with an audacious statement that

“things are profoundly wrong with traditional pedagogy (...) Artificial intelligence promises a new way forward for (...) education” (p. 1242). On the other hand, there are more critical voices that see some problematic areas of using AI in an educational context; some of them, according to Zhai et al. (2021), include teachers’ attitudes towards AI (Horizon Report, 2018), techniques of AI not being adequate in the field of education (Loeckx, 2016) and ethical issues (Kessler, 2018; Aoun, 2017). In addition, Zhai et al. (2021) try to temper the enthusiasm for AI by cautiously reminding of the fact that television and computers at a certain point in history were also envisioned to bring about dramatic changes in education, but ultimately only served to provide a broader access to information and did not actually transform the fundamental traditions of educational practices.

Sceptical attitudes, however, do not seem to dominate the discourse regarding AI. As a result, the growth of AI stimulates questions and raises concerns about possible changes in the teaching profession. Specifically, there is the fear that the spread of AI may result in teachers being made redundant, or at least cause substantial changes in the traditional organizational forms (Fenwick, 2018). Furthermore, the use of AI intimidates some teachers. Currently, some educators, including language educators, are reluctant to use AI because of misconceptions about its potential for enhancing learning experience (Kuddus, 2022). For the main part, the lack of an overall proper understanding of the scope and constituent parts of AI appears to be at the root of this reluctance (Hinojo-Lucena et al., 2019); however, Horizon Report (2018) indicates that teachers’ opposition to AI may also be related to their “inadequate, inappropriate, irrelevant, or outdated professional development” (Zhai et al., 2021, p. 13). Moreover, even though learning about AI is now being introduced into the school curriculum (Zhai et al., 2021), it is still unclear to educators how to capitalize on the power of AI on a broader scale, and how to use it meaningfully in education (Zawacki-Richter et al., 2019). A paradox emerges: while a considerable part of the world’s population uses social media and AI-related technologies as part of their daily routine (e.g., in 2017, according to Kemp (2017), there were more than three billion social media users across the globe, which corresponds to roughly 40% of the entire world’s population; moreover, this number was expected to continue growing),

the existing multitude of resources such as tools, websites and applications can have an overwhelming effect when trying to select optimal options for educational purposes. On the other hand, there are also those who are overly enthusiastic about the use of AI in the process of learning and teaching, and this results in more focus on AI technologies rather than learning itself (Kessler, 2018; Horizon Report, 2018; Zhai et al., 2021). Therefore, there is a clear need for a more sustained and systematic approach towards integrating the latest knowledge of AI in teachers' pre-service and continuous professional development programmes.

As far as language education is concerned, the use of AI in this field is promising, but it is still in a rather early phase of development (Huang et al., 2021; Liang et al., 2021). Kessler (2018) notes that language educators are not always familiar with recent developments in the use of AI in language classrooms, and this can lead to missing opportunities to incorporate the use of technologies and in this way deprive learners of valuable moments that could facilitate effective learning, e.g., experiencing authentic learning activities situated in authentic contexts (Egbert et al., 2007), increasing student motivation (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2001), and enabling learners to develop their sense of autonomy and engagement in the learning process (Reinders & Hubbard, 2013).

Recently, however, researchers have been attempting to classify the ways in which AI solutions are integrated in language education (see, for example, Pokrivčáková, 2019; Zawacki-Richter et al., 2019; Huang et al., 2021). Kessler (2018) discusses several types of application of AI that are especially relevant in language education in more detail. First, the use of corpora offers a way to engage learners in more meaningful and effective language learning. While the use of corpora in research is not a recent trend as such, using corpora for pedagogical needs has not been extensively used. However, advantages of relying on corpora when teaching vocabulary, extensive reading, pragmatics in speaking, and collocational competence have been highlighted (Kessler, 2018). Crucially, since corpora involve large volumes of authentic language use, introducing the use of corpora into language classrooms implies opportunities to offer, according to Kessler (2018), "authentic activities that take place in authentic contexts and thus

authentically represent the kind of language that learners will encounter in the real world” (p. 213). Second, AI enables tracking students’ activities. For example, tracking aspects such as students’ behaviour, performance and usage of materials through, e.g., keystroke logging and/or eye-tracking software, allows to observe, among others, how students interact with materials, learning environments, and how they make decisions. As a result, this data can provide insights into how aspects such as language accuracy and fluency and the learning experience overall can be enhanced through individualised feedback “at the points in the learning process where they are most salient to the learner” (Kessler, 2018, p. 214).

Another aspect of AI are translation tools and their utilisation in language education. It is salient to note that language teachers tend to perceive it as a threat and believe that students use them in order to avoid the work that they should be doing themselves (Kessler, 2018). Similarly, Liubinienė et al.’s (2022) recent study shows that students indeed perceive the generally negative attitudes their language teachers hold towards machine translation (MT) tools and, as a result, this ambiguity (i.e., on the one hand, students know how to use MT tools and rely on them in foreign language classrooms; on the other hand, they are aware of their teachers’ critical attitude towards such tools) prevents them from fully exploring the potential of MT applications. However, incorporating MT tools in the language learning process can be beneficial to learners: for instance, it can raise students’ awareness of the strengths and weaknesses of translation tools and highlight ways in which these tools can be used in an effective way (Kessler, 2018).

The examples of AI integration within language education mentioned above reflect numerous benefits of the use of AI in education in general, e.g., AI contributes, among other things, to larger learners’ autonomy (Pokrivčáková, 2019; Kuddus, 2022); educators’ better control of managing and adjusting the learning process (Chu et al., 2022); making learning more flexible and personalized (Zawacki-Richter et al., 2019). Ironically, however, using AI-related technologies in foreign language classrooms tends to be ignored as many language educators are not aware of the recent literature regarding the trends in computer-assisted language learning and/or are not encouraged to use these tools in their own teaching practice (Kessler, 2018).

In order to help bridge this gap, the section below provides a review of findings from recent literature focusing on the use of AI in language education.

Literature Review

Researchers (e.g., Donthu et al., 2021; Liang et al., 2021; Zawacki-Richter et al., 2019) highlight that review studies are valuable reference points for a comprehensive understanding of what the current state of a particular research topic or field is, especially for novice researchers. Therefore, for the purposes of this study, we searched for the latest reviews with a focus on the broad coverage of the use of AI in language education (for a concise overview of these studies, see Table 1). The literature review includes a summary of the most salient findings from these studies; however, their comparison is problematic due to different research scopes, aims, search strategies, databases searched and periods covered.

Table 1

Review Studies on the Use of AI in Language Education

No	Authors	Title	Period	Review type	Number of papers
1.	Liang et al. (2021)	Roles and research foci of artificial intelligence in language education: an integrated bibliographic analysis and systematic review approach	1990–2020	Bibliometric analysis and systematic	5,594 initially/71 in the final review
2.	Huang et al. (2021)	Trends, Research Issues and Applications of Artificial Intelligence in Language Education	2000–2019	Systematic and bibliometric analysis	516
3.	Du (2021)	Systematic Review of Artificial Intelligence in Language Learning	2010–2019	Systematic and bibliometric analysis	1,014
4.	Chen et al. (2021)	Artificial intelligence-assisted personalized language learning: systematic review and co-citation analysis	2002–2021	Systematic and co-citation analysis	5,829 initially/17 in the final review
5.	Woo and Choi (2021)	Systematic Review for AI-based Language Learning Tools	2017–2020	Systematic	454 initially/53 in the final review

For example, Liang et al. (2021) conducted a review of studies focusing on the use of AI in language education from the Web of Science database. More specifically, the aim of this study was to overview dimensions such as research sample groups, research methods, language skills, technology used, the role that AI plays in language education as well as learning outcomes related to the integration of AI. The review showed that the research into AI was very limited during the period between 1990 and 2000; however, the following two decades (2000–2020) saw an exponential growth of publications on the topic. For the period between 1990 and 2020, Taiwan (23 articles) and the USA (20 articles) were the most productive countries in terms of the number of publications focusing on the integration of AI in language learning. In addition, for the period between 2004 and 2020 (the first empirical study related to the impact of AI on learning outcomes was published in 2004), studies addressing the use of AI in the field of higher education were most frequent (26 articles), followed by 12 articles in secondary education, nine in elementary education, seven in cross-level education, two in pre-school education and one in an unspecified field.

In terms of language acquisition, Liang et al. (2021) found that AI was most frequently applied in the development of reading and writing skills as well as vocabulary learning/teaching. Regarding affective aspects, the integration of AI was mostly researched in relation to learners' motivation, self-efficacy, acceptance of technology and engagement generated by it. Out of 183 keywords analysed, "Intelligent Tutoring Systems", "Interactive Learning Environments", "Natural Language Processing", "Evaluation of CAL Systems" and "Learning/Teaching Strategies" were the most common ones. The authors also distinguished three main types of applications characterising the main role of AI in language education: "Intelligent Tutoring Systems" (intelligent tutors guiding language learners), "Evaluation and Assessment" (intelligent assessors and advisors helping to spot and correct mistakes), and "Adaptive Systems and Personalization" (intelligent providers of personalized learning material and directions for learning based on learners' input). According to the findings of this study, Natural Language Processing, Intelligent Tutoring System, Data Mining, Statistical Learning, Natural Language Processing, and Machine Learning were the most commonly applied AI-based solutions in language

education. From the entire period analysed, the last decade (2010-2020) was characterised by five areas, i.e., Interactive Learning Environments, Intelligent Tutoring Systems, Teaching and Learning Strategies, Evaluation of Computer Assisted Learning Systems, and Natural Language Processing. In addition, "Machine Learning", "Learning Analytics", and "Computational Linguistics" were three new keywords that appeared during this period.

Huang et al. (2021) also analysed how AI was integrated in language education. Similarly to Liang et al.'s (2021) study findings, even though Huang et al.'s (2021) review was based on a more substantial number of papers, the authors found that the number of publications focusing on AI-guided language education increased during the period between 2000 and 2019 and the USA was the most productive country in terms of research output in this area. In addition to Liang et al.'s (2021) findings, Huang et al. (2021) demonstrated that AI was commonly used not only for assisting in the development of writing, reading and vocabulary learning/teaching, but also for speaking, listening and grammar learning, i.e., the main areas in the traditional discussion on language teaching/learning. Among ten main topics illustrating the application of AI in language education, Huang et al. (2021) listed the use of intelligent tutoring systems for reading and writing, automated writing evaluation and error detection, personalized systems for language learning, communication mediated by computer, natural language and vocabulary learning, web-based systems and resources for language learning, intelligent tutoring and assessment system for speech training and pronunciation. While utilizing automated writing evaluation, intelligent tutoring systems and personalized learning solutions, educators mostly used automated speech recognition, natural language processing and learner profiling (Huang et al., 2021).

To reveal the popular topics related to the integration of AI in language education, Du (2021) conducted a review of publications from the Web of Science database for the period from 2010 to 2019. According to the findings of this study, before 2012, the annual output of publications was below 90, but gradually peaked at 150 publications in 2016. The research volume experienced a slight decline both in 2017 (121 publications) and in 2018 (104 publications); the findings from 2019 (58 publications) were indicated as

not informative enough because some publications might have been included in the database later. Not surprisingly, this review showed that English was the main language where AI solutions were integrated, especially in teaching English as a second language. Only a very small number of papers covered learning or teaching of native languages, minority languages and sign language as well as other foreign languages. Importantly, Du's (2021) study indicates the dominant AI technologies and scenarios that were applied in language learning. It showed that neural networks and training machines to read, write, speak, listen and assess were the most frequent AI applications. Other common technologies included intelligent language tutoring, data mining, user modelling, and automated scoring. Among the most frequent scenarios, Du (2021) distinguished "the transformation of personalized and adapted mobile learning and data-driven learning, the construction of authentic and motivated virtual worlds, and the reinforcement of intelligence aided reading and writing" (p. 27).

By restricting their review scope to the use of AI for personalized language learning, Chen et al. (2021) synthesized publications from the Social Science Citation Index and Science Citation Index databases. Although small in scale, this review showed that Taiwan was the most productive country in terms of the number of publications; its institutions dominated in the application of AI in the forms of natural language processing, intelligent tutoring systems and artificial neural networks for the facilitation of personalized diagnosis, personalised learning paths and material recommendation in language learning. The findings of Chen et al.'s (2021) study also confirmed that learner profiling mining as well as adaptation of learning resources were most common among mobile- and web-based personal language learning solutions. The finding that higher education students were the most frequent research participants corroborates Liang et al.'s (2021) conclusion that the use of AI most commonly attracts attention from researchers of this level of education.

To increase language educators' awareness of AI-based language learning tools and their benefits, Woo and Choi (2021) synthesized papers from Scopus, ERIC and Web of Science databases. Their findings showed that the most common AI-based solutions were natural language processing and

machine learning for the provision of feedback, identification of errors and assessment of language abilities. The highest number of publications ($k = 14$) illustrated the use of AI tools for the development of speaking and listening skills. Such tools included intelligent personal assistants for improving listening comprehension, increasing willingness to communicate and improving overall spoken production, using robots for group conversations and neural network-based dialogue systems. The second group of publications ($k = 11$) focused on the use of AI tools for teaching pronunciation; the tools included deep learning algorithms and other types of solutions for pronunciation training, diagnosis and evaluation. The third largest group of 11 papers described the use of AI-based solutions for the development of writing. Among them, machine translation, AI-based writing software, referencing tools and blended courses with automated feedback on writing were utilized. Based on these findings, the authors concluded that while natural language processing was more frequent for grammar and vocabulary learning as well as the development of writing and reading skills, neural networks were more common for the development of listening and speaking, including pronunciation. Similarly to Chen et al.'s (2021) and Liang et al.'s (2021) reviews, Woo and Choi's (2021) study showed that the introduction of AI-based tools was most frequent at the tertiary level, i.e., 32 articles out of 53 focused on this level of education.

Considering the different types and scopes of the reviews on the use of AI in language education discussed above, it can be established that, to the best of our knowledge, no large-scale review (bibliometric analysis) on the use of AI in language education for the period covering the last five years (2018–2022) has been conducted. Therefore, the current study aims to overview the latest research related to the use of AI in language education. As research on the application of AI in language education is still too limited (Du, 2021; Huang et al., 2021; Zawacki-Richter et al., 2019), we hope that this review will not only bridge the research gap, but will also increase language educators' awareness of this phenomenon. It also stems from our personal interest as we conduct research on both AI and language teaching/learning. Given the increasing interest in the use of AI in education in general (Chen et al., 2022; Liang et al., 2021) as well as on its use in language education (Huang et al., 2021; Woo & Choi, 2021), we believe that the present study is

a timely one. Furthermore, it serves as the initial phase for our subsequent research in this field as we plan to refine it to the context of higher education, which is the leader in the introduction of AI-based solutions (Chen et al., 2021; Liang et al., 2021; Woo & Choi, 2021).

Specifically, in the current study, we address the following research questions:

RQ1. What are the global trends of AI in language education research in terms of publication output?

RQ2. Which authors and countries have actively researched the use of AI in language education?

RQ3. What are the most important journals that contribute to the body of knowledge in the field of AI in language education research?

RQ4. What are the most cited references in the field of AI in language education research?

RQ5. What are the most popular research topics and trends regarding the integration of AI in language education?

Methods

In order to answer the questions above and “gain a one-stop overview” (Donthu et al., 2021, p. 285) of the research related to the use of AI in language education, we applied bibliometric analysis (Donthu et al., 2021). Bibliometric data was extracted from the Web of Science (WOS) database which indexes high-quality journals, books and conference proceedings. Table 2 details the search string applied. The choice to exclude the term “programming” was based on the initial finding that some articles appear within the context of teaching and learning of programming languages.

Table 2

Search String of the Current Study

Area/Topic	Search term
Artificial intelligence	“artificial intelligence” OR “AI” OR “machine intelligence” OR “intelligent support” OR “virtual reality” OR “chat bot” OR “intelligent *” OR “expert system” OR “neural network”

Area/Topic	Search term
	OR "natural language processing" OR "chatbot" OR "intelligent system" OR "speech to text" OR "text to speech" OR "Google *" OR "AI-based *" OR "AI-powered" OR "AI AND writing assistant" OR "AI AND automated tutor" OR "personal tutor" OR "grammar accuracy checkers" OR "speech recognition" OR "machine translation" OR "chat robot" OR "learning apps" OR "CALL" OR "computer assisted language learning" OR "flashcards" OR "avatar" OR "language bots" OR "personalized textbook" OR "corpus" OR "thesaurus" OR "virtual learning environment" OR "interactive language learning system" OR "big data" OR "language learning app" OR "robot" OR "AI language tutor" OR "AI assistant"
AND	
Language education	"language teaching" OR "language education" OR "language learning"
NOT	"programming"
PERIOD	2018–2022

The search was conducted on April 26, 2022. It was refined according to the publication date that ranged from the 1st of January 2018 until the 26th of April 2022. The obtained dataset included information (titles, abstracts, authors, keywords and cited references) from all types of documents (articles, proceeding papers, early access documents, review articles, book chapters, etc.). After removing duplicates and erroneous entries, the final dataset included a total of 2,609 documents.

More specifically, we applied various techniques from two main categories manifesting in bibliometric analysis: (1) performance analysis and (2) science mapping. While "performance analysis accounts for the contributions of research constituents, science mapping focuses on the relationships between research constituents" (Donthu et al., 2021, p. 287). As bibliometric analysis usually utilizes network visualization software, we applied entirely graphical user interface-based software VOSviewer (Van Eck & Waltman, 2010). It helped us to generate tables, networks and maps representing the results obtained by the techniques such as co-citation analysis, bibliographic coupling, co-authorship analysis and co-occurrence of keywords (Donthu et al., 2021).

In the visualisations of bibliometric data, links show connections or relationships between items. Each link has its strength, which is represented by a positive numerical value. The higher this value, the stronger the link. The strength of the link indicates the number of cited references two publications have in common (in the case of bibliographic coupling links), the number of publications two researchers have co-authored (in the case of co-authorship links), or the number of publications in which two keywords occur together (in the case of co-occurrence links). The occurrences attribute indicates the number of documents in which a keyword occurs.

The VOSviewer software creates networks and maps by using colourful groups of circles (or nodes), known as clusters, which mark either keywords or authors. The size of the author marking node depends on the number of his/her published documents. Similarly, the size of the keywords marking nodes is determined by their co-occurrence in the published documents and link strength. Additionally, the nodes in the clusters are connected by lines. The stronger the link between two items, the thicker the line that connects them. The colour of the circle or node is determined by the cluster to which it belongs.

The density visualization maps indicate the size and impact of different areas; two types of density are distinguished, i.e., item and cluster (Van Eck & Waltman, 2020). Using blue and yellow as the colour scheme, the density maps illustrate the density at specific points. The clusters and nodes are shown within the colour scheme with a range of blue chosen to represent zero and yellow to indicate an increase in the value from zero (Van Eck & Waltman, 2020).

Results and Discussion

In answer to RQ 1, we analysed yearly publication output. In answer to RQ 2, we analysed publication output across countries, collaboration of authors and authors' productivity. In answer to RQ3, we investigated journals publishing on the topic of AI in language education. In answer to RQ4, we analysed top cited references. In answer to RQ5, we looked into the keywords and textual data in the dataset of the present study.

Yearly Publication Output

As shown in Table 3, the total number of articles on the use of AI in language education published from 2018 to 2022 was 2,609. Most of the publications appeared in 2021 (23.99%) and 2019 (23.84%), followed by 2018 (23.30%) and 2020 (23.23%). 2022 (until the 26th of April) has also seen a considerable number of publications. The number of publications is rather consistent across the years. However, these numbers also point to the fact that there was no significant increase of interest among researchers in this topic during the period covered.

Table 3

Publications Each Year

Publication year	Record Count	%
2022	147	5.62
2021	626	23.99
2020	606	23.23
2019	622	23.84
2018	608	23.30

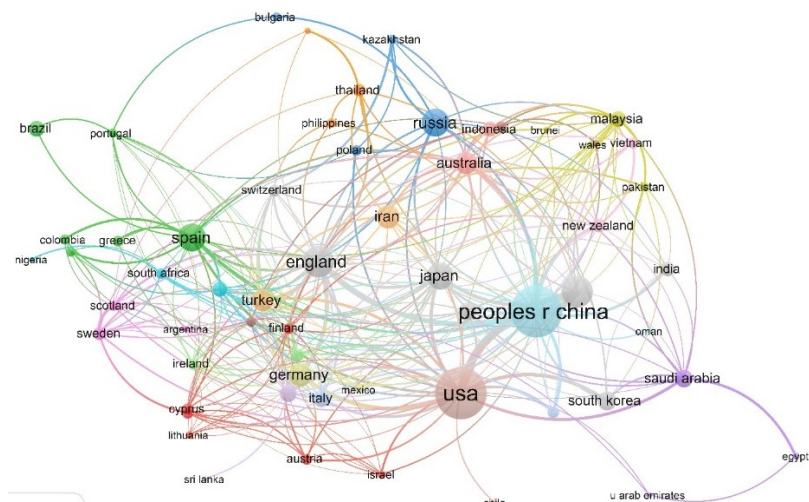
Publication Output Across Countries

As shown in Table 4, China and USA were most productive in terms of academic papers on the topic of AI in language education during the period between 2018 and 2022 and produced 478 articles (18.32%) and 476 articles (18.24%) respectively, followed by Taiwan with 174 articles (6.67%). Importantly, the top ten countries published 1,977 out of 2,609 articles (75.76%), which means that only around 24.24% of research was published in other countries.

Table 4

Top 10 Countries Representing the Highest Number of Documents

Countries	Record Count	%	Citations	Total link strength
Peoples R China	478	18.32	1673	833
USA	476	18.24	2515	838
Taiwan	174	6.67	928	521
England	171	6.55	854	332
Spain	136	5.21	392	219
Russia	134	5.14	71	20
Japan	132	5.06	338	175
Iran	95	3.64	399	297
Germany	94	3.60	373	134
Australia	87	3.33	264	218

Figure 1*Co-Authorship of Countries Based on the Number of Documents*

China and USA have published the highest number of articles (in total, 36.56 %) in the field, have been cited most and have also collaborated with each other. As showed in Figure 1, the USA and China have collaborated with researchers from other countries the most, i.e., with 31 and 34 countries,

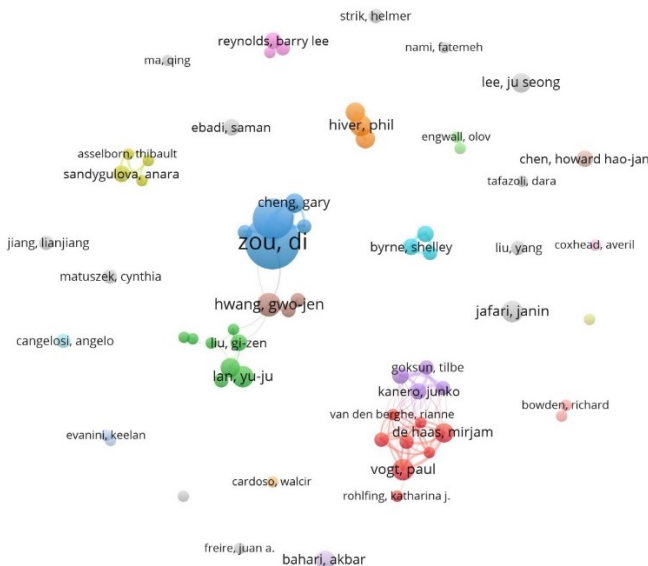
respectively; Saudi Arabia, Spain, Japan and Turkey are among top collaborating countries. Crucially, if countries do not collaborate with other countries, they are removed from the network by default. The lines connecting the nodes on the map specify the co-authorship among countries, and the length between the nodes shows the strength between them and the volume of publications produced as a result of the co-authorship among countries.

Authors' Collaboration

The analysis of the 2,609 documents revealed that 5,369 authors contributed to the field. As recommended by Van Eck and Waltman (2010), the minimum number of articles showing authors' collaboration with each other was set to five. As a result, 65 authors met this criterion. The largest set of connected items consists of 16 items (blue cluster, see Figure 2), which shows the highest research output of this group. Zou Di was the most productive author in this cluster.

Figure 2

Collaboration Among the 65 Authors



Authors' Productivity

The top ten highly productive authors who published on the topic of the use of AI in language education during the period from 2018 and 2022 are shown in Table 5. According to the volume of publications, Zou Di (23 articles and 255 citations) dominates the list of top authors. Importantly, Oudgenoeg-Paz Ora and Verhagen Josje have the highest average number of citations per paper among these most productive authors.

Table 5

Top 10 Most Productive Authors During the Period Between 2018 and 2022

No.	Author	Total publications	Total citations	The average number of citations per paper	Total link strength
1	Zou Di	23	255	11.09	223
2	Vogt Paul	9	77	8.56	181
3	Xie Haoran	17	186	10.94	169
4	Oudgenoeg-Paz Ora	5	118	23.60	168
5	Verhagen Josje	5	118	23.60	168
6	De Haas Mirjam	8	63	7.88	157
7	Van den Berghe Rianne	5	117	23.40	149
8	De Wit Jan	6	64	10.67	148
9	Krahmer Emiel	6	69	11.50	148
10	Goksun Tilbe	6	93	15.50	135

Top Journals

As far as the numbers of publications and citations are concerned, the top ten productive journals publishing on the use of AI in language education are listed in Table 6. To provide more valuable information, next to the data provided by VOSviewer, we additionally calculated the average

number of citations per paper and searched for other important journal-related information, such as IF, H-index, category quartile and journal category.

As can be seen in Table 6, publications on the use AI in language education are published in high-ranking prestigious journals. For example, *Computer Assisted Language Learning* stands out during the period between 2018 and 2022, with 354 publications on this topic. This journal has a H-index of 48 and its impact factor is 4.832. It is important to note that *Foreign Language Annals* has the highest average number of citations per paper (12.83). *Educational Technology & Society* has the highest H-index (88) and impact factor (4.14), followed by *Sustainability* (H-index of 85 and impact factor of 3.251).

Table 6

Top 10 Journals with Most Publications on the Use of AI in Language Education During the Period Between 2018 and 2022

No.	Journal	Total publications	Total citations	The average number of citations per paper	Total link strength	IF (5-year impact factor)	H-index	Quartile	Journal Category
1	Computer Assisted Language Learning	354	2576	7.28	466	4.832	48	Q1	Education & Educational Research Language & Linguistics Linguistics
2	Language Learning & Technology	53	288	5.43	143	4.313	73	Q1	Language & Linguistics Education Computer Science Applications
3	Interactive Learning Environments	27	181	6.70	117	3.868	44	Q1	Education & Educational Research
4	RECALL	29	163	0.18	82	3.326	52	Q1	Education & Educational Research Language & Linguistics Linguistics
5	Foreign Language Annals	18	231	12.83	66	1.912	49	Q1	Education & Educational Research Linguistics

No.	Journal	Total publications	Total citations	The average number of citations per paper	Total link strength	IF (5-year impact factor)	H-index	Quartile	Journal Category
6	International Journal of Computer-Assisted Language Learning and Teaching	97	144	1.48	57	0.69	8	Q1 Q2 Q3 Q3	Linguistics and Language Education Computer Science Applications Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition
7	Sustainability	10	94	9.40	56	3.473	85	Q2 Q2 Q3 Q4	Environmental Sciences Environmental Studies Green & Sustainable Science & Technology Green & Sustainable Science & Technology
8	System	34	200	5.88	52	3.59	77	Q1 Q1	Education & Educational Research Linguistics
9	Educational Technology & Society	12	71	5.92	48	4.14	88	Q1	Education Sociology and Political Science General Engineering
10	Language Teaching	24	120	5	38	4.496	58	Q1 Q1	Education & Educational Research Language & Linguistics Linguistics

Top Cited References

Table 7 provides the list of the top ten most cited references during the period between 2018 and 2022. The most cited article "Technologies for foreign language learning: A review of technology types and their effectiveness" was published in *Computer Assisted Language Learning* and has been cited 99 times during this period, while it has been cited in WOS 331 times. *Computer Assisted Language Learning* publishes articles focusing

on technology-mediated language learning processes. Three articles listed in the list of top ten most cited references were published in this journal. In addition, three most cited articles were published in *RECALL*, i.e., the journal of the European Association for Computer Assisted Language Learning. Its articles focus on the use of technology for the learning and teaching of languages and cultures.

Table 7

Top 10 Most Cited References in the Publications Related to AI in Language Education

Rank	Title	Author	Year	Source	Citations	Citations (In WOS)	Total link strength
1	Technologies for foreign language learning: a review of technology types and their effectiveness	Golonka, Ewa M.	2014	<i>Computer Assisted Language Learning</i>	99	331	265
2	Research trends in mobile assisted language learning from 2000 to 2012	Duman, Guler	2015	<i>RECALL</i>	33	90	149
3	Review of research on mobile language learning in authentic environments	Shadiev, Rustam	2017	<i>Computer Assisted Language Learning</i>	40	82	139
4	MALL: the pedagogical challenges	Burston, Jack	2014	<i>Computer Assisted Language Learning</i>	35	94	138
5	Twenty years of MALL project implementation: A meta-analysis of learning outcomes	Burston, Jack	2015	<i>RECALL</i>	38	130	135

Rank	Title	Author	Year	Source	Citations	Citations (In WOS)	Total link strength
6	An overview of mobile assisted language learning: From content delivery to supported collaboration and interaction	Kukulska-Hulme, Agnes	2008	<i>RECALL</i>	31	-	121
7	The Ecology and Semiotics of Language Learning	Van Lier, Leo	2004	<i>Springer Dordrecht</i>	26	26	103
8	Social Robots for Language Learning: A Review	Van den Berghe, Rianne	2019	<i>Review of Educational Research</i>	31	75	100
9	Social Robots for Early Language Learning: Current Evidence and Future Directions	Kanero, Junko	2018	<i>Child Development Perspectives</i>	25	48	97
10	Will mobile learning change language learning?	Kukulska-Hulme, Agnes	2009	<i>RECALL</i>	29	251	97

Popular Research Topics

Figure 3 illustrates co-occurrence networks of all keywords (7,927) in the use of AI in language learning research. This map was plotted using the following criteria-type of analysis: co-occurrence; unit of analysis: all keywords and full counting method. The minimum number of occurrences was set to ten for a keyword. Consequently, 258 keywords were extracted.

Rank	Keyword	Occurrences	Total link strength
3	Students	180	1217
4	Learners	162	1050
5	Technology	153	906
6	CALL	172	853
7	Education	149	778
8	Acquisition	104	655
9	Language learning	186	640
10	Motivation	107	623
11	Performance	89	507
12	Acquisition	104	497
13	Vocabulary	101	436
14	Perceptions	74	431
15	Classroom	77	407
16	Instruction	69	384
17	Computer-assisted language learning	98	378
18	Feedback	70	324
19	2nd-language	57	313
20	Impact	55	280

As seen in Table 8, the keywords indicating AI-based solutions did not appear among top 20 keywords; therefore, we extracted them additionally. The list reflects the AI applications that were researched the most in language education. The dominant AI-based solutions were mobile-assisted language learning (also mobile learning, mobile assisted learning, mobile-assisted learning, phones, smartphones), virtual reality, augmented reality, elements of gamification, games, social robots (also social robot, human-robot interaction, child-robot interaction), machine translation, intelligent tutoring systems, chatbot, machine learning, neural networks, automatic speech recognition (also speech recognition), big data and deep learning.

Table 9

Top Keywords Related to AI-Based Solutions

Rank	Keyword	Occurrences	Total link strength
1.	MALL	40	211
2.	Virtual reality	64	206
3.	Mobile learning	37	157
4.	Augmented reality	29	135
5.	Mobile assisted language learning	19	111
6.	Game	17	109
7.	Mobile-assisted language learning	21	92
8.	Gamification	21	86
9.	Social robots	19	73
10.	Machine translation	24	65
11.	Phones	10	62
12.	Games	14	58
13.	Virtual reality	13	58
14.	Intelligent tutoring systems	17	56
15.	Smartphones	11	55
16.	Chatbot	12	53
17.	Human-robot interaction	22	51
18.	Machine learning	20	45
19.	Child-robot interaction	12	42
20.	Neural networks	14	40
21.	WhatsApp	11	39
22.	Automatic speech recognition	14	37
23.	Speech recognition	26	36
24.	Social robot	11	29

Rank	Keyword	Occurrences	Total link strength
25.	Big data	14	27
26.	Deep learning	21	25

Additionally, the network map of keyword co-occurrence in AI and language learning research based on article-weight is showed through the density map in Figure 4. The density map uses the values expressed by blue and yellow to demonstrate density at specific points, where yellow represents the highest number.

Figure 4
 Network Map of Keyword Co-Occurrence in AI and Language Learning Research Based on Article-Weights

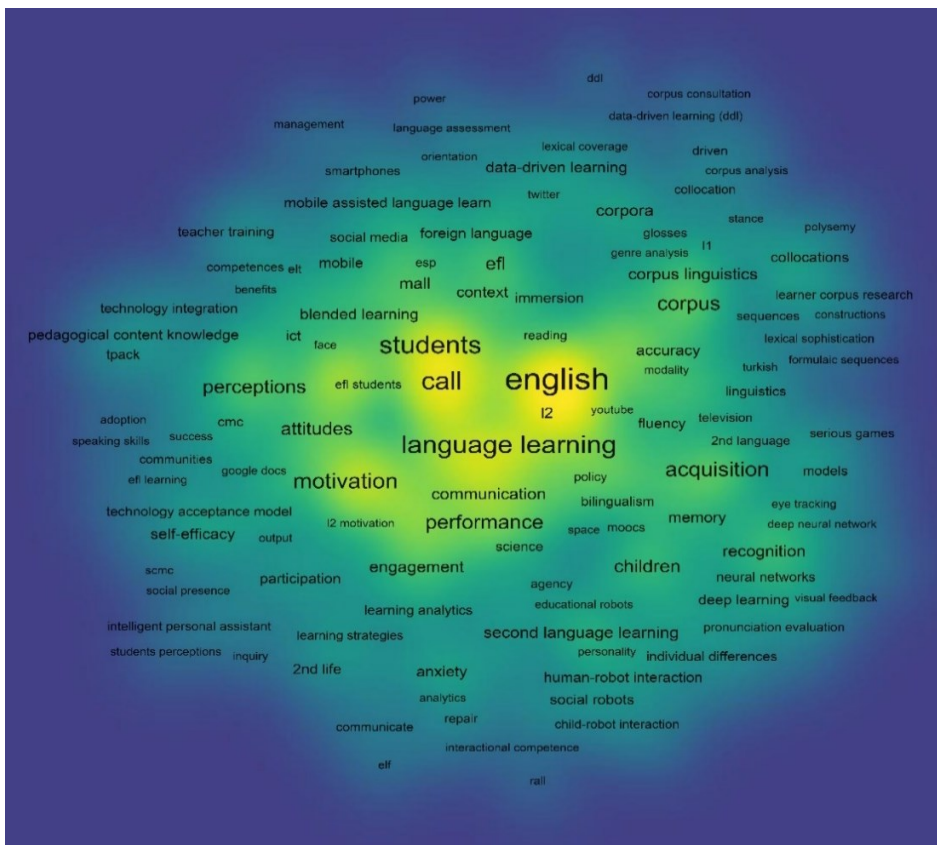


Figure 5 below shows the main seven clusters made of 258 clustered keywords that reached the minimum threshold occurrence and are closely related to the topic. Some keywords are close together or even linked in a cluster while others are further apart and form small separate clusters. The closer the keywords are to each other, the stronger the relationship they have in the research on the use of AI in language education.

Figure 5

Cluster Density Visualization Map (Red – Cluster 1, Green – 2, Blue – 3, Yellow – 4, Purple Blue – 5, Black – 6, Orange – 7)

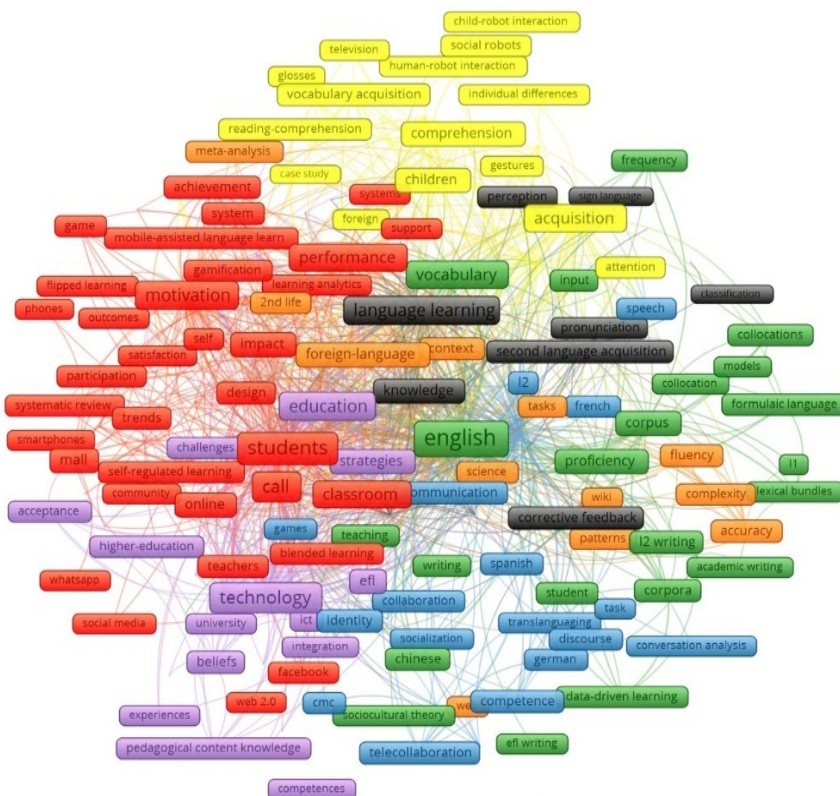
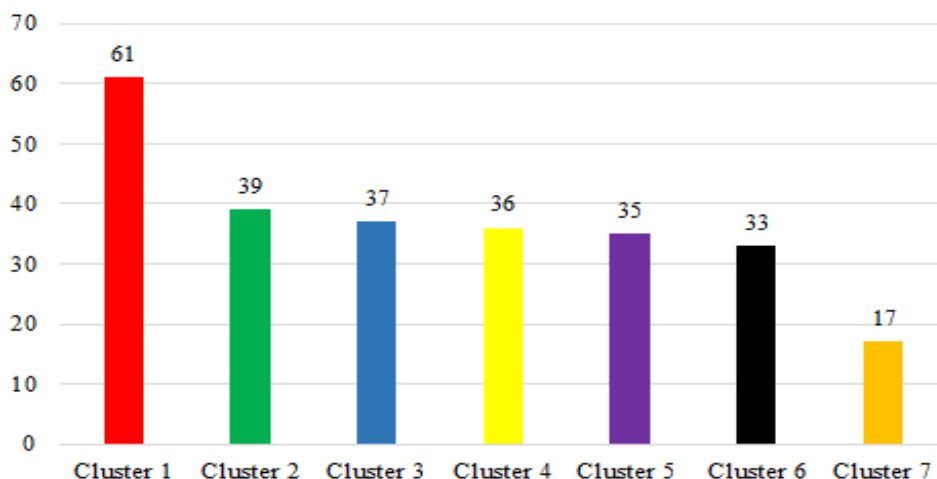


Figure 6 shows the number of keywords in each cluster.

Figure 6*Clustered Keywords (n=258)*

The analysis of the keywords in all seven clusters showed that Cluster 6 includes the most substantial number of keywords associated with AI. Therefore, we selected all the items from this cluster (see Table 10) for a more in-depth analysis. The first three items ("language learning", "perception" and "computer assisted language learning") are the same as in Table 8 and belong to the main 20 cited keywords. Their total link strength is the highest and varies from 527 to 378. The next group of keywords such as "feedback", "knowledge", "model", "second language acquisition", "corrective feedback", "foreign language learning" have a lower total link strength (ranging from 324 to 140). The keywords such as "computer-assisted language learning (CALL)", "artificial intelligence", "recognition", "educational technology", "quality", "efficacy", "pronunciation", "machine translation" have a total link strength ranging from 135 to 65. The last group of keywords such as "intelligent tutoring systems", "chatbot", "learner corpus", "machine learning", "neural networks", "automatic speech recognition", "speech recognition", "big data", "deep learning" have the lowest link strength varying from 62 to 19, which shows that they are the most recent ones in the research on the use of AI in language education.

Table 10*Most Common Keywords in Cluster 6*

Rank	Keyword	Occurrences	Total link strength
1	Language learning	186	527
2	Perception	74	431
3	Computer assisted language learning	98	378
4	Feedback	70	324
5	Knowledge	51	269
6	Model	57	229
7	Second language acquisition	46	189
8	Corrective feedback	36	160
9	Foreign language learning	44	140
10	Computer-assisted language learning	38	135
11	Artificial intelligence	35	123
12	Recognition	36	101
13	Educational technology	20	95
14	Quality	16	88
15	Efficacy	14	81
16	Pronunciation	18	74
17	Machine translation	24	65
18	Foreign language teaching	28	62
19	Intelligent tutoring systems	17	55
20	Information	16	55
21	Chatbot	12	53
22	Learner corpus	17	47
23	Machine learning	20	45
24	Natural language processing	34	43

Rank	Keyword	Occurrences	Total link strength
25	Neural networks	14	40
26	Automatic speech recognition	14	37
27	Speech recognition	26	36
28	Sign language	12	29
29	Big data	14	27
30	Translation	14	26
31	Deep learning	21	25
32	Classification	15	22
33	Error analysis	10	19

For a more careful analysis of the data, we additionally used the function of the Create Map wizard provided by VOSviewer (for more details, see Van Eck & Waltman, 2020). We chose to analyse textual data (titles and abstracts, excluding keywords) to construct a network of co-occurrence links among terms that are identified by the software using natural language processing algorithms. While general terms might provide very little information, the usefulness of a network tends to increase when these terms are excluded. To exclude general terms, VOSviewer calculates a relevance score for each term. Terms with a high relevance score tend to represent specific topics covered in textual data, while terms with a low relevance score tend to be of a general nature and are generally not representative of any specific topic (Van Eck & Waltman, 2020). By excluding terms with a low relevance score, general terms are filtered out and the focus shifts to more specific and more informative terms.

In Table 11, the list of the most relevant terms was created using binary counting, where the occurrences attribute indicates the number of documents in which a term occurred at least once. The minimum number of occurrences was set to 12 for a term. Out of 43,240 terms, 964 met that threshold. For each of them, a relevance score was calculated. "Social robots" (6.19), "CNN" (abbreviation for "convolutional neural network") (4.65), "convolutional neural network" (4.14), "social robot" (3.86), "structural

equation modelling” (3.50), “supplemental data” (3.30) and “deep neural network” (3.29) were the most relevant terms extracted from textual data.

Table 11

Top 10 Relevant Terms Extracted from Textual Data

Rank	Term	Occurrences	Relevance
1	Social robots	14	6.19
2	CNN	13	4.65
3	Convolutional neural network	18	4.14
4	Social robot	34	3.86
5	Structural equation modelling	12	3.50
6	Supplemental data	16	3.30
7	Deep neural network	18	3.29
8	Young child	14	3.23
9	TPACK	15	3.15
10	Pre-service teacher	13	2.98

For a comprehensive review of how social robots (designed to interact and communicate with people) are used in language education, researchers or language educators may refer to Van den Berghe’s (2019) publication. The same article also appears in the list of the most cited references in the publications focusing on the use of AI in language education during the period researched. The types of neural networks such as deep neural networks, conventional neural networks and recurrent neural networks are used to implement speech evaluation and writing assessment (Du, 2021). The term “TPACK” stands for **t**echnology, **p**edagogy, **a**nd **c**ontent **k**nowledge.

Conclusion

The current study is the first large-scale review of the use of AI in language education for the period between 2018 and 2022. The bibliometric

analysis enabled us to draw conclusions about the latest amount of research, the most productive authors and countries in this field, authors' collaboration, the titles of the journals that publish on this topic the most, the most cited articles as well as to analyse the most common and relevant terms. Significantly, the analysis showed that there is a consistent number of publications with a focus on the application of AI in language education each year (2018–2021). We cannot draw conclusions about the rate of publications in 2022 because the review covered only roughly one third of this year.

In terms of the number of publications on the use of AI in language education, China and the USA were revealed to be the most productive countries, which was also shown by previous reviews on the same issue, albeit covering different periods. Zou Di, Vogt Paul and Xie Haoran were the most productive and mostly cited authors in this field during the period researched. Assigned the highest quartile (Q1) and representing the most prolific high-quality journals, *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, *Language Learning & Technology*, and *Interactive Learning Environments* are the journals that published the highest number of publications on the use of AI in language education during the period analysed.

Both the analysis of the most common keywords and extraction of terms from textual data enabled a better understanding of the more specific thematic aspects addressing the research related to the use of AI in language education. Not surprisingly, the analysis of the most common keywords confirms that English is the most common language in the scientific discussion on the application of AI in language education. Among the most common aspects related to language education, we found frequent keywords such as "acquisition", "motivation", "performance", "vocabulary", "instruction", "feedback" and "impact"; most relevant terms were "online task", "mispronunciation", "flipped teaching", "willingness to communicate" and "task design", which shows that the use of AI-based solutions to be most common when targeting these areas. In addition, as far as AI-based solutions are concerned, the analysis of the most common keywords revealed that mobile-assisted language learning, virtual reality, augmented reality, gamification elements, games, social robots, machine translation, intelligent tutoring systems, chatbots, machine learning, neural networks, automatic speech

recognition, big data and deep learning were the most popular AI-based solutions.

Although we consider this review to be comprehensive as it covers a substantial number of all types of the latest documents on the use of AI in language education (e.g., including proceeding papers or early access documents), it is not without limitations. First, as all types of reviews, it is unique. Second, it included documents only from one database. Third, the search string used might not ensure full completeness and thus absence of bias, especially considering that the landscape of AI-based solutions in language education is constantly evolving. For a more thorough understanding of how AI is used in language education, we suggest combining additional research methods and thus reducing the volume of data for analysis.

Availability of Data and Materials

The datasets analysed during the current study are available from the corresponding author upon request.

Declaration of Conflicting Interests

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**DIRBTINIO INTELEKTO TAIKYMAS MOKANT(KS) KALBŲ:
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Pagrindinės sąvokos: dirbtinis intelektas; bibliometrinė analizė; kalbų švietimas; kalbų mokymas(is).

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ANALYSIS OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHERS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS DIGITAL TEACHING IN THE EUROPEAN UNION COUNTRIES¹

Annotation. In the present era, both learning and teaching, including foreign language learning (FLL) and teaching, are being radically influenced by a massive implementation of digital technologies. The purpose of this study is to analyze foreign language teachers' attitudes towards the use of technologies in foreign language teaching across Europe and to identify clear implications for their efficient implementation. The methodology of this study includes a mixed-method research design (quantitative and qualitative) with a survey conducted with altogether 234 foreign language (FL) teachers from different universities across Europe. The results clearly show that FL teachers generally have a positive attitude towards the use of technologies in their classes and that they frequently use them in their teaching since they can make students more engaged in learning a foreign language. In fact, the FL teachers have always been at the forefront of innovative approaches to teaching and learning. In spite of this, they admit that they would welcome more professional support from the management of their home institutions and demand training in the use of new technologies. The results of the research also indicate that special attention should be paid to the lack of personal contact, students' reactions, and the expression of emotions, which is difficult and almost impossible to achieve through the use of digital media. These findings are unique since they aim specifically at current FL teachers' attitudes and needs across Europe and can be utilized by stakeholders and FLL course designers. Moreover, they can also be extended to a larger scale, i.e., the global level.

Keywords: digital learning; foreign language learning; L2; digital technologies; qualitative study.

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Introduction

Nowadays there is an urgent need to implement digital technologies in teaching more than ever before, due to the challenges caused by the COVID-19 pandemic. This trend is visible at all educational levels, starting from basic schools through high schools to universities, with various subjects involved, including university foreign language (FL) teaching. Most universities had to change their face-to-face teaching to online learning, or at least a blended learning model of instruction, which has resulted in unprecedented challenges to teachers' beliefs, practices and attitudes. These challenges also showed certain barriers or pitfalls very soon when employing Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) and data-driven methods in foreign language learning (FLL).

Recent research (Pratolo & Solikhati, 2021; Zamborová et al., 2021) indicates that FL teachers have quickly adapted to an online mode of teaching despite the limitations in technological resources and the absence of previous systematic training. Pratolo and Solikhati (2021) expand that although the FL teachers show positive attitudes to the use of digital literacy in their classrooms, they need to have access to better technical facilities, develop technological pedagogy, and support from policymakers to acquire relevant digital literacy. Furthermore, research reveals that digital pedagogy training depends on teachers' ICT confidence levels (Pongsakdi et al., 2021). As Pongsakdi et al. (2021) point out, teachers with low confidence in ICT use exhibit an increased ICT confidence level after receiving digital training, while teachers with high confidence in ICT use exhibit no significant changes in their confidence level after receiving digital training. As Anggeraini (2020) reports in his qualitative research study, English teachers maintain that digital technology helps them create a stimulating atmosphere and that technology has a positive impact on English teaching and learning. However, he also states that FL teachers need training in digital technologies and more facilities in order to apply digital teaching efficiently and create their own digital media in their classrooms. Further research also indicates that university teachers are motivated to obtain digital training as it increases their abilities and skills to use various digital resources in the classroom

(Antón-Sancho et al., 2021). The key issue in this respect, however, is whether university teachers have remained motivated and capable of empowering students' learning from a techno-pedagogical point of view (Fyfe, 2011).

In addition, it should be taken into account that within a period of only a few years, teachers' instructional environment has transformed from a formalistic and grammatical curriculum design to a human-machine interaction where the student is in the center of the learning process and has to primarily develop communicative skills (Council of Europe, 2001; 2020) and digital competencies (Ferrari, 2013). In this environment, all learning, teaching and assessment are naturally related to online interactions. These changes inevitably affect FLL and FL teaching and their related tools, from the first oral text recordings (both cassettes and CD-ROMs) to corpus-based approaches and Computer-Aided Language Learning (CALL), or social networks or mobile devices (tablets and mobile phones), to learning analytics, or to metrics based on big data and large corpora to monitor student output (Camacho & Iruskieta, 2020).

Nowadays, employers and policy-makers are calling for the development of the 21st-century skills, of which some crucial ones are the foreign language skills and competencies necessary for supporting successful professional communication in an increasingly international job market, intercultural environments, and cross-cultural teams. Therefore, education and training systems have to reconsider the challenges associated with teaching and learning foreign languages online. Moreover, improved language learning and teaching could stimulate the creation of a European identity in all its diversity and "contribute to the development of citizenship and democratic competencies" (Council of the European Union, 2019). Building a constructive language learning environment at universities is crucial for supporting language education (Council of Europe, 2001).

In the era of human-machine interaction or the digital transformation era of the contemporary economy and society (OECD, 2019; 2021), the learning environments based on ICT offer access to the knowledge areas not available earlier and encourage the development of language skills and competencies in the agenda of professional education (Stukalina & Zervina,

2015). Therefore, foreign language teachers have to address several issues related to teaching methodologies and learning formats, including the integration of ICT-based tools into their courses for stimulating students' L2 acquisition and generally all basic language skills covering all communicative, linguistic, sociolinguistic, and digital competencies. As modern ICT has an enormous potential to provide innovative solutions in the context of language learning, FL teachers are well advised to adapt their attitudes towards digital learning. This involves altering their educational practices to online delivery and recognizing online instruction as essential for improving the studies. These attitudes will influence their choice of teaching strategies as a response to the challenges associated with the integration of ICT in teaching languages. An attitude seems to be the key term in this context, and it can be defined as a construct with several components, such as emotional or affective, behavioral and cognitive, that enable a learner to know the consistency of what teachers say, think, or do in such a way that certain given behaviors can be predictable in the future (Breckler, 1984; González-Sanmamed et al., 2017).

Attitudes thus create a key subjective approach to a particular objective reality that will be crucial to the level of satisfaction, performance, outcomes and the general quality of the educational process. Previous studies focused on teachers' attitudes and addressed individual factors, considering years of experience, age, gender, education, or contextual factors, such as country, culture, school model, language, ICT support, and access to research infrastructures. For example, the variables of gender and teaching experience are significant to help predict the teachers' attitudes towards technological processes. The gender factor is quite controversial because some research (Antón-Sancho et al., 2021) shows that there is a discrepancy between males and females as females are more open to the use of digital resources than males; while other studies (Guillén-Gámez & Mayorga-Fernández, 2020) do not indicate gender differences towards the process of teaching with technology. In addition, the less experienced teachers tend to be more favorable to the use of ICT in their teaching (Alshammari et al., 2016; Olafare et al., 2018).

Generally, university teaching staff shows an average attitude towards the use of ICT (Guillén-Gámez & Mayorga-Fernández, 2020). Nevertheless, it can be claimed that the more positive their attitude is, the more efficient their teaching could be. To achieve this goal, teachers need to understand the reasons why to use a technology (Anggeraini, 2020) within a techno-pedagogy perspective (Fyfe, 2011). Moreover, collaborative work among teachers creates a set of directions and guidelines relevant to the effectiveness of the course thanks to the particular skills of each teacher (Khoshsima et al., 2018). Contextual factors affect teachers' attitudes, for example, if the teaching organization has a clear roadmap to develop an ICT ecosystem or a clear curriculum and use-cases to implement ICT, or if the teaching language is under-resourced, or if the teachers have no access to language technology (Camacho & Iruskieta, 2020). For these reasons, it is crucial to evaluate the teachers' attitudes towards ICT in university foreign language learning. These attitudes could be related to the topics of anxiety, enjoyment, and self-confidence (Spanos & Sofos, 2015) and perceived computer self-efficacy, the value of technology, student learning, the commitment to technological innovation, teachers' technological competence, and training of teachers (González-Sanmamed et al., 2017). When these aspects are understood, it may be possible to streamline the educational process from the viewpoint of the teacher. Therefore, the aim of this study is to analyze foreign language teachers' attitudes towards the use of technologies in foreign language teaching across Europe and to identify clear implications for the efficient implementation of digital teaching into university FLL curricula. Moreover, it aims at providing an overview of the current situation in the EU by collecting the available and relevant data pertinent to the researched topic. Namely, the attitude of university teachers involved in foreign language teaching with the help of various digital tools.

The research is different from other studies in its approach with respect to the geographical coverage of the research sample, which includes foreign language teachers from a variety of EU universities. So, multiple perspectives can provide new insights into the issue under discussion.

Research Questions

For a better understanding of the fast-changing context of modern higher L2 education, which is undergoing a digital transformation, more research focused on identifying and analyzing a variety of FL teachers' attitudes is crucial. Therefore, in this respect, this study aims to answer the following research questions:

RQ1: *Are university FL teachers able to use technologies for FLL?*

RQ2: *How do university FL teachers perceive the use of technologies for FLL?*

RQ3: *What is the level of subjective satisfaction in FL teachers who use technology for FLL?*

RQ4: *What is the correlation between gender, years of teaching experience and technology for FLL?*

RQ5: *What do teachers see as the biggest benefit of using technology for FLL?*

RQ6: *What do teachers see as the biggest drawback of using technology for FLL?*

Research Methodology

To answer the above research questions, the authors have employed a mixed-method research design (quantitative and qualitative) in a survey with a 4-point Likert scale and open-ended questions. The research follows the strategy recommended by González-Sanmamed et al. (2017). They claimed that research studies can use four types of scales to measure teachers' attitudes, that is, the association between the responses to an item and that item's attributes. These scales are: (1) semantic differential scales to measure teacher's attitudes, (2) additive or Likert scales to express how much teachers agree with a particular statement, (3) cumulative scales to know how much positive or negative attitude the teacher has towards a topic, and (4) comparative scales to measure teachers' attitudes to evaluate one concept in direct comparison to other.

The data were collected by an online questionnaire sent to the respondents via Google Forms, and the whole process of data collection was conducted in English. The questionnaire was created by the authors of the study aiming at collecting relevant data pertinent to the study. The online questionnaire consisted of three major parts: the first part included the respondents' data, containing five sociodemographic questions; the second part formed the core of the questionnaire and contained 18 statements using a standardized 4-point Likert scale with the answers Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Agree, and Strongly Agree; and the third part consisted of six open-ended questions that created space for the subjective evaluation of the researched situation and contributed a qualitative perspective. The research sample was created by random sampling by sending an invitation email to randomly chosen teachers from various EU countries. Altogether 234 respondents from various European universities participated in the survey. All the respondents were second language/foreign language university teachers. To guarantee that all the respondents were university teachers, they were contacted via their university email addresses or university-related mailing lists, and no private emails were used. The survey was conducted during September 2021 among teachers who were involved in the teaching of at least one foreign language at an institution of higher education, i.e., a university. It was primarily targeted at university teachers in Europe. A few non-European nationalities were included in the analysis too, as the respective participants are working as language teachers in European Union higher education institutions.

Descriptive characteristics of the respondent data were evaluated as part of the statistical analysis. In addition, the frequency analysis of responses to survey questions 1-18 was conducted, and the dependence of responses on gender and length of teaching experience of the respondents was also observed. For this purpose, contingency tables were constructed and χ^2 tests of independence were performed. For the length of teaching experience, the created categories were considered. The assumptions of using the tests were always met. The significance level for testing was set at 0.05. The variable AGE was not included in the analyses as it is strongly correlated with length of experience ($r = 0.862$, $p < 0.001$); the preference

was given to the length of teaching experience, as that was reported by more respondents and is also more relevant to the focus of the research. The last part of the statistical analysis concerned the responses to the final open-ended questions. The analysis attempts to identify the categories of similar responses and quantitatively evaluate their representation. It is important to mention that one answer could fall into several categories. At the same time, these questions provided a more detailed insight into the views of the respondents and provided data to perform qualitative analyses. All analyses were performed using IBM SPSS Statistics 28 software. The GDPR (EU General Data Protection Regulation) was strictly followed, as no personal data about the respondents were collected. The research was approved by the Ethics Committee of the University of Hradec Kralove no. 2/2021. The questionnaire was fully anonymous and voluntary, and the respondents expressed their agreement with the research at the beginning of the questionnaire. The only identification of the respondent was the date stamp of the particular questionnaire that contains the timestamp when the questionnaire was finalized and submitted.

Results

Demographic Information Related to Participants

The total number of all participants who took part in the survey was 234. Their answers regarding demographic information, such as gender, age, length of teaching experience, country and foreign language are detailed below.

Gender

The majority of the participants were females (177 participants = 75.6%), followed by 55 male participants (23.5%) and 2 participants indicating their gender as non-binary (0.9%) (see Figure 1 below).

Age

Among the 220 participants who stated their age, the mean age of the respondents was 47 years. The minimum value was 25 years, while the maximum value was 76 years. Only 14 respondents did not state their age in the questionnaire. The findings reveal that most of the participants (35.0%) were between 35–44 years old, followed by the age range of 45–54 years. The youngest age range (25–34 years) was represented least frequently.

Length of Teaching Experience

A total number of 233 participants specified the length of their teaching experience. The least experienced participants had been teaching for one year, while the maximum length was 50 years, with an average length of 19 years. According to Table 1 below, most of the participants had been teaching a foreign language for 10–19 years (33.0%). The second largest group had been teaching for 20–29 years (27.5%). The proportions in the ranges of the least and most experienced participants were relatively similar.

Table 1

Length of Teaching Experience

Number of years	f	%
1–9 years	44	18.9
10–19 years	77	33.0
20–29 years	64	27.5
30+ years	48	20.6
Total	233	100.0

Note: "f" indicates the frequency

Institution, City, Nationality

Participants were also asked to indicate their institution, city and nationality – of which only the third category is detailed below, as the respondents within specific countries were usually from one or a few institutions only. The study included participants of 23 different nationalities (see Table 2). The respondents predominantly came from European countries, especially Germany (n = 103), Spain (n = 51), and Latvia (n = 26). Some of the respondents also work/worked at several different institutions in different countries. The non-European nationalities were included in the analysis as well, as the respective participants are working as language teachers in European Union higher education institutions.

Table 2

Nationality

Country	f
Algeria	4
Argentina	1
Austria	1
Chile	1
China	1
Colombia	1
Cyprus	14
Czech Republic	9
France	3
Germany	103
Ireland	2
Israel	1
Italy	1
Latvia	26
Luxembourg	7
Peru	1

Country	f
Russia	1
Spain	51
Switzerland	2
Turkey	3
UK	5
Uruguay	1
USA	4

Note: "f" indicates the frequency

Foreign Languages Taught. Table 3 below illustrates the foreign languages that the respondents teach or taught at a university. The results show that English has the highest representation among the languages taught ($n = 164$), followed by German ($n = 30$), French ($n = 25$) and Spanish ($n = 25$).

Table 3

Foreign languages

Foreign language	f
Basque	8
Chinese	1
Czech	1
Dutch	1
English	164
French	25
German	30
Greek	6
Hebrew	1
Italian	6
Latin	1
Latvian	1

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Foreign language	f
Norwegian	1
Persian	1
Portuguese	4
Russian	4
Spanish	25
Swedish	1
Turkish	1

Explanation: "f" indicates the frequency

Quantitative Results

Table 5 below summarizes all the statements in the survey for which the participants had to express their degree of agreement on a scale from "Strongly Disagree" to "Strongly Agree". The absolute frequency values are followed by the percentage based on the full number of participants (even in those cases where not all the participants answered the question under consideration).

The following discussion usually groups the two statements of disagreement and contrasts them with the grouped values for agreement.

Table 4

Frequency and Percentage of Items

Q	Items	Strongly disagree		Disagree		Agree		Strongly agree		Total	
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
1	I have been trained to teach with technologies.	26	11.2	75	32.2	113	48.5	19	8.2	233	99.6
2	I consider my students to have some background learning online.	3	1.3	41	17.5	159	67.9	31	13.2	234	100
3	I use various digital tools to	4	1.7	15	6.5	141	61.0	71	30.7	231	98.7

Q	Items	Strongly disagree		Disagree		Agree		Strongly agree		Total	
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
	enhance students' foreign language learning during their traditional, i.e. face-to-face, foreign language classes.										
4	I easily communicate and interact with students online.	-	-	29	12.4	113	48.3	92	39.3	234	100
5	I use various teaching techniques to enhance students' foreign language online learning.	2	.9	18	7.7	133	57.1	80	34.3	233	99.6
6	I combine many ways of teaching to engage the students to study a foreign language online.	3	1.3	30	12.8	130	55.6	69	29.5	232	99.1
7	I use different gamification tools (e.g. Kahoot, Quizizz, Menti) to teach different topics in language teaching.	31	13.2	66	28.2	93	39.7	44	18.8	234	100
8	I have no serious objections to teaching online.	8	3.4	60	25.9	110	47.4	54	23.1	232	99.1
9	I am quite confident about teaching a foreign language online.	8	3.5	40	17.4	112	48.7	70	30.4	230	98.3
10	I can easily motivate students to learn a foreign language by using different	3	1.3	50	21.6	139	60.2	39	16.9	231	98.7

ANALYSIS OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHERS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS DIGITAL
TEACHING IN THE EUROPEAN UNION COUNTRIES

Q	Items	Strongly disagree		Disagree		Agree		Strongly agree		Total	
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
	technological devices/tools.										
11	I can create a positive atmosphere during the traditional, i.e. face-to-face, foreign language classes.	4	1.7	1	.4	84	35.9	144	61.8	233	99.6
12	I can create a positive atmosphere during online foreign language classes	5	2.2	32	13.8	134	57.8	61	26.3	232	99.1
13	I can easily assess my students' foreign language knowledge and skills online.	9	3.9	89	38.4	111	47.8	23	9.9	232	99.1
14	I am better at teaching a foreign language face-to-face than online.	7	3.0	62	26.8	98	42.4	64	27.4	231	98.7
15	I enjoy teaching a foreign language online.	8	3.4	60	25.9	125	53.9	39	16.8	232	99.1
16	I believe that technologies can enhance foreign language learning.	1	.4	4	1.7	129	55.1	97	41.5	231	98.7
17	I always consider my students' needs when planning my lessons.	1	.4	6	2.6	90	38.5	137	58.5	234	100
18	I frequently use technologies in my foreign language classes.	-	-	19	8.2	124	53.4	89	38.4	232	99.1

Note: "f" indicates the frequency

As illustrated in Table 4, the majority of the responses expressed agreement (rather than disagreement), and the most frequent answer was "Agree". The weaker option of agreement/disagreement was more frequent for most questions. The answers allow drawing the conclusion that a large majority (91.8% in Q18) of teachers frequently use technology in language teaching. They have no serious objections and reservations to online teaching, which indicates that the participants have positive attitudes towards digital teaching.

Only slightly more than half of the teachers (56.7% in Q1) had been trained in the use of technology in teaching, which can mean anything from systematic and professional training to a more or less intuitive approach to the topic. Although more than half of the participants state that they are trained for digital teaching, they have an even more positive attitude towards online teaching with respect to their students. In summary, the vast majority of the teachers (81.1% in Q2) assume that their students have the basic knowledge and prerequisites required for online learning. Even though the teachers tend to have a positive attitude towards online teaching, a majority (69.3% in Q14) believe that they can teach better in the traditional way, and that they are better at teaching language face-to-face than online. Nevertheless, the teachers also believe that they manage to create a positive atmosphere in online teaching (83.4% in Q12), even if they estimate that they can do so even better in a traditional teaching mode (97.4% in Q11). Teachers not only use digital tools to enrich their online teaching, but the vast majority (91.7% in Q3) also employ these to supplement and enrich traditional instruction – even if the popularity of gamification tools is in the mid-range at 58.5% (Q7).

Most of the teachers enjoy teaching online (70.7% in Q15), and they also believe that they can easily motivate their students to learn a foreign language with technological tools (77.1% in Q10). Moreover, a large majority of teachers (87.6% in Q4) feel that they easily communicate with students online. A total of 97% of the teachers consider their students' needs when planning their lessons (Q17). The overwhelming majority of the teachers state that they use a variety of teaching techniques (91% in Q5). The control question Q6, which uses a slightly modified wording of Q5, results in a very

similar finding, as 85.1% of the participants state that they combine different teaching methods. The teachers also assess students' knowledge and skills in their online teaching – 57.2% of them even find this easy to do (Q13). Most teachers have no serious objections to teaching online (70.5% in Q8) – most probably because the majority feels confident about doing so (79.1% in Q9). Almost all teachers (96.6% in Q16) believe that technology can improve language learning.

Dependence of Responses on Gender and Length of Teaching Experience

Gender

Within gender, only female and male categories were considered. As the respondents with non-binary gender were not sufficiently represented to make statistical judgments, they were not included in the analysis. Table 5 shows the p-values of the χ^2 test of independence.

Table 5

Dependence of Responses on Gender

Items	p
I use different gamification tools (e.g. Kahoot, Quizizz, Menti) to teach different topics in language teaching (Q7)	0.010
I frequently use technologies in my foreign language classes (Q18)	0.002

The above table indicates that there is a significant difference for questions 7 and 18 (at the 0.05 level of significance) based on the participants' gender. With regard to the use of gamification tools like Kahoot (Q7), there is a significant prevalence of agreeing responses among female teachers (112 agreements vs. 65 disagreements) and a tendency towards disagreement among the male participants (24 agreements vs. 31 disagreements). Similarly, the female participants have a very significant

predominance of agreeing responses (167 agreements vs. 9 disagreements) regarding the frequent use of technologies in foreign language classes (Q18), while the male teachers have a less significant predominance of agreeing responses (44 agreements vs. 10 disagreements).

Length of Teaching Experience and Age

Significant (at the 0.05 level of significance) dependence of responses on length of teaching experience was found for question 7. The results indicate that as the length of teaching experience increases, the proportion of agreeing responses decreases, with disagreeing responses predominating in the "30+ years of experience" category in using different gamification tools. On the basis of these findings, one can conclude that it is mainly the younger teachers who use gamification tools (Table 6).

Table 6

Dependence of Responses on Length of Teaching Experience

Item	p
I use different gamification tools (e.g. Kahoot, Quizizz, Menti) to teach different topics in language teaching. (Q7)	0.049

Qualitative Results

The survey was closed with six open-ended questions, for which the results are discussed in the subsection below.

Perceived Advantages of Technology in Language Teaching

The participants listed multifarious advantages in the use of technologies for language teaching when prompted to do so in open-ended Q19: What do you like about using technologies in your foreign language teaching? More specifically, the participants reported that technologies expanded and enriched learning opportunities, bringing greater variety to

learning activities (n = 51; 21.79%), that technology made learning more interesting and fun and was more motivating for young people (n = 42; 17.95%). In addition, the findings reveal that technologies have a big potential, which enabled greater interactivity, engagement, and collaboration among students (n = 30; 12.82%). The following statements exemplify these findings: "It can make the class interactive and interesting." (P 9), or "Engage students who hide behind black screens" (P 43).

In fact, the potential of technology to provide authentic experience seems to be amongst the popular advantages voiced by participants, as technology-enhanced learning is closer to the real world (n = 19; 8.12%). The results also demonstrate that technologies provide easy and quick access to a wealth of information and allow easy sharing of learning materials (n = 18; 7.69%). The respondents also noted that technologies brought better adaptation to individual students' needs, as students could learn at their own pace (n=18; 7.69%), as was exemplified in the statement "the asynchronous aspect; everyone can access/learn the content at their own time /speed" by Participant 51. Amongst the least frequently listed advantages in the use of technology is its potential to save time and bring flexibility (n = 13; 5.56%) and to change traditional teaching methods (n = 8; 3.42%). It is worth mentioning here that in spite of the positive framing of the question, some participants reported that technology was not the most important thing in teaching, and that it should be seen as a supplement only (n = 3; 1.28%), as exemplified by the following statements: "Using technology is complicated, demanding and dangerous" and "Nothing, on the contrary, technologies disrupt learning."

Perceived Disadvantages of Technology in Language Teaching

When it comes to what the respondents dislike about the use of technologies in foreign language teaching (Q20 – What don't you like about using technologies in your foreign language teaching?), the results show that not everything always works as it should. Therefore, technical problems can occur unexpectedly (n = 42; 17.95%), there is a lack of personal contact with students (n = 35; 14.96%), and that some students are less active

because there is not enough control. Thus, some of the respondents find it harder to remain attentive (n = 21; 8.97%). Furthermore, some teachers may not be comfortable using technology, or may not have the necessary technical equipment, or may not be comfortable with technology (n = 17; 7.26%). For example, Participant 2 stated that "some students still prefer face-to-face instruction". The results also reveal that there is a lack of support from institutions, with technology being outdated and a lack of training for teachers (n = 15; 6.41%), as well as the fact that technology is more demanding and time-consuming (n = 15; 6.41%), as exemplified by the statement "More work for lecturers; more written tasks to correct, more individual feedback to provide" (P13). Furthermore, the results demonstrate that the teachers are aware of the fact that it is more difficult to test the students' knowledge and that students can thus cheat more easily in an online mode (n = 10; 4.27%), and that there is a constant need to update, change and adapt to new developments, resulting in too much variety and diversity (n = 8; 3.42%).

Suggestions for Improvement in Foreign Language Online Teaching

The respondents were also asked to provide suggestions on how their foreign language online teaching could be improved (What would you like to improve in your foreign language online teaching?). In the most common answers, the respondents highlighted the need to improve students' motivation and involvement in learning (n = 38; 16.24%), to increase their own proficiency in using different technologies (n=36; 15.38%), to try out other new technologies (n = 30; 12.82%), and to improve the process of testing students' knowledge (n = 23; 9.83%). The following excerpts testify to this: "More tools and depth of knowledge on the ones I use" (P227); "I would like them to be more involved and feel more confident to participate" (P211), or "I would like to have more time and contact with the students. We need more time for the presentations of their projects" (P40).

Drawbacks of Online Foreign Language Teaching

The respondents were also invited to indicate the biggest drawbacks of online foreign language teaching (Q22 – What do you consider the biggest drawback of online foreign language teaching?). The most popular answer was the lack of personal contact (non-verbal communication, emotions, social contacts, etc.), as this was highlighted by almost 40% of participants (n = 92). Other answers noted here include the difficulty in motivating students to participate in the class (n = 23), as well as technical problems (n = 18) and problematic assessment and verification of students' knowledge (n = 15), as exemplified by the following statements: "Distant and difficult communication, and language learning is about communication" (P 56), "Motivation-it is so easy for students to feel lonely and thus unmotivated" (P 86), and "Not enough knowledge and interest of students, motivational problems due to difficult life circumstances (e.g. shared rooms with other family members)" (P 108).

The Biggest Benefit of Online Foreign Language Teaching

When it comes to the biggest benefit of online foreign language teaching (Q23 – What do you consider the biggest benefit of online foreign language teaching?), participants voiced its accessibility from anywhere, anytime, for anyone (n = 79; 33.76%), as exemplified by Participant 44's statement "Could teach students all over the world while being at home". Other answers noted here include the fact that online foreign language teaching is time-saving and convenient (e.g., no commuting) (n = 35; 14.96%) and leaves more autonomy to students and better adaptation to individual students' needs (n = 19; 8.12%). In summary, it is important to note that the participants realize positive and negative aspects in the use of technology in online foreign language teaching, with the prevailing opinion being that a combination of traditional teaching and the involvement of technology is best. The following excerpts from the participants' responses underline this: "I think blended learning should be the future of language teaching" (P121), or "Technology is definitely a great benefit, but can hardly

replace face-to face [sic] lectures. A combination of both is advantageous” (P133).

Discussion

The results described above provide answers to the research questions that are discussed in the context of relevant literature below.

RQ1: Are university FL teachers able to use technologies for FLL?

This question has to do with what other authors may refer to as ICT self-efficacy for teaching, ICT pedagogical competence, or digital competence for teaching (Moreira-Fontán et al., 2019). Some previous research studies reveal that teachers usually lack adequate pedagogical competencies and skills in implementing digital technologies (Mishra & Mehta 2017; Sumardi, 2020).

In addition, FL teachers were found to exhibit negative attitudes towards ICT integration (Hismanoglu, 2012), and some of them also thought that online teaching might be less stimulating than traditional, face-to-face teaching (Kulikowski et al., 2021). However, this is not the case for the teachers surveyed in this study because most FL teachers feel that they are able to use technology efficiently and frequently in their language teaching. Nevertheless, some would welcome better training and support from their institutions, especially for online teaching, which can be difficult to run and master from a technical point of view. In relation to this latter issue, and regarding the use of eLearning tools, Cross and Hong (2012) report that especially elementary teachers were satisfied when they felt encouraged by their school authorities to implement the innovative and efficient use of ICT for teaching (Pongsakdi et al., 2021).

In fact, the more satisfied they were with the degree of support provided by the administrators, the more positive attitudes they showed toward teaching. Moreover, other authors claim that both negative feelings arise and motivation decreases in teachers who do not feel supported enough by their institutions (Halbesleben & Demerouti, 2005; Moreira-Fontán et al.,

2019). Kulikowski et al. (2021) expand that also the lack of relevant technical equipment needed for online teaching negatively affects teachers' performance and their willingness to use ICT in their teaching. This is in line with other studies, e.g., Moreira-Fontán et al. (2019) or Pongsakdi et al. (2021). Therefore, these aspects, i.e., training and encouragement from their home institutions in implementing ICT in FL teaching and learning, seem to be critical issues for technology to be consistently and effectively used in foreign language teaching in higher education scenarios.

RQ2: How do university FL teachers perceive the use of technologies for FLL?

Previous studies have revealed that FL teachers who are not convinced of the ICT benefits on instructional performance are less likely to employ technology in their teaching (Pongsakdi et al., 2021). In this study, however, the predominantly positive view is that technology brings new possibilities to language learning, with various advantages and disadvantages (consult questions Q19, Q20, Q22, Q23). This positive attitude may be inherent in the respondents or accelerated by the needs the pandemic has generated in them. In any case, this positive predisposition is in line with other research studies (Housseine & Rabba, 2020; Khoshsima et al., 2018). Moreover, Wang (2021) shows that teachers consider very beneficial the use of ICT in their classes as it can facilitate students' motivation, as well as enhance content creation and access to authentic production of FL communication and the associated culture(s).

On the one hand, it has been shown that, at least in the case of pre-service teachers, computer knowledge and the use of technology positively correlate with happiness and perceived ease of ICT use (Moreira-Fontán et al., 2019). On the other hand, Kulikowski et al. (2021) report that the teachers who do not perceive themselves as digitally competent feel demotivated while conducting online teaching. For example, they may feel anxious to a lesser or greater extent (Moreira-Fontán et al., 2019). These authors also advise teachers to join their respective professional communities of practice as a strategy to feel supported and develop their expertise by

sharing knowledge. Some ICT teaching and learning tools, such as Edmodo (<https://new.edmodo.com/>), already include functions for creating and joining this kind of community of practice; and also, some research projects, such as OpenDigi funded by the Finnish Ministry of Education and Culture, aim at building teachers' communities, in order to enhance digital pedagogical skills (Pongsakdi et al., 2021). As far as the results of this study are concerned, the majority of FL teachers agree that a combination of traditional teaching with the use of technology is ideal. This is in line with the studies by Civelek et al. (2021) and Zamborová et al. (2021). In addition, in online teaching alone, the biggest drawback perceived by the teachers is mainly the lack of face-to-face contact with students.

RQ3: *What is the level of subjective satisfaction in FL teachers who use technology for FLL?*

Most FL teachers in this study are satisfied with their use of technology. However, most of them state that they still prefer traditional, face-to-face teaching to online teaching. These findings are not surprising since traditional FL teaching is based on immediate interactions and feedback between a teacher and his/her students. Some authors, such as Merritt et al. (2019), might disagree since they claim that teachers are primary change agents in society and they should be pioneers in innovations. But, according to the authors of this study, FL teachers are, in fact, at the forefront of all changes. They were among the first to employ digital technologies in their best practices (cfr. Klimova & Pikhart, 2021).

Concerning eLearning and online teaching, the FL teachers in this study would like to improve students' motivation and increase students' involvement in the learning process. At the same time, many teachers would also like to improve their skills and competencies for using technology and would even like to try other new technologies, especially gamification. This internal motivation is very important for any future outlook for a change as the motivated users of the technology will want to improve the status quo by their deeper involvement in the educational process. For these reasons, it is crucial to motivate the teachers to take the initiative to improve their digital

competencies and also seek support for this training from universities. Moreira-Fontán et al. (2019) propose to enhance digital self-efficacy and the perceived support for innovation at teaching institutions, as well as to consider the emotions associated with them, such as ICT positive emotions and satisfaction with support in order to stimulate teachers' performance.

RQ4: *What is the correlation between gender, years of teaching experience and technology for FLL?*

In general, there was no significant effect of length of teaching experience on access to and use of technology. Significant differences only exist in the use of gamification tools, which are used less by FL teachers with longer teaching experience. Regarding the other demographic variable (gender), female teachers showed a significant prevalence of agreeing with responses regarding the use of gamification tools, such as Kahoot (Q7), while male teachers presented a tendency towards disagreement, which is rather counterintuitive. González-Sanmamed et al. (2017) also found that women held a more positive view towards the use of ICT than men. The same was true for the findings of Verges (2012), who reports that there is a visible correlation between gender and the use of technology.

RQ5: *What do teachers see as the biggest benefit of using technology for FLL?*

The FL teachers in the present study mainly state that technology expands and enriches both teaching and learning opportunities, brings more variety to classroom activities, makes learning more interesting and fun, and helps motivate young people. This aligns with other researchers' results (Khoshsima et al., 2018; Valencia-Arias et al., 2018). For instance, some of them claim that digital technologies can foster students' learning and motivation (Faber et al., 2017; Laakso et al., 2018). From the perspective of online learning, they see the biggest benefit of technology for FLL in its accessibility for anyone, from anywhere, and at any time, which has been described widely in many research studies across different disciplines

(Valencia-Arias et al., 2018). These authors also emphasize the role of technologies in developing especially collaborative learning and continuous assessment.

RQ6: *What do teachers see as the biggest drawback of using technology for FLL?*

According to the participants of the survey, not everything works as it should when it comes to the use of technology in FLL. For example, technical problems can occur unexpectedly, and not all FL teachers and students have full, adequate, and stable access to technologies. Technical issues as a major constraint have also been found in other research studies (Cosgun & Savaş, 2019; Khoshsiman et al., 2018). Moreover, according to the UNESCO (2020), a sudden transition to online teaching and learning might be quite difficult and complex, raising both human and technical challenges. Ferri et al. (2020) detected three principal issues with respect to online teaching: technological (i.e., a shortage of technical equipment and Internet access), pedagogical (i.e., a deficit of relevant computer skills and competencies), and social (i.e., insufficient interactions and feedback with learners). Not surprisingly, the FL teachers in this study also consider the lack of personal contact to be the biggest disadvantage of online teaching. They also report on the lack of non-verbal communication, which is crucial in language teaching.

Furthermore, the respondents of this study criticize that in online teaching and learning, there is no possibility to perceive the students' reactions and adjust the interpretation accordingly, no expression of emotions, no social contacts. This lack of feedback and interaction is also pointed out by other scholars (e.g., Civelek et al., 2021; Khoshsiman et al., 2018). At the same time, the results of this study indicate that the FL teachers find it more difficult to motivate students to participate in the class in online teaching. This is consistent with Civelek et al. (2021), whose findings revealed that 50% of their FL teachers also found their classes unstimulating, and that more than 50% of their learners felt demotivated about their online courses during the COVID-19 pandemic, and a result that is paralleled by Zamborová et al (2021).

In addition, the feeling that the use of technology for teaching is more demanding and time-consuming than traditional teaching formats is shared by teachers from other studies (González-Sanmamed et al., 2017; Housseine & Rabba, 2020; Khoshsima et al., 2018; Kopcha, 2012; Pratolo & Solikhati, 2021; Zamborová et al., 2021). More collaboration among teachers should also be considered when trying to implement the use of technologies in the classroom (Khoshsima et al., 2018), as well as more support from their institutions and more training for teachers because the lack of effective training is the most frequently encountered barrier to successful ICT integration (Civelek et al., 2021; Cincioğlu, 2015; Cosgun & Savaş, 2019; González-Sanmamed et al., 2017; Hismanoglu, 2012). Therefore, as it has been mentioned several times before, teachers should be continuously offered further training both in the use of technologies, but also in the improvement of their pedagogical competencies and skills with respect to the curriculum content.

In summary, it can be concluded that since the respondents were university teachers, and they can be generally considered to be very responsible in answering the questions of the questionnaire, the findings could be applicable and transferrable into a large scale. This generalization of the findings can be particularly important as it is not possible to have fully comprehensive research sample of all European university teachers. The findings clearly show that the necessary trend of the implementation of various digital tools cannot be considered as straightforward and simple as the process needs time and serious fine-tuning. Although that university teachers have always been the major force of the implementation of trends and innovation in education, they are well aware of the potential pitfalls related to the utilization of technology in the learning process. Moreover, it is clearly visible that they call for a very clearly defined strategy on how to use digital media to create a supportive environment both for the educators and the students. All these findings summarized above can be considered authoritative enough to allow a creation of further manuals for the teachers on how to use digital media to their fullest potential. Furthermore, even if the research was conducted in Europe, it can be claimed that the results are transferable on a much larger, i.e., a global level.

Research Limitations

As regards the limitations of the present study, for all questions with a range of responses, the predominant choice is "Agree", which tends to be typical in questionnaire surveys, as participants generally tend to agree with the statements as stated and to prefer the weaker agree/disagree options. Therefore, the answers may be biased to some extent. To reduce this bias, a 4-point Likert scale, that can reduce this neutral middle value present in a 5-point scale, had been chosen. Another source of bias may be the fact that both genders are not equally represented among the respondents, as women make up approximately three quarters of the respondents. In the case of two questions (Q7, Q18) where there were significant gender differences in the responses, the overall assessment of responses may be biased; there were also fewer young people under 35 among the respondents. This is, however, in line with the statistical representation of these two genders in educational institutions targeting foreign language learning generally. Therefore, the results copy this societal occurrence and any balanced proportion of male and female would not create a true picture of the real situation.

Most of the respondents did not distinguish between online learning and the use of technology in traditional teaching; therefore, some questions could be understood differently by different respondents. However, the aim of the research was not to provide very exact definitions of Human-Computer Interaction, digital learning, or eLearning. There is vast and sufficient research into how to understand these concepts. This research mostly concentrated on practical use and the personal, and thus very subjective experience of the respondents who are university L2 teachers.

Conclusions

The findings of this research study can be significant for two main reasons. On the one hand, they apply to a wide geographical area that has not usually been covered in previous studies as it includes the opinions of teachers from many different European countries.

On the other hand, they shed light on the current state of FL teaching and learning. The findings clearly show that FL teachers are fully positive about the implementation of digital technologies in their teaching and can see many benefits in their use. The perceived advantages have more weight and situate the use of ICT as an indicator of the acceptance of the technology by FL teachers, which can result in their improved performance provided they are offered both professional and human support from their institutions. In addition, the findings are unique since they aim at specific and current FL teachers' attitudes and needs across the whole of Europe, and they could be utilized by stakeholders and FLL course designers.

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UŽSIENIO KALBŲ DĖSTYTOJŲ POŽIŪRIO Į SKAITMENINĮ MOKYMĄ EUROPOS SĄJUNGOS ŠALYSE ANALIZĖ

Anotacija. Dabartiniu metu tiek mokymąsi, tiek mokymąsi, įskaitant užsienio kalbų mokymąsi ir mokymą aukštesiose mokyklose, radikaliai veikia masiškai diegiamos skaitmeninės technologijos. Šio tyrimo tikslas – išanalizuoti užsienio kalbų dėstytojų požiūrį į technologijų naudojimą mokant užsienio kalbų Europos šalyse ir nustatyti aiškias pasekmes efektyviam jų diegimui. Tyrimo metodologija apima mišrų tyrimo planą (kiekybinį ir kokybinį), per kurį apklausti 234 užsienio kalbų (toliau – UK) dėstytojai iš įvairių Europos universitetų. Rezultatai aiškiai rodo, kad UK dėstytojai apskritai teigiamai vertina technologijų naudojimą kalbų paskaitose ir dažnai jas naudoja dėstydami, kad paskatintų studentus aktyviau mokytis užsienio kalbos. Reikia pabrėžti, kad užsienio kalbų dėstytojai ir mokytojai visada buvo už novatorišką mokymo ir mokymosi metodų taikymą. Vis dėlto tyrimu pripažįstamas noras gauti daugiau profesinės paramos iš savo institucijos vadovybės ir pageidaujama mokymų, kaip naudotis naujomis technologijomis. Tyrimo rezultatai taip pat rodo, kad ypatingą dėmesį reikėtų skirti asmeninio kontakto, studentų reakcijų ir emocijų raiškos trūkumui, kuriuos sunku ir beveik neįmanoma pasiekti naudojantis skaitmeninėmis medijomis. Šios išvados unikalios, nes tyrimu siekta konkrečiai išsiaiškinti dabartinių užsienio kalbų dėstytojų požiūrį ir poreikius įvairiose Europos šalyse; jomis gali pasinaudoti suinteresuotosios šalys ir užsienio kalbų mokymosi kursų kūrėjai. Be to, išvadas galima taikyti ir platesniu, t. y. pasauliniu mastu.

Pagrindinės sąvokos: skaitmeninis mokymasis; užsienio kalbų mokymasis; L2; skaitmeninės technologijos; kokybinis tyrimas.

**LANGUAGES IN SOCIETAL
DISCOURSE**

**KALBOS VISUOMENINIAME
DISKURSE**



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THE NOMENCLATURE OF TRADITIONAL ORNAMENTS IN LATVIAN AND LITHUANIAN

Annotation. The traditional ornaments, characteristic for the Latvian and Lithuanian ethnographic regions, are an essential part of traditional Baltic culture. Since the 19th century researchers have studied their technical aspects and semiotics (Brastiņš, 1923; Dzērvīts, 1925; Celms 2007) but little attention has been paid to empirical terminology. The name is an integral part of the sign, it often carries semantic information helping to reveal its usage and significance. In Latvia, the names of traditional signs have been influenced by the work of Brastiņš and *dievturi* (“Keepers of Dievs”) who attributed the names of Baltic mythological deities to ornaments linking them to the manifestations of the deity mentioned in the denominations. While these denominations are very popular in Latvia, in Lithuania very similar ornaments are called and interpreted differently. This research focuses on collecting and analysing Baltic ornament nomenclature published in Latvia and Lithuania in the first half of the 20th century. It compares the ornament naming traditions in both countries and highlights the main parallels and differences. It also reviews previous research of ornament in Latvia and Lithuania where significant differences can be seen – while semiotic research dominates in Latvia, in Lithuania more attention has been paid to the nomenclature, although in both countries the nomenclature has often been viewed separately from the visual form, making the research of ornament evolution and typology difficult. It has been found that the spectrum of ornament nomenclature at the beginning of the 20th century in Latvia was more diverse than it is now; that it is common for Latvians and Lithuanians to view ornament as a pattern rather than separate graphic elements and that geometric, plant, animal, artefact and celestial body denominations dominate the nomenclature of both languages. Symbols appearing in Baltic culture are also present in ornament nomenclature.

Keywords: comparative research; ethnographic Baltic ornament; Latvian signs; ornament typology; phenomenology; semiotics.

Introduction

The traditional ornaments, characteristic of the Latvian and Lithuanian ethnographic regions, are an essential part of traditional Baltic culture. These ornaments have been a focal point for researchers since the end of the 19th century and have also retained their importance in present day studies but very few of them take a closer look at the comparison of Latvian and Lithuanian ornaments and even less – at their nomenclature. In addition to the visual form, the name is also an integral part of the ornament as it often carries

semantic information and helps to reveal its usage and significance. In Latvia, in the 1920s, a new ornament naming tradition was introduced by *dievturi* (literally “keepers of *Dievs*” – a modern revival of the local pre-Christian religion) and their leader Ernests Brastiņš. As a result – in Latvia nowadays ornaments are named after Baltic deities such as *Dieva zīme* (“Sign of *Dievs*”), *Laimas slotiņa* (“*Laima*’s Broom”), *Pērkona krusts* (“Cross of *Pērkons*”), etc. Since the denominations name what deity, animal, or object the ornament supposedly represents, it can be considered a crucial part of the ornament’s semiotic message. Modern Latvian ornament researchers tend to use these names of ornaments in explaining their semiotics (Celms, 2007). It is significant to note that the ornament studies at the beginning of the 20th century display a more diverse nomenclature and rarely name any specific deities. This can also be noted in Lithuanian ornament nomenclature, which also seems to differ from Latvian nomenclature considerably.

While the Latvian and Lithuanian ornaments have much in common aesthetically and technically, the methodological approaches in their research differ; while Latvians focus on the tradition set by *dievturi* linking specific ornaments and graphic elements to Baltic deities, Lithuanians have taken a different path focusing more on the folk tradition of ornament nomenclature and its typology. As a result – Latvian and Lithuanian ornaments that look similar are named quite differently. Unfortunately, there are very few studies that focus specifically on the comparison of Latvian and Lithuanian ornament nomenclature. The most notable researcher to compare Latvian and Lithuanian ornaments is Vytautas Tumėnas (Tumėnas, 2002, 2014). In Latvian research, the topic of ornament nomenclature has only been outlined in some articles published in magazine “*Latvijas Saule*” (Paegle, 1930; Dzērvītis, 1925). Recent Latvian researchers tend to focus on the semiotic aspects using the established terminology of *dievturi*. Graphic designer and one of the leaders of *dievturi* Valdis Celms has extensively described the semiotics of Latvian ornament and its nomenclature and his ideas have also been published in Lithuanian (Celms, 2014, 2016).

The goal of this research is to summarize the nomenclature of Latvian and Lithuanian ornament represented in Latvian and Lithuanian publications of the first half of the 20th century, to compare the main

tendencies, and to review how the differences have affected the traditional ornament reception and nomenclature usage in both cultures.

The main tasks include gathering samples of Latvian and Lithuanian ornament according to the defined criteria, comparing and analysing samples based on their defining visual and nomenclature features, and performing a case study of a selected ornament in both Latvian and Lithuanian sources in more detail.

To accomplish the set goals, the following **scientific methods** were used: the descriptive method for recording information on each ornament sample, the comparative method for organizing the samples in categories according to their visual forms and nomenclature, marking out the common and the different; besides, the semiotic aspect of the ornament samples was examined with the use of structural analysis viewing the ornament samples as a sign system.

This research focuses on materials published in the first half of the 20th century specifically. As indicated before, most recent studies favour the terminology introduced by *dievturi* and tend to overlook the nomenclature that has been recorded in ethnographic field work. Because of this, it is most productive to review publications from the first half of the 20th century when *dievturi* terminology had not yet rooted in common use. "Materials" in this study include scientific publications and articles in press about the results of ethnographic expeditions and descriptions of artefacts in museums. The studies published by Brastiņš are not viewed as "materials" in this research, as they focus on establishing a new nomenclature system rather than describing the existing customs of naming ornament.

"Ornament", "Pattern", "Sign" and "Symbol" – the Differences and Usage of These Terms

These terms are widely used across many research fields as well as in everyday communication, but their usage is inconsistent and sometimes – incorrectly synonymic. That is why it would be best to start by defining their usage within this study.

Ornament is the main term used in this study to describe samples because its definition is solid and does not declare the presence of any semiotic value. In English, ornament is defined as “anything that enhances the appearance of a person or thing” (Collins English Dictionary, 2012) while the same term in Latvian and Lithuanian is more restricted and indicates that the ornament usually consists of symmetrically and rhythmically aligned elements (Spektors et al., 2022; Liutkevičienė et al., 2022). This is important to note, as traditional Latvian and Lithuanian ornaments are usually patterns consisting of such elements. Local researchers (Brastiņš, 1923; Galaunė, 1930) also commonly use the term *raksts* (LV)/*raštas* (LT) to describe ornaments and this term is also encountered in ornament nomenclature (*saulīšu raksts*, *tulpinis raštas*, etc.). *Raksts/raštas* can be translated as a “pattern” and its primary meaning of refers to writing (*rakstīt* (LV)/*rašyti* (LT) – “to write”) but its original meaning was “to decorate, leave markings”, the meaning of “text-creation” was only adopted later (Karulis, 2001, p. 736). Within this study both patterns and isolated elements are viewed as “ornaments”.

Sign and **symbol** are both terms used in semiotics but the definitions change depending on the approach by individual authors. According to Peirce, a symbol is a type of sign with no apparent resemblance between the form of the sign and the concept it represents (e.g., alphabetical letters, punctuation marks etc.) and “sign” is a broader term (in Chandler, 2002, p. 36). These terms are also widely used outside of scientific disciplines. In Latvian, *zīme* (“sign”) is the most common term used in reference to ornaments but *simbols* (“symbol”) can also be encountered. In Lithuanian *ženklas* (“sign”) and *simbolis* (“symbol”) are used more sparingly – mostly in semiotic research. The primary definition of *zīme* is given as “something (an object, its reproduction, image) that signifies or indicates something else” (Spektors et al., 2022). Also, *simbols* is defined similarly – “a sign, or a set of signs (e.g., image, ornament, object, combination of colours, artistic image, composition) that reflects an idea or a phenomenon in society, nature etc.” Respectively, referring to Latvian ornament as *zīmes* or *simboli* means assigning semiotic value to it by default.

Previous Studies of Ornament Nomenclature in Latvia and Lithuania

Even though traditional ornament has been the focal point of many studies, they have been fragmentary – not all ethnographic regions have been studied to the same extent in different time periods. This makes it difficult to come to objective and precise conclusions.

The most fruitful period in ornament studies was the beginning of the 20th century. Finally facing no more restrictions and eager to expand the cultural foundation of their newly founded states, Latvian and Lithuanian researchers conducted extensive studies on many folklore subjects, including ornaments. Notable Latvian ornament researchers of this period are Ernests Brastiņš, Eduards Paegle, Arvīds Dzērvītis, Edīte Elksnīte, Jēkabs Bīne and Rihards Zariņš. Most of them were members of *dievturi* community.

As Tumėnas notes, Lithuanians have not been as active in the field of ornament research (Tumėnas, 2002, p. 30) but still many important studies have been conducted by researchers including Jonas Basanavičius, Paulius Galaunė, Antanas Tamošaitis and Balys Buračas.

Latvian and Lithuanian ornament can and should be studied comparatively because of the visual resemblances and affinity of languages. Another common trait of Latvian and Lithuanian folk art is that it developed as “peasant art” under the rule of another nation. But comparative ornament studies are hindered by the very different approaches Latvian and Lithuanian researchers have taken in studying ornament and its nomenclature.

As shown by the inclination to name traditional ornaments “signs” and “symbols”, Latvian researchers tend to view ornament through the prism of mythology. By the 20th century Latvia had lost much of its traditional cultural heritage, and it also did not have the historical experience of a once large and influential state like Lithuania did, so it needed other symbols and means to build a new identity; what was lost – had to be built anew. Several artists and researchers including Ansis Cīrulis, Jūlijs Madernieks and Jēkabs Bīne set out to define the “Latvian style” in art and design, others, such as Brastiņš and Paegle, focused on defining the Latvian way of living and religion, which

included the complex question of Baltic mythology and religion. In his work *Latviešu ornamentika* ("Latvian ornamentation") Brastiņš proposed that the Latvian ornament, as all prehistoric ornament, originally depicted stylized natural phenomena (lightning, waves of water, etc.) and, as the primitive religion developed, these forces of nature evolved into manifestations of various deities; therefore, a link between ornament and a specific deity can be established (Brastiņš, 1923, pp. 35–36). He also justified this statement with various symbols found in Latvian folklore, folk songs specifically.

Even though Brastiņš had many followers, he also had many critics. His work faced further criticism in later times because his interpretations made it more difficult for next generations of researchers to separate traditional folk nomenclature from *dievturi* terminology (Karlson, 1994, p. 78). The criticism was mostly directed at Brastiņš' unsystematic approach in selecting individual folk songs, a dubious source in itself, to prove his hypotheses. While providing criticism where it is due, it is also important to note Brastiņš' motivation. He pointed out that the national traditional ornament had been almost entirely forgotten, and Latvians needed to establish a new style and philosophy which would not only draw from the remaining heritage but also continue it (Brastiņš, 1923, pp. 8–9). Instead of focusing on the past, Brastiņš constructed new beliefs and perspectives for Latvian art, religion and way of living. Many researchers have followed in his footsteps, most notably Celms whose work has also been published in Lithuanian (Celms, 2014, 2016).

It must also be pointed out that there was a second approach to ornament research in Latvia which focused on the technical and material aspects of ornaments and their creation, it was used by Arvīds Dzērvītis, Jānis Niedre and Rihards Zariņš. Unfortunately, they often overlooked the nomenclature of the ornaments they recorded. Evidence gathered in later ethnographic expeditions shows that the women who created ornamented textiles often had no notion of how those ornaments were named (Kraukle, 2020), but it remains unclear if there were no names at all or if these names had been lost over time because they were not recorded.

Even though at the beginning of the 20th century Lithuanians were just as concerned about preserving the national identity as Latvians (Lietuvių meno kūrėjų draugija, 1920, p. 2), it is important to note that there did not exist any

analogue of *dievturi* in Lithuania – a group that would focus on ornament specifically and invent new terminology. Lithuanian researchers were less concerned with semiotics and turned to ornament nomenclature instead. In an article written for the newspaper *Viltis*, Basanavičius describes the folk art displays at the 4th Lithuanian Art Exhibition and quotes the display descriptions mentioning about 50 various denominations of Lithuanian ornament. Unfortunately, there are no visual samples of these ornaments which characterizes the problem in Lithuanian research in general – there are many mentions of ornament denominations, but usually they are analysed separately from their visual form (Tumėnas, 2014, p. 385). Such approach might help in developing typology but hinders analysis of ornament evolution and semiotics as well as comparative analysis of ornaments of other nations.

It must also be pointed out that the analysed objects in both countries differ. In Latvia, ornament research mostly focuses on knitwear (mittens and socks) and woven textiles. A lot of attention has also been paid to archaeological materials of the 13th century and before. Lithuanian ornament studies review ornamented textiles as well, but with focus on woven textiles specifically – sashes, aprons, blankets, and etc.; knitwear is not mentioned as often. Another field of interest is woodcarving, mostly household items and crosses; Latvian sources mention this type of folk art very rarely. One more very interesting subject is the ornamentation of decorated Lithuanian Easter eggs – *margučiai* – but since none of the reviewed mentions of *margučiai* ornament denominations included any visual examples, none have been included in the corpus of samples of this study. Also, archaeological materials are not referenced as often as in Latvian research.

Conclusions of the Previous Studies

With Latvian researchers focusing on the technical and mythological aspects of ornament, the first one to provide an early typology of ornament nomenclature was Basanavičius. He classified ornament denominations into **geometric**, **plant**, and **animal** categories and concluded that the ornament nomenclature used in folk art is remarkably diverse (Basanavičius, 1910). Later Galaunė expanded this classification by adding **twisted** and **celestial body**

ornaments, but Balčikonis differentiated geometric ornaments into **abstract** and **symbolic** (Savoniakaitė, 1998, p. 46). Already in 1930 Galaunė pointed out that the ornaments are often copied from imported pattern books; therefore, it must be evaluated whether certain ornaments can be considered as a part of the local custom (Galaunė, 1930, p. 271). He also pondered about the origin of denominations of ornaments having significant discrepancy with their visual form (Galaunė, 1930, p. 271) – a similar question could be asked about Latvian denominations as well. Tumėnas has tried to look for answers in semiotics of Lithuanian ornament in sashes and comparing Lithuanian, Latvian, Russian and Belarusian ornaments, and their nomenclature. Taking into account the visual form of the ornament, he organized all the nomenclature into groups according to visual similarities; there were plant, animal, artefact/celestial bodies, and geometric denominations. He concluded that various denominations in the same group also belonged to the same semiotic category, which points toward their oldness and similar worldview of the Baltic and Slavic tribes (Tumėnas, 2014, p. 390–398). Since Latvian studies mostly focus on mythology or technicality of the ornament, there are no notable conclusions about its nomenclature outside the mythological approach.

General Characteristics of the Samples

Such a criterion as having both a name and a visual representation was crucial for ornament samples to be included in this study. Unless both parts are present, it is impossible to determine cases where the same name is used to denominate different visual forms. General and common geometrical terms such as triangles, circles, squares etc. are not considered ornament nomenclature within this study. The authenticity of nomenclature cannot be treated as a criterion as it is impossible to determine when authors use the local common nomenclature and when their own individual terminology.

The main aspect in comparing ornaments is their visual form. Colour, although traditionally meaningful in folklore, was not treated as a dividing aspect. In ethnographic materials colour may be a defining feature of the region and social group but does not affect the nomenclature of ornaments. This is confirmed by the samples of this study where ornaments of various colours

carry the same denomination, and by the fact that many researchers tend to ignore the colour altogether using black and white images of the ornaments. The names of ornaments are given in their original form. Some have been recorded in dialects and some may display errors as many of the Lithuanian names used in this study have been recorded by Latvian researchers.

The main sources of this study were two periodicals that included articles on ethnography, archaeology, and culture. *Latvijas Saule* ("Latvian Sun"; published from 1923–1931 by Eduards Paegle) consists of 55 issues which yielded the most samples – 91 – including both Latvian and Lithuanian nomenclature. Its analogue in Lithuania was *Gimtasai kraštas* ("Native land", published from 1934–1943 by *Šiaulių kraštotyros draugija* ("Local lore society of Šiauliai") and Šiauliai *Aušros* museum) which seems to further illustrate the Latvians' obsession with ornament studies – none of the 17 published issues yielded any samples for this research. Additional sources include *Lietuvių liaudies menas* ("Lithuanian folk art", Galaunė, 1930), *Rucavas krekliai* ("Shirts of Rucava", Elksnīte, 1933) and *Latvju raksti* (Latvian ornament, Zariņš, 1924–1931).

Even though embroidery, knitting, weaving and other handicraft books of traditional folk ornaments were popular at this time, none of them seemed to include any nomenclature of the ornaments depicted, so they were not useful for the purpose of this research.

An Overview of the Samples

Within the study, a total of 172 ornament samples were collected: 130 – Latvian and 42 – Lithuanian. The most common references are those of various flowers, especially roses (7 samples), suns (9 samples), and stars (7 samples). The samples include less swastikas than expected, although swastikas were often mentioned in articles that lacked visual references. There were also no mentions of *lietuvēna krusts*, ("cross of lietuvēns" – a pentagram that was commonly used to deflect *lietuvēns* (*slogutis* in Lithuanian) – a harmful spirit that torments people and cattle at night. The reason can be found within the usage of this ornament – it was drawn on doors, walls, even bodies (Šmits, 1940, No. 17499) for temporary protection and never used in

folk art. Another popular Latvian denomination missing in the samples is *auseklis*. First mentioned at the end of the 19th century (Ūdre, 2023), it is attributed to an eight-pointed star shape. Shapes like this carried other names such as *saules* (“suns”), *zvaigznes* (“stars”) even *kļavas lapas* (“maple leaves”) and *ragainās spurdzes* (“the horned flowers”).

It was also found that 33 Latvian ornament samples were attributed to mittens, but it is possible that there were more among them. This is important to note because mitten patterns tended to carry specific nomenclature – “blanket patterns did not have any specific names, but mitten patterns had” (Onzule, cited in Kraukle, 2020, p. 37). Most mitten pattern nomenclature found in this study was constructed using the ending *-aiņi* (*puķaiņi*, *rakstaiņi*, *spieķaiņi*, and etc.).

Typology of Samples

Format of Denomination

To understand the main tendencies of ornament descriptions, the recorded nomenclature was first organized by the format of denomination dividing it into 3 groups: **individual denominations** – referring to a single separate graphic element; **cluster denominations** – referring to a cluster of elements forming a complex single shape; **pattern denominations** – referring to a complex combination of overlapping and blending elements (Fig. 1).

Figure 1

Examples of Nomenclature Types by the Format of Denomination

1. individual denominations



1.

2.

2. cluster denominations



3.

4.

3. pattern denominations



5.

6.

1. *Ragainā spurdze* (“the horned flower” – LV)
2. *Riestiniai* (“whirls” – LT)
3. *Četrlapu āboliņš* (“four-leaf clover” – LV)
4. *Brangos žoles žiedas* (“blossom of a precious herb” – LT)
5. *Atslēgaiņi* (“pattern of keys” – LV)
6. *Žvaiždutes* (“stars” – LT)

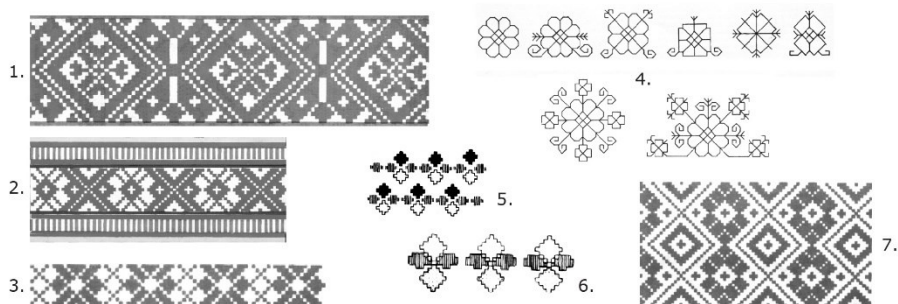
The last group turned out to be largest – there were 95 pattern nomenclature samples (55.2% of total), leaving 40 individual denominations (23.3%) and 37 cluster denominations (21.5%). Even though the borders between the groups are blurred, there are far more denominations that refer to a group of elements (76.7%) rather than a single element – this could signify a tendency to focus on ornament as a composition and not as collection of individual signs.

Visual Form Types

Samples were also organized in 28 different groups each consisting of visually similar ornaments. During the organizing process the denominations of ornaments were not visible so that they would not influence the perception of the shapes. After revealing the denominations of each group, they turned out to be very diverse – e.g., ornaments resembling rose or flower-like shapes would be named after various plants and even celestial bodies (Figure 2).

Figure 2

Group No. 26 – 4-Parted Roses with Diagonal Division



1. *Saulītes* ("suns" – LV)
2. *Brangios vaistažolēs žiedas* ("blossom of a precious herb" – LT)
3. *Žibuoklēs* ("anemones" – LT)
4. *Astoņlapainās rozītes, saulītes* ("eight-leaf roses, suns" – LV)
5. *Āboliņš ar mītim* ("clover with a cross" – LV)
6. *Četrlapu āboliņš* ("four-leaf clover" – LV)
7. *Rozēs žiedas* ("rose blossom" – LT)

Summarizing the denomination principles, it can be said that nomenclature mostly consists of either geometric or technical descriptions,

such as crosses (*krustiņi*), zigzag (*līklocis, kriptutē*), whirls (*riestīnīai*), etc. or figurative descriptions as *saulītes* ("suns") or *rožes žiedas* ("rose blossoms") (Fig. 2). It is impossible to determine whether a deliberate stylization of a symbolic object has taken place or whether the denomination simply follows the form of the ornament. Some denominations mention more recent realia, such as carnations (*gvazdikai*), tulips (*tulpēs*), mirrors (*spoguļu raksts*) or ducats (*dukātu raksts*); therefore, they could be more recent.

Figurative denominations can be assembled in the same categories stated by Tumėnas (2014) – plant motifs, animal motifs, artefacts, and celestial bodies. But further categorization is hindered by the fact that very often the same shape is denominated by nomenclature belonging in various categories. Some categories in both languages are more uniform than others, e.g., most denominations in plant motif groups mostly named realia that are associated with plants and flowers. Very uniform groups are also "roosters and horses" and "snakes".

Maria Gimbutas has described plant ornaments as the manifestation of the beauty and force of life (Gimbutas, 1958, p. 48) and this type of ornament is very popular in Latvian and Lithuanian folk-art as can also be seen in the many plant motif variations in this study.

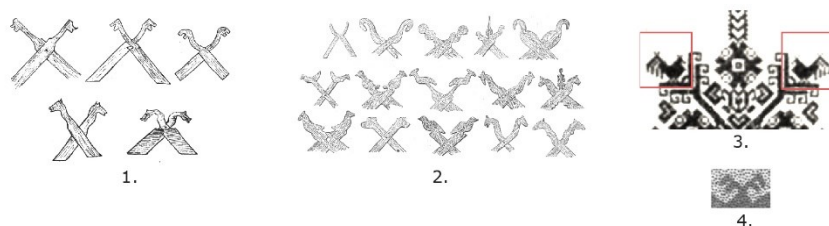
There is also nomenclature that includes the names of various animals or their parts. A very common part used is "eyes" which is present in two samples *rubeņactiņas* ("grouse-eyes") and *cūkactiņas* ("pig-eyes"), other kinds of eyes were also mentioned in later Lithuanian literature (Tumėnas, 2014, p. 393). Animals are also indicated in the denominations as *kaķa pēdiņa* ("cat's foot") and *ožinkoja* ("goat's foot"), but neither of these are stable as these visual forms are also denominated by names of other categories. Tumėnas notes that parts of animals – feet, nails, horns, etc. – are often named in ornament nomenclature and could possibly be linked to the sacrificial traditions where these parts of animals were commonly devoted to gods (2014, pp. 393–398), but a viable explanation is that these specific parts are mentioned just because of visual resemblance. *Kaķa pēdiņa* is a complex denomination. It is encountered in many variations in Latvia and also Lithuania (*katpédélè*). The same ornament is often called *dimka* in Latvia and Lithuania (Kraukle, 2020; Savoniakaite, 1998) which also refers to the technique of weaving this

ornament. Other versions include stars and roses which seem to be based on visual resemblance. Although Tumėnas places *katpédélė* in the animal motif group, it could also be considered a plant motif as *kaķpēdiņa/katpédélė* is a common plant in Latvia and Lithuania (Kļaviņš, 2023).

Frequent and semantically stable animals in nomenclature are roosters, horses and snakes, the grass-snake (*Natrix natrix*) specifically. It is also worth noting that a rooftop ornament which is used in both Latvia and Lithuania to ensure the prosperity of the house is called *gaiļi* or *zirdziņi* in Latvian and *gaidukai* or *arkliukai* in Lithuanian ("roosters", "horses") (Fig. 3).

Figure 3

Group No. 27 – Roosters and Horses



1. *Gaiļi, zirdziņi* ("roosters, horses" – LV)
2. *Arkliukai, gaidukai* "horses, roosters" – LT)
3. *Gaiļi* ("roosters" – LV)
4. *Gaiļi* ("roosters" – LV)

In Latvian and Lithuanian folklore, rooster is an ancient symbol of the sun and a bringer of light, it can also chase away the devil and evil spirits with its crow. (Šmits, 1918, p. 132; Puzinas, 1955, p. 458). Gimbutas remarks that birds represent the sphere of sky and in folk art are often depicted among celestial bodies (Gimbutas, 1958, p. 37).

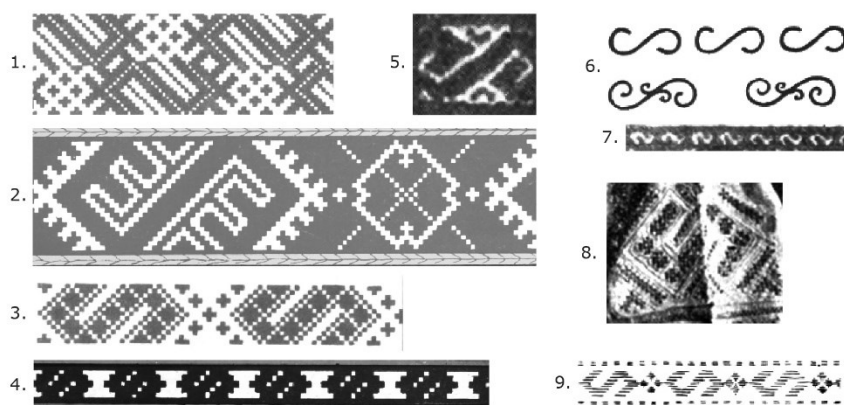
In folk art horses are also often accompanied by circular solar symbols. Horse as a carrier of the sun has been present in European art since the bronze age (Zemītis, 2004, p. 49). Another ornament – *atslēgaiņi* (Figure 1) – is also linked to horses and the sun. In the mythological approach this ornament is interpreted as two horses pulling the cart of sun; it is also referred to as the sign of *Ūsiņš* – a deity of light and horses (Celms, 2007, p. 162).

Within this study this motif was not found among Lithuanian samples.

Even though celestial bodies do not form a semiotically stable group as often *saulītes/saulutēs* ("suns"), *zvaigznītes/žvaigždutēs* ("stars"), and *rozītes/roželēs* ("roses") are used interchangeably, it is worth pointing out how popular these motifs are in both Latvian and Lithuanian ornaments and their nomenclature. These motifs have been popular ever since their appearance in the Baltic region during the Neolithic period (Zemītis, 2004, p. 35, p. 48).

Figure 4

Group No. 28 – Snakes



1. Ožinkoja ("Goat's foot" – LT)
2. Ķirmāles raksts ("Pattern of snake" – LV)
3. Litaka (lydeka) ("Pike (fish)" – LT)
4. Ķirmāles, zalkši ("snakes" – LV)
5. Ķirmāle ("snake" – LV)
6. Riestiniai ("whirls" – LV)
7. Ķirmāļši ("snakes" – LV)
8. Ķirmāle ("snake" – LV)
9. Līkumiņi ("curves" – LV)

Zalktis ("grass-snake" in Latvian) is a very popular ornament denomination in Latvia but within the study more samples were found of its dialect forms – *ķirmāle*, *ķirmāle*, *ķirmālītis* (Fig. 4). This denomination has been used near Rucava which is also where most of this type of ornaments were recorded. The Lithuanian *žaltys* ("grass-snake") does not appear among the samples, but Basanavičius recorded *kirminėliai* in Lithuania, although without visual representation (Basanavičius, 1910). In Aukshtaitian dialect, *kirmialė* means "snake" and *kirminas* in Žemaitian refers to "snake, grass-snake".

The symbolic status of the grass-snake and its connection to traditional ornament can be confirmed in archaeological findings. Across her expeditions in Europe Gimbutas found multiple snake-goddess figurines ornamented with zigzag and meander ornaments. While in Latvia the grass-snake ornament is always S-shaped as shown in the samples (Fig. 4); in Lithuania it is often associated with zigzags and waves (Galaunė, 1930, p. 24, Gimbutas, 1958) and the author, while conversing with Lithuanians, has also found that the denomination *žaltys* mostly evokes associations with wavy lines and zigzags instead of S-shaped forms.

Brastiņš considered the S-shaped grass-snake ornament to be a type of swastika – an abbreviated swastika (*aplauzts ugunskrusts*), because it appears as two branches of the swastika with the rest of the ornament cut off; this idea was later upheld by other Latvian researchers as well. But this sort of interpretation is not very productive because following this logic we could also argue that all rhombi are triangles, etc. (Karlson, 1994, p. 78). Even though swastikas are not used in Lithuania to describe S-shaped forms, Tumėnas notes that Belarusians use a similar ornament in woven belts and call it *огнивик* (“flame”), and Russians have a similar ornament called *огнивцы* (“sparks”) (Tumėnas, 2002, pp. 208–209). It could be possible that Brastiņš was influenced by the work of Russian and Belarusian researchers, but none were listed among his sources.

This link between snakes and swastikas can also be confirmed by many iron-age findings of swastika-shaped brooches with crawling snake shapes at all four ends. These brooches have been found in both Latvia and Lithuania, in the territory previously inhabited by Curonians (Zemītis, 2004, p. 59). It is important to note that the town Rucava, which has been dubbed the birthplace of *ķirmāle* (Tumėnas, 2002, p. 208), is also located in this region near the border of Lithuania.

The Comparison of Latvian and Lithuanian Nomenclature

The count of Latvian samples by far exceeds the count of Lithuanian samples in this study; therefore, it is difficult to make general conclusions, but there are tendencies which appear in both Latvian and Lithuanian denominating

traditions – use of diminutives *lapainīši*, *cūkactiņa*, *līkumiņi*, *eglutē*, *kriputē*, *grebliukai*; tiny elements are compared to eyes, and *raksts/raštas* is commonly used to denominate patterns such as *tulpinis raštas*, *saulīšu raksts*.

The Lithuanian plant motif nomenclature is more detailed and diverse – it mentions daisies (*brolelių žiedai*), fir tree (*eglutė*), carnations (*gvazdikai*), dahlias (*jurginai*), cat's-foot (*katpėdėlė*), hollyhocks (*radastos*), rose (*rožė*), lily (*lelija*), and tulip (*tulpė*). There are relatively few samples that mention general parts of plants such as *brangios vaistažolės žiedas* (“blossom of a precious herb”).

Latvian plant motif nomenclature is more general and does not mention specific plants – *lapaiņi*, *lapainīši*, *lapainītes*, *puķaiņi*, *rožaiņi*, *zaraiņi*; these samples also display that it is common to construct the denominations with the suffix and ending *-aiņi*, which refers to belonging to a specific group, possessing specific traits, e.g., *lapaiņi* (*lapas* – “leaves”) describe a pattern that looks like leaves. These names are also used in plural, because they tend to be attributed to knitted mittens; so this is how you would describe a pair. A very popular denomination in both Latvian and Lithuanian is *eglīte/eglutė* (“fir tree”) for fir-like ornaments which can be found in the Baltic region since the Mesolithic period (Zemītis, 2004, p. 34).

Roosters, horses, and grass-snakes are also used across both languages as previously stated. It is interesting to note that the general term for grass-snake – *zalktis/žaltys* – did not appear as often as its dialect variations – *ķirmāle* in Latvian and *kirminėlis* in Lithuanian. While these names denominate the same type of ornaments, the same cannot be said about the pattern of *cirvaiņi* (Ex 16) and *kirvukai* (Ex 48) which both mean “axes”, but the design of both patterns differs considerably. It is also important to note that *ugunskrusts* (“firecross”) which is a very popular denomination in Latvia for swastika-type ornaments was not encountered in any of the sources in Lithuanian, but for a more definitive conclusion further research should be conducted.

Conclusions

Most of ornament nomenclature used in Latvia nowadays was established in 1920s and 1930s, whereas the materials of the first half of the 20th century show a much wider array of nomenclature that is no longer commonly used.

Ornament nomenclature used in Latvia is not common in Lithuania; denominations mentioning deities such as *Marios vandenys* ("Waters of Māra"), *Laimos šluota* ("Broom of Laima"), and *Dievas* ("Dievs") only appeared in Lithuania recently and have been borrowed from the ornament interpretations of *dievturi*.

There appears to be a connection between the denomination and the technique in which the ornament was executed. In Latvia, denominations for mitten ornaments tend to have a specific form (-aiņi), and denominations for woven ornaments also tend to be used for describing the weaving method itself.

The ornament of the grass-snake is often encountered in nomenclature in its dialect form *ķirmāle*, which is similar to the Lithuanian dialect forms – *kirmėlė* in Aukštaitija and *kirminas* in Žemaitija, so it is possible that it shares a common origin.

The "firecross", which is one of the most popular ornament denominations in Latvia, was not discovered in any Lithuanian samples.

Even though geometric and plant denominations dominate in both Latvian and Lithuanian nomenclature, they are often not stable – denominations of various categories can be attributed to the same shape. Latvian plant denominations tend to be more general, while Lithuanian ones mention specific plants.

Many ornament denominations containing animal names are present in both languages and are assigned to the same type of ornaments. These animals are horses, roosters, and snakes, and they have similar semiotics in both cultures that reaches into the Neolithic solar cult and the cult of fertility, which could be even more ancient.

The selection of Lithuanian ornament samples proved to be more difficult than expected, as their presentation in publications differs from that in

Latvian ornament studies. While Latvians focus on dividing the patterns into single elements and assigning nomenclature and meaning to them, Lithuanians seem to be viewing ornament as a whole set, a composition that blends single elements together in a unified image embodying the aesthetics and worldview of the folk customs – this is best illustrated by the traditional ornamentation of wooden crosses. Lithuanian ornament nomenclature is often viewed separately and examined from a linguistic perspective.

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TRADICIONĀLO ORNAMENTU NOMENKLATŪRA LATVIEŠU UN LIETUVIEŠU VALODĀ

Kopsavilkums. Tradicionālais un dažādus Latvijas un Lietuvas etnogrāfiskos reģionus raksturojošais ornaments ir nozīmīga baltu kultūras sastāvdaļa. Jau kopš 19. gs. tas atradies pētnieku intereses lokā, kas īpašu uzmanību pievērsuši ornamenta tehniskajiem aspektiem un simbolikai (Brastiņš 1923, Galaunė 1930, Celms 2007), bet līdz šim maz apskatīta ornamentu empīriskā terminoloģija. Nosaukums ir ornamenta neatņemama sastāvdaļa, tas nereti satur semantisku informāciju, kas ļauj atklāt ornamenta pielietojumu un nozīmi. Latvijā tradicionālā ornamenta mūsdienu nosaukšanas tradīcijas veidojušās E. Brastiņa un dievturu ietekmē, viņš individualizētiem grafiskajiem elementiem piešķīra baltu mitoloģisko tēlu nosaukumus, arī pašus ornamentus saistot ar minēto dievību izpaušmēm. Lai gan Latvijā šie nosaukumi ir ļoti plaši izplatīti, Lietuvā, kur sastopami ļoti līdzīgi ornamentu, tie tiek apzīmēti ar citiem nosaukumiem un arī skaidroti citādi. Pētījumā apkopoti un analizēti 20. gs. pirmajā pusē publicētie etnogrāfisko ornamentu nosaukumi Latvijā un Lietuvā. Tiek salīdzinātas ornamentu nosaukšanas tradīcijas, kā arī izceltas galvenās nosaukumu kopīgās iezīmes un atšķirības. Tiek arī apskatīta ornamentu un to nosaukumu pētīšanas tradīcija Latvijā un Lietuvā, kurā konstatētas nozīmīgas atšķirības – kamēr Latvijā dominē ornamentu semiotikas pētniecība, Lietuvā vairāk uzmanības pievērsts to nosaukumiem, tomēr abās zemēs ornamentu nosaukums un tā vizuālā forma visbiežāk skatīta šķirti, kas apgrūtina ornamentu attīstības pētniecību un tipoloģiju. Rakstā secināts, ka 20. gs. sākumā pirms dievturu ietekmes paplašināšanās sastopamais ornamentu nosaukumu klāsts Latvijā ir bijis daudz bagātīgāks. Analizējot nosaukumu formas un veidus, secināts, ka gan latviešiem, gan lietuviešiem ir raksturīgi ornamentu uztvert kā grafisku elementu kompozīciju, nevis kā atsevišķus elementus. Latviešu un lietuviešu empīriskajā terminoloģijā dominē ģeometriskie, augu, dzīvnieku un debess spīdekļu nosaukumi, sastopami arī nosaukumi, kas saistīti ar baltu folklorā atrodamiem simboliem.

Atslēgas vārdi: etnogrāfiskais baltu ornaments; fenomenoloģija; latvju zīmes; ornamentu tipoloģija; salīdzinošā pētniecība; semiotika.

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TRADICINIŲ ORNAMENTŲ NOMENKLATŪRA LATVIŲ IR LIETUVIŲ KALBOMIS

Anotacija. Latvijos ir Lietuvos etnografiniams regionams būdingi tradiciniai ornamentai yra esminė tradicinės baltų kultūros dalis. Nuo XIX a. mokslininkai tyrinėjo jų techninius aspektus ir semiotiką (Brastiņš, 1923; Dzērvīts, 1925; Celms, 2007), tačiau empirinei terminologijai skirta mažai dėmesio. Pavadinimas – neatsiejama ženklo dalis, dažnai sukaupęs semantinę informaciją, padedančią atskleisti jo vartojimą ir reikšmę. Latvijoje tradicinių ženklų pavadinimams įtakos turėjo E. Brastiņš ir jo įkurto „Dievturių“ judėjimo nariai („Dievs saugotojai“), kurie baltų mitologinių dievybių vardus priskyre ornamentams, susieję juos su vardynuose minimomis dievybės apraiškomis. Šie įvardijimai labai populiarūs Latvijoje, o Lietuvoje labai panašūs ornamentai vadinami ir interpretuojami skirtingai. Šio tyrimo tikslas – surinkti ir išanalizuoti XX a. pirmojoje pusėje Latvijoje ir Lietuvoje publikuotas baltiškų ornamentų nomenklaturas. Lyginamos abiejų šalių ornamentų įvardijimo tradicijos, išryškinamos pagrindinės paralelės ir skirtumai. Taip pat apžvelgiami ankstesni ornamentų tyrimai Latvijoje ir Lietuvoje; beje, juose pastebima reikšmingų skirtumų: Latvijoje dominuoja semiotiniai tyrimai, Lietuvoje daugiau dėmesio skiriama nomenklaturai, nors abiejose šalyse nomenklatura dažnai buvo vertinama atskirai nuo vizualinės formos, o tai apsunkina ornamento raidos ir tipologijos tyrimus. Nustatyta, kad XX a. pradžioje ornamentų nomenklaturų spektras Latvijoje buvo įvairesnis nei dabar, kad latviams ir lietuviams įprasta ornamentą vertinti kaip raštą, o ne atskirus grafinius elementus, kad abiejų kalbų nomenklatūroje dominuoja geometriniai, augalų, gyvūnų, artefaktų ir dangaus kūnų pavadinimai. Baltų kultūroje pasitaikančių simbolių yra ir ornamentų nomenklatūroje.

Pagrindinės sąvokos: lyginamieji tyrimai; etnografinis baltų ornamentas; latvių ženklai; ornamentų tipologija; fenomenologija; semiotika.

ISSUES IN TRANSLATION

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LIP SYNCHRONY OF BILABIAL CONSONANTS IN THE LITHUANIAN DUBBED LIVE-ACTION FILM *A DOG'S WAY HOME*

Annotation. This article explores the intricate nature of lip synchrony in dubbing as an audiovisual translation mode, highlighting its significance beyond aesthetic considerations. Often overlooked during the translation process for dubbing, the mismatch between auditory and visual signals caused by unsynchronized lip movements can have a negative impact on speech perception. Moreover, with the constant rise of audiovisual content, achieving satisfactory lip synchrony remains a crucial challenge that demands attention. Although scholars such as Fodor (1976) and Chaume (2012) have recognized the importance of bilabial consonants in maintaining lip synchrony, there is a notable research gap specifically focusing on this aspect within the Lithuanian dubbed industry. To address this gap, this study investigates the lip synchrony of bilabial consonants in the Lithuanian dubbed version of the live-action film *A Dog's Way Home* (2019). By employing a comparative research approach that integrates qualitative and quantitative analyses, the study draws on theoretical perspectives presented by McGurk and MacDonald (1976), Fodor (1976), Chaume (2004, 2012), and Koverienė (2015). The analysis of the cinematographic shots reveals that only a small percentage (19%) of the bilabial phonemes in the source language utterances were visually prominent instances, and consequently chosen for detailed examination of lip synchrony. This finding suggests that strict adherence to lip synchrony may not be crucial in numerous instances, allowing translators to have greater flexibility in their approach. The target language utterances demonstrate a relatively high percentage (approximately 76%) of synchronous cases for bilabials, particularly in proper names and international words. However, the research also reveals additional 94 instances of bilabials in the target language that were not found in the source language utterances, leading to dischronemes. Therefore, audiovisual translators are urged to consider not only how to maintain the lip synchrony of bilabial consonants in the target language, but also how to avoid the emergence of new bilabials.

Keywords: audiovisual translation; bilabial consonants; dischroneme; dubbing; lip synchrony; visemes.

Introduction

The maintenance of lip synchrony (LS) holds significant importance across diverse areas, including speech recognition technology, computer facial animation, and language teaching. However, considering the rising influence of audiovisual (AV) culture on a global scale, the need to achieve LS in

the translation of television series, live-action or animated feature films becomes increasingly apparent.

The issue of poor LS becomes particularly noticeable in dubbing, where the original speech is replaced with a new track to create the illusion that the AV content was initially produced in the viewer's native language. Despite the substantial role of AV culture in the lives of many individuals, the impact of unsynchronized lip movements and the translated version is often overlooked. However, this discrepancy not only distorts the perception of speech sounds but also impedes speech comprehension and gives rise to cognitive dissonance among viewers (Massaro, Cohen & Smeele, 1996; Romanski & Hwang, 2012). Therefore, to avoid negative consequences and achieve a natural viewing experience in dubbing, it is significant to ensure satisfactory LS, especially in close-up and extreme close-up shots that demand particular attention to detail (Chaume, 2012, 68).

Although LS has been a subject of research for many scholars in AV translation, such as Fodor (1976), Whitman-Linsen (1992) or Chaume (2004, 2012), the study of LS in the Lithuanian context remains limited. Despite having a 19-year history of dubbing in independent Lithuania since the release of the first Lithuanian dubbed animated feature film, *Shrek 2*, in 2004, comprehensive research on this topic is lacking. Analysing LS involves a complex examination of the complete sound inventories in both the source language (SL) and the target language (TL), which poses a challenge. To address this, the primary focus of this study is to investigate the LS of bilabial consonants, as they are the most visually prominent phonemes. The choice of this research object is also motivated by the absence of systematic studies in the field, particularly in relation to consonant phonemes.

The existing research on LS in Lithuanian-dubbed content has mainly focused on two studies. The first one is Koverienė's dissertation titled *Dubbing as an Audiovisual Translation Mode: English and Lithuanian Phonemic Inventories in the Context of Visual Phonetics* (2015). However, this study examines the phonemic inventories of the Lithuanian and English languages, and how they are grouped into visemes, rather than specifically analysing lip synchrony of an AV product. The second study, *Lip Synchrony of Rounded and Protruded Vowels and Diphthongs in the Lithuanian-Dubbed Animated Film*

Cloudy with a Chance of Meatballs 2 (Koverienė & Ćeidaitė, 2020), focuses only on LS related to protruded vowels and diphthongs. These studies provide valuable insights but do not cover LS of visually prominent consonants. Therefore, this research aims to fill in this gap by focusing specifically on the LS of bilabial consonants, which play a crucial role in maintaining visual coherence in dubbed content.

The empirical analysis of the present research focuses on the English and Lithuanian dubbed versions of the live-action film *A Dog's Way Home* (2019, directed by Charles Martin Smith). The methodological framework employed in this study encompasses both qualitative and quantitative research approaches, drawing on the theoretical insights provided by McGurk and MacDonald (1976), Fodor (1976), Chaume (2004, 2012), and Koverienė (2015).

Rational Behind: Auditory-Visual Phenomenon

Lip synchrony and lip reading are interconnected as they both contribute to effective communication and understanding of spoken language. The early studies of speech perception consider the role of a visual component or lip-reading as an alternative or complementary mode to hearing (Pelson & Prather, 1974; Dodd, 1977). However, even though visible information of sound articulation often referred to as lip-reading or speechreading is the most useful for the hard of hearing, interlocutors in a noisy environment as well as identification of a foreign accent or complicated speech (Rosenblum, Yakel & Green, 2000, 1), it affects perception even when communication conditions are excellent (Irwin, Avery, Brancazio, Turcios, Ryherd & Landi, 2018, 40).

This "previously unrecognised influence of vision upon speech" was first proved in one of the most critical studies of speech perception called the *McGurk effect* (McGurk & MacDonald, 1976, 746). In this study, McGurk and MacDonald underlined a close relationship between visual and audio signals by demonstrating that lip-reading information is automatically integrated into speech perception, should the context of the conversation be ideal. The McGurk effect has been demonstrated in many languages for people of all ages. However, this illusion persists even if the experiment participants

are informed about the results in advance (McGurk & MacDonald, 1976). Overall, AV speech perception is the result of integrating lip-reading and auditory information.

Extensive research in the scientific literature only confirms the importance of audio and visual information in speech perception, which is conditioned by the movements of speech production organs (Dodd & Campbell, 1987; Massaro & Simpson, 1987). To explain this illusion, Summerfield (1987) claimed that visual and acoustic information complement each other and are called VPAM (Visual: Place; Auditory: Manner). Visual information improves the perception of consonants by 57%, vowels by 30%, monosyllabic words by 39%, and short expressions by 17% (O'Neill, 1954). Also, lip-reading is more effective when not only the lips but also the entire face of the interlocutor together with important facial expressions are visible. Teeth, tongue, and oral cavity can also become an essential clue in the process of reading from the lips (Williams, Rutledge, Katsaggelos & Garstecki, 1998).

Comparing syllable structural parts (onset, nucleus, coda), the onset of a syllable is generally easier to identify than the coda, particularly in short monosyllabic words. This is because the onset provides more information about the identity of the syllable and is more perceptually salient, with more acoustic energy and a stronger neural response. However, in longer utterances, other factors such as context and lexical stress may also play a role in determining the salience and identification of onset and coda (Greenberg, Carvey, Hitchcock, & Chang, 1997; Cutler, 2012). Finally, shorter stimuli are better perceived because they require less mental effort to process and remember (Miller, 1956; Hughes, Vachon & Jones, 2005).

The scientific literature supports the critical role of LS in AV translation. Beyond its role in enhancing naturalness and entertainment value, LS plays a crucial impact in ensuring accurate speech perception. By maintaining visual coherence between lip movements and spoken language, LS minimizes confusion and facilitates effective communication. The integration of auditory and visual information significantly contributes to accurate speech perception. Therefore, the importance of LS in AVT extends beyond aesthetic considerations, emphasizing its fundamental role in facilitating clear and meaningful communication.

Lip Synchrony in Dubbing

Dubbing is an interlinguistic AVT mode that entails substituting the original language soundtrack with a translated soundtrack (Matkivska, 2014, 39–40). It guarantees the translator greater flexibility in rendering the original text. However, it also imposes limitations to ensure synchronization between the audio and visual elements. This necessitates substantial modifications to the translated text (Martinez, 2004, p. 5).

Synchresis or a close relation between auditory and visual phenomena occurring simultaneously, does not always presuppose perfect synchrony (Chion, 1994, p. 5–6). It leads to the emergence of various levels and typologies of synchronisation (Fodor, 1976; Whitman-Linsen, 1992; Chaume, 2004; 2012). In his book *Film Dubbing: Phonetic, Semiotic, Esthetic and Psychological Aspects* (1976), Fodor introduced three key types of synchrony: phonetic synchrony, which focuses on matching the lip movements of the characters on screen; character synchrony, which involves aligning the dubbing actor's voice in terms of timbre, tempo, and power with the visual characteristics of the speaking character; and content synchrony, which aims to transfer the main idea of the source text (ST) into the target text (TT) while maintaining its original meaning (Fodor, 1976, p. 10). The achievement of *satisfactory synchrony* is crucial to ensure the attractiveness and appeal of the dubbed AV product to the target audience.

Instances of mismatch between the mouth movements of a character on screen and the corresponding sound result in cases of *dischrony* (Harris, 1996, p. 75). The term *synchroneme* is employed to denote a single occurrence of synchrony, while *dischroneme* refers to a case of dischrony (Fodor, 1976, p. 10). Fodor describes the sporadic nature of these non-coincidences as *discontinuous dischrony*, whereas *continuous dischronies* are present throughout an entire film or program and are thus more easily perceptible to the audience (Fodor, 1976, p. 80).

The level of sensitivity to dischrony varies among individuals and is influenced by their memory type. Viewers with a visual-motor memory type are more likely to notice instances of lip dischrony compared to those with a dominant auditory memory type. Individuals whose motor memory primarily

relates to their limbs tend to be less sensitive (Fodor, 1976, p. 51). However, individuals whose memory is associated with speech tend to find dischroty more irritating. These individuals pay close attention to their way of speaking (Fodor, 1976, p. 50–51).

This research is based on Chaume's typology of synchronies, encompassing isochrony, kinesic synchrony, and lip synchrony. *Isochrony* denotes the synchronization of translation duration with characters' on-screen utterances (Whitman-Linsen, 1992, p. 28). *Kinesic synchrony* pertains to aligning the translation with the actors' body movements. In contrast, *lip synchrony* involves aligning the translation with the articulatory movements of on-screen characters, particularly noticeable in close-up and extreme close-up shots (Chaume, 2012, p. 68–69). Chaume stresses the importance of open vowels and bilabial consonants for dubbing, however, the scholar proposes (2004, p. 74) to substitute SL bilabial consonants (/p/, /b/, /m/) with not only TT bilabial but also labiodental consonants (/f/, /v/).

Chaume suggests a few techniques which could be employed to preserve LS in dubbing including repetition of identical or similar words in both the SL and TL utterances; changing the word order to align with similar or identical phonemes; substituting target words with synonyms, antonyms, hypernyms, hyponyms, or other stylistic resources while maintaining the original meaning; reducing or amplifying words, phrases, or sentences as needed; employing omission or addition of elements, even though they may be categorised as translation errors in written translations, is permissible in the context of dubbing (2012, p. 74–75). These techniques are applied with the primary aim of achieving phonetic equivalence and are commonly practised in professional dubbing.

Visemes and their Application in Dubbing

The process of speech production involves several organs, including the lips, teeth, tongue, jaw, velum, larynx, and lungs, but only a few of these are visible to the audience, such as the lips, teeth, jaw, and tongue. When considering consonants in dubbing, it is important to focus on phonemes whose internal structure is informative in terms of visual expression. Labial and



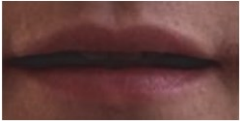
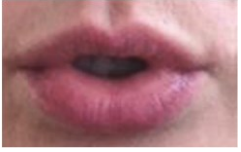
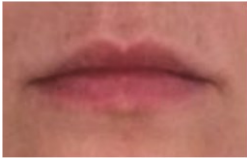
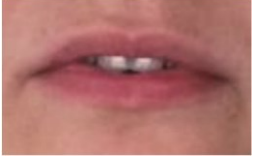
labiodental consonants are particularly prominent to visual cues based on their place of articulation. Bilabial consonants in English and Lithuanian (/p/, /b/, /m/, /pʲ/, /bʲ/, /mʲ/) are produced by pressing the lips together, while labiodental consonants (/f/, /v/, /fʲ/, /vʲ/) involve the lower lip touching the upper front teeth (Roach, 2009, p. 40; Pakerys, 2003, p. 73). The lips and teeth are particularly important since they are the most visually prominent organs during the articulation of the mentioned sounds.

An English consonant phoneme /w/ shares the same active organ of speech as bilabial and labiodental consonants, which is lips, thus it can also be regarded as a visually prominent sound. However, /w/ is at the same time a velar sonorant or labiovelar articulated with the rounded lips, and the raised back of the tongue. The visual expression of the sound /w/ corresponds to the position of the protruded lips, and even though articulating the consonant /w/ the lips open forward to a lesser degree, the visual expression of this sound is closer to the close back vowel phoneme /u:/ (Roach, 2009, p. 50). In Lithuanian, the consonant phoneme /w/ does not exist, but occurs as the allophone of a consonant phoneme /v/, for example, (was) [ˈbʊvʷo:] (Aprijaskytė-Valdšteinienė, 1960, 184). Due to its different articulation a labiovelar /w/ cannot be used interchangeably with bilabial or labiodental sounds in dubbing; therefore, this sound has not been included in research.

Phonemes encompass both vowels and consonants, serving as fundamental units in language that contribute to the meaning of words. When examining sounds, it is important to shift our focus from individual letters to phonemes (Roach, 2009, p. 2). Based on the assessment of sound production, it is possible to group phonemes into several categories to know which sounds can be used interchangeably in dubbing. *Visemes* consist of phonemes that share a similar lip appearance (Bear & Harvey, 2017, 1). While each phoneme belongs to a specific viseme category, multiple phonemes can be represented by a single viseme. The ability to effectively employ visemes can greatly enhance the dubbing process, enabling AV translators to identify and interchange similar sounds more efficiently.

Table 1

Visemes of English and Lithuanian phonemes (Koverienė, 2015, 17–18)

Viseme	Visual Features	Lithuanian phonemes	English phonemes
1.	 Considerable separation of jaws	[ä:], [â:] ₁ , [â:] ₂ , [æ:], [æ:] ₁	[ɑ:], [aɪ], [aʊ], [æ]
2.	 Neutrally opened mouth	[v], [s̃], [s̃], [t̃], [t̃], [d], [d̃], [d̃], [d̃z̃], [d̃z̃], [d̃z̃], [t̃], [t̃], [n], [ñ], [s̃], [s̃], [j], [j̃], [r], [r̃], [l̃], [l̃], [z̃], [z̃], [z̃], [x], [ç], [g], [j], [y], [j̃], [j̃], [k], [c], (allophones [ŋ] and [ŋʲ])	[ʌ], [ə], [θ], [ð], [tʃ], [dʒ], [l], [n], [s], [ʃ], [t], [z], [ɹ], [ʒ], [g], [h], [j], [k], [ŋ]
3.	 Spread lips	[i], [i:], [ẽ:], [ẽ:], [iẽ], [iẽ], [ε], [ε:]	[i], [eɪ], [ɪə], [e], [eə], [ɜ:]
4.	 Rounded and protruded lips	[u], [u:], [ôu], [ou], [ô:] ₁ , [ô:] ₂ , [õ:], [ẽ:], [ẽ:], [o:], [o:], [ô:] ₁ , [ô:] ₂	[ʊ], [u:], [ʊə], [əʊ], [v], [ɔ:], [ɔ:], [w], [oʊ]
5.	 Closed lips	[p], [p̃], [b], [b̃], [m], [m̃]	[p], [b], [m]
6.	 The lower lip touching the upper teeth	[f], [f̃], [v], [ṽ]	[f], [v]

As shown in Table 1, Lithuanian and English phonemes can be classified into six main categories based on their articulation, including the level of jaw separation, lip shape, and mouth features. The number of visemes applied in dubbing is comparatively limited in contrast to other fields like computer facial animation (Bozkurt, Erdem, Erzin, Erdem & Ozkan, 2007, p. 2). Nevertheless, this limited number is essential to ensure their application by AV translators in dubbing.

This research focuses on the analysis of the fifth viseme containing Lithuanian /p/, /pʲ/, /b/, /bʲ/, /m/, /mʲ/ and English /p/, /b/, /m/ bilabial consonants which are articulated with the closed lips. It is important to note that labiodental Lithuanian /f/, /fʲ/, /v/, /vʲ/ and English /f/, /v/ consonants fall into the sixth viseme characterised by the lower lip touching the upper teeth. The English labiovelar /w/ can be replaced by a number of Lithuanian phonemes as all of them are pronounced with rounded and protruded lips: /ʊ/, /u:/, /ʊʂ/, /ʊʂʌ/, /ʊʂʲ/, /ʊʂʲʌ/, /eʊʲ/, /eʊʲʌ/, /o:/, /ʊʂʲ/, /ʊʂʲʌ/ (Koverienė, 2015, p. 17–19).

It is crucial to examine the occurrence of sounds that are easily distinguishable not only at the onset and coda of words but also when adjacent to vowels. Bilabial and labiodental consonants are distinctive due to their manner of articulation, making them easier to differentiate from adjacent vowels, whereas consonants articulated further back in the oral cavity are less perceptible (Fodor, 1976, p. 34).

To achieve satisfactory synchronisation, it is possible to replace a phoneme of one viseme with a different one as long as it belongs to the same viseme. In this research, translation will be considered satisfactory if a phoneme is replaced with one belonging to the same viseme.

Analysis of Bilabial Sounds in the Live-Action Feature Film *A Dog's Way Home*

This empirical study focuses on analysing bilabial consonants assigned to the fifth viseme (Koverienė, 2015) in the live-action film *A Dog's Way Home* (2019). It emphasizes the significance of conducting a close analysis to identify specific episodes where translators must prioritize LS over semantic synchrony

and demonstrate high accuracy. To achieve this, close-up shots that capture the subject from the shoulders to the head were specifically chosen to limit the number of phonemes included in further LS research. Additionally, the identification of on-screen and off-screen episodes was crucial in detecting instances where LS should not be preserved. Consequently, this focused approach has resulted in a reduced frequency and distribution of bilabial consonants in the SL utterances.

Figure 1

Total Number of Bilabial Phonemes in the SL Utterances Vs Total Number of Bilabial Phonemes in the Close-Up Shots of the TL Utterances

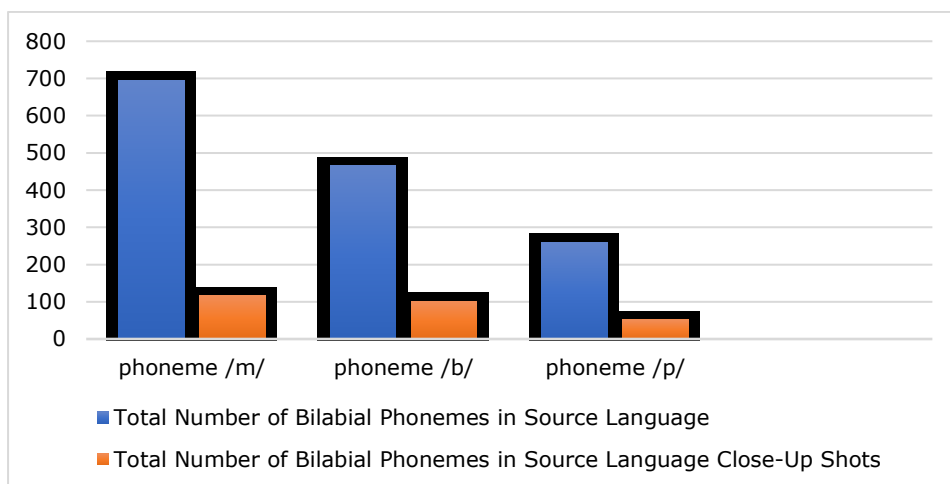


Figure 1 presents a comprehensive analysis of bilabial phonemes (/m/, /b/, /p/) in the SL utterances. The analysis involved a total of 1,419 identified phonemes¹, out of which 271 were selected for further examination of LS, based on careful consideration of on/off screen episodes and shot sizes.

Further examination of the data reveals that the phoneme /m/ appeared 695 times; however, only 117 instances (17% of occurrences) were visually prominent and considered for analysis. This phoneme was notably present in

¹ This research emphasizes the analysis of phonemes rather than graphemes. This is because the English orthography, or written representation, may not always perfectly align with the corresponding phonetic pronunciation as it is exemplified by instances such as /fəʊn/ for *phone* and /ˌrekəˈmend/ for *recommend*.

key phrases related to the leitmotif of *home* such as *go home* as well as in the context of possessive determiners like *my*. Similarly, the bilabial phoneme /b/ appeared 465 times, with 102 visually significant instances. The higher frequency of the /b/ phoneme (accounting for approximately 22% of occurrences) can be attributed to the inclusion of specific lexical items. For example, the protagonist's name, *Bella* was mentioned 100 times in close-up conversations, contributing to the frequent occurrence of the /b/ sound. Additionally, the conjunction *but* was consistently retained in the translated utterances, further contributing to the prominence of the /b/ phoneme. On the other hand, the least frequent phoneme was /p/, which occurred 259 times. Out of these occurrences, only 52 (approximately 20%) were included in the LS analysis. The presence of the /p/ phoneme was notable in lexical items such as *pit bull*, *property*, *puppy* and others.

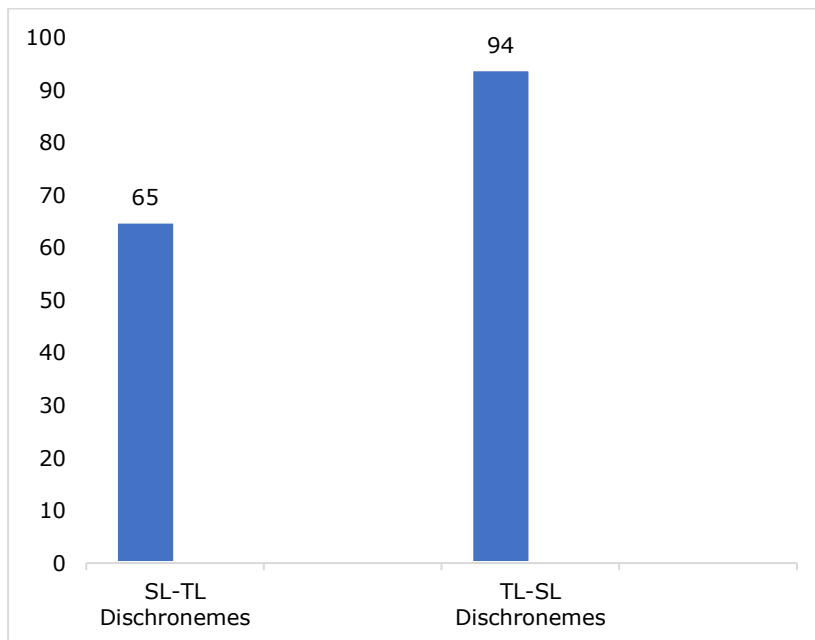
When considering all the bilabials chosen for further analysis, the findings indicate that LS was visually prominent in a mere 19% of the bilabial cases. This relatively low percentage serves as a valuable facilitator for translators during the process of dubbing, as it suggests that maintaining strict LS may not be a crucial factor in many instances.

To evaluate LS, a specific procedure was implemented. The first criterion for maintaining LS involved replacing English consonants with Lithuanian consonants from the fifth viseme category. For instance, the phoneme /b/ in the English word *body* /'bɒdi/ was substituted with the phoneme /m/ in the Lithuanian word *žmogus* /ʒmo:'gos/ (*human*). The second criterion focused on LS being preserved even when the TL utterances contained a single bilabial instead of two consecutive bilabials found in the SL utterances. For example, in the SL word *combined* /kəm'baɪnd/ from the utterance *Chuck, I get more complaints about you than all the other ACOs combined*, or the separate words *am pulling* /əm 'pʊlɪŋ/ from the utterance *I am pulling you out of the field*, the consecutive phonemes /m/ and /b/ or /m/ and /p/ serve as the coda and onset of two syllables, with the lips remaining close during their production. Hence, it is sufficient to render them as a single phoneme /b/ in the TL word *nebegali* /nɛ'be'gɑ:lɪ/ (*can't*) in the TL utterance *Čakai, dėl tavęs aš gaunu daugiausiai skundų ir ilgiau taip tęstis jau nebegali* (*Chuck, you are the reason I get the most complaints and it can't go on like this any longer*),

or a single phoneme /m/ in the word *nuimu* /'n̪u-imo/ (*taking off*) of the TL utterance *Aš nuimu tave nuo tarnybos* (*I'm taking you off duty*).

Figure 2

SL-TL and TL-SL Dischronemes



Based on the analysis of the TL utterances, it can be concluded that LS was maintained in approximately 76% of cases, with 65 dischronemes and 206 synchronemes identified out of the 271 visually prominent bilabial consonants. These findings suggest that the translators demonstrated adherence to the requirements of LS during the dubbing process. However, a significant observation arises from Figure 2, which alters the initial interpretation. It is evident that the TL utterances include 94 newly introduced TL bilabials that are absent in the SL utterances. This introduces two types of dischronemes: TT-ST and SL-TL dischronemes. The presence of these dischronemes results in a mismatch between the auditory and visual signals, potentially leading to negative implications for speech perception and the overall quality of the dubbing.

Specific Occurrences of Synchronemes and Dischronemes

Further analysis provides evidence regarding the translation of specific instances of synchronemes and dischronemes.

Table 2

Examples of Synchronemes of the Bilabials /p/, /b/ and /m/




No, facial view	Screenshot	Time code	SL utterance	TL utterance / Back translation	SL transcription	TL transcription	SL phoneme	TL phoneme	SL – TL Visemes
1. front		20.12	As you may know, pit bulls are illegal in the City of Denver.	Manau žinote, kad pitbuliai yra uždrausti Denveryje./ I think you know that pit bulls are banned in Denver.	'pit.bolz	'pitɔboljɛt	p	p	5-5
2. ¾		19.45	They do when our board member calls.	Jie gali, nes prašo tarybos narė./ They can because the councilwoman asks.	bod	'prɔ:fo:	b	p	5-5
3. front		10.57	My son isn't gonna back off, Mr. Beckenbauer .	Sūnus nesitrauks, pone Beckenbaueri ./ The son will not withdraw, Mr. Beckenbauer.	'mistə beken 'bauer	'pɔpiə bɛcɛp 'bɔ:ɔeri	m b	p b	5-5

Table 2 includes examples that meet the three criteria of satisfactory synchronisation. The first example does not raise any difficulties for translators due to phoneme correspondence in both languages. In the latter case the lip movements of the on-screen individual, an animal control officer, are matched with the articulation of two bilabial phonemes /p/ and /b/ by the voice actor, with

the SL word /*pɪt, bɒlz*/ *pit bulls* being replaced by the phonemes /*pi*/ and /*b*/ in the TL version *pitbuliai* /'pɪɫbɒliɛĩ/ (*pit bulls*). The visual articulation of the phoneme remains unchanged despite the palatalization of the SL phoneme /*pi*/. As well as in this case, a repetition technique is applied in dubbing when the SL and TL words are similar, as noted by Chaume (2012, p. 74). There are a lot of examples where LS was maintained in this film due to the repetition of proper names such as *Beckenbauer*, *Blanche*, *Basra*, *Molly*, *Millie*, *Mack* or the name of the dog *Bela*, which was repeated 100 times throughout the film. Also, LS of bilabial phonemes was preserved in a number of international words such as *information*, *biometric*, *racism*, *business*, *captain* and others. This type of translation, involving the repetition of SL words, is often viewed as appropriate and effective in maintaining LS, meaning and connotations of the original text.

Regarding isochrony, the SL utterance *As you may know, pit bulls are illegal in the City of Denver* consists of 17 syllables, while the TL version *Manau žinote, kad pitbuliai yra uždrausti Denveryje* (*I think you know that pit bulls are banned in Denver*) contains 18 syllables. To decrease the number of syllables in the TL and, most importantly, to avoid dischroneme with the bilabial /*m*/ at the onset of the first TL syllable, an alternative translation is proposed: *Turbūt žinote, pitbuliai yra uždrausti Denveryje* (*As you may know, pit bulls are banned in Denver*). While this suggested version is not the optimal translation, it does have the advantage of not starting the first syllable with the bilabial /*m*/, thus avoiding potential dischroneme and helping maintain better synchrony between the SL and TL utterances. Kinesic synchrony is maintained as the animal controller is depicted engaged in a conversation at the door and pointing towards the listeners while addressing Bela's owners.

In the second example provided in Table 2, it is evident that the bilabial phoneme /*b*/ in the SL word *board* /*bɔ:d*/ is successfully replaced by the phoneme of the fifth viseme /*p*/ in the TL word *prašo* /'pr̩:ʃo:/ (*asks*). Both of these phonemes occur at the beginning of the sixth syllable in the entire utterance and function as the onset of the syllables. Therefore, the visual representation of these phonemes is equally significant in comparison to the bilabials in the coda of the syllable.

The last utterance presented in Table 2 demonstrates examples of

synchronemes and dischronemes, illustrating cases where the SL utterance contains five bilabials, but only three of them are accurately preserved in the TL. The adaptation of the TL word *pone* /'pɔŋiɛ/ (*mister*) and the proper name *Bekenbaueri* /b'ɛcɛŋ' bā' ɔɛri/ (*Beckenbauer*) produces synchronemes with the bilabials /p/ and /b/. However, the initial bilabial in the SL utterance, represented by the consonant phoneme /m/ in *my* /mai/, becomes a dischroneme in the TL due to the presence of the consonant phoneme /s/ in the word *sūnus* /sū:' nʊs/ (*son*), assigned to the second viseme. Due to coarticulation the phoneme /u:/ strongly influences the visual expression of /s/, causing the word to start with rounded and protruded rather than closed lips.

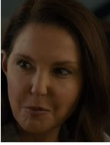


To achieve phonetic equivalence and maintain synchrony, a literal translation of the SL word *my* into the TL word *mano* /'māŋo:/ (*my*) would be sufficient. However, this modification would result in an increased number of syllables, specifically 14 syllables in the TL compared to 13 syllables in the SL. Nevertheless, this change aligns with the principles of isochrony as the visual expression of the final short syllable *ri* /ri/ in the TL remains unchanged and maintains the same lip position as the corresponding syllable *er* /ɛr/ in the SL.

Another improvement that could be made to maintain synchrony of the bilabial /b/ in the word *back* /bæk/ is to replace it with /p/ by adding a prefix *pa* /pə/ to the TL word *nesitrauks* /n'ɛs'i'trā' ɔ'ks/ (*will not withdraw*), resulting in the utterance *Mano sūnus nepasitrauks, pone Bekenbaueri* (*My son will not withdraw, Mr. Beckenbauer*). This modification would preserve the original meaning and enhance the natural flow of the conversation. However, it should be noted that the suggested alternative would result in a higher number of syllables in the TL, specifically 15 syllables. Therefore, the decision to implement this change would depend on the film director's judgment regarding the voice actor's ability to articulate the sounds at a faster pace.

If the dischroneme discussed above remains unchanged, it can be considered a minor mistake, as this is a long utterance and there are even five bilabials present, with one of them being close to the analysed phoneme /b/. Finally, it is challenging for viewers to detect dischronemes especially when there are several bilabials next to each other present and one is a case of a synchroneme.

Table 3

Instances of Dischronemes of the Bilabials /p/ and /b/

No, facial view	Screenshot	Time code	SL utterance	TL utterance/ Back translation	SL transcription	TL transcription	SL phoneme	TL phoneme	ST – TT Visemes
1. front		16.51	I'm gonna bring her again tomorrow.	Aš atsivesiu ją vėl rytoj./ I will bring her back tomorrow.	brɪŋ	'vɛɫ' rɪtɔj	b	vʲ	5-6
2. ¾		19.22	Property's certified. No cats.	Valdos patikrintos. Jokių kačių./ The holdings are checked. No cats.	'pɹɒpɚtɪz	'vɛldɔʃ	p	v	5-6
3. ¾		1.26.11	Wait.	Pala./ Wait.	weɪt	pə'ɫɛ	w	p	4-5

The first and second occurrences in Table 3 depict the pronunciation of the bilabial consonants /b/ and /p/ with closed lips, which are incongruent with the phonemes /vʲ/ and /v/ in the TL utterances, characterized by the lower lip touching the upper teeth and assigned to the sixth viseme. In close-up shots, translators aim to match an open or closed mouth with corresponding open vowels or bilabials in the translation; however, as Chaume suggests even in the more challenging case of bilabials, the consonants in the TL do not have to be identical to the SL consonants; for example, the bilabial /p/ can be replaced not only with the bilabials of the fifth viseme but also with labiodentals /f/ or /v/ belonging to the sixth viseme (Chaume 2012, p. 74). Having this in mind, the above-given examples can be treated as insignificant cases of dischrony since the difference in articulation between the two is rather minimal as compared to the visual difference in articulating open vowels and bilabials.

However, it is important to consider that the perception of dischronemes by viewers can vary depending on their position within the utterance and the overall length of the utterance. In the first example provided, involving the dischroneme /b/ – /vi/, it may not be immediately noticeable due to the bilabial being positioned in the middle of a nine-syllable TL utterance. The placement of the bilabial in this context makes it a less prominent and easily identifiable stimulus, making it challenging to perceive the onset of the syllable /vi/.

Nevertheless, to maintain satisfactory LS and meet the needs of the most attentive viewers, it is beneficial to substitute SL bilabial consonant /b/ in the word *bring* /brɪŋ/ from the utterance *I'm gonna bring her again tomorrow* with the TL bilabial /m/ in the word *pasiimti* /pɛ'si:miti/ from the TL utterance *Gal man pasiimti jà vėl rytoj?* (*Can i pick her up again tomorrow?*).

By making this substitution, the first dischroneme of the SL bilabial phoneme /m/ in *I'm* /aim/ is effectively avoided, as it is modified to the identical phoneme /m/ in the TL word *man* /'ma:n/ (*to me*). This alteration ensures better synchrony and enhances the overall quality of the dialogue for the audience.

The second example provided involves the bilabial consonant /p/ pronounced at the beginning of the SL utterance, making it easily visible and distinguishable from the substitute /v/ in the first TL syllable /ve/. The initial syllable's acoustic prominence and neural response are significant to viewers (Greenberg et al., 1997; Cutler, 2012). To ensure LS, the suggested translation focuses on preserving the syllable onset and retains the bilabial /p/ in the word *pastatas* /'pɑ:stɑ:təs/ (*building*) in the utterance *Pastatas patikrintas. Jokių kačių* (*The building is inspected. No cats*). However, both the original and suggested translations exceed the required eight syllables of the SL utterance. To address this, Chaume (2012, p. 91) suggests modifying "suffixes, prefixes, and shortening processes" when minor changes are required to achieve isochrony. Therefore, a version with eight syllables, such as *Pastatas tuščias. Kačių nėra* (*The building is empty. There are no cats*) can be proposed to meet the requirements of isochrony. This example illustrates that reducing vowels helps to minimise the number of syllables, particularly in the final words of an utterance.

The last example in Table 3 illustrates a case of bilabial translation,

which can be classified as a TL-SL dischroneme. In the SL utterances, there were no bilabial phonemes present, but they appeared in the TL utterances. Specifically, the translation of the word *wait* /weɪt/ was rendered as *palauk* /pɐ'ɦɑu:k/ or its reduced form *pala* /pɐ'ɦɐ/, reflecting the characteristic language style of Lithuanian dubbing known as *dubbese*. Throughout the film, these reduced forms of *palauk* (*wait*) were used 15 times in brief utterances consisting of one to three words, sometimes repeated twice.

However, this translation approach proves to be unsuccessful due to the lack of synchronization between the /w/ and /p/ phonemes. The consonant /w/ belongs to the fourth viseme, characterized by rounded and protruded sounds, which do not correspond with the closed lips position required for the /p/ sound.

This case is particularly noteworthy because the consonant phoneme /p/ occurs at the syllable onset, and the segment of the utterance is very short. To achieve synchronization, one suggestion is to employ alternatives such as *stok* /'stɔ:k/ or *sustok* /sɔs'tɔ:k/, both meaning *stop*, where the only dominating visual expression is in the position of the rounded and protruded lips, corresponding to the articulation of the vowel phoneme /o/ and a velar sonorant or labiovelar /w/. The articulation of other phonemes belonging to the second viseme remains invisible to the viewers.

Conclusions

The analysis of bilabial consonants in the live-action film *A Dog's Way Home* reveals several key findings. The research focused on the significance of LS in translation and identified specific episodes where translators must prioritize this type of synchrony. The close-up shots of the film were specifically chosen to limit the number of phonemes included in the analysis.

The analysis of bilabial phonemes (/m/, /b/, /p/) in the SL utterances showed that out of 1,419 identified phonemes, 271 visually prominent instances were selected for further examination of LS. The phoneme /m/ appeared most frequently (695 times), followed by /b/ (465 times) and /p/ (259 times). However, only a small percentage of these occurrences (approximately 19%) were visually prominent and considered for LS analysis.

This indicates that strict LS may not be crucial in many instances, providing flexibility for translators during the dubbing process.

The analysis of the TL utterances revealed that LS was maintained in approximately 76% of cases, with 65 dischronemes and 206 synchronemes identified out of the 271 visually prominent bilabial consonants. However, 94 newly introduced TL bilabials were absent in the SL utterances, resulting in dischronemes. This mismatch between auditory and visual signals may have negative implications for speech perception and the overall quality of the dubbing. Therefore, audiovisual translators are urged to consider not only how to maintain the lip synchrony of bilabial consonants in the target language, but also to avoid the emergence of new bilabial dischronemes.

Specific instances of synchronemes and dischronemes were examined. Repetition of proper names and international words contributed mostly to maintaining LS and meaning in translation.

In conclusion, while LS holds importance, strict adherence may not always be necessary. When considering synchronemes with bilabial onsets, preserving the LS of bilabials proves to be crucial for translators. Furthermore, it is not essential to maintain two bilabials in the TL utterances if the first bilabial serves as the coda and the second as the onset of the syllable, even if they belong to different words. Finally, dischrony involving bilabials becomes difficult to notice in situations such as long utterances with multiple bilabials, or dischronemes occurring in the middle of a lengthy expression.

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**ABILŪPINIŲ PRIEBALSIŲ LŪPŲ SINCHRONIJA LIETUVIŠKAI
DUBLIUOTO FILMO *BELOS KELIONĖ NAMO* VERTIME**

Anotacija. Šiame straipsnyje nagrinėjama sudėtinga lūpų sinchronijos problema dubliuojant – vienoje iš audiovizualinio vertimo modų, pabrėžiant ne tik estetinę lūpų sinchronijos svarbą, bet dažnai ir nepakankamai įvertinamą nesinchronizuotų lūpų judesių daromą neigiamą įtaką kalbos suvokimui. Šio sinchronijos tipo aktualumas visame pasaulyje didėja augant audiovizualinio turinio kiekiui. Audiovizualinio vertimo teoretikai seniai pripažįsta abilūpinių priebalsių svarbą lūpų sinchronijai (Fodor, 1976; Chaume 2012), vis dėlto išsamiai šį aspektą analizuojančių tyrimų Lietuvoje neatlikta. Siekiant užpildyti šią spragą, tyrime nagrinėjama abilūpinių priebalsių lūpų sinchronija lietuviškai dubliuotoje vaidybinio filmo *Belos kelionė namo* (2019) versijoje. Taikant lyginamąjį tyrimo metodą, atliktos kokybinė ir kiekybinė analizės, kuriose remiamasi H. McGurk ir J. MacDonald (1976), I. Fodor (1976), F. Chaume (2004, 2012) ir I. Koverienės (2015) teorinėmis prielaidomis. Kinematografinių planų tyrimas atskleidė, kad tik nedidelė dalis (19 proc.) abilūpinių priebalsių buvo svarbūs tolesnei lūpų sinchronijos analizei vertimo kalboje (tai reiškia, kad vertėjams suteikiama didesnė laisvė dubliuojant) ir lūpų sinchronija nėra būtina daugumoje iš nagrinėtų abilūpinių priebalsių atvejų. Nustatyta, kad iš visų vizualiai svarbių abilūpinių priebalsių lūpų sinchronija vertimo kalboje buvo išlaikyta net 76 proc. nagrinėjamų garsų, sėkmingiausiai sinchronizuojant abilūpinius priebalsius tikriniuose daiktavardžiuose ir tarptautiniuose žodžiuose. Ypač svarbu išlaikyti abilūpinių priebalsių lūpų sinchroniją trumpuose pasakymuose ir skiemens pratarė. Tačiau tyrimo rezultatai atskleidė ir tai, kad vertimo kalboje buvo panaudoti net 94 abilūpiniai garsai, kurių originalo kalboje nebuvo. Todėl audiovizualinio turinio vertėjai raginami atsižvelgti ne tik į tai, kaip vertimo kalboje išlaikyti originalo kalbos pasakymų abilūpinius priebalsius, bet ir atsakingiau vertinti vertimo kalbos pasirinkimus siekiant išvengti naujai atsirandančių abilūpinių priebalsių.

Pagrindinės sąvokos: audiovizualinis vertimas; abilūpiniai priebalsiai; dischronema; dubliavimas; lūpų sinchronija; vizema.

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LITERATŪROS ŠARAŠAS

PAVYZDŽIAI (prašome laikytis APA 7-ojo leidimo reikalavimų)

Knygos

Ramonienė, M., & Pribušauskaitė, J. (2008). *Praktinė lietuvių kalbos gramatika*. 2 papildytas leidimas. Baltos lankos.

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Straipsniai žurnaluose

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Straipsnis su priskirtu DOI:

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Straipsnis be DOI:

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REFERENCES

EXAMPLE ENTRIES (please follow the requirements of APA 7th Edition)

Books

Aronin L., & Singleton, D. M. (2012). *Multilingualism*. John Benjamins Publishing.

Chapters of a Book

Wilson, D., & Sperber, D. (2004). Relevance theory. In L. R. Horn, & G. Ward (Eds.), *The Handbook of Pragmatics* (pp. 607–632). Blackwell.

Articles in printed journals

Harlow, H. F. (1983). Fundamentals for preparing psychology journal articles. *Journal of Comparative and Physiological Psychology*, *55*, 893–896.

Electronic articles with DOI assigned

Otwinowska, A., & De Angelis, G. (2012). Introduction: Social and affective factors in multilingualism research. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, *9*(4), 347–351. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14790718.2012.714379>

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Prince, P. (2012). Towards an instructional programme for L2 vocabulary: Can a story help? *Language Learning & Technology*, *16*, 103–120. <http://llt.msu.edu/issues/october2012/prince.pdf>

The establishment of the journal was initiated and supported by the science cluster "Research in Plurilingual Competence Development" H-08-09 of the Institute of Foreign Languages, Vytautas Magnus University

The main scientific research fields of the cluster are as follows:

- research on plurilingualism and multilingualism as cultural phenomena and educational objects from linguistic, sociolinguistic, discourse, pragmatic and intercultural points of view,
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